

Theory and Practice in Language Studies

ISSN 1799-2591

Volume 5, Number 10, October 2015

Contents

REGULAR PAPERS

- Opponent's Disqualification Strategy in Political Discourse 1977
Kristina Adeishvili
- Investigating Multimedia Strategies to Aid L2 Listening Comprehension in EFL Environment 1983
Abdullah Saad Aldera
- The Dilemma of Arabicization in the Arab World: Problems and Solutions 1989
Muna Alhaj-Saleh Salama Al-Ajrami
- Humor Translation in Persian Subtitled Comedy Movies into English: A Case Study of 'Lizard' 1995
Hamid Reza Sadeghpour and Hasuria Che Omar
- Politeness in Arabic Culture 2005
Abdullah Yaqub Samarah
- Contrastive Analysis of Politeness in Jordanian Arabic and Turkish 2017
Ibrahim Mohammad Abushihab
- Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Accuracy and Retention of Conditional Sentences Types I, II & III 2023
Tayebbe Sadat, Abdolvahed Zarifi, Abdolmohammad Sadat, and Janmohamad Malekzadeh
- Does Emotional Intelligence Have Anything to Do with Risk-taking among Iranian EFL Learners? 2029
Mohammad Reza Ebrahimi and Nahid Yarahmadzahi
- Female Body in the Postmodern Science Fiction 2037
Ying Liang
- The Effect of Written Corrective Feedback on Writing Accuracy of Intermediate Learners 2046
Maryam Shafiee Sarvestani and Kian Pishkar
- EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy: Effects of Direct and Metalinguistic Electronic Feedback 2053
Zahra Kheradmand Saadi and Mahboobeh Saadat
- Research on Negative Construction of "One Quantifier N" in International Chinese Teaching 2064
Zhengling Fu and Canzhong Jiang
- An Exploration of High School Teachers' Evaluation of Seventh and Eighth Grade English Textbooks 2070
Soodabeh Beydokhtinezhad, Maryam Azarnoosh, and Seyed Jalal Abdolmanafi-Rokni
-

On Tragic Heroes: A Comparative Study of <i>Hamlet</i> and <i>The Orphan of Chao</i> <i>Junqing Liang</i>	2076
Differential Potential of SLA Output Tasks versus Input-based Teaching of English Grammar: A Comparative Study <i>Mehraban Hamavandy and Mohammad Golshan</i>	2083
A Complementary Perspective of Conceptual Blending Theory and Relevance Theory on Metaphor Interpretation <i>Junhong Ren and Yan Li</i>	2091
Mixed Approach in Syntax: Evidence from Persian <i>Hengameh Vaezi</i>	2097
Quantitative Analysis of the Speech of the Teachers and Students in High School English Classroom—Based on Information Technology-based Interaction Analysis System <i>Wei Wang and Meizhu Han</i>	2107
The Interference of First Language and Second Language Acquisition <i>Ali Derakhshan and Elham Karimi</i>	2112
Comparative Study on the Appraisal Resources of <i>China Daily</i> 's Disaster News <i>Xiaolin Zhang</i>	2118
An Investigation into Rohani's Meeting Coverage in Two English Daily Newspapers with a Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective: Tehran Times vs. Los Angeles Times <i>Zohre Sivandi Nasab and Hamid Reza Dowlatabadi</i>	2131
Impacts of Chunks Input on Chinese English Major Students' Oral Production <i>Lihua Shen</i>	2138
Kiarostami's <i>Through the Olive Tree</i> : A Postmodern Analysis <i>Esmail Zohdi and Mohammad Hussein Oroskhan</i>	2144
Cultivation of Foreign Language Talents Viewed from the Perspective of Educational Ecology <i>Yanmei Liu</i>	2150
Essay Writing Errors of Iranian EFL Learners at Under-graduate Level: A Case Study of Medical Learners <i>Marzieh Marzoughi and Batool Ghanbari</i>	2157
A Brief Study on the Symbolic Meaning of the Main Characters' Name in <i>The Scarlet Letter</i> <i>Nan Lei</i>	2164
Analogy and Some Case Studies in the Historical Study of Iranian Languages: With Emphasis on Persian <i>Mousa Mahmoudzahi</i>	2169
Teaching Strategies of Enhancing Motivation among Ethnic Minority Students <i>Lili Zhao</i>	2176

Opponent's Disqualification Strategy in Political Discourse

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Abstract—In this work we've studied the peculiarities of use of the opponent's disqualification strategy in the French and Georgian pre-election political discourse and also we've analyzed how much the difference between the countries in terms of the levels of development (France as the developed democratic country and Georgia as the developing, post soviet country) defines the specificity of the above strategy. We studied the discourses said by the French politicians, Nicolas Sarkozy and Francois Hollande, and the Georgian politicians Mikheil Saakashvili and Bidzina Ivanishvili in 2012. The study was based on the argumentative, contrast and interdisciplinary methods. The analysis results showed that the approach of the French politicians to the opposition is much more balanced in the French discourse and is limited by light allegations compared with the Georgian one, while the heavy allegations are heard in the Georgian discourse in respect to the opponent that is stipulated by still undeveloped democratic institutions in the country.

Index Terms—opponent's disqualification strategy, political discourse, elections

I. INTRODUCTION

Our research aims to study the opponent's disqualification strategy in the pre-election political discourse based on the materials of the French and Georgian languages. At the same time we'll try to study how much the levels of the different development of two countries, one of which is developed, democratic state and the second one is developing, post soviet country, define the specificity of use of the above strategy.

Our researched frame is made of the discourses said by the leading politicians in front of the wide audience during the pre-election campaign. The analysis of the discourses made in such institutional environment is very interesting for the objectives of our study from the point of view that the pre-election discourse has the sharp polemic nature where the decisive importance is attached to the opponent's disqualification. In the speech addressing to the electorate the politician should be able to convince a large number of voters in his/her advantage over the opposing candidates and their wooing the final goal of which is to earn the majority of votes. As we know the politicians' professional career depends on the election results expressing the will of the electorate in the democratic world.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The definitions of wider or narrower sense on the political discourse are mainly distinguished in the modern science.

In his article "Arguments and political discourse" Ruth Amossy (2010) provides a definition worked out by Roland Barthes where political discourse is defined in a strict sense: "Political discourse is the discourse of the politicians by which they fulfill their professional duties" (p. 14). In the broad sense any discourse is political if it concerns a public organization (Bonnafous, 2003). Considering the political discourse both in broad and narrow sense, Amossy (2010) explains "The horizon of the subject of the political discourse begins from the politicians' professional discourses and applies to any discourse concerning the social issues in the public sphere" (p. 14).

There is no doubt that the political discourse is a type of discourse which is explicitly, sharply argumentative.

Buffon (2002) believes that the frame of the political argumentation is the audience and limited discourse. The scientist divides the politician's audience in a threefold way: the electorate, the opposition, the supporters. The politician by his/her discourse should be able to keep his supporters, to disqualify the opponents and to convince the electorate in the relevance of his/her actions.

Specifically pre-election discourses are targeted for action on the numerous individuals differing from each other by age, gender, psychology, religion, profession. The politician should be able to convene such numerous and diverse audience and it is very difficult to achieve this. Studying the opponents' disqualification strategies Charaudeau (2005) notes that "The politicians should nullify the opponent's opinion by the method to prove the weakness and danger of his/her ideas by the effective arguments" (p. 71), but due to the fact that such arguments may be understood with difficulty by broad masses, therefore in politics one often applies to the argument *ad hominem*, which is directed not to the disqualification of the ideas of the opposing representative but to the disqualification of his/her personality. To produce both types of argumentation in discourse a politician uses different linguistic resources, such as e.g. presupposition, connotation, reading, stylistic means, etc.

III. STUDY METHODS

We have selected and compared with each other the below political discourses as the researched material:

1. The discourse said by Nicolas Sarkozy, the French President and simultaneously the presidential candidate for a second term, during the pre-election campaign of 2012 and the discourse said by the Georgian President Mikheil Saakashvili during the parliamentary pre-election campaign of 2012.

2. The discourse said by the French opposing candidate Francois Hollande during the pre-election campaign and the discourse said by the Leader of the Georgian opposition Bidzina Ivanishvili during the parliamentary pre-election campaign of 2012.

At the first stage of the research we separately analyzed the discourses of the French and Georgian politician by the argumentative approach. At the second stage of the research we studied the distinct similarities and differences between the French and Georgian discourses based on the comparative methodology. At the third stage of research based on the interdisciplinary methodology we outlined the deferent levels of impact of the development of two countries on the specification of use of the opponent's disqualification strategy in the political discourse.

IV. RESEARCH RESULTS

According to the research results the different strategies were identified in relation to the opponent in the French and Georgian politicians' discourses.

At the beginning of his discourse Sarkozy directly mentions his rival – Hollande and criticizes him quite sharply, as well he uses against him the argument type *ad hominem*. Sarkozy characterizes the opposition with the metaphors such as e.g.: mentors, deceitful, hypocrite. He often assesses the opponent's actions as a shame.

Examples:

Vous avez raison, les déclarations de ce monsieur sont une honte, c'est une honte et c'est une honte notamment sur nos compatriotes musulmans qui méritent mieux que d'avoir un homme qui parle si mal de leur culture, de leur religion et de ce qu'ils sont.

"You are right, the statements of this mister is a shame, and it is a shame especially before the compatriot Muslims deserving more than the one who speaks so badly about their culture, religion, and about them in general."

Donneurs de le çon, tartuffes, hypocrites, je suis venu leur dire une chose : vous ne nous ferez pas taire, parce que le peuple de France est un peuple libre et qu'il n'acceptera pas la mainmise de votre pensée unique sur cette campagne électorale.

"Mentors, deceitful, hypocrite, I've come here to tell them one thing: you cannot silence us because French people are free people, and they will not be under the influence of your subjective judgment in this election campaign."

For the purpose of making the opponents inefficiency and political disabilities more convincing Sarkozy quotes their words and based on the criticism of their quotations he tries to increase the negative perception in the society against the opposition. Sarkozy speaks with mocking tone about Melenchon who himself was one of the presidential candidate in the first round and in the second round he took the left-wing position.

Example:

Le premier tour a été écrit comme une poussée de la gauche extraordinaire, avec un

Génie, un homme très raisonnable qu'on a envie d'avoir comme voisin, monsieur MELENCHON dérivant Cuba comme une démocratie et Fidel CASTRO comme un démocrate.

"In the first round the left-wing moved forward together with a genius, a very intelligent person whom one would like to see as his neighbor – Mr. MELENCHON who calls Cuba the democracy and Fidel Castro calls democrat."

Sarkozy pays quite great attention to the discredit of other politicians supporting Hollande. Before the voters he tries to place the French politician - Strauss-Kahn's name on the first place. The latter was suspected in numerous known cases, e.g. he was charged with sexual assault. Sarkozy recalls the scandalous cases with participation of Strauss-Kahn's name.

Example:

Quand je pense que pendant tous les épisodes scandaleux, honteux de New York, de Lille, du Carlton, du Pas-de-Calais, ce fut l'honneur de la droite républicaine et du centre de ne pas s'en mêler, de ne pas utiliser, de se boucher le nez, de ne pas commenter, parce que commenter ces indignités c'était en recevoir un peu. Mais qu'en pleine campagne électorale, à une semaine du premier tour, monsieur STRAUSS-KAHN venant donner des le çons de morale et indiquer que je suis le seul responsable de tout ce qui lui est arrivé, trop c'est trop.

"When I think that – the dignity of the Republican right-wing and the centrists was the fact that they did not participate, kept silent, did not expressed their opinion during all scandalous, shameful episodes - New York, Lille, Carleton, Pas de Calais, because the expression of the opinion about this dishonor would be its sharing. But when in the middle of the election campaign within one month after the first round Mr. STRAUSS-KAHN comes, points a moral and says that I am the only one responsible for what he has done, it is too much, it's too much."

Sarkozy wants to present himself as an innocent of the left-wing's allegations before the audience and to gain the electorate's sympathy. He shows the audience that the opposition compares him with the people having the worst reputation, such as the France's traitors – Petain, Laval, known swindler MADOFF.

Example:

Qu'est-ce que je devrai penser moi quand madame AUBRY me compare à MADOFF, J'attends toujours les excuses de madame AUBRY et de monsieur HOLLANDE. Quand dans une réunion où monsieur HOLLANDE se trouve, l'un de ses partisans me compare à FRANCO, j'attends toujours les excuses de monsieur HOLLANDE. Quand le journal communiste, les communistes qui soutiennent monsieur HOLLANDE, me compare à PETAIN, j'attends toujours les excuses de monsieur HOLLANDE. Quand son ami MELENCHON, parce que vous avez les amis de la dernière minute sont toujours les amis les plus empressés, me compare à LAVAL, dois-je considérer, dois-je attendre longtemps les excuses de monsieur HOLLANDE ? Mais je vais vous dire une chose, ce n'est pas moi qui suis en cause, j'ai l'habitude de leurs injures, c'est tous les Français qui ont voté pour moi au premier tour et qui se sentent insultés par le sectarisme, la haine, le mensonge, la calomnie, l'injure de tous ces donneurs de leçons.

“What do I think when Mrs. AUBRY compares me with MADOFF, I'm still waiting for an apology from Mrs. AUBRY and Mr. HOLLANDE. When at one of the meetings attended by Mr. Hollande one of his supporters compares me with FRANCO I'm still waiting for an apology from Mr. HOLLANDE. When the communist newspaper, communists having been Hollande's supporters compare me with PETAIN I'm still waiting for an apology from Mr. HOLLANDE. When his friend, MELENCHON who became his friend the last minute and now being the cordial friend compares me with LAVAL should I wait for an apologize from Mr. HOLLANDE for a long time? But I'll tell you one thing, the conversation is not about me, I've got used to be abused from them who voted for me in the first round and who feels themselves abused by the mentors intolerance, hatred, lies, charges, injustice.”

SARKOZY introduces to the population of the country the specific facts showing that Hollande is politically passive and inert, his political views are not well defined. Doing this Sarkozy is trying to make the population to lost the confidence to Hollande, as a reliable, experienced politician.

Examples:

Figurez-vous que lorsque j'ai proposé ce texte, que des parlementaires ont voté courageusement, le candidat François HOLLANDE n'a pas dit oui, il n'a pas dit non, il n'a pas participé au vote.

“Imagine when I introduced this text which was freely voted by the parliamentarians, the candidate Francois Hollande said neither yes nor no, he did not participate in the voting.”

Le journaliste David PUJADAS lui a posé une question : J'ai une question à vous poser, répondez simplement, y a-t-il trop d'étrangers en France, ou pas assez ? Cinq reprises, il a refusé. Dois-je considérer que celui qui prétend vouloir être président de la République n'a donc, à moins d'une semaine, un peu plus d'une semaine, du 6 mai, aucune idée sur ce que devra être la politique migratoire qu'il conduira dans les cinq ans s'il était élu ? Aucune ?

“The journalist David PUJADAS asked him one question: I have one question for you, answer me simply, in France are there too many foreigners or few? The question was repeated 5 times, he did not answer. It turns out that a person claiming to the presidency of the republic, just a week before May 6, or even more than a week before, do not have any opinion about what should be the immigration policy which he will pursue for 5 years if elected? None?”

The opponents discredit strategy is very interesting in Saakashvili's discourse. If Sarkozy actually repeats and criticizes the surname of the rival politician in his discourse, Saakashvili, contrary, does not even mention his main opponent – Ivanishvili - in the elections. At the same time he rarely directly names the members of Ivanishvili's team. In his discourse we can find the surname of Tamazashvili, the representative of the opposing team only twice in negative context.

Example:

თუ გსურთ, რომ ეკა ზღულაძე, გიორგი ტუღუში, ვანო მერაბიშვილი, ზურაბ ადეიშვილი ჩანაცვლოს ვინმე კრიმინალმა თამაზაშვილმა, რომელიც კავშირში იყო

ბევრ დანაშაულთან, მათ შორის, იმ დანაშაულთან, რომლის ჩადენა ჩვენი დაუდევრობით და ჩვენი უწყებების ცუდი მუშაობის შედეგად გახდა შესაძლებელი?

ვინ უფრო დაიცავს თქვენს უფლებებს? ტუღუში, ზღულაძე თუ თამაზაშვილი?

“Do you want Eka Zguladze, Giorgi Tugushi, Vano Merabishvili, Zurab Adeishvili to be replaced by someone criminal Tamazashvili who was associated with many crimes, including the crime the committing of which became possible due to our negligence and bad work of our institutions? Who will protect you rights better? Tugushi, Zguladze or Tamazashvili?”

The opposition discredit strategy chosen by Saakashvili is as follows: the government's pre-elective campaign served to present to the society the Saakashvili's main opponent – Ivanishvili – as a person conducting pro-Russian orientation and Russian interests. So as the leader of the opposition is associated with Russia Saakashvili, in his discourse, expresses the opponent's disqualification strategy with the sharp criticism in respect to Russia. The President of Georgia presents the Russian policy towards Georgia as a maximum dangerous, with metaphors, recalls the unfavorable situations from the past having the negative attitude of the population towards Russia, considers the people wishing his defeat as pursuers of the Russian policy and charges the opposition for hampering of the countries security, country's development.

Saakashvili has chosen this strategy for the reason that Ivanishvili's identity before entering politics was associated in the society with a number of charities due to which at that time the negative mention of his name would invite

aggression in a lot of Georgians. Therefore Saakashvili prefers to blame and criticize Russia explicitly which implicitly means Ivanishvili's criticism, but in a way which does not offend quiet a large part of population.

Examples:

ჩვენ ძალიან კარგად ვიცით რა ხდება, არც ერთი არ ვართ ბრმა და კარგად ვიცით, რომ ძალიან დიდი რაოდენობის რუსული ფული იხარჯება ამისთვის, რუსულ მეთოდებს იყენებენ, კომპრომატების ომითაა შემოსული საქართველოში.

“We know very well what is happening, none of us are blind and we know very well that great amount of Russian money is spent for this, they use Russian methods, entered Georgia with sleaze war.”

იმ პირობებში, როდესაც შემოსულია რუსული ფული, რუსული კომპრომატების ომი, რუსული მეთოდები, რუსეთის არმია აურაცხელი რაოდენობით დგას ჩვენს საზღვრებთან და ატარებს ძალიან საშიშ მანევრებს; იმ პირობებში, როდესაც ჩვენი ტერიტორიის ოკუპანტს მტკიცედ აქვს გადაწყვეტილი, 2008 წელს ვერდამთავრებული საქმის ბოლომდე მიყვანა, რა თქმა უნდა, სურს ამ არჩევნების გამოყენება.

“Under the conditions when Russian money is entered Georgia the Russian sleaze war, Russian methods, countless Russian army stands at our borders and conducts very dangerous maneuvers; Under the conditions when the occupant of our territory determined to finish the job uncompleted in 2008, of course desires to use this election.”

მათ უნდათ, რომ ამ არჩევნებმა საქართველო დააბრუნოს იქ, მოუსვლელოში, საიდანაც ჩვენ ყველანი ვცდილობთ გაქცევას.

“They want by means of this election to return Georgia there, nowhere, from where we're all trying to escape.”

ძალიან კარგად ვიცი, რომ ორგანიზებული დანაშაული საქართველოს წარსულში დაბრუნებას ცდილობს.

“I know very well that organized crime tries to get Georgia back to the past.”

გავაკეთებთ ასევე ყველაფერს იმისთვის, რომ ჩვენს ხალხს სრული ინფორმაცია ჰქონდეს იმის თაობაზე, თუ რა შეთქმულებებს აწყობდნენ და რა მეთოდებით აპირებენ საქართველოს რელსებიდან გადაყვანას და ისევ ჩიხში შეყვანას.

“Also we'll do everything to ensure that our people have the full information about what kind of conspiracy they make and what methods they are going to put Georgia off the rails and to lead it into deadlock again.”

Thus if Sarkozy conducts his argumentative strategy against his rival explicitly, in his discourse Saakashvili criticizes the opposition indirectly.

It should be noted that unlike Sarkozy, Hollande, in his discourse, does not directly mention the opponent's name but he always refers to him as the outgoing candidate emphasizing the end of his presidential term of the incumbent president. Hollande blames his rival for failing to fulfill promises and for disrespect of the truth. To prove the reliability of his blames against the president of the country he refers to the specific numerical data relating to the unemployment.

Examples:

Il avait promis — il en a tant dit — que le chômage devrait être ramené à 5 % de la population active. Eh bien c'est venu, ça arrive, ça vient ! Le chômage est à 10 % de la population active, 23 % pour les jeunes, 35 % dans un certain nombre de quartiers, 40 % en Outremer!

“He promised, talked so much about the fact that unemployment rate of active population would be reduced to 5 percent. And now it has happened, is happening, the unemployment rate of the active population is 10%, of young people - 23%, in some areas - 35%, in the oversea department - 40%.”

Mais quand on est président de la République encore pour sept jours — sept jours! -, le premier devoir, c'est de respecter la vérité. La campagne du candidat sortant, finalement, est le reflet de ce qu'il a été comme président.

“But when you are the President of the Republic still 7 days, 7 days! The first responsibility is to respect the truth. The outgoing candidate's campaign is the final reflection of what he was as a president.”

In his discourse Ivanishvili shows very negative attitude towards the incumbent president. He criticizes sharply both the Saakashvili's team and directly the President of the country. And in the discourse said during the same pre-election campaign Saakashvili completely avoids to mention the specific opponent as we have seen.

Ivanishvili blames the government for a number of grave and violent crimes: people's beatings, torture, abuse, violence, deprivation of life, attempt of mutual confrontation of the population of their own country, desire to fraud elections, unlawful arrest, enslaving the citizens.

Ivanishvili calls the law enforcement authorities being under the jurisdiction of the government and carrying out its criminal orders as executioners, violent divisions.

Examples:

სამაგიეროდ, ყველა ხერხით აყალბებდნენ ყველა არჩევნებს თავის სასარგებლოდ და ამით გზას უხსნიდნენ ჯალათებს ადამიანების საწამებლად.

“However they falsified the elections in their favor by all means and thus opened the way for people's torture by the executioners.”

ესენი წლების განმავლობაში სწორედ ამ სისტემას ამენებდნენ, ამენებდნენ გირგვლიანი გაიხსენეთ, რობაქიძე გაიხსენეთ, ვაზაგაშვილი გაიხსენეთ, გამცემლიძე გაიხსენეთ, გაიხსენეთ ქუჩებში დახვრეტილი

ბიჭები, გაიხსენეთ სილატაკეში ჩავარდნილი ავადმყოფი მოხუცები და ბავშვები, რომლებსაც უფულობის გამო მკურნალობა არ უწერიათ და სასიკვდილოდ არიან განწირული! გაიხსენეთ აგვისტოს იმში ამ ხელისუფლების უუნარობისა და ლაჩრობის გამო დაღუპული ასობით ჯარისკაცი და პირდაპირ ბედის ანაბარა მტერს შეტოვებული ჩვენი უმწეო მოსახლეობა.

“These people have been building and building this system for years. Remember Girgvliani, remember Robakidze, remember Vazagashvili, remember Gamtsemlidze, remember guys shot in the streets, remember ill elderly and children in the poverty who are not able to be treated due to the lack of money and are doomed to death! Remember hundreds of soldiers died due to the disability and cowardice of the government and our poor people left for the whim of the fate in the war of August.”

ნათლად ვხედავთ სააკაშვილის ბოროტ განზრახვას, რომ ძალაუფლების შესანარჩუნებლად როგორმე ორად გაყოს ხალხი და სამკვდრო-სასიცოცხლოდ გადაჰკიდოს ერთმანეთს ადამიანები, თავისი მომხრეები და მოწინააღმდეგეები.

“We can clearly see Saakashvili’s evil intents to divide the people into two parts and to create hostility among people, between his supporters and opponents in order to maintain power.”

Considering the fact that the democratic West is the most important public image and model for the Georgian people the leader of the opposition highlights their loss of trust in Saaklashvili.

Examples:

იმისათვის, რომ ადამიანებს დასაჭერად საბაზი გამოუნახონ, ნარკოტიკს უგდებენ უტიფრად ან რაიმე სხვა შარს მოსდებენ ხოლმე, რადგან არ აწყობთ ჰყავდეთ პოლიტიკური პატიმრები დასავლეთის დასანახად. ესენი ხომ დემოკრატიზაციას თამაშობენ, მაგრამ მათი უკვე აღარც დასავლეთს სჯერა.

“In order to find the reason for arresting the people they put drugs in the people’s pockets or find other faults because it is not convenient to have political prisoners who may be seen by the West. They are playing democracy but even the West believes them no longer.”

ახლა მაინც ხომ საბოლოოდ დაინახავს დემოკრატიული დასავლეთი, თუ რას წარმოადგენს სააკაშვილი, აქაური „დემოკრატიის შუქურა“.

“Least now the democratic West will see what is Saakashvili, the local “Beacon of democracy”.

As we can see in their discourses both-languages opposing politicians pay great attention to the neutralization of the opponent. Although Hollande’s allegations compared with the allegations of the Georgian politician are much less brutal in respect to the opponent politician.

V. CONCLUSION

Thus the difference outlined as a result of the comparative analysis of the Georgian and French political discourses relating to the opponents’ disqualification strategy and where it is clearly shown the different levels of development of France and Georgia comprises from the fact that the French politicians’ approach towards the opposition is much more balanced. It is neutralized against light allegations, basically it is an avoidance the duties, incompetence, failure to fulfill promises, baseless accusations against each other, disrespect of the truth when in the Georgian discourse there are a lot of sharpest allegations and threats in respect to the opposition. Georgian politicians are accusing each other directly or indirectly for criminal offenses, violence, oppression, support in enslavement of the country to the enemy, intensiveness, etc. The above difference in respect to the opponent is stipulated by the fact that the democratic institutions have not been yet finally established in Georgia.

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Investigating Multimedia Strategies to Aid L2 Listening Comprehension in EFL Environment

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Abstract—Arab learners may experience a great difficulty in attending to listening comprehension activities due to different chunks of the target language they are engaged in. As such, learners should be informed as to what is the best technique that helped them overcome this difficulty. This paper attempts to investigate the efficacy of using visual multimedia technique (i.e., video mode + text) in multimedia language settings to aid L2 listening comprehension. Sixty adult students watched video conversations provided with texts plus animation for 10 modules, while the control group listened to the same material delivered by audio tracks for the same period of time. The students were post-tested immediately after treatment and retested after delayed point of time. The students' perceptions towards the use of multimedia modes were gathered using a survey. The quantitative results showed a significant effect of visual stimulus over the auditory mode in gaining L2 listening comprehension. Limitations and directions for future research are summarized in this study.

Index Terms—multimedia, video, audio, listening, comprehension, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is one of the hardest skills that English as a foreign language (EFL) students encounter during processing L2 comprehension due to different chunks of the target language such as variety of pitch, intonation, stress, and different vocabulary. Furthermore, learners lack authentic listening materials that induce them to get involved in listening comprehension activities which enable them to comprehend and interact with many interlocutors. The advent of multimedia technology helps learners to introduce authentic materials and to present learning with different formats which help learners integrate visual materials with auditory input to facilitate L2 listening comprehension. Despite these potentials, listening is still the least researched skill in the field of applied linguistics and language learning and teaching (Vandergrift, 2007). Therefore, this paper attempts to extend upon few research conducted in the area of computer assisted language learning (CALL) to investigate the efficacy of different multimedia modes on gaining L2 listening comprehension in an EFL environment.

Background

The appearance of multimedia to computer technology has induced practitioners to employ it to teach L2 listening comprehension. The efficiency and accessibility of multimedia has encouraged teachers to utilize it to aid students' comprehension. Additionally, the improvement of multimedia technology has enabled program designers to visualize the spoken text and segment the video clips to make the spoken text not only audible but also readable. Multimedia has also helped practitioners to visualize learning materials that make learners watch and listen to the input they are involved in (Aldera & Mohsen, 2013). Research has found that learning with pictures and words is more efficient than to learn with words only (Mayer, 2005). This leads to what Mayer names it as "multimedia principle". According to Mayer (2005), multimedia can be defined a set of external representations using multiple forms of coding (e.g., text and pictures) and/or modality (e.g., visual and auditory) to inform (e.g., in education and/or training), and/or to entertain (e.g., in art and theater) an audience (cf. Gerjets and Kirschner, 2005). Multimedia can also be defined as "the computer-delivered combination of a large range of communications elements-text, sound, graphics, pictures, photographs, animation and moving video" (Brett, 1998, p. 183). Language learning is concerned with the development of communication skills and has traditionally and creatively exploited all these communications elements. Each element has its own particular advantages in conveying particular kinds of messages and evoking particular kinds of learner responses. Essentially, "the ability of the single source, the computer, to combine, link and orchestrate all these communications elements means we have a multimedia message which is most probably greater than the sum of its individual parts" (Brett, 1998, p. 183).

Use of Multimedia in Listening Comprehension

The advent of multimedia to computer technology in the present age has encouraged applied linguists to adopt it to the field of language learning and teaching. In the 1980s, listening comprehension was restricted to aural mode delivered by a computer. In the beginning of 1990s, multimedia has been added to computer and then several pedagogical software have been developed. In the beginning of new millennium, the YouTube was created and it began to develop gradually in terms of size and quality. In the current age, multimedia become efficient and accessible to learners to consult pedagogical materials online and be exposed to variety of media accompanied several techniques

like captions, subtitles, glosses, and online dictionaries. Multimedia has taken a variety of forms in terms of teaching listening, the following are some examples:

(1) Advance Organizer (AO)

The advance organizer (AO) refers to an activity carried out prior to learning, for example, a preview of video regarding a relevant topic or vocabulary discussion, which aims to help learners organize their ideas and build a previous knowledge to a newly one. AO was proposed by Ausbel (1961) to help learners link between what is unfamiliar to what is already known to them. AO or sometimes called as previewing stage may include; pictorial context, verbal description, and cultural background cues (Chung, 2002). The researchers have examined the feasibility of different techniques on aiding listening comprehension. The results revealed that the superiority of visual aids (video+ picture) on facilitating listening comprehension

Chung (2002) examined the effects of two AOs-questions previewing and vocabulary previewing- on Taiwanese' EFL listening comprehension. The result showed that students who were exposed to both AOs outperformed students received single AO or zero AO. In another study, Chung and Huang (1998) investigated three AOs on L2 students' comprehension of L2 videotaped material. The AOs that were used in their study were; main character, vocabulary and main character, and vocabulary alone. The results revealed the outperformance of students who received combined AOs, vocabulary and main character, compared to other groups. Chung and Huang concluded that teachers should focus on presenting new words as to help students comprehend the listening tasks.

Help Options

Help options can be defined as refers to any form of assistance, such as visual, auditory (i. e, variety of pronunciations) or textual, that is displayed synchronously or asynchronously on the computer screen to facilitate language learning (Mohsen, 2015). Help options took several forms like annotations or glosses (see Mohsen & Balakumar, 2011 for review) captions or subtitles (Mohsen, 2015) and they are found to be effective for language learning as they have potentials to make learners interact with language input displayed on computer screen (Montero Perez, Peters, Clarebout & Desmet, 2014; Cárdenas-Claros & Gruba, 2014). According to Interactionist theory proposed by Long (1996), interaction is crucial for language acquisition since it can promote negotiation of meaning. An ideal example of designing multimedia CALL is to engage learners in a modified interaction with a computer by getting learners corrected by a computer to negotiate the meaning and enhance comprehension check (Chapelle, 1998). This type of instructional design would draw learner's attention to identify their errors in the task and to subsequently correct them with several attempts in problem-solving tasks. Chapelle (1998) points out that the "sequence of errors, correction, error, error identification, and attempt at correction would be considered evidence of comprehensible output" (p. 32).

Another theory that supports multimedia learning is Paivio's dual coding theory (1971-1976) which states that learning with visual and verbal modes are better for storing information in the long-term memory because when visual and verbal information are processed together, there will be a chance for learners to store them in visual and verbal representations in their memory and thus leading to effective learning. Two decades later, Mayer (1997, 2001) proposed cognitive theory of multimedia learning arguing that when language input is displayed saliently, there will be a chance for learners to select it, organize it either in verbal or visual representations in their memory— based on the type of received mode, then they can integrate newly information with the previous one they have already had in their minds. Figure I depicts Mayer's theory.

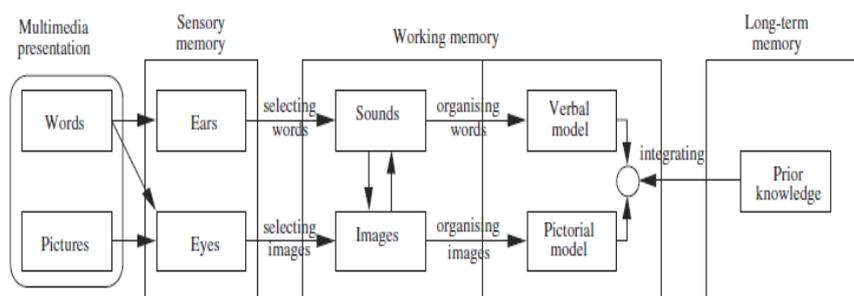


Figure 1 Mayer's Cognitive Theory of Multimedia Learning

It should be noted that human memory has a limited capacity and any extra information may overload it and can affect it negatively. According to the cognitive load theory's views, there are two types of cognitive overload: (1) extraneous, which might inhibit learning and (2) germane which could promote learning (Paas, Renkl, & Sweller, 2003).

The advent of a web-based multimedia technology has encouraged designers to create help options so as to facilitate listening comprehension and vocabulary development. Pujol á (2002) examined the strategies used by 22 Spanish EFL students who were involved in a web-based program called "ImPRESSion". While students were accessing the help options which contained dictionary entries, cultural notes, transcripts, subtitles, and play controls, and their computer consultation was also videotaped. Participants were divided into four groups and categorized as high, average, low, and poor decoders. The researchers found that poor decoders relied heavily on subtitles to comprehend listening presented

in the program. However, higher decoders accessed different help facilities and used the scripts or subtitles as a backup for listening.

Another study utilizing the help options in a multimedia listening environment is the study of Grgurović and Hegelheimer (2007) study. In their study, 18 ESL intermediate students were exposed to an academic lecture viewed in a multimedia software program containing help options, L2 video accompanied with L2 captions, and L2 video plus L2 script. The students used the help options only when they encountered "comprehension breakdowns" (p: 51) and failed to answer post-listening tests related to the video segments. The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire and answer the recall test two weeks after the treatment. The results revealed the superiority of the use of captions, even for a long-term.

In a recent study, Aldera and Mohsen (2013) examined the effect of help options (i.e., annotations versus captions) combined, separated or without help options on L2 listening comprehension of Arab learners studying English in an EFL environment. The researchers assigned the participants into three different treatments annotations + captions+ animation (ACA), captions +animation (AC), or animation alone (A) mode. The results revealed that while on-screen text helped students improve L2 vocabulary, they did not aid listening comprehension of L2 story. The visual stimulus of the animation would be sufficient to aid L2 comprehension and the extra textual help might overload the students' memories and divert students' attention to focus on the story content. An issue that remains uninvestigated is whether exposing students to visual stimulus along with captions or auditory mode could facilitate listening comprehension, and in case yes, to what degree each mode can enhance listening comprehension of L2 learners in an EFL environment. This paper thus examines the following two questions:

1. What is the effect of multimedia listening track on students' listening comprehension task?
2. What are the students' perceptions towards delivering listening task via audiovisual task versus audio tracks?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

A total of (60) subjects, 35 male and 25 female, was randomly selected from the population to be the sample of this study (i.e., (about 120 students of the first level of English Department who studied in an EFL environment. The students have been split out into two groups of 30. All the participants were native speakers of Arabic studying EFL. The setting for the study was the language lab at the English Department in the Faculty of Education. The treatment sessions had been given through the whole semester (10 sessions).

Material

The material that had been delivered to the participants was Richards' (1998) *New Interchange 1*. The book is the second edition of Interchange series, one of the world's most successful English courses for adults and young adult learners. It is "a four-level series that provides a thorough coverage of all the language skills with a particular emphasis on practical listening skills" (Richards 1998, p.2). When teaching listening, it is important to remind students that in most listening situations the aim is not to remember the specific words or phrases used but extract the main ideas or information. When presenting an exercise, *New Interchange* concentrates on preparing students for the task through pre-listening activities. These include asking questions about the topic, asking the students to make predictions and making use of the context provided by the pictures and the situations (Richards, 1998).

Procedures

The participants in both groups were given the treatment wherein the experimental group had been given treatment via multimedia task in which students watched and listened to the animation while the control group was asked just to listen to task aurally. Approximately 90 minutes of every listening and speaking class was assigned for improving students' listening comprehension during each training phase. The researcher has conducted the post-test (for both groups). Immediately after the treatments, a post-test paper was given to the students after they had finished the 10 listening comprehension classes of the treatment. All learners' answers were collected for the analysis part of this article. A month after the post-test has been administered; the researcher conducted the delayed test in order to check the students' retention. A questionnaire, given to the students of the experimental group, was used to gather quantitative data that could be interpreted as a contribution in answering the research question. The questionnaire consisted of 13 items, aiming at obtaining students' viewpoint about multimedia used for improving their listening skills. The researcher has explained to the respondents, elaborated how to respond to the items. The questionnaire begins with a covering letter explaining its aim, giving necessary instructions, and asking for cooperation. The respondents were given appropriate and enough time to fill in the questionnaire.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Only quantitative analysis had been investigated in this section. Both descriptive and inferential statistics have been calculated to measure the tests and questionnaire's results. The level of significance was .05.

Results

Descriptive Statistics of the Test

A comparison of the means for the two groups shows that the experimental group (multimedia group) scored higher in the post-test than the control group (audio only group). Specifically, the mean for the experimental group was 11.80, whereas the mean for the control group was 9.60. This implied that using multimedia for teaching listening skills was more effective than using audio only. This is summarized in Table 1

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST

POST-TEST	Group	N	SD	Mean	Maximum	Minimum	SE
					16.00	3.00	.51995
	Control	30	2.84787	9.6000			
	experimental	30	2.96415	11.8000	17.00	7.00	.54118
	Total	60	3.08798	10.7000	17.00	3.00	.39866
DELAYED Test	Control	30	2.73777	7.7667	15.00	2.00	.49985
	experimental	30	2.93532	10.9333	17.00	6.00	.53591
	Total	60	3.23553	9.3500	17.00	2.00	.41770

To examine whether the differences between two groups (post versus delayed test) was significant, a mixed ANOVA was performed to indicate such statistically significant differences. $F(1, 59) = 18.6, p = .000$. This indicates that there is a significant difference between the two groups for the benefit of the experimental group. This is also depicted in Figure 1.

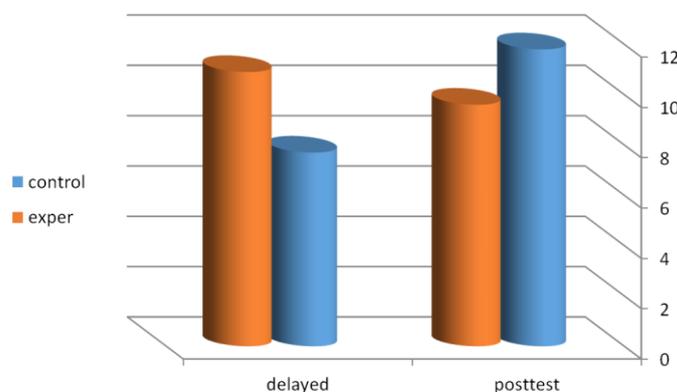


Figure1. Students' scores across time of listening comprehension test

The score means listed for the delayed test to both the groups demonstrate that there is a considerable rate of retention after a period of one month of having the post-test. The data show that the participants in the experimental group scored higher than those in the control group. The score means for the delayed test in the experimental group was 10.93, whereas it was only 7.77 in the control group. This result showed that the rate of retention in the experimental group is better than that in the control one, and this indicates students retained what they had learned over a period of time.

Analysis of the Questionnaire

Statistical analyses were performed on the questionnaire responses as it was performed on the tests. The statistical program used to run the analysis was 'SPSS' which provides a wide variety of statistical and graphical techniques. The data obtained for each item were first analyzed by using the frequencies statistical method. For the 13 items, the percentage of responses for each item was calculated (See Table 2).

TABLE 2
FREQUENCY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE'S ITEMS

No	Item	Multimedia		audio	
		Frequency	%	Frequency	%
1	It helps me better understand listening text when I use-----	20	66.7%	10	33.3%
2	It is easier to remember language used on -----	23	76.7%	7	23.3%
3	I think I will learn more English using-----	23	76.7%	7	23.3%
4	I think I will develop my listening skills better using-----	15	50%	15	50%
5	I enjoy using ----- to learn English language listening skills	19	63.3%	11	36.7%
6	I will overcome my weaknesses in listening comprehension using-----	16	53.3%	14	46.7%
7	I can learn English language faster when I use-----	24	80%	6	20%
8	I can develop my listening skills more independently when I use-----	16	53.3%	14	46.7%
9	I can get more chances to practice listening skills using-----	16	53.3%	14	46.7%
10	I can get a chance to listen and use authentic English using -----	18	60%	12	40%
11	I want my teacher to continue the listening classes using-----	19	63.3%	11	36.7%
12	I can get a control over my listening skills development using-----	19	63.3%	11	36.7%
13	To develop my listening skills, I enjoy the challenge of using -----	25	83.3%	5	16.7%

From the questionnaire's findings, it was understood that the students prefer multimedia programs to be used in their listening comprehension skills and would like to have visual cues that provide more information. They also showed a great motivation to understand the listening texts. Therefore, it becomes very important for multimedia to be used in listening comprehension classes since these media enhance students' listening skills.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results show that listening comprehension is improved more when multimedia is used than when audio alone is used. This may signify that the greater the amount of multimedia used in the listening comprehension classes, the better the listening skills. These results indicate that the enrichment of different media enables learners to improve their learning performance and that the use of static images, moving images (video), and graphic in listening comprehension facilitates information processing and provides interesting and motivating input for facilitating second language listening comprehension.

The interesting finding is that there were significant differences in listening scores between the experimental group which took multimedia listening tasks and the control group which took audio listening tasks. This shows that the effects of the use of multimedia in developing listening skills are greater than those of the use only of audio. And actually provides an answer to the research question. Another interesting result is that there are significant difference between the delayed test in the control group and the delayed test in the experimental group and these differences were in favor of the experimental one. This shows that the students' retention in the experimental group is much greater than the students' retention in the control group and that signifies that using multimedia makes the students recall more information than using audio alone. In the research experiment, the effects of multimedia have been compared with those of audio for facilitating listening comprehension based on students' English language proficiency. In this study, pre- and post-test were used as dependent measures, which consisted of twenty items each for measuring comprehension ability.

The results of this study go in line with theories of multimedia learning in that learning with multimodalities is significantly better than learning with single modes (Paivio, 1976, 1978). The results are also consistent with Mayer's (2005) "multimedia principle" in that learning with words and pictures are better than learning with words only.

V. CONCLUSION

This research confirms evidence that using multimedia in the listening classes enhances second/foreign language English listening comprehension. When additional information, such as video clips, written texts, graphics and visual cues to assist understanding of the spoken message, is presented using multimedia program, there is even more improvement in second/foreign language listening comprehension.

Thus, one may conclude that lecturers and students in Arab Universities are not aware of the positive effects of the use of multimedia on the improvement of listening comprehension skills. This may, somehow, explain why the majority of undergraduates do not seem to develop their listening skills after passing the first year in the university, in spite of having two listening comprehension courses lasting for seven months in addition to six years of English as a foreign language listening comprehension prior to the university.

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The Dilemma of Arabicization in the Arab World: Problems and Solutions

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Abstract—This study discusses the issue of Arabicization in the Arab World. It will also look through the obstacles that affected the Arabicization process such as the existence of colonialism and the borrowing of foreign words into Arabic. Finally, the study will shed light on the solutions the Academies have made to activate the movement of Arabicization.

Index Terms—Arabicization, the Arab World, problems and solutions

I. INTRODUCTION

Arabicization is a language planning process which is a branch of sociolinguistics that study the relation between language and society and the way they affect each other, but Arabicize in linguistic dimension is to make Arabic inform, in this sense it is markedly different from Arabize which describes a growing cultural influence on a non- Arab area. (Al-Mazrouei, 2014, pp. 95-96)

The process of Arabicization is hampered during the degeneracy ages in the Arab World, because of the suspension of the linguistic diligence in Arabic language. However, it became active in the 19th century due to the failure of the Turkification process, which aimed at the elimination of a political deal in Arabic within the Ottoman Empire. Despite of the various attempts, that emerged in the 19th century, to improve Arabic language, the orally education Arabic language was limited to keep abstracts in books. Therefore, the information in Arabic curricula confused the students, in contrast, foreign languages suspense their students by attracting them to deliver the linguistic information using stimulating and clear methods. On the contrary, Arabic language did not go further to address the challenges that suspense its development. Thus, Arabicization was found as an equivalent against writing books in order to translate the Western Stories, and to introduce them in Arabic by Arabicizing the names of Western places and persons, and this delayed the actual Arabicization movement (Alsyyadi, 1982, p.42). Nowadays, Arabic language is threatened by the Israeli occupation to Palestine, in addition to the calls of many foreigners to neglect Standard Arabic and to use colloquial instead to divide Arab nations. As a result, the Arabicization process is delayed in many fields of study (Khalifa, 1987, p. 213). Arabicization is a national case that requires excessive efforts for preparing thoughtful studies. It also needs national efforts for keeping Arabic language, as it is holistic language for Arabs.

II. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

This study aims to reveal the experiments of Arabicization done in the Arab World in the past and the present. It also shows the efforts of linguistic academies, in general, and the efforts that the Jordanian Arab language Academy has made regarding the issue of Arabicization.

III. METHODOLOGY

First, the study shows the obstacles that Arabicization has been through and how the political situation in the Arab World mainly impacts this process. It also shows the efforts of the Academies of Arabic Language done by Arab countries, in general, and Jordan, in particular.

After that, the researcher provides solutions and recommendations to activate the movement of Arabicization in the Arab World. The material of the study was a selection of scientific books and articles that discusses this particular issue written in Arabic by Arab writers and published by the Arab language academies, especially the Jordanian Arab Language Academy.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. *The Obstacles Encountered Arabicization*

Many obstacles affect Arabicization process in the Arab World such as the following:

First, the existence of colonialism in the Eastern and Western parts of the Arab World led to immobilize the movement of Arabicization. There were many attractions to spread foreign languages in the Arab World such as facilitating the educational scholarships to the Western countries and to America. In addition, the Western countries

established universities adopted the Western culture and characteristics in the Arab World to spread the languages of these countries to colonize them culturally (Al-husari, 1982, p.7).

Moreover, these countries introduced their foreign vocabularies in the Arabic curricula in schools, institutes and universities to instill in the minds of the Arab learners that Arabic language is a limited one; and the students cannot use it to express the scientific terminologies. The colonization aimed to overwhelmingly control over the Arab World by having a direct impact on this language (Altonji, 1983, pp.123-124). Unfortunately, the Arabicization of the Western sciences was delayed, as the colonization entirely isolated Arabic language by imposing foreign languages to teach modern sciences in Syria, Egypt, Iraq, Algeria, Morocco, Libya, Jordan ...etc.

Another factor that affected the movement of Arabization is that some Arab intellectuals spread the idea of the Arabic language's inability to teach any modern science and its inability to follow the scientific development. This idea was promoted by some intellectuals before the Orabi Revolution in Egypt, which led to the conflict between those intellectuals and the defenders of the Arabic language and its pioneer role in the modern scientific development. The nationalists refused to abandon the language of the Arab nation, but they could not impose on the scientific field (Hafez, 2000, p.867).

There is no agreement between those who are opposed to the Arabicization of higher education; some of their opinion that Arabic is not sufficiently developed to be the language of science, because it lacks the required scientific terminology, also scientific publication in Arabic is very few. On the other hand, English or French language may help our scholars in maintaining worldwide intellectual contacts (Muhammad 1989, p.45).

However, as we all know that all Arabic countries are developing countries, thus, Arabic must be a developing language, and as long as Arabic remains not used as a language of science, it will continue to be hard to write on scientific topics in Arabic. Many staff members believe that the use of Arabic for instruction instead of any foreign language, reduced the failure of students significantly (ibid, pp.46-47).

The situation is similar in other Arab countries; many Arab intellectuals alienate Arabic language and learn foreign languages, they do not recognize the aesthetic values of Arabic expressions. The use of Arabic language becomes limited. Hence, Arabic language becomes inactive. Arab-Islamic heritage contains an enormous linguistic wealth such as words, terminologies and structures. This alienates the accusations of anti-Arabicization about the inactivity and indolence of Arabic (Alkubaisi, 1982, p.2).

Many Arabs are not tied intellectually and emotionally to their Arabic society; they are not connected with its rules, norms, values and developments through the ages, especially those who graduated from Western universities, as they know little about their society and language. In contrast, they know so much about the other Western societies; they come back to work in their countries, they transferred their knowledge to their students without recognizing that the different nature of various courses should be adopted by the nature of communities. So, they tend to teach these courses in English or French without Arabicizing the scientific terminologies into Arabic. This may cause the interference of the behavioral values and rules, and it may deteriorate the Arab student's mind who is looking for Arabic values and for being connected to his Arabic language which is a symbol of unity for Arab nations. It is true that some of Arabs respect foreign languages and they consider them as the languages of science and civilization that fit the modern life while they are degrading Arabic language as the language of science and civilization (Ibrahim, 1982, pp.5-10).

Some Arab governments discourage the Arabicization process for political reasons such as the supervisors of these educational institutions who study abroad and were affected by the language of that country, and they do not respect and appreciate Arabic (Alhusari, 1982, p.8).

In addition, borrowing foreign words into Arabic is problematic, because these words substitute the Arabic ones during time. Therefore, some Arabic vocabularies are not accepted nowadays because they were neglected for a long time. Arabic borrowed many foreign words in different fields (Altonji, 1983, pp.123-124) such as: the communications of peace and war and the agreements between Arabs and others, the commercial links between Arabs and other countries, and the use of the language of the exported countries in these transactions and this may affect the Arab businessmen's language and their lifestyle. In addition, the social communication between Arabs and other nations through marriages i.e. some Arabs have foreign wives, this may affect the new generation who will be reared according to a new culture other than Arabic. Consequently, the new generation will not master their native language, Arabic, and they will never have the chance to discover the aesthetic value of Arabic language. Also, some poets and authors are borrowing foreign words in their works.

Furthermore, Arab mass media has played a pivotal role in disseminating the foreign words in Arabic; this case is considered as a cultural invasion for the Arab nation, as the Western countries devoted their efforts through media to westernize the Arabic thought and to restrict it by what is heard and watched in the media. Mass media are one of the most powerful tools for spreading foreign languages and cultures in the Arab world. This linguistic and cultural challenge in the field of media is considered as the most challenging moves that threaten Arabic language and our social values (Altwaijri, 2004, p.19).

Another factor that participates in delaying the Arabicization process is that the Arabicization of terminologies was an individual effort rather than an organized effort at level of the Arab world. Some educational and cultural centers have concerns about the Arabicization of the terminologies in the science curricula taught in institutes and universities due to the difficulty of this process. An example on these concerns is the fear of the Arabicization of scientific

terminologies for the secondary schools in the Sudan. Most of Arab countries have the same concerns due to the lack of scientific references in Arabic (Ibrahim, 1982, pp.11-12). That is, there are not Arabic reference books that facilitate the process of finding an Arabic equivalent terminology for the foreign one. In addition, translators encounter a difficulty in finding the adequate equivalent terminologies in the fields of medicine, engineering and pharmacology, as the majority of available references are in Latin and English (Alhusari, 1982, p.7).

B. The Efforts of the Academies of Arabic Language in Facilitating the Arabicization Movement

The linguistics of modern believes point out that all languages are able to keep place with the progress of civilization. Fortunately, the Arabic language is a living language, it is considered the sixth official language of the United Nations, as well as English, French, Spanish, Russian, and Chinese.

One of the important efforts of the Arabic language Academies which are established in Damascus in 1999, in Cairo in 1932, in Baghdad in 1947, in Rabat in 1960, and in Amman in 1976 employed the process of Arabicization to create or Arabicize lists of terms among which are the technical and scientific terms that are used in Jordan and Syria. These Arabicized terms are borrowed from Latin, Greek, English, and French. (Al-Asal and Sabri, 2011, p.6).

The supervisors of Arabic Academy in Cairo introduce some suggestions to eliminate the reasons that hinder the movement of Arabicization such as taking necessary means for the Arabicization of higher education in the Arab World. Also, the supervisors in Cairo linguistic Academy call the union of Arab Scientific language academies to hold a workshop to establish rules for the formulation of the Arab Scientific terms and standardization of these terms in the Arab world. They also suggested that Arabic language should/be carefully taught in all educational stages and to arabicize the university education, as well as to prepare a historical linguistic dictionary (Conferences, 1998, pp. 247-249).

The Syrians professors teach in Arabic, they continued localization successfully in Syria since 1919, even present day, and after the adoption of apolitical decision in 1990 Arabicization of higher education.

The Sudan Candidate to join soon in Syria which is where education in the Arabic language at all levels since year 1919.

The start of Arabicization at the Universities of Sudan was in 1958, but the process of Arabicization flourished rapidly at 1990 after a decision to Arabicize the higher education (al-Mubarak, 1985, p.37).

The Efforts of the Jordan Academy of Arabic Language in Facilitating the Arabicization Movement

The idea of Arabicization started during the time of the Jordanian king Hussein Bin Talal Mercy be upon him (d 1999), where a Royal Decree was issued to establish the Jordan Academy of Arabic language in 1976, which believed that Arabicization is an educational necessity, they thought that the students learn better in their Arabic language than in a foreign one. Also, Arabicization is very necessary and spelled in higher education by the faculties which should teach scientific courses in Arabic

The Jordan Academy of Arabic language held a project in the Arabicization of scientific education. The project began as part of a plan to localize education and scientific terminology in three directions namely translation of scientific books, scientific authorship in the Arabic language, the Arabicization of scientific notation.

One of the important efforts of this Academy is to facilitate the issue of Arabicization; it has published eighteen reference books in physics, chemistry and mathematics, as well as its work on the development of many synonyms in Arabic for a lot of different scientific terms (khalifa, 1990, p.354).

Another important agenda approved by the supervisors of the Jordanian Academy of Arabic language is preparing a unified Arabic dictionary for everyday vocabulary; it aims to enrich Arabic language with new civilized vocabulary in different field of everyday life. In addition, to standardize the colloquial expressions, which are originally standard; to work on the pruning of words and to remove extraneous words from Standard Arabic (projects, 1998, pp. 249-251). After hard work that lasted for several years, Jordanian Academy of Arabic issued a dictionary of everyday vocabularies in Jordan; it is considered as the nucleus of the unified Arabic dictionary of everyday vocabulary.

Moreover, the Jordanian Academy of Arabic language prepare used and essential vocabularies and terms; it arabicizes some important scientific books, and in its project that aims to arabicize the university education. The medical science committee were asked to choose a significant source in general surgery to arabicize its terms, this dictionary consists of four volumes in (Baily and Love's, Short practice of surgery). They translate a book titled (The Obstacles of practicing Surgery). This is a useful book for physicians in the Arab world, and it is used by Jordanian universities (projects, 1998, pp.255-256). In addition, this book has won the prize of the 28 Arab Book Fair of the year1998, this book was prepared by the Kuwait Foundation in the field of best arabicized book in Medical Sciences (Nusair, 2013, p.194).

Academies of Arabic language in the Arab world are highly interested in Arabicizing sciences and new technologies. For instance, Jordanian academy of Arabic language believes that Arabicization is a national and cultural urgent need for building Arabic culture. In addition, making Arabic the language of scientific research and modern technologies in Arab universities (conferences, 2000, p.265). One of the recommendations of the 67 conference of the Jordanian academy of Arabic language is that the signs on the facades of shops and businesses should be written in Arabic. There is no objection for writing the equivalent of these words in foreign languages, but the foreign words should be written in small fonts (recommendations and conferences, 2000, p.248). The writing of foreign words in Arabic fonts can be an insertion of these sounds in Arabic phonological system (Abu Eid, 2010, p.7).

Another effort of this Academy is the establishment of Arabic scientific library in the Jordanian universities which are full of translated books in an easy standard Arabic. On the other hand it encourages teachers to translate scientific text books. And it contains the interested college in Arabicization members from all sections of the college.

It is in cooperation with the coordinating committees put glossaries of scientific term, and to update these dictionaries periodically.

The committee of Arabization in cooperation with the coordinating committee in the universities holds an annual conference in Jordan Academy of Arabic, members of field committees are also involved in it, to discuss the difficulties faced by the localization process, and to develop appropriate recommendations and solutions.

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

Arabic language encounters many threatening from the colonialists and Arabs as well. It is the duty of every Arab, who is keen on continuing the survival of Arabic language and independent of Arab nations, to cooperate with other Arabs to Arabicize the scientific terms; to make Arabic language the language of science and civilization. Scientific terms, which have the cultural vocabulary in all fields of science, are the major source of dictionaries and flourishing Arabic language. Therefore, the Arabicization of different sciences is an urgent and a national need imposed by the various knowledge sources and it participates effectively in humanitarian civilization. The governments should support Arabic language Academies in the Arabicization movement financially and morally, they should be committed to implement their decisions.

The cooperation between scientific institutions is essential in the Arab world to make Arabic language is the official language of education. In addition, the relationships between the academic faculties in the Arab world should be strengthened to support the Arabicization movement in university education.

Working on completing the historical dictionary of Arabic vocabularies to explain their various denotations within the texts and through the ages till now, this will enable Arabic language to keep pace with global civilization.

Preparing a national and a comprehensive language in its sounds and vocabularies by establishing a linguistic dictionary that can cope with the time requirements, all the Arab countries should cooperate in building this dictionary and they should be committed to use it.

Attention should be paid for the verification of the Arabic manuscripts, the revival of the old Arabic sources in the field of scientific terms and the Arabicization of foreign journals. This is very essential issue that has been neglected by Arab linguists. The manuscripts are crucial for Arabic heritage whether they are scientific, linguistic or Islamic ones. Thus, the verification of them will enhance the confidence of Arabs in their heritage. In addition, Arab researchers should be aware them as this will develop their educational level and improve the scientific research.

What has been mentioned above based on adapting the policy of Arabicization; quick decisions should be made to implement Arabicization in education, as this will reduce the foreign risks that threaten Arabic language. The Arabicization of university courses is connected with a political stream that opposes Arabism, its heritage and its language. Moreover, it prevents the Arab nation from cultural independence, as people can understand things in their native language more than other languages (Khalifa, 1987, p.213).

The main focus of Arabization is the efficient professors, as they should be rehabilitated specially those who are teaching in universities and institutes. Therefore, the professor should be familiar with Arabic terms and teach them to their students. Besides, there is no reason that prevents professors from teaching in Arabic, as the majority of scientific terms have been arabicized. For example, the unified medical dictionary has been published recently; it is a great effort of the experts in the Arab world (Abu Shwareeb, 2000, p.891-897).

Professors should rehabilitated by holding workshops on the how to teach in Standard Arabic instead of code switching to colloquial dialects or to foreign languages. Dr. Abdulkareem Khaleefa (1980) conducted a study about the rehabilitation of university professors to teach in Arabic, he stated that there should be organized training programs for professors to teach in Arabic; he suggested that these training courses should have some fundamental issues in Arabic syntax and morphology and the dilemma of Arabicization, this can be through lecture, and seminars, and professors should use modern technologies in education. Furthermore, these courses should provide professors with special books in syntax, morphology and linguistic styles to guide them in education. Besides, professors should innovate new educational strategies that suit Arabic linguistic concepts such as communication and context (Alaanati, 2006, p. 27).

Specialized scientific centers should be established in all fields of knowledge in order to gather the prominent scientific works in the popular languages of the world and index them to help professors in enhancing their academic research and to encourage them to write in Arabic.

A main center for Arabicizing modern sciences and technologies should be established, and we should issue scientific encyclopedias and specialized journals in Arabic, and these issues should abide by the Academic Arabic (Khalifa, 1987, p. 201-202).

Arabicization leads Arabic to be easily used by the members of the scientific community. This usage allows Arabic language to produce viable survival Arabic terms. (Muhammad, 1989, p. 53).

With regard to the lack of terminologies and their varieties, there is a recommendation to use modern technology in the process of unifying scientific terminologies. These terminologies should be sorted and classified, the scientific terminology should be subject to one denotation by the use of available means in Arabic morphology which should be

taken into consideration when arabicizing foreign words. In addition, the process of Arabicization should be subject to certain standards such as the standards that negotiated in Rabat seminar in 1981. That is, there should be only one terminology for the scientific concept that carries one meaning in the same field. In addition, the various meanings of the same concept should be avoided; there should be approximation between the Arabic terminology and the foreign one in order to make the equivalent possible. Moreover, the specialists should cooperate in generating, deriving and structuring these terminologies. Also, the arabicized terminology should be subject to the grammar of Arabic language such as derivation and morphology (Hamdan, 2007, p.259).

Another significant suggestion for popularizing Arabic terminology is the use of computer in storing, classifying and retrieving these terms. Also, mass media should work on unifying scientific terminology and work on popularizing it all over the Arab world. Besides, there should be electronic dictionaries in all fields of knowledge on the internet, and these terminologies should be updated regularly. In addition, there should be a central bank for Arabic terminologies located in the union of Academies of Arabic language (Alsyyadi, 1982, pp.41-42).

To make Arabicization as an effective power that activates the creative memory of researchers, we should make use of other languages to spread Arabic Language and devote it for the purpose of scientific revival.

The issue of Arabicization does not mean closing ourselves, but to open up to the outside world with its sciences, thoughts, achievements and speaking dynamic languages such as English and French. Arab people should learn computer languages in order to make use of that in arabicizing terminologies needed in university education and preparing scientific research (Hafez, 2002, pp. 885-886). In addition, the Arabicization of computer and using Arabic letters will lead to the spread of Arabic language in all scientific fields in the world and this will push the wheel of development all over the Arab world.

One of the most important suggestions to encourage the movement of Arabicization is to have an Arabic congregational agreement about the necessity of Arabicization because of its historical importance. This protects Arabic language and the unity of Arab nations. Moreover, the notion of Arabicization and its goals should be defended in all fields of national Arabic life. Also, the notion of Arabicization should be supported politically, as there should be a national and a comprehensive plan for Arabicization in all sectors. In other words, national plans for Arabicization should be prepared in order to show its significant role in the comprehensive development of the Arab nation. Again, there should be a political determination and decision for Arabicization such as in Syria as it will impose Arabicization and make it successful (Ghazalah, 2005, p.8).

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Humor Translation in Persian Subtitled Comedy Movies into English: A Case Study of ‘Lizard’

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Abstract—The aim of the present study is to investigate translation strategies employed in the subtitling of Persian comedy movies into English. The movie, titled ‘Lizard’ was chosen as the corpus of the study. Humorous instances are detected and identified in Persian version and they are classified into three groups according to Debra and Raphaelson-West’s (1989) categorization of humor. The eight strategies for translation of cultural jokes proposed by Tomaszewicz (1993, cited in Diaz-Cintas, 2009) was adopted for the framework of the study to analyze the strategies employed in rendering the humorous expressions in subtitling of Persian comedy movies into English. The findings revealed that universal jokes can be transferred easily into other language/s whereas linguistic and cultural jokes resist in translation due to the differences between languages and cultures. Based on the findings of the study, literal translation is found to be the most commonly used technique in subtitling from Persian to English. Besides literal translation, equivalence strategy was also used in many cases. This study also suggests that in order to transfer cultural jokes, it is wiser to create humor in accordance to the visual context of the movie and domesticate the translation to achieve the desired result.

Index Terms—audiovisual translation, humor translation, subtitling, Persian, literal translation

I. INTRODUCTION

Undoubtedly, media is considered as one of the main tools in entertainment and education. The rapid growth in technology in the last four decades has provided a unique opportunity for the advance developments in this area and as a result, a great amount of movies, animations, series and documentaries are to name but a few that have been produced and distributed around the world. The ultimate goal of producers in the film industry is to sell their productions in the global market. On the one hand, the extreme desire of viewers all across the world to watch those productions has resulted in the significant increase in international exchange of audiovisual productions. Furthermore, the diversity of audiovisual programs which are now broadcasting regularly via TVs, satellite channels or even distributed on DVDs (which is now a much favored mode for its memory capacity) has led to the urgent need for translation of audiovisual texts especially in the non-English speaking countries. In this regard, audiovisual translation has been focused by many scholars in the related areas and a large number of studies have been done in this respect in the last two decades. Audiovisual translation is a new branch in translation studies which encompasses dubbing, subtitling, voiceover, etc. A major difference between audiovisual translation and the other forms of translation is that literary lies in the constraints of this form of translation. Audiovisual translators not only should tackle with the conventional issues in translation such as cultural barriers or linguistic differences but also faced with the limitation of space and time in subtitling or synchronization in dubbing. A group of specialists is involved in the process of translating audiovisual texts. In the process of audiovisual translation, many of the sentences are modified, condensed or even changed for the sake of synchronization in dubbing or due to the lack of space in subtitling. Audiovisual translation has been fully discussed by scholars such as Delabastita (1989), Gottlieb (1997c) and Diaz Cintas (2007). A great number of taxonomies have also been proposed for this new branch of translation. Audiovisual texts represent world through languages and images. Therefore, linguistic competency in both languages is not the only criteria needed for the translators but the cultural familiarity and knowledge of the source and target culture are also of equal importance.

One of the most challenging areas in translation studies is dealing with humor transfer across languages and cultures. Humor which is a pivotal and inseparable part of human life has caused much resistance in translation. The main problem is that people in every culture construct the reality of life in many different ways. Hence, their understandings of the world have varied among one another. Consequently, a concept which is considered as humor in one culture does not necessary reflects the same humorous meaning in another culture. With the presence of issues in linguistic and cultural barriers in humor translation, a variety of techniques inspired from different theories in translation studies such as dynamic equivalence (Nida, 1964a) and skopos theory (Reiss & Vermeer, 1984) are often employed to resolve these problems. The aim of the humor translation is to transfer humorous expressions from the source language to the target language. Thus, in order to accomplish the task in most cases, the form of the language is sacrificed for the sake of its

function. Moreover, dynamic equivalence is preferred instead of formal equivalence. In recent decades, a vast amount of comedy movies and series especially situation comedies (sitcoms) such as *Friends*, *How I met your mother*, *Will and Grace*, etc. have been produced and distributed in many countries and most of them have been dubbed or subtitled into many different languages. The ever growing production of humorous movies and sitcoms and the need for translation of such products left no choice for scholars but to conduct more researches on this topic. In this regard, many scholars such as Attardo (2002), Raphaelson-West (1989), Chiaro (2004) and Raskin (1985) to name but a few conveyed many researches and studies on humor translation but improvements are still feasible with many problems remained unsolved and many questions unanswered.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Audiovisual Translation

Although audiovisual translation dates back to the establishment of the cinemas in 1895, it did not receive special care until late 19th century. Diaz Cintas (2009) stated that the proper beginning of a real flurry of activity can be traced to the late 1990s- AVT's golden age (p.3). The boom in production of different kinds of audiovisual texts such as movies, animations and situation comedies on the one hand and the accessibility of these products via TVs, private cable channels, satellites, CDs, DVDs, computers, tablets or the internet on the other hand had increased the demand for translation of such products. Among different methods of audiovisual presentation, DVDs (digital versatile disk) received special care and gained popularity among producers and viewers. The high storage capacity of DVDs provided great opportunities for the insertion of different kinds of subtitles and dubs within a pack (about thirty two subtitles and four dub versions). This opportunity which occurred during the digital revolution (a shift from analogue to digital technology) delivered the chance to present different kinds of subtitling altogether. An example is the subtitling for deaf or hard of hearing (SPH) or audio-scription for blind (AD). The first conference on subtitling and dubbing were held in Stockholm in 1987. It acted as a motivation for the publication of more books and articles on this subject. Delabastita (1989, 1990) was among the first scholars who examined audiovisual texts from a descriptive perception. He analyzed translation as a process and set out questions and research areas which are still useful for audiovisual investigators. Many definitions have been proposed to define the concept of audiovisual translation for instance Luyken (1991), who argued that audiovisual language transfer denotes the process by which a film or television program is made comprehensible to a target audience that is unfamiliar with the original's source language" (p. 11). This definition implied that the main aim of audiovisual translation is to make it understandable for the target audiences. Another definition is given by Chiaro (2009b) as follow:

Audiovisual translation is one of the several umbrella terms that include 'media translation', 'multimedia translation', 'multimodal translation' and 'screen translation'. These different terms all set out to cover the inter-lingual transfer of verbal language when it is transmitted and accessed both visually and acoustically, usually but not necessarily, through some kind of electronic device (p.141).

Subtitling and dubbing are the most predominant forms of audiovisual translation and many researches are focused on these two topics. However, there are also some other types of audiovisual translation such as surtitling, voiceover, audio-description, etc. In this respect, Gambier (2009) suggested a category for AVT. The categories are: a) interlingual subtitling (open caption), which is carried out between two different languages for the cinema and video DVDs, including bilingual subtitling; b) bilingual subtitling, in the case of the country Belgium where subtitles are shown in two different languages at the same time; c) consecutive interpreting; d) simultaneous interpreting; e) intralingual subtitling (close caption), which is done in the original language and for the hard of hearing; f) dubbing, in that the original sound track is replaced by a target one and covers lip-synchronizations; g) voice-over or half-dubbing, which is associated with documentaries and interviews, and the original sound is heard beneath the translation sound; h) free-commentary; i) sight translation; j) real-time subtitling; k) surtitling, which is used in musical performances and projected above the stage; l) audio description, which is used for the visually impaired and the blind, in which a narration is added to the movie in order to transfer the visual information via verbal information (p.42).

B. Subtitling

Subtitling can be defined as presenting the translation of the source dialogues of audiovisual materials in written form which usually appears at the bottom of the screen. It consists of two main types: intralingual subtitling which happens within the same language and is normally used for deaf or hard of hearing and interlingual subtitling which is the transfer of dialogues from source language to the target language. Diaz- Cintas (2003, p.195) clearly delineated the notion as 'Subtitling involves displaying written text, usually at the bottom of the screen, giving an account of the actors' dialogue and other linguistic information which form part of the visual image (letters, graffiti, and captions) or of the soundtrack (songs)'. Subtitling is practiced more in smaller countries such as Greece, Cyprus, Wales, Netherlands, Denmark, Finland, etc. In comparison to dubbing, subtitling presents more advantages and disadvantages. One of the strong points of subtitling is that viewers do not miss the original sound track of the movies. Moreover, subtitling is much cheaper and less time and energy are required for its production. In fact, in the digital era with mass production of different audiovisual products every year, it seems more reasonable to subtitle than dub. Among the literates, it is much more preferable and it can also be used as an aid in language learning. Deaf or hard of hearing are also taking the

benefits as well as immigrants who are not completely familiar with the source language. Yet, there are some constraints dominating the subtitling strategy. To start with, there is a limit in the number of the characters that are displayable on the screen for each dialogue. Diaz-Cintas and Remael (2007, p.63) recommended a total of 37 characters per line. Karamitroglou (2000) stated that the average reading speed of subtitles is a number of 150-180 words per minute, which is also equivalent to approximately 2.5-3 words per second. As a complete subtitled sentence on the screen is mostly about 14 to 16 words, it must remain at least 5.5 seconds on the screen for people to be able to read (p.85). Another issue is the loss of dialects, idiolects and different jargons in subtitling. Moreover, viewers are distracted by subtitles since they have to split their attention both on the written texts and the images. The space and time limitation on the one hand and the translation tendency to be longer than the original text on the other hand have brought many issues in subtitling and these have left no choice for subtitlers but to reduce the text in order to fit on the space provided on the screen. Kovacic (1991, p.409) presented a hierarchy for discourse elements in subtitling: a) the indispensable elements (that must be translated); b) the partly dispensable elements (that can be condensed); c) the dispensable elements (that can be omitted). In other words, translators need to condense and delete the text as much as possible for the limitation of space and time in subtitling. His hierarchy is important in subtitling and it has identified the elements which translators are allowed to omit in subtitling.

C. *Humor Translation*

Humor is an interesting part of every language; and presents social, cultural and political realities in a sweet and indirect way. Despite the great presence of humor in our daily lives, presenting an exact definition of humor seems problematic and there is no agreement among scholars in its definition (see Attardo, 1994, p.3). Humor can be defined as whatever that produces laughter or at least smiles in human being such as jokes, satires or funny stories. Ross (1998) explained humor as something that makes a person laugh or smile (p.1). Longman dictionary (2005) offered two definitions for humor: 1) the ability or tendency to think that things are funny, or funny things you say that shows you have this ability; 2) the quality in something that makes it funny and makes people laugh (p.796). Scholars have presented different theories to describe humor. For instance, Vandaele (2002) stated that humor can be characterized by the two most general concepts: incongruity and superiority. The former is concerned with the humorous effect resulting from the departure from normal cognitive schemes, i.e. flouting of basic formal language rules, while the latter is related to the effect of humor (p.156). In other words, the incongruity theory suggests that humor is when contradiction happens between what is actually said and what the addressee expected to hear which eventually produces laughter. Superiority theory happens when some people laugh at others for their inferior knowledge or some other weaknesses. Many classifications for humor have been suggested by scholars such as the one proposed by Patrick Zabalbeascoa (1996) from the perspective of translators. The classification is: the international joke, the national-culture-institutions jokes, the national-sense-of-humor joke, the language-dependent jokes, the visual jokes and the complex joke (pp.251-254). Another classification is presented by Debra and Raphaelson-West (1989) which placed jokes into three main categories and these were utilized in the analysis of the movie subjected to study in this paper. The categories are: 1) linguistic jokes: puns fall into this category because puns play with ambiguous words which suggest more than one meaning; 2) cultural jokes: this kind of joke could be ethnic which refers to a certain culture or just a certain culture could understand the joke; 3) universal jokes: these are jokes that could be understood worldwide (p.130). He later mentioned that the easiest part in humor translation is related to universal jokes (p.130) which was discussed in full later on in this paper. A narrower classification of humor could be as idiom, irony, joke, parody and pun. Another challenging area in humor translation is wordplay or pun which had been discussed fully by scholars (see Delabastita, 1996, p.128).

D. *Humor Translation Strategies*

Similar to other kinds of translation, in the subtitling of movies to other languages, 'culture' operates largely through the translational activity; not only differences in linguistic features but cultural varieties created problems for subtitlers (Yaqubi, Abdul Rahman, & Che Omar, 2014, p.84). The first problem in humor translation is the linguistic differences between the languages. This includes differences in lexicon, grammar, expressions and wordplays. In a humorous text, error of lexicon, creation, ambiguity and play on the words are happening frequently to produce humor by breaking the standard rules which are not expected. These wordplays resist in translation since they convey more than one meaning in the source language. In this case, finding the equivalence which has the same function in the target language is a difficult task for translators. Therefore, literal translation is not suitable in this case since the meaning will be distorted, and even substitution would lead to a change in grammar and meaning. These are great challenges that emerge for translators and they are constantly required to use their creativity in humor translation. Some strategies have been proposed by scholars in respect to humor translation. For instance, Leppihalme (1997) suggested nine strategies for translation of Allusion whereas Delabastita (1996) proposed eight tactics for pun translation and Mateo (1995) came up with thirteen strategies for translation of irony to name but a few. Cultural differences and specific traditions of each society influence their perspectives of the world. They construct the reality in different ways and in consequence, they have different understandings of the many concepts of the world. For instance, some elements may be considered humorous in one culture but taboo in another. A good example is the sexual jokes in American culture which can be found enormously in situation comedies but these jokes occurring in the Iranian-Islamic culture are not only not

reflected as humorous but also recognized as taboos and mostly deleted in translations. Cultural jokes are exactly reflecting certain traditions, behaviors and beliefs these are the reasons why there are no exact equivalence for them in many cases. Referring to the famous names in a certain culture could be a good example of culture-bound jokes. Cultural jokes can be translated in different ways for example, by substituting a cultural joke with a similar joke in the target text or by creating a new joke in the target text in accordance to the context or by deleting the joke. As previously mentioned, as long as viewers have access on both sounds and images in audiovisual translation and more specifically in subtitling, translators' hands are tied for creating new jokes and their selection must be wise. Scholars suggested different strategies for translation of cultural jokes. For instance, Tomasziewicz (1993, cited in Diaz- Cintas, 2009) presented a discussion of strategies in operation of film subtitling. The strategies are: 1) omission; 2) literal translation; 3) borrowing; 4) equivalence; 5) adaptation; 6) replacement of the cultural term with deictic, particularly when supported by an on-screen gesture or a visual clue; 7) generalization; 8) explication (p. 45).

E. Dynamic Equivalence

From Nida's (1964a) point of view, equivalence can be divided into two categories: 1) formal equivalence, which focuses on the message itself, in both form and content; 2) dynamic equivalence, which is based on what he calls 'the principle of equivalent effect', where 'the relationship between receptor and message should be substantially the same as that existed between the original receptors and the message (Nida, 1964a, p.159). In other words, this means that in cases like cultural elements where literal translation is not suitable, translators can transfer the content of the text without being limited to the form. Here the form is lost while the meaning is transferred. Mona Baker (2001a) argued that the word 'equivalence' has become widely used among translators to simply identify the relationship between a source text (ST) and a target text (TT) that allows the TT to be considered a translation of the ST in the first place (p.77). Dynamic equivalence seems to be a crucial strategy in translating humor in audiovisual text due to the linguistic and cultural differences in ST and TT.

F. Skopos Theory

Skopos theory was introduced by Hans J. Vermeers in 1970s and later developed by Reiss and Vermeer in 1984. In this theory, the priority is given to the aim and purpose of translation which determines the strategies of the translation to produce a text with the same function as it has on ST. The basic rules of this theory are: 1) a translatum (or TT) is determined by its skopos; 2) a TT is an offer of information in a target culture; 3) a TT does not initiate an offer of information in a clearly reversible way; 4) a TT must be internally coherent; 5) a TT must be coherent with the ST; 6) the five rules above stand in hierarchical order, with the skopos rule predominating (Reiss and Vermeer 1984 cited in Munday, 2008, p. 119). Inspired from skopos theory, translators apply any strategies which are compatible with their situation to transfer the aim of the translation and recreate the same function of the ST in the target language. In the case of humor in audiovisual translation, as long as the purpose of translation is to transfer the humorous expressions, translators are free to opt for any method and make any relevant decisions whether to substitute the humor with another equivalent humor in TT or even create a new humor in accordance to the context (image, sound).

III. METHOD

A. Corpus

The movie, titled 'Lizard' or MARMOLAK in Persian was chosen as the corpus of the study since it is considered as a masterpiece in Iranian cinema with a new topic, at least for the first time in Iran. It is a 2004 comedy drama film directed by Kamal Tabrizi and starring Pariv Parastuie as Reza the lizard. A good source of verbally expressed humor is found in the movie either cultural or linguistic which best served the purpose of this paper. The English subtitled version of the film was broadcasted on IRIB satellite channel soon after the release of the movie in the Persian cinemas.

B. Methodology

The aim of the present study is to investigate translation strategies employed in the subtitling of Persian comedy movies into English. Humorous instances are detected and identified in Persian version and they are classified into three groups according to Debra and Raphaelson-West (1989)'s categorization for humor. The categories are linguistic jokes, cultural jokes and universal jokes. Next, the eight strategies for translation of cultural jokes proposed by Tomasziewicz (1993, cited in Diaz- Cintas, 2009) was adopted for the framework of the study to analyze the strategies employed in rendering the humorous expressions in subtitling of Persian comedy movies into English by comparing every Persian sentences with their English subtitled equivalence. In order to analyze the movie, the following procedures were taken. Firstly, the Persian dub version was transcribed in order to identify the humorous expressions. Subsequently, the English subtitled version was transcribed. Later, the humorous expressions in Persian were extracted and their equivalence English subtitle was written before them. Lastly, the strategies applied in the translation were outlined through a comparison of Persian sentences with the English subtitles with the aid of the instrument of the study. Furthermore, descriptive statistics containing frequency, percentage and sum were provided for each strategy.

IV. FINDINGS

The analysis of the movie revealed a total of 104 instances of humorous expressions which were identified in the original Persian version. They were classified into three groups based on the classification of Debra and Raphaelson-West (1989). Table 4.1 indicated the frequency of each group.

TABLE 4.1.
THE FREQUENCY OF THE HUMOR EXPRESSIONS IN THE CASE STUDY

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Linguistic jokes	44	42/3%
Cultural jokes	47	45/2%
Universal jokes	13	12/5%
Total	104	100%

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the strategies employed in the translation of Persian comedy movies into English subtitling. Therefore, to analyze the data, the instances were categorized into six groups in regard to their success or failure in translation. Table 4.2 showed the frequency of each group. Furthermore, the study aimed at casting light on the micro-strategies employed when translating humorous expressions from Persian comedy movies into English subtitles. Hence, the micro-strategies applied in translation related to each category were examined and presented in table 4.3.

TABLE 4.2
THE FREQUENCY OF HUMOR EXPRESSIONS IN REGARD TO THEIR SUCCESS IN TRANSLATION

Category	Frequency	Percentage
Successful transfer of linguistic jokes	18	17/3%
Unsuccessful transfer of linguistic jokes	26	25%
Successful transfer of cultural jokes	24	23/11%
Unsuccessful transfer of cultural jokes	23	22/1%
Successful transfer of universal jokes	12	11/53%
Unsuccessful transfer of universal jokes	1	0/96%
Total	104	100%

TABLE 4.3
THE FREQUENCY OF MICRO STRATEGIES EMPLOYED IN EACH CATEGORY

Category	Literal	Equivalence	Omission
Successful transfer of linguistic jokes	14	3	0
Unsuccessful transfer of linguistic jokes	17	2	1
Successful transfer of cultural jokes	13	0	0
Unsuccessful transfer of cultural jokes	14	1	1
Successful transfer of universal jokes	10	1	0
Unsuccessful transfer of universal jokes	0	0	1

The analysis of some of the instances of humorous expressions in each category is presented below:

A. Successful Translation of Linguistic Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 1

بله، خوباشو گرون خرید داشتن

Yeah, they bought the good ones at a high price

گزارشتن به فصلش بدن بیرون

They're waiting to sell them in the right season

In this excerpt, Reza the Lizard (henceforth referred to as Reza) is talking with a mullah whom he shared the room with in the hospital. The mullah was arguing that there are both good and bad mullahs but Reza disagreed with him and used an ironic expression in response to him. His answer implied that there are no good mullahs at all. In English subtitling, although the intention was not clearly defined, it was still able to transfer the humor. Literal translation seemed to be a good choice that they made in this case.

Example: 2

عجب بچه فجیعی ست ماشاله

What a hell raiser! God bless him

Reza was going to get on the train when a small boy hit him while he was running. As long as he was wearing the mullah's official dress, he had to talk and act like them. Therefore, he tried to use the mullah's jargon but since he was not familiar with it, he made up something that implied his intention which was anger in this situation. Equivalence strategy was used which served the best in this case. The expression hell raiser which is the equivalence for *بچه فجیع* is had implied exactly the purpose of this sentence.

Example: 3

انشالله تعالی به همچین مالی...

God willing, a hot dish...

یعنی به همچین بانوی وجیهه ی فهمیده ای روی زمین نمیمونه

I mean a modest, smart lady like her, won't be hard to pass off...

Reza shared his train compartment for some hours with a young girl and her mother. The lady was asking Reza to pray for her girl to find a good husband. Reza who was very attracted to the girl, forgot the mullah's dress he was wearing for a while and started with a colloquial expression which was not suitable for his position as a mullah but he realized his situation quickly and corrected himself. The word مالی in Persian has different meanings. It can refer to a good object, financial issue or a hot girl. The use of the expression 'a hot dish' as an equivalence for the word مالی could transfer the humor in this sentence. The rest of the sentence was literally translated.

Example: 4

الا ای الحاله خداوند به ما خدمت بدهد که به شما توفیق کنیم

Anyhow, I hope God gives me the service to offer you my strength

Substituting the position of the words ((توفیق، خدمت)) along with the mullah's jargon by Reza created humor in the Persian version. Literal translation has been used for the words خدمت (service) and توفیق (strength) which could transfer the humor.

Example: 5

البته بنده نمیدونم این آقا مجتبی سوالارو از کجاش در میاره!

Of course I don't know where Mojtaba' gets these questions!

There are two boys in the mosque and one of them (Mojtaba) kept asking interesting questions which have never been questioned by anyone else before. In this excerpt, Mojtaba asked a question which was really hard to answer even by real mullahs. The ironic sentence that Reza said was to show his anger politely. The Persian idiom was lost but literal translation could transfer part of the humor.

B. Unsuccessful Translation of Linguistic Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 6

حاج آقا بیخشید ، یک سوال

May I ask you a question, Hajji?

بفرمایید

Sure

شما درس خارج خوندید دیگه؟

You have done studies in theological cognition?

خارج نخیر ، بنده تمام مدت قم بودم

No, I've spent my whole life in Qom

The first time Reza came to the mosque, Mojtaba asked him if he had studied theological cognition. This special course which was a high-leveled mullah's education is called خارج in the Persian language. This word also has another meaning that is outside the country or abroad. As long as Reza was not familiar with this lesson (theological cognition), he took the other meaning and answered that he had spent all his time in Qom (which is the main city in Iran for mullah's education) and never been abroad. This joke was not transferable due to the linguistic and cultural barriers. Firstly, English viewers are not familiar with the Qom city and secondly, the homonym word خارج does not have any equivalence in English.

Example: 7

شما بفرمایین بنده این عزیزان رو راهی کنم

You go on, I'll escort these dear souls

الهی که من ...یقین بدونید که اجازه ما هم دست شماست عزیز دل برادر

I also ask your permission

In this excerpt, Reza wanted to say goodbye to the lady and her daughter. As mentioned before, some colloquial expressions that Reza used in his speeches created humor in Persian original movie since he was wearing the mullah's cloth. In this scene, the words الهی که من were used in cases when you want to flirt with a girl. These words were deleted in translation and in consequence, humor was not transferred.

Example: 8

خوب اذان بده بریم دیگه

Well, call the "Azan" so we can begin

اذون گفتیم حاج آقا

I already called

از کدوم؟

Called who?

اذون دیگه

The "Azan", sir

Reza wanted to say prayer for the first time in the mosque as an Imam (prayer leader). Before that, he asked Mojtaba how he is going to say his prayer in order to learn it implicitly from him (he did not know how to pray). The first sentence in Persian language is funny for the colloquial expression he used because normally people never use such expressions for religious subjects. The last two sentences are wordplays which there are no equivalence for them in

English. The word *اذون* (AZAN) is a homonym and refers to two things. The first function is related to religious ceremonies and in the second function, it means 'from that one'. Literal translation was used in this situation which did not transfer the humor.

Example: 9

هیچی ، عرض کردم تو عزیز دلمی دل انگیز

Nothing, I said peace be upon you, Delangiz

اگر اسلام دست و بالم رو نبسته بود

If only Islam hadn't tied our hands

There is a bad guy in the movie who is Faezeh's ex-husband (Faezeh is the girl whom Reza met in the train compartment). The word 'Delangiz' in Persian is a homonym and has two functions. Firstly, it means something or someone pleasant and secondly, it refers to a family name. The use of 'Delangiz' as a wordplay by Reza created humor in the Persian movie. However, this humorous expression did not transfer through literal translation. The second sentence is a colloquial expression which again is funny in Persian. The literal translation for this sentence is completely satisfied but since its meaning relies on the humor of the last sentence which did not transfer, the humor of this sentence was not transferred either. The actual intention of Reza by saying these two sentences was that if he was not restricted by his position (mullahs' dress), he would punch the man.

Example: 10

به قدری سوال میکند ماشاءالله که انگار خوارو مادر آدم را ... باهانش وصلت میکند

He asks so many questions that it has become a pain in the... neck

Taboos are rarely used in Persian movies but there are some sentences and words that imply taboos indirectly. This sentence is indirectly referring to a taboo expression. Moreover, the word *ماشاءالله* which is used more often in a mullah's jargon created more humor in the Persian version. The literal translation was applied but the whole translation was wrong and meaningless.

C. Successful Translation of Cultural Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 11

حاج آقا ببخشید بعد از دیدن فیلم ترسناک نماز آیات واجبیه؟

Is the fear prayer required after watching a horror movie?

چون امکان دارد که موقع دیدن فیلم ترسناک خودتان را خیس بکنید

Since you might piss in your pants after watching a horror movie

برای شما طهارت واجب است

Ablution is in order for you

برو آب بکش

Go and wash up

ننویس ، برو آب بکش ، برو

Don't write, go wash

Reza was talking with his friend on the public phone about his escape plan when he saw Mojtaba and his friend eavesdropping on him. Mojtaba again asked a funny question but Reza who was mad at him tried to insult him with his answer. The funny part is that Mojtaba never noticed his intention. In spite of the unfamiliarity of English viewers with the fear prayer (in Islamic rules in case you are really afraid of something you have to say the fear prayer), the literal translation could transfer the humor.

Example: 12

حاج آقا قطب شمال ، شش ماه شبه ، شش ماه روز

Hajji, in the North Pole we have six months of nights and six months of days

چه جوری میشه نماز خونند؟

How do we say our day and night prayers over there?

Example: 13

یک جوری آدمو نگاه میکنید انگار بلیط شمس العماره دستتونه

You look at me as if you have a bus ticket for the North Pole

و میخواید برید قطب شمال!

And you want to leave right now!

Example: 14

نظره اتفاقا در خصوص این موضوع هنوزم میان علما اختلافه

Actually, there are differences among the clergy over this issue

یه عده از علما نظرشون اینه که ما مسلمین اصلا به قطب شمال نباید بریم

Some of them believe that we Muslims should never go to the North Pole

چون گرمایی هستیم و سرما به ما سازگار نیست

Because we are used to warm climates and the cold weather will bother us

حالا چه کاریه که ما بریم به یه جایی که خدایی نکرده از شدت سرما به لقاله بیبونیم

Why should we go to a place where we might freeze to death?

Example: 15

خب حاج آقا ببخشید با این حساب آگه بین مسلمین و قطب شمال جنگی بشه
Then, if a war breaks out between the Muslims and North Pole
تکلیف اون مسلمونی که اسیر میشه چیه؟
What would happen to a Muslim who might be taken captive?

Example: 16

بله!

Yes!

اتفاقا اون دسته از علمام همینو میگن

Actually this is what the other clergy say

که شما تو اون شش ماهه شب هر نمازی که بخوانید

All the prayers that you say during the six months of night

جزو نماز شب محسوب میشه ...

Will be considered as night prayers and so...

و اصلا گور پدر قطب شمال

To hell with the North Pole

شما بهتره که طبق ساعت مملکت خودتون نماز بخوانید و بخوانید

Say your prayers according to the local time of your own country

Mojtaba kept asking interesting questions and Reza made up the answers which created the humor in Persian version. Literal translation was used for examples 12, 14 and 15 and humors were transferred in these sentences. In example 13, equivalence strategy was used and humor was transferred. However, in number 16, humor was not transferred since night prayer is referred to another kind of prayer which Muslims say during the midnight to the morning Azan and it is completely different with the five times prayer during the day. As English viewers cannot distinguish between these two (day and night pray), they were not able to comprehend the humor.

Example: 17

ولی خوب به هر حال مهمه که مسلمین بدانند...

But anyhow, it's important for Muslims to know...

در فضا چگونه به وظایف شرعی خودتون عمل کنند

How to conduct their religious duties in space

Again, in this scene, Mojtaba started asking interesting questions regarding how Muslims should do their religious duties in space. Literal translation was used and could transfer the humor.

D. Unsuccessful Translation of Cultural Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 18

خیلی باس ببخشین ها، شما آخوندا مئه اینکه روضه خونین اموراتتون نمیگذره

Excuse my language, but do you Mullahs have to preach all the time?

Reza was talking to the Mullah in the hospital; he was so mad at his life. Mullah wanted to give him some advice to make him feel better but Reza said a funny thing in response. His sentence refers to the actual works of mullahs (giving speech). He said that you cannot make money for a living without giving speech to others. Literal translation did not transfer the intention of the sentence.

Example: 19

سلام بنده رو به مادرتون ابلاغ بفرمایید!

Give my regards to your mother!

In the train station, a teenager wanted to have fun with Reza (wearing mullah's cloth) and told him: Hey, Hajji, your turban is backwards. Reza, who was not aware that the turban does not have an inner or outer side, took it off to check. When he got his intention, he wanted to pass some taboo words on him but he realized his situation (People considered him as a Mullah). Therefore, he said his taboo in an indirect way. The literal translation is correct but did not transfer the intention of this sentence which is passing a taboo. Hence, humor was not transferred.

Example: 20

گفتیم کجا بهتر از اینجا پیش حاج آقا که امین ناموس مردم هستن

And I thought next to you would be the safest place for these ladies

بله بنده امین ناموس هستم

Yes, they'll be safe here

When the train officer brought Faezeh and her mother to Reza's compartment, he asked Reza politely for the permission to allow the two ladies to be in the compartment as there were no family compartment available and he thought that the safest place for them would be in the mullah's compartment who will never betray his trust and take care of the ladies. Using the expression 'امین ناموس' in Persian has created humor in this case because he was not really a mullah; and was staring at the girl in a bad way while saying the expression. The literal translation could not transfer the humor.

Example: 21

ببخشید این وقته شب مزاحمتون میشم ها

Excuse me for bothering you this late, Hajji

اختیار دارین! عندالمطالبه بنده در خدمت شما هستم

No problem, I'm at your service anytime

Faezeh came to Reza's room in the mosque late at night. Reza was happy and thought that maybe she was there to make love and said something funny. In order to understand his answer, viewers need to have some background knowledge in Islamic rules and traditions. The one referred here was that whenever a marriage is happening, the groom must point an exact amount of money, gold, house or any other valuables for the bride. This is called MEHRIEH which does not have any equivalence in English. MEHRIEH can be asked by the woman at any time of their marriage or in cases of divorce and the groom is obliged to pay for it. In this scene, Reza referred to this tradition and implicitly said that he is going to pay MEHRIEH in cash which created the humor at this point. Literal translation was not successful in this culture-bound joke.

E. Successful Translation of Universal Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 22

حاج آقا خوده خدا هم نمیخواد من این کاره بشم

Even God doesn't want me to become a clergy

بزمجه! خریبت خودتو گردن خدا ننداز

You sap! Don't blame God for your stupidity

Example: 23

ببین منو! آدمی خوب، آدم خود به خود علاقه داره به کاره خلاف

Look at me! You are a man and all human beings are attracted to mischief

دسته خودشم نیست

Its human nature

خوده خدا هم اینقدر که میکن سختگیر نیست

God is not as strict as they say

بابا اگه خودشم از بیخ با این قضایا مخالف بود اصلا آلت جرم به من و تو نمیداد

If he was totally against these things, he wouldn't give us the tools for mischief

In this excerpt, Reza was giving some speech to one of the boys to calm him down. He said things that are very interesting that people rarely think about and his speech created humor in the original Persian version. Literal translation was successful because the concept is understandable universally.

F. Unsuccessful Translation of Universal Jokes in English Subtitling of the Case Study

Example: 24

بیا، میخنده، برو تو

Come on!! Get inside

Only one case was found categorized under universal jokes which had failed in the humor transfer. The funny part of this sentence is the word *میخنده* in Persian which means 'he laughs'. This word was deleted in the translation and as a result, humor was not transferred. In fact, it showed that laughing was considered a crime in this situation.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The aim of the present study is to investigate the strategies employed in the subtitling of Persian comedy movies into English. In order to conduct the study, a brief description of audiovisual translation and its categories by different scholars was reviewed. Furthermore, the definition of humor, its classifications and translation strategies proposed by scholars were also presented. The major tools in creating humor in the Persian movie in this study can be categorized as follow:

1) Incongruity: in this movie, incongruity plays an important role in the creation of humor. On the one hand people expect certain behaviors and speeches from mullahs and on the other hand Reza who wore mullahs' cloth with the usage of colloquial expressions with mullahs' jargon resulted in the contradiction between Reza's behavior and the expectancy of people from mullahs which had created humor in the movie. Moreover, Reza's answers towards many religious questions contradicted with the reality and this had subsequently produced humor.

2) The great use of idioms, colloquial expressions and jargons: the other tool in the creation of humor in this movie is the abundant use of idioms and colloquial expressions. Reza mixed the colloquial expressions with mullahs' jargon which created humor in the Persian movie.

3) Wordplays: there are many instances of wordplays in this movie which created humor. For example is the word *دل انگیز* (DELANGIZ) which refers to a family name or something pleasant. Another example is the word *خارج* (KHAREJ) which refers to theological cognition (a high level course in mullahs' education) or out of the country.

4) False pronunciations of the words: for example, *معین باشید* (MOAYAN BASHID) which is the mispronunciation of the word *مویب باشید* (MOAYAD BASHID) which means be successful.

5) Great reference to the religious elements: there are many instances of humor that are referred to cultural-religious elements. For instance are *نماز ایات* (NAMAZ AYAT) which means fear prayer. or *طهارت* (TAHARAT) which means ablution.

The findings of the study indicated that universal jokes are easily transferred into other language/s. However, linguistic and cultural jokes resisted in translation due to the differences between the two languages and cultures. Based on the findings of the study, equivalence and literal translation are found to be the most commonly used techniques in subtitling of comedy movies from Persian into English. Out of 104 humorous expressions extracted from the case study, literal translation strategy was used in a number of 94 items; equivalence strategy in a total of 7 items and omission strategy were used in only three elements. The main theory behind the great use of literal translation strategy (more than 90%) in this case study is twofold: firstly, the great reference to the religious, linguistic and cultural elements which in many cases there were really impossible to transfer the humor and the second reason was the carelessness of the translators whether intentionally or unintentionally. Some practical and useful strategies in humor translation are: the use of idioms, colloquial expressions, wordplays and proverbs. However, except for some instances, no examples of these types were found. Persian translators tend to use literal translation in most cases which was the easiest but the worst strategy for this case. As a conclusion, cultural difference is a major issue in humor transfer due to the unfamiliarity of viewers with the source culture. In such cases, domesticating the target text by creating new humorous expressions in regard to the context (image, sound) would be the best choice.

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Politeness in Arabic Culture

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Abstract—As soon as we want to speak, we must constantly make choices of many different kinds of e.g. what we want to say, how we want to say it. Specifically, we must choose what sentence types, words, and even sounds best unite the *what* with the *how*. How we say something is at least as important as what we say. In fact, the content and form are quite inseparable, being but two facets of the same object. According to Thomas (1995), the past twenty years within pragmatics there has been a great deal of interest in 'politeness', to such an extent that politeness theory could almost be seen as a sub-discipline of pragmatics. Then Thomas claims that, much has been written (comparatively little based on empirical research) and different theories and paradigms have emerged. Thomas adds, that we find people are using the same terms in very different ways, are operating with different definitions of 'politeness' and are talking at cross-purposes. Thomas (1970) argues, that within the vast literature on politeness which has built up since the late 1970s we find tremendous confusion. The confusion begins with the very term politeness, which has caused much misunderstanding. (Thomas, 1970, p. 149).

Index Terms—politeness, successful communication, impoliteness, addresses, forms and meaning

I. INTRODUCTION

I will try in the present paper to discuss 'politeness' in Arabic and to show the importance of its influence in Arabic spoken language. The only article (as far as I found) which discussed politeness in Arabic was written by Ali El-Sayed in linguistic journal 89-90, however, his analyse was focused on the Egyptian dialect only and he made a few comparisons with English.

I, in the present study, will try to make this study wider and more analytical work, that I will not focus the present study on one dialect but on spoken Arabic in general which would be understandable from the majority of Arabs who spread in all over the world.

I would like to write about this topic to show how much Arabs involve this linguistic phenomena in their conversations, and what type of expressions that they use the most. The structure that I have made in the present study will be as follows:

In the background, I discuss the main function of politeness in Arabic culture, a list of politeness expressions have been chosen from Arabic, and give a view of the linguistic background.

The main section will be 'observation and analysis' (section 3) where I will present the main politeness forms in Arabic and their functions, and also present an analytical study of these expressions in Arabic which includes a comparison with English where semantic similarities and differences will be pointed out, as well as the pragmatic properties of politeness expressions

II. BACKGROUND

The two main topics which will be discussed in this section are:

- The cultural background of Arabs regarding 'politeness'. I will try to give a brief picture represented in table to make it explicit, and a list of politeness forms have been selected as an entrance to the reader for this study,
- The second topic will provide theoretical linguistic background of politeness. As well as some theories.

A. The Cultural Background

The Islamic religion interferes with most aspects of Arabic society. But, at least in theory we can talk about:

a) *The Social Side*, and b) *The Religious Side*

Since this study of politeness will be concerned with the expression of interpersonal relations, we must point out that the individual has to keep a balance between two very different attitudes. On the one hand, religion says, that you should show humility in your interaction with other people. On the other hand society recommends strongly that the individual shows dignity. The tension between these two opposing attitudes very often puts the individual into a difficult situation.

How do you show humility without losing your dignity?

As an example, let us consider the following situation:

A person is asking for a favour to borrow some money, this request could be expressed in three different ways:

1. the humble way, example: [mumkin law samaht itsallifni flws]'would you please lend me some money'
2. the dignified way, example: [sallifni flws] 'lend me some money'!

3. the polite (best) way, example: [billahi ʔalik itsallifni flws] 'I swear you God to lend me some money'

The third example, typically contains a reference to God.

I would like to point out, that many politeness expressions includes God's name.

In the third expression, we see that the idea of politeness constitutes a compromise between the humble way and dignified way.

The humble way is shown by starting the request form with the name of God, and the dignified way is shown by using verb [sallifni !] 'lend!' in the imperative form (the undignified way would be to use the verb in the present tense form and inflected for modality e.g. 'would you lend me...'). This expression's structure is very acceptable and common between Arabs.

It is also important to point out, that it is a strongly recommended by **Islam** to express and show *humility*. This human behaviour must not be misinterpreted by other cultures (Arabic behaviour is sometimes misinterpreted as devious by Westerns).

For instance, losing one's dignity or face when showing humility.

As well as, this behaviour may be misunderstood and the interpreter may think that this behaviour is used to serve X's benefits.

These two concepts are very important and central in Arabic culture when they involve politeness in speech.

The individual has two main demands from two different directions: from religion and from society. This is represented in figure 1.

Religion -----> Individual <----- Society

Figure (1)

Figure (1) shows the two main powers that a person must be aware of in relation to politeness. This pressure (sometimes) confuses the speakers in communication and might cause him/her some troubles if he/she cannot keep the balance between these opposing pressures. Society has its requirements on the one hand, and religion gives its recommendation on the other hand.

Abdul Qader Yassine in his book entitled 'Understanding the Arab mind' (1997) has aimed to provide a cross-cultural guide for foreigners who are living in an Arab country, who encounter Arabs frequently, or who are interested in the behaviour of Arabs, whether encountered in the media or personally.

Furthermore, most of Yassine's material in this book comes from his own personal experience and observations.

Politeness phenomenon was focused in Yassine's study on the behaviour on to be polite in specific occasions e.g. receiving guests at home and the interact between guest and host for both males and females.

In my point of view, if someone intends to discuss politeness, there are many other concepts are involved in this phenomenon, (as it shown in the present study), but not one side only, e.g. to distinguish between religion and social factors, and what roles both sides have played in Arab culture, then we might also compare this phenomenon with some other cultures e.g. European.

Yassine's study was just showing politeness and exemplified alot of cases which focused only on 'generosity'.

However, politeness still involved in many other expressions in several occasions e.g.

- a) expressed in different ways either by using spoken, body, or both in language,
- b) and used in different times which related to different occasions.

To conclude Yassine's study which related to 'politeness', I think that his work in this area was focused on one side only is, generosity and hospitality among the Arabs.

1. Some important situations when to be polite in Arabic

Below, I would suggest that, there are at least 'nine' situations where it is especially important to be polite in Arabic. These nine situations can be classified as follows:

- when you want to express sociability
- when you want to express gratitude
- when you want to express benevolence and felicitation
- when you want to express guilt
- when you want to ask for permission
- when you want to express your appreciation of the others actions, positions, relatives and friends, even the other person's culture and language, and everything related to the interlocutor
- when you want to express hospitality and generosity
- when you want to express your respect for the other
- and when you want to start a conversation.

I would like to observe also, that in some cultures (like Arabic) the naming of God may amplify the expression for politeness. As well as, non-verbal behaviour and prosody may be used systematically.

Such reference has the function of reminding people (and always) of their 'faith' who represents a central part of their life and communication, then Islam was recommended and strongly to use those expressions who involve God's name, religious expressions for different occasions, etc.

2. How to be successful in communication with Arabs

As soon as the present study is dealing with the Arab culture I have found that it might be useful to give an introduction of the most important points that Philip R. Harris, and Robert T. Morn (1979) have discussed in chapter '13'. Regarding to the above writers, I have formulated the main three points they have discussed are, linguistic factors, physical factors, and successful relations. Moreover, I will end up this abbreviation by drawing a conclusion regarding to their study as well.

1) Some linguistic factors to be aware of when working with Arab,

- a) Arabs love the spoken word, they don't get to the point quickly, it is wise to show appreciating for that, but not impatience.
- b) They are masters at flattery and appreciate compliments.
- c) The answer 'yes', or 'no' is not a crucial promise, however, you should repeat and emphasise several times and to show that in your face value.
- d) Arabs find bluntness very disrespectful, which make them usually respond on the same way.
- e) Any effort the foreigner makes to use Arabic will be received and appreciated from the Arabs and create much more positive results. e.g. their language occasions.

2) Some physical factors to be aware of when working with Arabs,

- a) Use strong eye contact, eyes are the windows to the soul.
- b) Avoid gesturing or eating by left hand.
- c) Don't lay your leg/s points towards someone's (an Arab) face.
- d) Arabs like to have short distance during face-to-face conversation.
- e) Yes; is expressed by nodding head. No; is expressed by titling one's head and clicking one's tongue.

3) For successful intercultural relations with Arabs,

- a) Don't refuse a gift, or this will be considered as an insult as it is refusing the person himself.
- b) Arabs are very emotional people, and its easy to provoke them. They expect periodic displays of emotion from others including foreigners.
- c) Criticisms of an Arab should be done tactfully, and do any serious criticising in private on a one-to-one basis.
- d) Don't criticise somebody in the front of them, otherwise they will sympathise with him/her against you.
- e) Don't try to break the ice by making a polite inquiries with an Arab's wife or daughter, or even to discuss your own wife or daughter with them.

The following points are an abbreviation of the above three points:

1. Arabs are emotional, their dignity is important to them.
2. The loyalties of an Arab are: family, community, country, friends, and outsiders.
3. Arabs are hospitable, and their offers must not be refused.
4. Arabs are honest, however, they love driving hard bargain.
5. Showing respect is very important.
6. A Saudi shakes hands frequently, but it is not a firm handshake. (partly true)

Note,

In chapter 19 (working in the Middle East), the above writers have mentioned several stories related to 'Intercultural' interaction between Americans, Canadians, etc from one side and with Saudi's from the other side. The results of the above stories differ for different situations.

For example:

A Saudi who emphasized to pay the bill in the restaurant without an agreement with the foreigner (American).

A foreigner who eat with his left hand, and lay his leg in the front of a Saudi's face.

B. Linguistic Views of Politeness

Politeness phenomena as a part of speech acts have been discussed by many writers. Some have divided these phenomena into several concepts. Some have discussed the negative and positive sides of politeness, and some have tried to define politeness. All the aforementioned items will be discussed in the present section.

Thomas (1995) has argued that, the term *politeness* since the late 1970s caused tremendous confusion. Thomas has separated four concepts that people have discussed under the heading of *politeness* (p.150)

Below, I will demonstrate each concept separately.

1. Politeness as a real-world goal

Thomas (op.cit) has interpreted politeness as a genuine desire to be pleasant to others, or as the underlying motivation for an individual's linguistic behaviour. The writer claims, that politeness as a real-goal has no place within pragmatics.

2. Deference versus politeness

Thomas makes a distinction between deference and politeness which is quite difficult to understand. The writer understands deference as the respect we show to other people by virtue of their higher status, greater age, etc. Then, the writer continued that, both deference and politeness can be manifested through general social behaviour, and she exemplified that, we can show deference by standing up when a person of superior status enters a room, or to show politeness by holding the door open to allow someone else to pass through. (first example refers to the whole body movement, and the second one refers to a part of the body)

3. Register

Thomas, in reference to Lyons (1977), refers the term 'register' to 'systematic variation' ... in relation to social context. Thomas also makes reference to Halliday (1978, p. 32), the way in which 'the language we speak or write varies according to the type of situation' (Halliday, 1978, p. 584)

Thomas argues, that choice of register has little to do with the strategic use of language and it only becomes of interest to the pragmatist if a speaker deliberately uses unexpected forms in order to change the situation (in the same way that we may switch from a polite pronoun to an informal pronoun, in order to change the social attitudes) or to challenge the status quo.

4. Politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon

Walters (1979a and b) defines the concept 'Politeness as an utterance level phenomenon' as being "to investigate how much politeness could be squeezed out of speech act strategies alone", and to investigate the perception of politeness by native and non-native speakers of English and Spanish, using a 'standard lexical context' in order to establish a 'hierarchy of politeness', instructing his informants to ignore context as much as possible.

Thomas, however, has a hypothesis regarding the above concept which says, that the more grammatically complex or elaborate the strategy, the more highly it is rated for politeness.

Example,

A: I wonder if I might ask you to X?

Would be counted (all things being equal) as 'more polite' than:

Please X!

Which in turn was ranked as more polite than the unmodified imperative form:

Do X!

Politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon is the last concept that Thomas mentions and discusses in her book.(relying on work by Leech (1980 [1977] and 1983a and Brown and Levinson 1987 [1978]). These writers have done some work in politeness theory, and their work is focused on politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon, and they have interpreted politeness as a strategy (or series of strategies) employed by a speaker to achieve a variety of goals, such as promoting or maintaining harmonious relations.

Moreover, writers like Fraser (1990) have classified the pragmatic approaches to politeness under three headings:

1. the conversational maxim view was taken from Grice,
2. the face management view expressed by Brown and Levinson, and
3. the conversational - contract (Fraser's own view)
4. Thomas has added a fourth view: the pragmatic scales view taken from Spencer-Oatey (1992)

These approaches have brought together many of the strengths of and avoids some of the weaknesses of these approaches.

I would like to point out that, Thomas (1995) has involved deference and register in his analyses of 'main concepts of politeness', and said that these two concepts are not primarily pragmatic concepts, however, for two reasons he interfered them:

a) politeness is frequently confused with deference / register, and

b) the politeness/deference distinction is a useful illustration in one of her central chapters which discussed the distinction between pragmatics and sociolinguistics.

C. Politeness versus Impoliteness

Brown and Levinson (1987 [1978]) have discussed politeness and tried to identify this terms from two perspectives, the positive and the negative sides (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 101-29). Moreover, I will try myself to give an example for each one of them They said:

A) politeness. Is some kind of behaviour which has the purpose of evoking positive feelings in your listener.

The above writers have been accounted round fifteen positive politeness giving from many different languages.

The example below for instance will discuss this matter, when a student leaves with a smiling face to his/her teacher during the conversation. This is received positively by the hearer.

B) impoliteness. Is the absence of politeness.

It has been accounted about ten negative politeness strategies by those writers also.

Example:

when someone interrupts the conversation repeatedly by saying for example, excuse me, pardon me, etc. This cause irritation and interruption.

D. Politeness Routines, and Address Terms

A) Politeness routines

Giles, Robinson, and Smith (1980) have discussed politeness under the label 'the acquisition of social speech'. Their studies have focused on children and they have shown how politeness is taught to these children by parents, school, etc. They have shown that differences of sex and age are important in this matter.

Giles et.al. earlier hypothesis which says, that parents may be more insistent that girls produce polite phrases, was disconfirmed.

Giles et.al. have focused their investigation on the American society, the main expressions they focused on are: *Hi*, *thank you*, *good bye*, *please*, and *I am sorry*.

They have argued, that children produce politeness routines without any discussion of their meaning or any evidence that they knew that *thanks* were suppose to mean; they never varied the forms or expressed their appreciation in any other words. The writers end up this argument by saying that, it was also clear that *thank you* was the most obligatory of these routines.

The writers have regarded expressions like *thank you*, as not understandable expression for the children at a certain age. However, they are obligatory terms to hear first, then to repeat, because adults by large and have to force them into producing them.

Giles et.al. have discussed an interesting Sociolinguistic discovery; that adult's responses are so strong that no matter how many times you say *Hi* to them, they will say *Hi* right back. Somewhat older children play games with one another in which on parting the object is to see who will say the last *Good bye*.

Moreover, Giles et.al. have promised to make another similar study which will be focused on '*please*' expression, and entitled as 'what is the magic word?'

Finally, Giles et.al's study is based on tape recordings for free conversations to American families (Giles et. al, 1980, p. 25-27).

B) Address terms

Pronouns.

The French term *Tu* is a solidarity 'singular you' (T), and *Vous* is a politeness 'plural you' (V), but usage requires that you use *Vous* which individuates on certain occasions. Then, Wardhaugh (1991) gives interesting interpretation and said, that the T form is sometimes described as the 'familiar' form and the V form as the 'polite' one. The writer has presented T/V distinction. e.g. Latin (*tu/vos*), Russian (*ty/vy*), Italian (*tu/lei*), German (*du/sie*), Swedish (*du/ni*), Greek (*esi/esis*), and English itself once had such a distinction the thou/you distinction. (p. 258)

I have involved the above discussion into the present study to show some connections between the word 'polite' itself and how much this expression has spread in the world. Wardhaugh has continued, that this polite usage spread downwards in society, but not all the way down, so that in certain classes, but never the lowest, it became expected between husband and wife, parents and children, and lovers.

Wardhaugh (1991) and under 'Solidarity and Politeness' has discussed and exemplified the following topics: *Tu* and *Vous* (French terms) abbreviated as 'TV', and he discussed the terms of address also (p. 258),

Another topic which Wardhaugh has discussed is related to the 'politeness' phenomenon in one important area; Address terms. To address people who are from different cultures and levels of society requires you to follow certain rules of addressing people as e.g. doctors, workers, students, strangers, etc. The writer argued, that we can see some of the possible dangers in cross-cultural communication when different relationships are expressed through what appears, superficially at least, to be the same address system. Then the writer explained the problems which might arise for persons who do not follow these rules of address, and said that the problems are even greater if you learn the terms in a new address system but fail to appreciate how they are related to one another. (Erwin-Tripp, 1972, p. 231)

Consider the following example. The Arabic expression [law samaht ya ?χi] 'excuse me/pardon me brother' is very common and important to use to address someone that you don't know.

The Swedish expression [du] 'you' is used (more or less) for the same purpose.

However, if a Swede uses the Arabic equivalent of 'du' this might lead to misunderstanding and it will be unacceptable for the Arab person who consider this addressee form as an insult or showing disrespect to people according to his/her culture. Whereas, the expression [du] in Swedish and among Swedes doesn't mean the same thing at all.

The same situation we will find if an Arab person uses the form 'excuse me brother/sister' to a Swede person in Sweden, but the main difference, regarding to the above example, that Swedes will not consider the Arabic expression as an insult, however, they might laugh, take it in different consideration/s, intentions, etc because they are not familiar with those expressions anymore.

Moreover, the addressing terms that Wardhaugh described, that "it seems that a variety of social factors usually govern our choice of terms: the particular occasion; the social status or rank of the other; sex, age, family relationship, occupational hierarchy, transactional status, i.e. (service encounter, or doctor - patient relationship, or one of priest - patient), race, or degree of intimacy."

Wardhaugh has exemplified, that on Chinese show still prefer the use of a title to the use of e.g. director, or 'chief'. We can draw up some formula which reflect how the inferior addresses a superior in China:

La#o + LN + title (LN= last name)., with practice varying according to location. (Fang and Heng, 1983, p. 499), in (Wardhaugh p. 272).

I would like to point out, that the term 'face' which was used by Goffman (1967) and said, that it seems the first used in English in 1976 as a translation of the Chinese term '*diu# lia%on*' in the phrase 'Arrangements by which China has lost face'. Since then, it has been used widely in phrases such as 'losing face', 'saving face'.

Regarding the above example, I have the following comment, that the addressing terms are **universal**, however, the only reason which make them appear and been used very much, is that the **society customs**, and the opposite is right.

We may consider this example. People from Middle Eastern cultures use address terms very frequently, whereas, Swedes use them very little.

In Arab society, they use 'professional titles', even to people whose first names are unknown they still can address them by their professions, e.g. engineer, doctor, teacher, scientist, etc + his/her first name. This we find very seldom among Swedes when they address each other (in the hospital, people sometimes will address a nurse as [sister] or the doctor as [doktor]).

E. Concluding the Discussion of Politeness

Below, I will mention some other characteristics of 'politeness' and according to several writers,

A) Wardhaugh (1992): "politeness itself is socially prescribed". Then the writer explained, this does not mean, of course, that we must always be polite, for we may be quite impolite, to others on occasion. However, we could not be so if there were no rules of politeness to be broken.

Impoliteness def. "Impoliteness depends on the existence of standards, or norms, of politeness". (p. 275).

I think that Wardhaugh tried to characterise 'politeness' and its opposite meaning 'impoliteness' in order to recognise the connotation of the term 'politeness' itself.

In addition, Wardhaugh seems to don't give a specific and clear def. of politeness.

B) Leech (1980 [1977]): "sees politeness as crucial in explaining 'why people are often so indirect in conveying what they mean, and (1983a) as rescuing the co-operative principle 'in the sense that politeness can satisfactorily explain exceptions to and apparent deviations from the CP" (p. 80)

CP = co-operative principle.

C) Brown and Levinson (1987 [1978]): "politeness is interpreted as a strategy employed (or series of strategies) employed by a speaker to achieve a variety of goals, such as promoting harmonious relations".

D) Goffman (1967): "politeness is a concept of *face*"

Note, Goffman used the term 'face' in the sense of 'reputation' or 'good name'.

E) Corresponding to the above characterisations of politeness, I will try to deduct a new concept of politeness:

Politeness is a kind of conventional behaviour dictated by the culture in question, especially directed at creating harmony between people and taking the other into ethical consideration (cf. Allwood 1976). An act of politeness is successful or not successful, and is not true or false, but is subject to felicity conditions of the kind formulated by Austin.

In this respect, it might be argued that acts of politeness should be compared with 'speech acts' in Austin's sense.

III. FORMS AND MEANING OF ARABIC EXPRESSIONS FOR POLITENESS

In the present section the work will be presented in the following order, the most important sub-concepts expressed in politeness, some of these concepts are of such a general nature that it may be unnecessary to define them. I would like to add that some of these concepts may 'overlap'.

A. Sociability

The main function of sociability expressions is to express and maintain a social relation.

Examples:

The expressions [ahlan wa sahlán] 'hello' precedes, [marhaba] 'welcome': are uttered by the host when a visitor enters his home to express pleasure at seeing him/her.

I would like to point out, that excess in the use of welcoming phrases can be discovered very easily in greetings among Arabs. The same applies to the use of endearments that emphasise friendliness and solidarity among Arab friends. (In the Arab world friends are treated as brothers).

I would like to add, that Ferguson (1976), noted that elaborate greetings are often needed in Arabic. Moreover, he noted also that extended conversation openings used by Arabs when speaking to native speakers of English seem to result from a transfer of Arabic discourse politeness strategies into English.

[alla^h yikun fi ʔunak] 'may God help you' 'Good luck'

Success:

Said to someone about to take his examinations, or perform some difficult task, etc. As well as it could be said to a person who is not going to do an important task.

In English also could be used for the same purpose.

[masal χir] 'good afternoon' 'evening of goodness'

Greeting for part of day:

In the politeness expression is restricted in use to a part of the day

The expression almost is used for the same situation. Moreover, Arabic expression in 'greeting in the part of the day, covers a wider time span (that includes both, evening + afternoon).

[maʔ issalama^h] 'with safety' 'Goodbye'

Wide range of situation:

In the last example, we have seen that the English expression 'Goodbye' used wider than Arabic. It includes, weather the speaker is: leaving the addressee,

weather the parting is temporary or permanent, long or short.

In Arabic This expression is used to people who are: leaving permanent or temporarily, for a long or short time.

Honorifics and names

This category is very important in Arabic communication of politeness. In connection with names the final name has a special function in the expression of politeness. Generally, the final name is used in communication with persons you do not know very well. Moreover, this phenomenon exists in many other places in the world e.g. Europe, USA, etc.

It should pointed out, however, that it is possible to use the first name combined with a title of some kind, for example, 'brother Mohammed' or 'Mohammed brother' and so on. If you know a person's title or profession you will always use it if you want to be polite.

Another interesting observation, is that in Arabic it is very common for people (younger males, old, and married) to be addressed as [aʔbu X] 'father of X' or [iʔm X] 'mother of X', and the old prefer to be addressed with these titles than by their proper names. However, women, in general, don't like to be addressed by the above titles but by thier first names instead, because they think that these types make them appear older!!.

This type of politeness expression appears in section 3.8 as well.

B. Gratitude

When you are grateful to someone for his/her favour, present, etc.

Examples:

[baraka llahu fik] 'God bless you': is said to perform the act of thanking

[ilbaraka^h fik] 'blessing in yourself': used as an expression of condolence upon the death of someone (addressing the family members and the relative of the deceased)

[la tuðkurha] 'don't mention it', [bilmarra^h] 'not at all': both expressions are used in response to an act of thanking.

It is important to point out, that something related to these examples has been discussed by Verschueren (1981), who calls them: 'the forgotten routines' (p. 89-90).

The examples below, we will see certain expressions that contain a reference to God. This is typical for this class of expressions.

[baraka llahu fik] 'God bless you': said when you thank someone for presenting a gift.

[alla^h yisamhak] 'may God forgive you': said when someone offends you.

[alla^h ikbiir] 'God is great', [alla^h maʔak] 'God be with you': said when you sympathise with a someone who has been suffering from e.g. injustice, humiliations, etc.

[alla^h yirða ʔalik] 'may God pleased with you': said when you beg someone in order to prevail on him to do something for you.

[tisbah ʔala χir] 'may I see you tomorrow morning in good health'

The purpose of this expression which could be used from both speaker and the listener as response, that said when someone is about to go to bed.

[ilhamdu lilla^h] 'praise to God'

Gratitude:

This expression used in general to thank God, in both Arabic and English.

This expression conventionally used in ways in which English expression is not,

For example:

- a) it can function as a response to an enquiry after one's health,
- b) it can function as to indicate that everything is fine,
- c) it can function as to indicate that one has finished eating, and
- d) it can function as to indicate that one does not want any more food offered by hosts.

Apology and Gratitude

There is a special kind of politeness expression, combining an apology with an expression for gratitude. This expression is used when you have every reason to believe that your apology will be accepted.

Example:

[ʔafwan ʃukran] 'excuse me thank you', this expression is used by, e.g. someone passing very closely in front of another person.

The last example above represents differentiated for different situation, such examples are used in Arabic and we can consider this example under section 3.4 as well.

C. Benevolence and Felicitation

First of all, I have noticed that there is a similar relation between benevolence and felicitation, however, below I will try to discuss and exemplified each one of them in separate as much as possible.

- Benevolence occurs when you wish luck to someone concerning a future action, happening, etc.
- Felicitation expressions refer to a specific actual situation like, birthdays, graduating, travelling, etc.

1. Benevolence examples:

The expressions [la ba's ʔalik] 'no harm on you', [ma tʃuf ʃar in ʃaa' alla^h] 'you don't face harm God willing': are used when you wish someone recovery from illness.

Perhaps in English there is a synonymous expression which says: 'get well soon' said to someone that hope to recover from illness. However, in English, this expression is used only in written/running texts and can be seen on the get well cards named after this expression.

Examples:

[alla^h yʃinak] 'may God help you': said when you wish someone good luck.

[naʃiman] 'may God bless you'

This expression is said to someone who has just taken a bath, or who has just had his hair cut.

[bissihha^h wilʃafya^h] 'with health'

This expression is said by the host who finds pleasure in commenting on belching.

[hamdilla^h ʔassalama^h] 'thanks to God for your health'

This expression is said to someone on his/her arrival home, or to a woman after giving birth.

Special cases of benevolence

A: [ʃufitum] 'I wish you a recovery'

This expression is recommended from religion as well, and said to one after being at his toilet.

B: [ʔufitum] 'I wish the same to you'

The response from the listener as a comment on his comment

2. Felicitation examples:

The expression [mabruk] 'blesses': is used to congratulate someone upon his/her success, e.g. in examination, marriage or engagement.

The examples below show some expressions that can be used in certain occasion,

[hadʒ mabruk waḍanb maʔfur] 'may God make it for you an accepted pilgrimage and a forgiven sin'

Occasions:

This said to a person when he/she goes or comes back from visiting mekka^h.

I think that these two expressions might be a parallel used in connection with a certain culture - specific occasions.

[hamdilla ʔassalama^h] 'Thanks God for your safety' 'thanks to God for your safety'

Safety:

Said to one who just arrived from his/her travel, or to a woman who just had a baby.

[rabna yisamʔak ʃir] 'may God let you hear something good'

Such expression is used e.g. when a student is about to hear something nice related to his examination results.

[mabruk ittuhur] 'blessed circumcision'

This is to be said to the family of the child who has been circumcised.

[rabna itammim bilḫir] 'may God bring this to a happy end'

The use of this expression is said to one who engaged, or has just marriage.

[syam maqbul] 'acceptable fasting'

This expression is connected with certain religious occasion, Ramadan, and said to Muslims who are about to start fasting.

[mabruk] 'Congratulations' 'blessed'

Deeming of success:

Both expressions are used to acknowledge that an addressee has achieved what is deemed to be success. e.g. getting marriage, having a child, pass an examination, finding job, getting engaged, buying something new, etc.

D. Guilt

Expressions for guilt are used when you want to express the guilt for having done harm to someone.

Example:

[ana fi ḫayāt innadam] 'I am terrible sorry'

Apology

In apologizing, the Arabs usually use many expressions. While in English the expression e.g. 'sorry' is used almost in all situations that require apologizing, the Arabs use different expressions for apology in different situations

To illustrate this, I will give a number of examples below:

[samihni] 'forgive me', and [haqqak ḫalayya] 'your right on me': are said to apologize when you hit someone's car by mistake in the street.

[maḫliḫ] 'take it easy': said to apologize when you can not manage to finish certain work given to you.

[wala yihimmak] 'never mind': said to apologize when your advice for someone was disappointing and did not bring any results.

I would like to point out, that there is certain apology forms are used under section 3.5 when you ask for permission.

E. Permission

When you want to ask someone for permission to do something.

Examples:

[ḫafwan mumkin tismah li...] 'pardon me would you excuse me...'

[alla^h yixallik] 'please' 'may God preserve you'

Request marking:

These two expressions may used in the beginning of a request marking it as polite.

This expression which refer to 'please' roughly, is freely usable to any kind of illocutor.

Request

There are several expressions in Arabic used to express request in a polite way;

[ardḫuk] 'please': used to constitute request or invitation.

The meaning of 'please' has been discussed by Davies (1987, p. 89-90) when he discusses the example 'please sit down', Davies said, that 'please' itself here would does not constitute a separate illocutionary act.

In addition, this type of expression used in section 3.7 as well.

F. Appreciation

When you want to express your appreciation of the other's e.g. actions, position or status, the other person's culture, language, etc and everything related to the interlocutor.

Example:

[luḫatak dḫamila^h] 'you have nice language'

G. Hospitality and Generosity

When the host wants to express his/her hospitality to the others, and the response from the guest/s.

Example:

[hayyakum alla^h] 'God bless your coming'

In a comparison with English, we find that expresses the speaker's pleasure at seeing the visitor would be considered appropriate. However, the word 'welcome' to a British person sounds rather quaint or stilted when used to greet a neighbour or close relative. On the other hand, an Arab would not hesitate, in welcoming a visitor to add another welcoming phrase like:

[ilbit bitak] 'will you make my home as your home', and

[iḫtibir innak fi bitak] 'feel that you are in your home'

[sufra dayma] 'a permanent food table'(may God keep your house always open for visitors)

This expression is used by guests to express his/her grateful thanks for the host's hospitality.

Prosody (intonation and strength)

Prosody has special functions in relation to politeness, and this is something we find in almost every human language.

Example:

High intonation= [itfaddalu?] 'you come in!', this imperative form said to a group in order to welcome them inside the house. If the host did not use this high sound then people will hesitate to come enter his house, and the host will be considered as impolite person.

Low intonation= in the Arab world, when male talk with female usually use the low sound as an expression of politeness.

H. Respect

When you would like to express your respect for the other.

Example:

[hadritak ʔalabt minni..] 'you (special title of respect) asked me to ...'

Non-verbal behaviour

The kind of behaviour described below is shown very much among Arabs and in Arabic culture. We see this clearly, e.g.

- the kissing of cheeks can be used as an expression for politeness.
- bowing and lowering of gaze, to express respects for a person of high position.
- handshaking, amplified by the use of both hands, followed by placing your right hand on your heart, this is to express politeness, harmony and love.

These are some examples I have chosen to show how much non-verbal actions are used in Arabic culture and between people in communication.

It is important to point out that this type of non-verbal behaviour exists in section 3.6 also.

I. Introduction of Conversation

When you want to start conversation with a stranger, or a person you are not much acquainted with etc, Arabs very often use a polite expressions to open the conversation.

Examples:

[law samaʔt ʔ mumkin ʔ ya aiχ...] 'excuse me / would you my brother...'

[χir inʃaʔ ʔllaʔ] 'goodness if God wills'

Receiving news, goodness or badness:

This is very special expression, which is said as a response to someone who is about to tell a story or some news.

In English we may find similar expression, as the above one, but in some extents.

The above example is used (in Arabic) in section 3.1. as well.

As a last word of the above concepts explanation, I would like to add, that perhaps all expressions can be used in a polite or impolite way, but there is a class of expressions whose primary use can be characterized in terms of politeness.

J. The Recognition of Social Status (Pronouns)

In discussing pronouns, I will focus on the use of the second person pronoun in Arabic only. Swedish and English will be involved as well. This comparison work will be shown in table.

TABLE. 1:
PRONOUN IN PLOITENESS

Languages	Singular			Plural		
	neutral	intimate	respect	neutral	intimate	respect
Arabic	inta	inta	Intu(m)	Intu(m)	Intu(m)	Intu(m)
Swedish	du	du	du/ni	ni	ni	ni
English	you	you	you	you	you	you

As we see above, Arabic and Swedish have the same function of pronouns to refer to the singular and plural forms. However, the English have one pronoun only who refers to both forms.

Regarding to the singular pronoun of respect, I would like to point out that the only different between Arabic and Swedish by the amount of giving this pronoun in communication e.g. in Arabic society, when they address the old people, boss, rich, leader, etc the pronoun of respect must combine with the person's name like, [taht amirk~~um~~] 'under your service'. However, this is not used in Swedish very often.

I would like to mention that pronouns are involved in section 3.8 as well.

IV. CONCLUSION

To conclude the main points which have been discussed in the present study, I have divided them into the following points:

1. Arabic politeness is structured and controlled by two main influences: religious faith, and social convention.
2. The power of religious faith expressions related to politeness in Arabic, are stronger than social convention. The most usual expressions in the present study contains a reference to God. Indeed, we rarely find politeness expressions which don't mention God's name.
3. Titles e.g. 'sir' for individual persons is a universal in all cultures and languages. However, cultures differ in the degree of using such expressions.
4. Politeness in Arabic can be analysed in at least ten semantic categories are: sociability, gratitude, benevolence and felicitation, guilt, permission, appreciation, hospitality and generosity, respect, introduction of conversation, and the recognition of social status (pronouns) all were discussed in section '3'.
5. *Humility* in Arabic is not equal to loss of dignity or loss of face, but to show high degree of respect based on religious and social recommendations. However, this may be a cause of misunderstanding, misinterpreting, misjudging from other cultures if they have interacted with Arabs e.g. Swedes.
6. In the Arabic society the social hierarchy was and is still noticable. However, when Islam spread in the Peninsula (Saudi Arabia nowadays), religion has recommended Arabs to use many politeness expressions, this recommendation has enriched the Arabic language.

Moreover, the high-class people of the Arab society are between two main pressures, religion which orders them to show much humility as possible, and the social convention, sometimes in opposition to religion. When in doubt, people usually follow religious recommendation.

7. The present study supports the ideas expressed by Philip R. Harris, and Robert T. Morn (1979) regarding interaction with Arabs. Which included three main points are: linguistic and physical factors when working with Arabs, as well as how you should act to reach to successful relations with Arabs.

Finally, Politeness actions in Arabic in the Arab society, are very much dependent on situations e.g. verbal, non-verbal, or both actions together.

I would like to comment, that if was the function of politeness expressions (especially thanking forms) coincidence with the social goal of establishing and maintaining a polite and friendly social atmosphere, then I think, that those expressions are of utmost importance to Arab learners who do not like to appear awkward, eccentric, impolite, or even ridiculous.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I thank all persons who participated in the present conversations. My special thanks to the Jeddah College of Advertising at **the University of Business and Technology in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia** who has supported my submission especially by the head of the JCA Prof. *Munir Al Sayed*.

As well as my grateful thanks to my colleagues at the JCA who encourage me to submit my article to enrich and extend the academic researches under the command and the umbrella of the University of Business and Technology.

I am deeply in debt to a number of relatives: my parents, for their support and prayers. My special thanks goes to my wife. She has been, and still is, patient and supportive. The same thanks is also for both my daughters and son, whose birthdays have given me and my wife's life positive meaning. My friends have also given me much encouragement.

I, also, thank my co-advisor, *Sören Sjöström* for his guidance and his advice to me to write about this topic. Thanks to the Prof. *Allwood* for his comments, as well as I am grateful to *Shirley Niklasson* the library assistant in my previous Department of Linguistics at Göteborg University for her help in searching for relevant literature connected with my topic.

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2. <http://www.ijar.lit.az/en.php?go=march2011> "ARABIC LINGUISTICS AND SIBAWAIHI"

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3. <http://ojs.academypublisher.com/index.php/tpls/article/view/011115211530> "Ibn Khaldun and Some Classic Views in 20th Century Linguistics" Abdullah Yaqub Samarah.

Contrastive Analysis of Politeness in Jordanian Arabic and Turkish

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Abstract—Languages have different expressions that reflect their societies and cultures. Jordanian Arabic and Turkish are very rich in this area. Jordanian and Turkish people use specific expressions to convey the message of politeness in their communication even though some of the Turkish expressions do not have equivalents in Arabic. What is polite is based on cultures and contexts. Politeness is defined by Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary as "showing or characterized by correct social usages". Politeness expressions are used in different contexts in Jordanian and Turkish societies. They convey the message of respect and love.

Index Terms—politeness, politeness and culture, contrastive analysis, pragmatics, silence and compliments

I. INTRODUCTION

Communication among people implies the exchange of idea and it shapes the interpersonal relationship among them. The forms of communication can be classified as verbal or non-verbal. Non-verbal communication is used among the people as the process of communication through body language or facial expressions to show politeness, anger, shyness, surprise, etc. politeness is also expressed as verbal and non-verbal. It is a topic of discussion among the researchers to know what is polite and what is not. Politeness is based on society and culture of its language. Accordingly, what is considered as polite in specific culture may be impolite in another or it may refer to something else. Each society has its own norms and expressions to show politeness and respect. In Turkish society, a kiss in public among some people regardless the sex is a sign of politeness and greeting. This is a taboo in Jordanian culture where a kiss in public is allowed among males only. This is a proof that there is a cultural gap between Jordanian culture and Turkish one.

Politeness is defined by Brown and Levinson (1987) as an attempt by the speaker to keep the self-esteem, or face, of both the speaker and the hearer. Politeness is essential phenomenon in a language and society. It is based on speech act, so politeness has per-locutionary effect on the receiver of the speech. The receiver may react positively as a result of politeness. Elen (2001) emphasizes that the norms of the society are based on the culture and they are part of the sociolinguistic system whereas politeness is a subsystem. The norms and characteristics of a culture are shown in its language. The students who learn a foreign language ought to be acquainted with its culture, because some gestures and facial expressions may express different hints from their own culture. Turkish and Jordanian people use their faces to express politeness. They usually use smiles to express politeness during the conversation. They also greet the elder by taking right hand kissing and place it on one's forehead. This is used for the highly respected elder. The most important characteristic of Turkish and Jordanian cultures is their high degree of hospitality. Accordingly, polite expressions and gestures are needed in both cultures. Mills (2003) considers politeness as "the expression of the speakers' intention to mitigate face threat carried by certain face threatening acts toward another" (p.6).

To conclude, polite speech is the use of verbal and non-verbal communication among the receivers and producers that take the receivers' feeling into consideration by expressing respect for them.

II. SPEECH ACTS AND DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Discourse Analysis is the study of the relationship between language and its use in context. Austin (1962) focuses on the producer's intention to convey the message to the receiver. He states that in uttering a sentence, a producer is involved in three acts:

1- The locutionary act: The act of uttering a statement with sense and reference and with certain meaning as the following example shows: "stand up, please".

2- The illocutionary act: what communicative function of the statement expresses in specific context. The example stated above "stand up, please" may be considered as an order or a request depending on the context and who says it and to whom.

3- The perlocutionary act: The effect of the statement on the receiver.

Discourse analysis focuses on studying the language above the sentence level. It is also concerned with the language in use and in social contexts. It goes along the speech acts of Austin (1962) because both focus on language use, the intentions of producers and receivers and mainly on contexts. Beaugrande and Dressler (1986) and Brown and Yule (1989) also go along this trend by focusing on the role of producer's intention on the receiver within specific context.

Speech act (Austin, 1962), politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987) and Discourse Analysis (Brown and Yule, 1989) are concepts that are dealt together in relation to each other within the context of language use because they are related and interrelated. Ellis (2001) assures that when a speaker produces an utterance in specific context, he performs speech acts which involve the use of a locutionary act, an illocutionary act or a perlocutionary act as the example stated above.

In order to bridge the gap between discourse analysis and speech acts, the following elements ought to be taken into consideration when analyzing a text:

- a- The intention of the producer and its effect on the receiver.
- b- The context of the text.
- c- The social distance between the producer and the receiver.

III. POLITENESS IN TURKISH

Each country has its own various norms to express politeness. Politeness is considered as a social concept which is based on society. Brown and Levinson (1987) study the use of language in the service of face management. They study two varieties of face management: positive face and negative face.

1- Negative face: the rights to territories, freedom of action and freedom from imposition-wanting, your actions not to be constrained or inhibited by others (Jasim and Aziz, 2010).

2- Positive face: the positive consistent self- image that people have and their desire to be appreciated and approved of by at least some other people. (Jasim and Aziz, 2010).

Speech act is a strategy which is used to express politeness between the producer of the text and its receiver. Yule (1996) considers politeness as the means employed to show awareness of another person's face. Politeness is derived from facial expressions that are related to the public self-image of a person.

Turkish is spoken by about 75 million people in the Republic of Turkey and about 200,000 people in Northern Cyprus. Turkish is an Ural - Altaic family of languages. It is written left-to-right. Turkish alphabet is stated as follows: a, b, c, ç, d, e, f, g, ğ, h, ı, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, ö, p, r, s, ş, t, u, ü, v, y, z. The Turkish alphabet contains 29 letters. Punctuation is the same as those characters used in English language. Its alphabet contains 29 uppercase and 29 lowercase. Turkish is very rich in using a set of expressions which reflect its culture and society. Some of these expressions are specific to Turkish culture and they do not have exact equivalents in Arabic. Politeness expressions are widely used among Turkish people through communication. Turkish language distinguishes between second person singular pronoun *sen/you* (singular) and second person plural pronoun *siz/siz / you* (plural). **Siz** - you (plural) is used for politeness and show respect whilst **sen-you**(singular) is used for friends and family as the following examples show:

a- *Siz Öğretmenimiz / siz öğretmenimiz /*

you (plural) + teacher + miz (our)

you (plural) are our teacher.

b- *Sen arkadaşım / sen arkadaşım /*

you (singular) + friend + my (- im)

you (singular) are my friend.

Friends and relatives greet and respect each other with two kisses on the cheek whereas the young respect elders by kissing their right hands and placing them on their foreheads. The young also try not to say "No" for elders. "No" is considered as a kind of impoliteness for them. Brothers and sisters also respect each other in their family. The young call the elder sister "abla" /æblæ/ and elder brother as *abi/æbɔ /* whereas elder ones in the family have the right to call the members of the family by their first name. It is also impolite for the young to call elders by their first names. They address them as follows: Uncle (*Amca /æmdzæ /*), grandmother (*Nine /nine/*), *buyuk anne /bujuk æne/*, *baba anne /bæbæ æne/* and grandfather (*Dede / dede /*, *buyuk baba / bujuk bæbæ /*).

Many expressions are used to welcome dialogues. One may be welcomed to a home or country. The following expressions are mainly used in Turkish society to welcome someone:

a- *Hoş geldiniz / hɔ:ʃ geldiniz /*

you are welcome or it is nice you are here. The response to this expression is (hoş bulduk) / hɔ:ʃ bulduk / which means "it is nice to meet you, too".

b- *Merhaba / merhæbæ /*

It has the meaning of Hello!/Hi!

The reply of Merhaba is Merhaba.

c- *Buyurun /bujurun /*

please, come

It is used if one asks you if you have time or invites you for something. Your positive answer is (Teşekkür ederim)/tefekyr ederim/ which is equivalent to (Thank you).

d- *Maşallah /mæʃælæh /*This expression is used to express how wonderful and great. It is said when one hears or sees a surprising positive event such as one winning a prize, or hearing a great success, so that the receiver is protected against the evil eye. The Turkish usually use a blue bead to be put in prominent place to protect them from evil eye.

The Turkish people also use other polite expressions which one used in different aspects of their life as follows:

a- Allahaismarladık / æləhæsmærlædək / or Hoşcakalın /hɔ:ʃdʒækælən / or Güle güle /gyle gyle/ The one who leaves the place says Allahaismarladık or Hoşcakalın whereas the one who stays responds by saying “Güle güle”. All of these polite expressions mean “Goodbye”.

b- Elline sağlık /eline sælək / This expression is used to a woman who has prepared the food or it is used to anything that is made by hands .It has the meaning “health to your hands”.

c- Kolay gelsin /kɔ:læj gelsɪn/. It has the meaning of “may it come easy”. It is used when the speaker appreciates someone working hard, so the speaker wishes that everything done by the hearer may be easy for him. The reply for this expression is (Teşekkür ederim) /teʃekyr ederım/ Thank you.

d- Afedersiniz /æfedersɪnɪz/. It has the meaning of “Excuse me” as the following example shows:

Afedersiniz! Okula nasıl gidebilirim? /æfedersɪnɪz ɔ:kulæ nəşəl gıdebilırım/ Excuse me + school + to (-a) + how + go + can (bilir) + personal suffix (I) (-im).

Excuse me! How can I go to the school?

e- Afiyet olsun /æfiyet ɔ:lsun/ It has the meaning of “may there be good appetite” or “enjoy your food”. It is used at any time during the meal.

IV. COMPLIMENTS IN TURKISH

Compliments are strategies and expressions that are used to praise, congratulate or encourage someone. Compliment is defined by Webster’s Seventh New Collegiate Dictionary as “a formal expression of esteem, respect, affection or admiration.”

Turkish people pay compliments for different reasons. They start their dialogue with compliments. They also foster the positive emotion with people whom they are speaking to. Wolfson and Manes (1980) relate compliments with the speech acts of Austin (1962). They state that compliments as speech acts consist of thanking, starting a conversation, giving approval and motivating specific behaviors. Brown and Levinson (1978) stress that compliments are considered as strategy to facilitate the conversation among people and they soften a face-threatening act such as criticism, apologies and requests.

The prominent characteristic of Turkish culture is hospitality. Those who visit Turkey will be treated well and will be received polite expressions. A German person who studies Turkish literature in Turkey visits his Turkish friend in his house. Look at the following dialogue.

A- Mehmet (Turkish person): Buyurun efendim, hoş geldiniz /bujurun efendım hɔ:ʃ geldɪnɪz / (coming please, you are welcome).

B- Peter (German guest): Hoş bulduk /hɔ:ʃ bulduk / (It is nice to meet you).

A- Mehmet: Memnun oldum, efendim / memnun ɔ:ldum efendım / (I am pleased to see you, gentleman)

B- Peter: Ben de memnun oldum / ben de memnun ɔ:ldum / (I am pleased to see you, too).

A- Mehmet: Siz, ne içersiniz, Peter Bey? / sız ne içfersınız peter bej / what do you want to drink, Mr. Peter? (The guest is addressed by second person plural (siz) (you) to show respect).

B- Peter: Lütfen, Kahve /lytfen kəhve/ coffee, please

A- Mehmet: Kahveniz nasıl olsun? /kəhvenız nəşəl ɔ:lsun / How is your coffee (your (-niz) is used as plural to show respect)

B- Peter: Az şekerli, Lütfen /æz ʃekerlı lytfen/ Little sugar, please

A- Mehmet: Afiyet olsun /æfiyet ɔ:lsun/ may it be good for you

B- Peter: Teşekkür ederim /teʃekyr ederım/ Thank you.

The members of Turkish family interact with each other every day by using polite expressions to respect each other’s. Brown and Levinson (1987) state that every day people give and receive compliments on appearance, ability and possession.

The following dialogue shows how Turkish members of family use the polite expressions and compliments in their conversations: Father, mother and their daughter go to train station to say good-bye to their son who wants to travel to Ankara from Istanbul by train for study. They perform the following dialogue before the time of the departure of the train:

Mother: Hadı, yavrum, vakit tamam. /hædə, jævrum vəkıt tæmæm/

Come on! my son, the time is over (it is time for the train to depart)

Son: beş dakika var, anneciğim /beʃ dəkıkæ vər ænedzıyım / five minutes more, dear mother.

Father: Annen haklı, oğlum /ænen hæklə ɔ:lum / your mother is right, dear son.

Son: peki baba, allahaismarladık, anneciğim /pekı bæbæ æləhæsmærlædək ænedzıyım/

All right father Good-bye, my mother.

Mother: sağol yavrum / sæɔ:l jævrum /

Thank you, my son.

Son: allahaismarladık, baba / æləhæsmærlædək bæbæ /

Good-bye, my father.

Father: Güle güle, oğlum /gyle gyle ɔ:lum /

Good-bye, my son.

Daughter: Güle güle ağabey / gyle gyle əyæbej /

Good-bye my brother

("ağabey" is used for an older brother as a polite address).

V. POLITENESS AND COMPLIMENTS IN JORDANIAN CULTURE

Some politeness expressions are universal because all people in different communities greet each other any time they are met. They use politeness formulas such as good morning, hello, etc. Watts et al (2005) assure that politeness is realized in different cultures and societies, so it is related and interrelated with other fields like sociolinguistics, sociology and social psychology.

Arabic is a Semitic language and it is used in Arab countries as a native language. The Jordanian Arabic alphabet is sorted as follows: 'alif (?), baa' (b), taa' (t), θaa' (θ), jeem (dʒ), haa' (h), xaa' (x), daa' (d), ðaa' (ð), raa' (r), zayn (z), seen (s), jeen (j), sʿaad (sʿ), dʿaad (dʿ), tʿaa (tʿ), ðʿaa' (ðʿ) ḥyn (ḥ), ḡayn (ḡ), faa' (f), qaa' (q), kaaf (k), laam (l), meem (m), noon (n), haa' (h), waaw (w), jaa' (j).

Khalil (2010) states that Arabic has three major varieties. Classical Arabic is the language of the Holy Quran and pre-Islamic literature. Colloquial dialects which are spoken in different countries of the Arab world. In addition to these two varieties, there is modern standard Arabic which is used in publication, the media and in academic institution. Regardless of religion and ethnicity, all Jordanians speak Arabic as their native language. Because of the mixture of people in Jordan, there are different dialects, but they are not different from the main language which is Arabic. All Jordanians use politeness expressions regardless the dialects.

The social use of the language consists cultural customs and idioms. The receivers of Arabic have to be familiar with the expressions which may be polite, impolite, acceptable, etc. Jordanians do not like to say "No" to any request even if the event is not fulfilled. They answer in the positive way by saying certain polite expressions:

ان شاء الله / inʃaʔalah/ if Allah wills

ينشوف / binʃuf / we will see

خير / xajr / It's Ok.

Jordanians use the following polite expressions to greet each other's according to the time of the day as follows:

السلام عليكم / ʔasalam ʔalajkum/ peace be upon you.

صباح الخير / sabah ʔalxajr/ Good morning

مساء الخير / masaʔ ʔalxajr/ Good evening.

صباح الورد / sabah ʔalward/ morning of rose.

مرحبا / Merħaba/ Hello

صباح الفل / Sabah ʔalful/ morning of Jasmine.

After the greetings, Jordanians shake hands and each touches his heart as a kind of respect and sincere. Jordanian men mostly greet each other with kisses on each other's cheeks, left and right. How many you kiss depends on how much you like the person. It is polite and respect if the young kiss the right hand of the old people. Jordanians ask each other about their health, families, works, etc. as follows:

كيف حالك / kajf ħalak/ How are you?

كيف الاولاد / Kajf ʔalʔawlad/ How are your sons and daughters?

كيف العائلة / Kajf ʔalʔaila/ how is your family?

بخير الحمد لله / Bixajr ʔalħamdulilah/ Fine, thank Allah

شو اخبارك / ʃu ʔaxbarak/ what's up?

كويس الحمد لله / kwajes, ʔalħamdulilah/ Good, thank Allah

Polite expressions of blessing and congratulation are used in Jordanian society as follows:

مبارك / mubarak/ congratulation

الف مبروك / ʔalf mabruk/ A thousand of congratulations

Such expressions are used when someone succeeds in study, work or when one moves to a higher position or a new house. The response for these expressions is:

الله يبارك فيك / ʔalah jibarik fiik/ Allah blesses you.

عقبال عندك / ʔuqbal ʔindak / May the success touch you.

Death is unpleasant occasion, so Jordanians use expressions of condolence as follows:

عظم الله اجرکم / ʔaḏʕama ʔalahu ʔadʒrakum/ Allah multiplies your merits

شكر الله سعيكم / ʃakara ʔalahu saʔjakum/ Allah is pleased because of your coming

البقية في حياتك / ʔalbaqija fii ħajatak/ May his/ her spirit remain in your life

حياتك الباقية / ħajatak ʔalbaqija/ May his/her spirit remain in your life, too

البقاء لله / ʔalbaqaʔ lillah/ Only Allah is eternal

شد حيلك / ʃid ħalak/ Be strong

Jordanians use their face during conversation in order to be polite. They usually use smiles to show respect and politeness. Smiles are used as social communication. A smile in Jordanian society mostly refers to satisfaction, acceptance and respect.

Initiating greetings and smiles are due to socio-religious customs in Jordan. The most prominent greeting is السلام (السلام / ʔasalamu ʕalajkum/ (peace be upon you). It can be used any time of the day. Jordanians follow the tradition of the prophet “peace be upon him” who urges us to greet each other by السلام عليكم (السلام عليكم) (peace be upon you). Adam (peace be upon him) greeted the angels by السلام عليكم (السلام عليكم) (peace be upon you). The angels replied by the same expression. Our prophet also advises us to smile before our brothers and sisters in religion and humanity by saying: تبسمك في وجه أخيك صدقة/tabasumuka fii wadʕhi ʔaxika sʕadaqa/ smile before the face of your brother in religion and humanity is a merit.

VI. GENERAL PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Cultural knowledge of the foreign language is an essential part of learning process. Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1994) assure that “the ignorance of cultural features would create misunderstanding between a listener and a speaker or a writer and a reader.” Accordingly, the receivers of the text may understand some polite expressions differently and this will change the core of the text. Facial expressions are essential in learning process. A smile may express the teacher’s attitude whether he accepts the answer of the students or not. It may be used as a stimulus to stir up the students to answer. Elhadj Said (2011) states that “face is an important cultural concept in social life; it is the social standing of a person that refers to the identity or image each person wants to claim in interactions.” (P. 20). Karimnia and Afghari (2011) state that “failure to grasp the fine politeness differences between first language and target language can lead to serious misunderstandings.” (p. 28). They add that a contrastive analysis of politeness formulas may help learners improve their communicative competence and develop a deeper understanding of the foreign culture. Contrastive analysis is beneficial in teaching foreign languages. Lado states that “the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them. The origins of contrastive analysis, therefore, were pedagogic.” (Ellis, 1985 ,p. 23). It is also recommended that textbooks everywhere ought to focus on information about language use and the culture of the target language. Textbook designers ought to state dialogue texts which include polite expressions used in the target language to avoid misunderstanding and to facilitate learning. Learning a foreign language includes the learning of the culture of the speakers who speak it in order to understand what is beyond the text and to get the cultural differences between the native language and the target language. Understanding cultural differences help learners of foreign language acquire the exact meaning of the text. Teachers of foreign languages ought to prepare exercises and activities in order to bridge the gap between native and foreign cultures, so the learners can understand the areas of differences between both languages. Teachers themselves must be familiar with cultural differences between the native and target language so that they can transfer them to their students by using wall pictures, maps, class magazine, role-play, short dialogue, group work, etc. The teachers ought to urge their students to listen to music and to see films which focus on the target culture.

VII. CONCLUSION

It is possible that people who speak different languages will face different polite expressions from their cultures. They may misunderstand such expressions which are due to the contact among each other. Foreign language learners have to interpret the target expressions correctly and to know the full meaning as they are in the target language. Al-Mutawa and Kailani (1994) assure that “the understanding of cultural allusion will help pupils grasp the full meaning or function of the linguistic form of the foreign language because they are often associated with the situation (i.e. social context in which they occur).” (p. 89).

The paper has revealed the polite expressions used in Jordanian Arabic and Turkish. Turkish polite expressions has been realized in Arabic but in different way and connotation like ان شاء الله ʔinʕaʔlah/ (if Allah wills) which refers to a negative sense in Arabic. (I will see) whereas in Turkish it refers to affirmative answer (yes). Such expressions may mislead the learners who study the target language or the speakers who use the target language in its society. Şakırgil (2011) states that learners need to develop communicative and pragmatic competence in order to use the target language effectively.

The acquisition of the conventions and the effective usage of the target language are crucial for learners of the foreign language.

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Effectiveness of Direct and Indirect Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Accuracy and Retention of Conditional Sentences Types I, II & III

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Abstract—Corrective feedback and the way of delivering play an important part in learning English in an EFL context. This study aimed at investigating the extent to which different types of feedback on EFL learners' grammatical errors would affect the level of their grammatical accuracy and retention of the structure of conditional sentences (Types I, II, III). 90 intermediate English female students in an EFL context were selected in an English language institute. This population was randomly divided into two experimental groups, one of which received indirect uncoded correction feedback and the other one indirect coded correction and the third group, control group, received direct error correction feedback. In conducting a quasi-experimental design, the present study was designed to investigate the effectiveness of three error correction strategies (Direct, Indirect coded and Indirect uncoded) through pre-test, post-test and Delayed post-test in a time span of 10 weeks. The results obtained by One Way ANOVA indicated that the students who were exposed to indirect coded correction feedback outperformed the students who were provided with direct correction feedback or indirect uncoded feedback. In addition, the findings in delayed post-test also showed that there were significant differences between the performance of the participants who were subject to indirect coded and direct error correction strategies.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, error correction, direct feedback, indirect coded feedback, indirect uncoded feedback

I. INTRODUCTION

Hendrickson (1978) believes that making errors is a necessary and natural process of language learning. Inevitably, learner errors and feedback towards errors have been of great interest to language teachers and researchers. Some researchers (Semke, 1984; Sheppard, 1992; Truscott, 2007, 1996, 1999; Kepner, 1991) do not agree with error correction and consider it harmful for the learning process but some others (Ferris, 1999, 2003, 2004; Lee, 1997, 2004; Rahimi, 2009) believe that error correction is useful and students' errors must be corrected for better learning. Explicit correction has been found to be inconsistent, unclear and overemphasizes the negative answers (Cohen & Cavalcanti, 1990; Fregeau, 1999). A lot of students do not record the mistakes noted in the feedback. Copying teacher corrections into rewrites is a passive action that does not teach students how to recognize or correct errors on their own. Fregeau (1999) discovered that the method of indicating the presence of errors without correction is also ineffective. But there are effective points to some of the common methods of teacher feedback. Fathman and Walley (1990) found that students' grammar scores improved when learners received grammar feedback that indicated the place but not type of the errors. It should be noted that researchers agree that the feedback type which indicates to learners whether an answer is correct or incorrect helps them to improve their learning; therefore, the teachers should try to provide learners with various kinds of feedback strategies to help them understand the steps of the correct problem-solving techniques. All of the researchers agreed on that doing more researches in this area for better knowing is necessary. In this study, two kinds of indirect CF, coded and uncoded corrective feedback, will be examined with two groups of students and direct corrective feedback will be provided for control group to see which method of correction can result in a better gain in

scores in accuracy of conditional types in comparison with pre-test scores.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED STUDIES

There is some research evidence in favor of indirect error feedback in enhancing students' accuracy and long-term retention in comparison with direct error feedback (Ferris, 2003; Frantzen, 1995). Chandler (2003), for example, studied the impact of direct and indirect error feedback on two ESL undergraduate groups for a 14-week semester. The results indicated that students who received indirect error feedback and were required to self-edit themselves gained more accuracy than those who were provided with direct error feedback. In a similar study, Lalande (1982) compared a group of learners with direct feedback treatment with another group that received indirect coded feedback over a semester. Results revealed that the coded error feedback group was more accurate in writing by the end of the treatment. Studies that made use of coded and uncoded feedback (Greenslade & Felix Brasdefer 2006) showed that coded feedback led to more improvement in students' writing compared to uncoded feedback. Even though the type of writing and methodology differed in the above mentioned studies, the findings are similar. These studies are however short-term ones, and so they say nothing about whether the same results would apply in the long term. The studies that follow were done in the long term and are those that reveal that feedback showed positive results. Lalande (1982) carried out a study amongst 60 intermediate students for one semester. The study made use of a pretest essay and two draft essays. Two treatments were used and these were direct and indirect feedback. The direct group had their errors corrected directly and rewrote their work while the indirect group had correction codes, rewrote their work and had an error awareness sheet. The study found that the students who received indirect correction made significantly fewer errors compared to the direct correction. Guenette (2007) criticizes Lalande's pretest results that showed significant differences in the students' writing abilities in that it is not clear how these results were arrived at. Lalande 'study also lacked a true control group that did not receive any feedback at all. This could have made comparison easier as to whether some feedback was superior to no feedback. In this study the control group received direct error correction since this is the most commonly adopted strategy in Iranian ELT practices. Aliakbari and Toni (2009) implemented a study that was similar to this study in choosing their experimental groups and also control group in which that the two experimental groups received indirect coded and uncoded CF and the control group received direct CF. The study was conducted through a pre-test, post-test design and didn't include delayed post-test. The findings of the study by Aliakbari and Toni like this study revealed that the participants who were exposed to indirect coded feedback achieved better gains in comparison with the students who were exposed to direct feedback or indirect uncoded or feedback. A number of studies show that indirect feedback results in either greater or similar levels of accuracy over time (Ferris et al., 2000; Frantzen, 1995; Lalande, 1982; Lee, 1997; Robb et al., 1986). However, some of these studies failed to include control groups and some of them could not find any significant differences between the treatment conditions. Regardless of the possible impact of latent and non-controlled variables, it can be argued that the findings of these studies support the often-made observation that different types of error correction help students improve their accuracy in writing (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003) even though some research findings claim the opposite (Kepner, 1991; Truscott, 1996).

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Design

This study, assuming a quasi-experimental design of pre-test, post-test, was intended to investigate the development of accuracy in the use of conditional sentences types I, II and III through repeated measures. Based on pretest performance, three groups were determined, i.e. two experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group was provided with an indirect coded feedback by the instructor. The second experimental group, on the other hand, was provided with indirect uncoded feedback. Finally, the control group received direct feedback on their grammatical errors simply because the most common form error correction strategy in Iranian ELT classes is direct. Therefore, the instructor managed to provide the correct form of the errors the students committed directly.

B. Participants

This study was conducted with 90 intermediate English students. The subjects had already passed *Connect One*, a four-skill American English course, and had an almost equal command of grammar knowledge. The participants were almost the same age ranging from 14 to 16. Based on their pretest scores, the intended participants were divided into three homogeneous groups, that is two experimental groups and one control group.

C. Instrumentation

For this study, the target grammatical structure was conditional sentences types I, II and III. A pre-test and a post-test each included 30 items of different forms such as multiple question, blank space, complete answer, etc. were designed to investigate the effects of corrective feedback on level of accuracy of the use of conditional sentence types among the three groups in two stages of the study.

D. Procedure

The first two weeks, time allotted to introducing Conditional sentences (Types I, II and III) then a pre-test was

administered to obtain the students' level of knowledge of the structure of conditional types before they received grammar correction feedback as treatment. Three groups were determined, i.e. two experimental groups and one control group. Based on the pre-test and also for having homogenous groups, 90 out of 100 students were chosen. The subjects had passed Connect One, a four-skill American English course and had the same level of grammar knowledge. The subjects in the first experimental group received an indirect coded error correction by the instructor. Some codes were introduced for the students and based on those codes, their papers were corrected. For the second experimental group, the error correction strategy was indirect uncoded feedback. The applied procedure for this group was that the instructor just put a mark (×) next to the sentence indicating that there was an error in the sentence without mentioning which item was incorrect and where exactly it was. As it was already mentioned, in line with the common practice in Iranian EFL classes, the control group received a direct feedback on their grammatical errors. The students in each group wrote some sentences in conditional sentences and handed them out to the teacher at the end of the class. The next session, the teacher returned their papers with indicating and/or correcting the errors based on the technique appropriate to each group. After seven sessions of treatment which continued for seven weeks, a post-test was run to determine the extent of subjects' post-treatment accuracy in grammar. Finally, two weeks after conducting post-test, a delayed post-test was administered to identify the groups with the highest rate of retention of conditional sentences. No negative scores were assigned to any of the tests and the students were, therefore, free to answer the questions. The students' final scores were counted as the number of the correct answers they provided. As such, the maximum score that each participant could gain on the test was 30. It is perhaps interesting to point out that most of the previous studies in this area examined the impact of corrective feedback on all the grammatical structures that the subjects had been exposed to, but the current study dealt with only one type of grammatical structure, namely Conditional sentences types I, II & III.

IV. FINDINGS

To ensure the homogeneity of the groups, after teaching the conditional types and before instruction began, the students took a pre-test so that the researchers could have a clear picture of their grammar knowledge at the beginning of the study. Table 1 presents the obtained results.

TABLE1.
RESULT OF PRE-TEST FOR THREE GROUPS

Groups	Number of students	Mean	Std. Deviation
Indirect Coded	30	13.3667	4.25468
Indirect uncoded	31	13.0968	4.07721
Direct	30	13.3333	3.34595

The obtained mean scores from pre-test showed that all groups were approximately homogenous. Also, analysis of variance of the data from the three groups didn't show any significant difference ($p > 0.05$). After the treatments, a post-test was administered in order to investigate the effects of different types of feedback on the learners' accuracy and progress in the language. Mean scores for coded, uncoded and direct groups were respectively 19.93, 18.03, and 14.76. The following table presents the results of this test.

TABLE2.
RESULT OF POST-TEST FOR THREE GROUPS

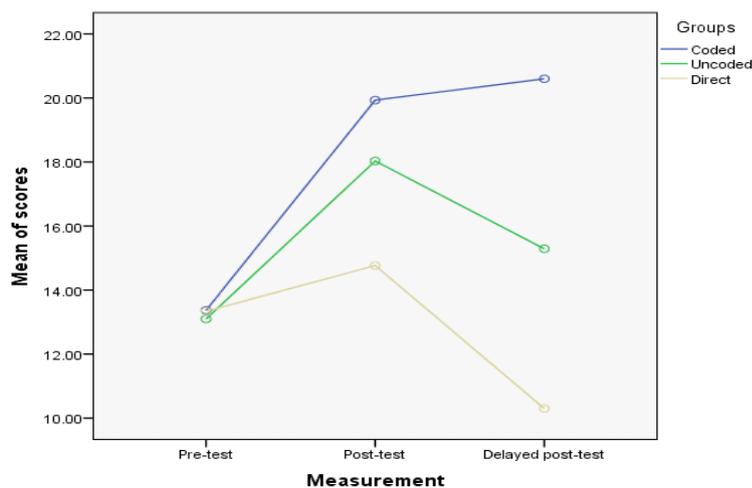
Groups	Number of students	Mean	Std. Deviation
Indirect Coded	30	19.9333	4.71924
Indirect uncoded	31	18.0323	4.15920
Direct	30	14.7667	3.66421

As Table 2 shows, the treatments resulted in a change in all the three groups' scores. The post-test showed improvement in the mean score of all the groups, so all the three methods of corrective feedback increased the level of accuracy among students. But the most effective one in this stage was indirect coded corrective feedback ($p < 0.0001$). Based on Post Hoc test (**Scheffe**), the observed difference between Direct and Coded groups and also between Direct and Uncoded groups was significant ($p < 0.0001$), but the difference between Coded and Uncoded groups was not significant statistically. The mean scores showed that indirect coded group outperformed the other groups but all the groups showed increase in their scores in comparison with their mean scores in pre-test.

For obtaining the level of conditional types' retention, a Delayed post-test was designed and the result is shown in Table 3. The indirect uncoded group outperformed the other two groups.

TABLE 2.
RESULT OF DELAYED POST-TEST FOR THREE GROUPS

Groups	Number of students	Mean	Std. Deviation
Indirect Coded	30	20.6000	3.03542
Indirect uncoded	31	15.2903	3.42728
Direct	30	10.3000	3.31298



Based on the findings, direct CF and indirect uncoded CF groups showed a decline in their mean scores at delayed post-test. As Fig.4.1 indicates, indirect coded CF group had significantly higher performance average than the other two groups in both post-test and delayed post-test. Therefore, it can be argued that among the error correction techniques, the indirect coded feedback is more likely to positively affect learners' performance in grammatical accuracy. One possible reason for the greater effect of indirect coded feedback might be attributed to level of involvement of the learners in the process of practicing and learning grammatical points under the study. They were required to think about their errors and guess the correct answers by themselves or through guidance of others such as friends or parents. This searching for correct answer process tends to stick the information in their minds even for a long time. Accordingly, it is recommended for English teachers to get familiar with and adopt and employ this strategy in error correction with EFL learners.

V. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

This study aimed at determining the impact of employing direct and indirect corrective feedback on accuracy and retention of structure of conditional sentences (Types I, II & III) with EFL learners. In fact, the study purported to answer the following questions:

1. Do indirect (coded / uncoded) grammar correction strategies leave better impact on learners' grammatical accuracy than direct correction?
2. Do indirect (coded / uncoded) grammar correction strategies result in better retention of grammatical accuracy than direct correction?

Regarding the first research question, the results showed that indirect coded grammar correction strategy group performed better than the other two groups in post-test and also delayed post-test by attention to their level of accuracy based on gained scores. Although the post-test revealed progress in the mean score of all groups, the most effective one in this stage was indirect coded corrective feedback ($p < 0.0001$). The results for the second research question revealed that the rate of retention measured by delayed post-test was also high for the indirect coded correction group in comparison to the other groups. The difference between coded and uncoded groups and also between coded and direct groups was significant because the obtained value is lower than the acceptable value ($p < 0.05$).

Despite the shortcomings associated with small-scale studies like this, the findings encourage us to suggest that both coded and uncoded error correction strategies are likely to improve learners' knowledge to figure out and correct their grammatical errors, and also make correct forms in subsequent pieces of writing. Coded correction appear to be more helpful and successful at this and it could be due to learners involving in problem solving which caused long time retention of the target structures or information. If learners pay more attention to their errors and find the correct answers by studying or taking a look at their notes, then retention of thought materials can be reached. However, the process of getting familiar of the correct forms is non-linear, and factors such as teaching input, natural orders of acquisition and individual differences can be effective.

VI. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of indirect/direct error feedback on students' performance with regard to accuracy and retention of conditional sentence types. The results showed that the traditional methods of error correction such as Direct one can be replaced by the methods that challenged the learners' minds and not only dealing with passive note-taker learners that most of them didn't care about their learning. Self-correction approach would enable students to make guesses the target language, and would help them retain the acquired knowledge in their long-

term memory. Direct method of correction does not usually result in long-term learning since students forget the grammatical rules after the examination.

It is hoped that a lot of problems related to the area of grammar in TEFL, as it is a kind of issue for Iranian students, can be solved by doing more researches in the early future. The beneficial role of Corrective Feedback cannot be ignored since it encourages language learners to identify their errors and bridge gap between their error forms and the standard forms. Therefore, English teachers should be aware of the potentials of the different types of corrective feedback, employ them appropriately, and take advantage of the benefits of these strategies in enhancing the learners' language knowledge.

Additionally, the results of this study can be practical in using Correction Feedback, specially the one which encourage learners to problem solving and thinking and not traditional way of Direct error correction that unfortunately a lot of teachers use this old and ineffective way of correction and don't allow students to be responsible and autonomous for their learning. So, it's the time for changing our point of view toward effective methods of error correction in teaching and learning English.

VII. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

Like any other research, the present study was not without any limitation. The main limitation of this study among others was its scope which dealt only a few of the techniques of CF, namely direct and indirect (coded & uncoded) corrective feedback. Another major limitation of the study was that it only investigated the impact of these CF techniques on the accuracy of use and retention of a limited number of grammatical structures, that is conditional sentences types I, II, III. This study investigated effect of the utilization of some corrective feedback techniques on the use and retention of conditional types in students' writing; the findings, therefore, could not be generalized to the use of these structures in other language skills such as reading, listening and speaking. In addition, because of some other problems like small-sized classrooms with more than 35 students, there was a possibility of cheating among students. This issue was beyond the control of the researcher and could perhaps affect the findings of the study.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Some suggestions for further study are as follows:

1- The present study explored the impact of coded and uncoded corrective feedback on the rate of accuracy and retention of conditional sentences. Further research can be done to examine the effect of these corrective feedback techniques on other grammar structures.

2- The participants of this study included only intermediate learners. Subsequent research can be done with learners of different proficiency levels.

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Does Emotional Intelligence Have Anything to Do with Risk-taking among Iranian EFL Learners?

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Abstract—The current study was after investigating the tentative link(s) between Emotional Intelligence (EQ, also EI) and risk-taking among Iranian EFL learners. For this purpose, 100 EFL language learners completed the "Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire" and the "Risk taking self-report Questionnaire". The data were analyzed using descriptive statistics and correlation analysis. The analysis of the data revealed that there is no correlation between the students' risk taking and their EQ. But it revealed that five of the subscales of EQ have a predictive power of learners' Risk-taking. The results help understand the relationship between students' emotional intelligence and their risk-taking.

Index Terms—EFL learners, emotional intelligence, flexibility, optimism, risk-taking

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning a language is an undeniable and an indispensable necessity of life of at least academicisans in the interdependent world. Horizons are broadened as science progresses; thus, there is an increasingly urgent need for meticulous investigations. In the realm of teaching and learning languages, affective factors have been found to have an importance at least equal to cognitive ones, if not more. According to Jenkins, Oatley and Stein (1998), emotions are central to human life. EQ is among those discovered affective concepts which is increasingly being studied and revealed to be very influential in successful learning(p. 136). Davis (2004) argued that whereas IQ affords the floor for accomplishments, EQ determines the 'ceiling' - that is, how high one can rise compared to others with the same cognitive and technical skills(p. 12). Goleman (2008), for example, stated that intelligence is no longer regarded as a predictor of success; it was claimed by him that IQ causes only 20% of success whereas 80% is caused by emotional intelligence. Goleman (1995) cited a lot of research on the brain in his book (Emotional Intelligence) to support that abilities such as perseverance, self-control, and self-motivation - emotional intelligence - are probably more important than IQ in causing general success. He also indicated that those skills are educable, particularly during childhood.

Another important affective factor is Risk Taking, which is a personality trait that may have something to do with EQ. It seems logical to theorize that the two constructs (i.e.: EQ & Risk-taking) may covary. The significance of the covariance of the two constructs in the field of language learning emerges from considering the results of many previous related research. Risk-taking is not irrelevant to language classes. Bang (1999), for example, found that in a language classroom setting, taking risks in using the target language has something to do with greater language skills. He stated that risk-taking is a great opportunity which gives learners more background and heightens their proficiency in second language. Ely (1986) found a correlation between risk-taking tendencies and classroom participation. "The notion of risk as being integral to successful learning is widely accepted amongst classroom practitioners, especially those involved in teaching English to speakers of other languages. Skehan (1989) has shown that language proficiency is influenced directly by classroom participation which reflects, among other things, the contributing influences of risk-taking" (cited in: Zafar& Meenaksh 2012, p. 30-44). Skehan (1989) found that risk taking was observed in social interactions as likely to raise opportunities to hear language and obtain input in SLA. Risk-takers do not afraid of getting involved in interaction, speaking language, using output and engaging in functional practice because they prefer what they intend to express without any concern. A risk-taker is more probable of taking his existing language system to the limit. In brief, research suggests that risk-taking in foreign language learning leads to greater foreign language capacities and this statement will be supported more in the review of the related literature in the current paper. All in all, the possibility of a link between the EQ of the individuals and their risk taking potential is not far-fetched since the two constructs are related to affective domain and deal with emotions while learning is in progress. The bulk of research on EQ and its crucial importance along with the role of affective factors in learning clarifies the significance of studies like the current one.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. EQ

EQ in general, improves an individual's social effectiveness. We sometimes become misled by the unimportant, and spend our energy in the wrong direction. We intend to go west, but find ourselves heading east. EQ, can function as a compass so that we can be accertained that we are on the right track. The first academic use of the term emotional intelligence seems to go back to a doctoral dissertation by Wayne Leon Payne in 1985. After 5 years in which no one else seemed to have had used the term, Mayer and Salovey (2004) tried to develop a way of scientifically measuring people's emotions in academic articles. They asserted that:

"The high EI individual, most centrally, can better perceive emotions, use them in thought, understand their meanings, and manage emotions, than others. Solving emotional problems likely requires less cognitive effort for this individual. The person also tends to be somewhat higher in verbal, social, and other intelligences. The individual tends to be more open and agreeable than others"(p. 210).

Accordingly, EQ is the ability to recognize emotions, to access and generate them in order to aid thought, to comprehend emotions and emotional knowledge, and to reflectively control them to advance emotional and intellectual growth (Mayer & Salovey, 1997). EQ also was described as the ability to recognize, understand, adjust, and harness emotions (Salovey & Mayer, 1990; Schutte, et al., 1998). From among the three known models for measuring EI, the mixed model proposed by Goleman (1998) which is a combination of the other two models (namely: the ability model of Salovey and Mayer (2004), and the trait model of Konstantin et al. (2001)) is used in the present study to measure learners EQ. Bar-on's mixed model (1997) derived from a mixed approach to measuring EQ. EI here "is an integration of interconnected emotional and social competencies and skills determining how successfully we comprehend and convey ourselves, realize others and communicate with them, and deal with daily necessities and problems" (cited in: Ghanizadeh & Moafian, 2011, p. 26). In brief, based on what went before EQ could be defined as "the ability to know feelings and emotions within one and in others _be it verbalizable or not_ and using it to control thinking and action to achieve success" (Ebrahimi & Khoshsima 2014, p. 148).

B. Risk Taking

Generally, risk-taking refers to a "developmental trait that consists of moving toward something without being concerned of the consequences" (Alshalabi, 2003, p. 22). Also it is defined as "The perceived probability of receiving the rewards associated with success of a proposed situation, which is required by an individual before he will subject himself to consequence associated with failure, the alternative situation providing less reward as well as less severe consequences than the proposed situation" (Brockhaus, 1980, p. 513). Beebe (1983) defined it as a "situation where an individual has to make a decision involving choice between alternatives of different desirability; the outcome of the choice is uncertain (p. 39); there is a possibility of failure"; in the developmental literature, risk taking is defined as engagement in behaviors that are associated with some probability of undesirable results (Byrnes, 1998; Furby & Beyth-Marom, 1992; Irwin, 1993). And ultimately Begley, (1995) defined risk-taking propensity as the willingness to take moderate risks. All in all, risk-taking could be defined as choosing between two alternatives, in anticipation of receiving reward and without any concern of failure or undesired consequences.

Risk taking is unintentional. A significant amount is caused by proactive or reactive motivation. Some argued that being able to interpret potentially risky situations and the ability to avoid excessive risks are among the most important skills an individual develops (e.g., Halpern-Felsher & CauVman, 2001; Steinberg & Scott, 2003). So, it is important to study it as a trait which triggers many activities including learning.

From what went above about risk taking construct, it could be safely concluded that it is related to other pivotal learner variables including classroom participation and willingness to communicate (WTC) while learning a language; Investigations on risk-taking behaviors is related to other broader areas like the levels of motivation and anxiety at the time of speaking in class (Dewaele, 2012). Risk-taking, with regard to classroom situation, is defined as the willingness to venture into the unknown, the eagerness to try something different without being worried about success or failure. Learning is the reward of taking risks (Brown, 2001, p. 149).

Some studies have discovered relationships between risk taking and language learning. Language learning proceeds best when learners are encouraged to take risks and make mistakes (Wells, 1986). Risk-taking has been described as a personality trait desirable for language learning. McCarthy (2005) maintained that "risk-taking is one of the qualities in the affective domain of the personality factors" which is related to success in second language learning (p. 2). In SLA academic risk-taking has been defined as a situation-based process that can be controlled by appropriate contexts for its application (Lee & Ng, 2010). According to Brown, "interaction requires the risk of failing to produce intended meaning, of being laughed at, of being shunned or rejected. The rewards, of course, are great and worth the risks" (2001, p. 150). It is also possible that risk-takers loose accuracy to have speed in speech production which may cause the production of poor linguistic output (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999).

A considerable number of works published in the literature of the field has related risk taking to other classroom factors which in turn increases the probability of the relationship between risk taking and emotions. In a research done in 1986 (as cited in Nga, 2002), Ely stated that risk taking is inherently relevant to self-confidence and classroom participation and referred to an essential factor in a language class: willingness to participate. Classroom participation may represent a valuable opportunity to improve students' skills (Hongwei, 1996). Considering risk takers' characteristics, students displaying this personality trait highly appreciate occasions for language production; thus, these students more actively engage in classroom participation (Alshalabi, 2003). Risk takers frequently demonstrate

extroverted traits, apply strategic techniques like guessing to manage uncertainty and risk levels which exist in a special condition (Beebe, 1983). Thus, pondering upon the complicated process of participating in an activity in a language class helps us understand that it seems that risk-taking stands as the first step (or possibly one of the first steps) which is supposedly the hardest, and hence merits further investigation.

C. Previous Studies on the Relationship between EQ and Risk-taking

To the best of researchers' knowledge, no study has directly addressed the relationship between risk-taking and EQ in the world of teaching and learning foreign languages so far. In the only more or less related study which was done on university students of psychology, Masnabadi M. (2014) did not find a significant relationship between EQ and Social Adjustment and Risk-Taking of 170 participants in her study, but EQ was found to be related to social adjustment. She used Social Adjustment Scale, then the Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire and at the end risk questionnaire. The philosophy behind a more or less replication of that study is that risk taking is highly at work in language classes where each and every class participation is borne and shaped by many affective factors including risk taking. Based on what is stated in the current paper, it is revealed that both of the constructs are related to affective domain, therefore there seems to be a link between the two. All in all, emotional intelligence comprises the ability to adaptively understand and regulate emotions; thus, one might rightly expect that individuals higher in EQ would maintain a more positive affective level of controlled risk-taking. For the purpose of this study, the following research questions were posed:

1. Is there any significant relationship between risk-taking and EQ?
2. Among the subscales of the EQ, which one(s) is/are positive predictor(s) of risk-taking?

III. METHOD AND INSTRUMENT

For the purpose of the study, 115 students were chosen from EFL institutes in Khorasan-e-Razavi and Sistan and Balouchestan provinces in Iran. Two questionnaires were given to them to be filled. Participants filled the related questionnaires. Out of 115 EFL learners, 100 returned completed questionnaires (about 87 % return rate). Their ages ranged from 15 to 26 years old, including high school students and university students, some of the participants did not specify their age. For obtaining reliable data and considering the ethics of research, the objective of the research was explained to the participants and they were assured that they would remain anonymous. Participation suggested implied consent. After gathering the questionnaires, some of the participants were selected randomly and were interviewed to check the reliability of their responses.

A. Instruments

To do the study the "Bar-On EI" test and "Risk taking self-report Questionnaire" were distributed. For measuring individuals' emotional intelligence, Bar-On developed a 133-item self-report Emotional Intelligence scale. This EI test, (the emotional quotient inventory EQ-I), provides an estimate of EQ including 5 major scales and 15 subscales (using five-point Likert Scale ranging from 'Never' to 'Always'). In the present study, the Persian version of the test was administered. Dehshiri (2003) stated that the test is valid and reliable in the culture of Iran. Estimated via Cronbach's alpha, the total reliability of the questionnaire was 0.82. "Risk Taking self-report Questionnaire" was used to collect data on risk-taking of students along with a demographic form asking questions about their age, gender, and major. The self-report questionnaire -extracted from the book "Understanding Yourself", SIGNET publication (1980) validated for Iranian culture and translated by Rezakhani (2001) investigates students' risk-taking with questions which allow for 3 choices.

B. Data Collection

The study was done in 3 language institutes of Khorasan-e-Razavi and Sistan and Balouchestan in IRAN, over a period of 2 months in the summer of 2014. Students were informed of the questionnaires, and then the "Bar-On EQ test" and the "Risk-taking questionnaire" were distributed. Questionnaires were coded numerically for the sake of increasing reliability of answers. The questionnaires were filled after informing the participants of the significance of the investigation and the possible influence of that on their future academic life to guarantee ethical procedures. Therefore, they were not reluctant to participate in the study and affirmed their consent verbally. 330 questionnaires (115 EQ and 115 risk-taking questionnaires) were distributed out of which 200 (100 EQ and 100 risk-taking questionnaires) were returned (about 87% return rate).

C. Data Analysis

Descriptive statistics were employed in the current study. To determine the relationship between learners' Risk Taking and EI, a Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted.

IV. RESULTS

In order to do an analysis on the relevant data in the current experiment, the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 22 was employed. The level of significance was set at 0.05. Table 1 summarizes the descriptive statistics of the two instruments – Risk-taking and EQ Scale –utilized in this study.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR RISK-TAKING AND EQ

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Risk-taking	100	50.00	107.00	81.2700	11.94673
EQ	100	374.00	566.00	465.3300	52.48608

To analyze the data, based on risk-taking classification, the participants were divided into three groups: The subjects who scored 75 and below comprised the low risk-taking group, those scoring between 76 and 99 were placed in the mid risk-taking group, and those who got above 100 formed the high group.

To ensure the normality of the distribution of the three groups, a Shapiro-Wilk test was run. The results showed that there was a normal distribution of scores in each group ($p > .05$) except for the Mid ($p < .05$) (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
THE TEST OF NORMALITY FOR THE THREE GROUPS

	Group	Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.
EQ	Low	.929	24	.093
	Mid	.950	70	.007
	High	.833	6	.113

Thus, the researchers determined to use non-parametric statistics. In doing so, for comparing the mean scores of the three groups in EQ, a Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted. As Table 3 displays, the high group at 64.83 had the highest ranking and the ranking for the other groups were respectively as follows: there was 49.21 for the mid group and 50.67 for the low group (see Table 3).

TABLE 3.
THE RANKS FOR THE THREE GROUPS IN EQ

	Group	N	Mean Rank
EQ	Low	24	50.67
	Mid	70	49.21
	High	6	64.83

Table 4 shows a chi-square statistic that has a probability of $p = .449$ at 2 degrees of freedom. Consequently, it was concluded that there weren't statistical differences between the three groups at EQ.

TABLE 4.
TEST STATISTICS FOR THE THREE GROUPS AT EQ

EQ	
Chi-square	1.603
df	2
Asymp. Sig.	.449

To investigate which components of EQ might have more predictive power in predicting learners' risk-taking and how other components contribute to this model, a stepwise regression analysis was utilized. The following table is the ANOVA table of regression. The quantities of F-values and the magnitudes of the respective p-values ($p < 0.05$) indicated that the considered models were significant (see Table 5).

TABLE 5
THE ANOVA TABLE OF REGRESSION

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1492.657	1	1492.657	11.576	.001 ^b
	Residual	12637.053	98	128.950		
	Total	14129.710	99			
2	Regression	2560.937	2	1280.468	10.736	.000 ^c
	Residual	11568.773	97	119.266		
	Total	14129.710	99			
3	Regression	3054.394	3	1018.131	8.825	.000 ^d
	Residual	11075.316	96	115.368		
	Total	14129.710	99			
4	Regression	3627.346	4	906.837	8.203	.000 ^e
	Residual	10502.364	95	110.551		
	Total	14129.710	99			
5	Regression	4090.700	5	818.140	7.661	.000 ^f
	Residual	10039.010	94	106.798		
	Total	14129.710	99			

- a. Dependent Variable: risk-taking
- b. Predictors: (Constant), optimism
- c. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, self-regard
- d. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, self-regard, self-actualization
- e. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, self-regard, self-actualization, flexibility
- f. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, self-regard, self-actualization, flexibility, emotional self- awareness

As Table 6 displays, among the different components of EQ, five (i.e., Optimism, Self-regard, Self-actualization, Flexibility and Emotional Self-awareness) were found to be good predictors of the dependent variable (risk-taking). Among the five, Optimism and Flexibility were the positive predictors, whereas Self-regard, Self-actualization and Emotional Self-awareness were the negative predictors of the students' risk-taking.

TABLE 6.
THE RESULTS OF REGRESSION ANALYSIS FOR STUDENTS' EQ COMPONENTS AND RISK-TAKING

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	55.321	7.711		7.174	.000
	optimism	.862	.253	.325	3.402	.001
2	(Constant)	60.619	7.624		7.951	.000
	optimism	1.528	.330	.576	4.630	.000
	selfregard	-.789	.264	-.372	-2.993	.004
3	(Constant)	72.818	9.540		7.633	.000
	optimism	1.712	.336	.646	5.087	.000
	selfregard	-.698	.263	-.329	-2.652	.009
	selfactualization	-.616	.298	-.214	-2.068	.041
4	(Constant)	67.540	9.622		7.019	.000
	optimism	1.557	.336	.587	4.630	.000
	selfregard	-.771	.260	-.364	-2.971	.004
	selfactualization	-.744	.297	-.258	-2.506	.014
	flexibility	.605	.266	.231	2.277	.025
5	(Constant)	66.479	9.471		7.019	.000
	optimism	1.690	.337	.637	5.019	.000
	selfregard	-.632	.264	-.298	-2.399	.018
	selfactualization	-.536	.308	-.186	-1.739	.085
	flexibility	.757	.271	.289	2.791	.006
	emotionalselfawareness	-.659	.316	-.262	-2.083	.040

- a. Dependent Variable: risk-taking

Table 7 demonstrates the model summary statistics. The results showed that the model containing the five components of EQ, Optimism, Self-regard, Self-actualization, Flexibility and Emotional Self-awareness could predict 25 percent of the students' risk-taking. The R value was 0.53 which indicated the correlation coefficient between the students' risk-taking and the five components. Additionally, it showed the effect size of the analysis which was a large magnitude (Larson-Hall, 2010). Its square value was 0.29 and its adjusted square was 0.25. It showed that about 25% of the variation in the students' risk-taking could be explained by taking their Optimism, Self-regard, Self-actualization, Flexibility and Emotional Self-awareness into account. Based on the quantity of the adjusted R square (Larson-Hall, 2010), it can be inferred that the five components of EQ, Optimism, Self-regard, Self-actualization, Flexibility and Emotional Self-awareness could justify the variance of the students' risk-taking expectations to a large extent (see Table

7).

TABLE 7
R SQUARE TABLE FOR OPTIMISM, FLEXIBILITY, SELF-ACTUALIZATION, SELF-REGARD AND EMOTIONAL SELF-AWARENESS AS THE PREDICTORS OF STUDENTS' RISK-TAKING

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.325 ^a	.106	.097	11.35559
2	.426 ^b	.181	.164	10.92088
3	.465 ^c	.216	.192	10.74094
4	.507 ^d	.257	.225	10.51433
5	.538 ^e	.290	.252	10.33431

a. Predictors: (Constant), optimism

b. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, selfregard

c. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, selfregard, selfactualization

d. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, selfregard, selfactualization, flexibility

e. Predictors: (Constant), optimism, selfregard, selfactualization, flexibility, emotionalsefawareness

f. Dependent Variable: risktaking

V. DISCUSSION

The purpose of the current paper was to discover the conjectured relationship between risk-taking and EQ, along with investigating the predictive power of EQ subscales for the amount of Risk-taking and whether age moderates the association or not. In this section, the research questions are addressed and responses are provided. The first research question was whether Risk-taking and EQ were related or not. The results proved no significant correlation between the students' Risk-taking and EQ. The yielded results confirmed the findings obtained by Masnabadi (2014) who found no relationship between EQ, sociability and risk-taking of 170 psychology university students. Based on the findings of the present study which confirm the findings of the only (to the best of researchers' knowledge) similar study it could be stated that there was no significant relation between the amount of risk-taking and EQ of the students. So it could be stated that whether an individual is a person of high EI or low one, they are likely to take risks in different fields with an equal probability.

The second research question sought the predictive relationship of subscales of the EQ for Risk-taking. The regression analysis also indicated that five subscales of EQ, namely, Optimism, Self-Regard, Self-Actualization, Flexibility, Emotional Self Awareness accounted for 25 % of the variation in risk taking among the students. The results of the data analysis revealed that a significant positive relationship is at work for two of the subscales of EQ, namely Optimism and Flexibility; based on this finding it could be argued that those students with more optimism about the possible welcomed consequences of their actions, are more likely to take risks through the stages of language learning. Also, it could be argued that students who are flexible shall try new situations more than others. Thus, those who have a high Optimism and Flexibility take credence in their own abilities and move toward success; such a path is necessarily full of risks. They adjust more readily to new experiences which certainly involve taking risks. Along with optimism and flexibility which were discussed, self-regard, self-actualization and also emotional self-awareness have been found to have links with risk taking. It seems rational to argue that a person, who knows his emotions and can take control of them, takes risks more wisely and responsibly. The same argument could be done for self-actualization and self-regard.

To the best knowledge of the researchers, no study has addressed such research questions in language classes in which risk taking is a highly affective factor. As Gledhill & Morgan argued that "Language learners, then, engage in the act of taking risks simply by learning a second language because they are changing established linguistic patterns for other unfamiliar ones, which involves a game of "having a go" (2000, n. p).

VI. CONCLUSION

Inasmuch as the fact that risk-taking and EI are affective variables, it was conceivable to find out a link between the two and as an educated guess, researchers of the current study presumed that EQ can serve as a predictor for risk-taking. Thus, the aim of the study was to discover the possible interrelationship between them; yet, the results of the data analysis undertaken showed no significant relationship between risk-taking and EQ. Fortunately, the results showed a positive correlation between "Optimism" (a component of EQ) and "Flexibility" with risk taking which shows that those individuals who are optimistic about the consequences of an action and more flexible in trying new situations are more prone to take risks. While three components of emotional self-regard, self-actualization and emotional self-awareness had negative significant link with risk-taking suggesting that learners who know their emotions well, take risks more wisely and conservatively.

The findings of the study might imply that enhancing students' EQ particularly the optimism and flexibility components of it, may increase risk-taking which in turn increases class participation and learning. A course (or a workshop) on EQ for students is recommended. As a final comment, an expected result of such a change in EQ might

be reducing the pressure on students while participating in class activities to take part more, bereft of any concern about possible unwelcome events.

It should be noted that the limitations in the present study are as follows: the participants were mostly EFL learners in language institutes and the number of them did not exceed 100. The study can be conducted for EFL university students or even students of other subject matters. To the researchers' best knowledge, pertaining to the association between risk-taking and EQ, this is the first attempt to empirically explore the relationship between EFL learners' EQ and their risk-taking; therefore, replication of the present study -in which 5 EQ components (out of 15) were found to be linked to risk taking- with more participants in a broader context seems to be a rational investment.

To put an end, as it is seen, emotions play a crucial role in the life and overall success of individuals; therefore, knowing them well and trying to control them is as crucial. Risk-taking is an affective factor which seems to lend itself well to be controlled by emotions, provided that researchers delve into the idea more.

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Female Body in the Postmodern Science Fiction

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Abstract—The female body is still the focus of different and multifarious schools of feminist criticism. How does this relate to the post modern sci fi? Through examining the interactions between female bodies and technologies in close readings of William Gibson's *Neuromancer* and Greg Bear's *Queen of Angels*, we see an interesting paradox in action. On one hand naturally female body is culturally constructed according to dominant codes of femininity and racial identity, there is no way to consider the body without cultural influences coming through, but on the other, we see that the roles of women aren't the traditional, socially conditioned, and arbitrary sex roles. And often times we see an active rewriting the texts of the female body and an inversion of sexual roles. Historically the female body was constructed as a hybrid case, thus making it compatible with current notions of cyborg identity. Even today, the ambiguous constitution of female body is strongly related to cyborg identity. To contribute to the feminist studies of science and technology, this paper offers an alternative narrative of sci fi identity and argues that the female body is always gendered and is subordinated within systems of power, yet it is not fully determined by those systems and instead, always interacting with and resisting against these systems.

Index Terms—female body, science fiction, technology, cyborg, *Neuromancer*, *Queen of Angels*

I. INTRODUCTION

Historically the properly feminine body was considered to be constitutionally weak and pathological. For instance, women in advertisements are often depicted in poses that would be considered undignified for a man. Basically only one body type is preferred--- the waif look or the waif-made-voluptuous-with-reconstructed-breasts look. Yet some new ads today, for example, the new genre of physical fitness ads emphasize women's physical strength and capabilities as well as their sexuality and femininity. Ads for athletic products feature models with beautiful hair and faces, tanned skin, strong trim, and shapely bodies.

It can be argued that these new ads aim to strike balances between female athleticism and sexuality, leaving the question of empowerment up to the viewer. Yet if we cast our eyes to traditional science fiction, the picture is both monotonous and disheartening: the female body is always negatively constructed. It is gendered passive, self-denying, obedient, and self-sacrificial.

Have things changed in post modern science fiction? For one thing, post modern theory claims that women are rendered "other" (a notion that challenges the denotative stability of human identity) in the post modern discourse. With this myth, "even the special erotic nature of the feminine body may disappear" (Landa, 1996, p. 28). But, on the other hand, if we look at the images of female robots in post modern movies, cartoons, comic books, TV shows, and video games, the action heroes are often designed as leather wearing, metal dressing, with big boobs, long hair, and small waists.

So a series of questions arise: if the female body is a recurrent presence throughout the productions of world culture over thousands of years, how is it being reconstructed by and within the sci fi discourse, since as we all know, science fiction is a literature of infinite possibilities. Has the female body become unruly, uncontrollable since the female fighters are always depicted assertive, strong, and knowing what they are doing, and yet emotionless? Or as argued by cyborg feminist Anne Balsamo, "the body in high-tech is as gendered as ever" (Balsamo, 1999, book cover) and it is still under control and structured according to the subordination of women? Or even, to quote Balsamo again, the repression and disembodiment of the female body is so easily accomplished (Balsamo, 1999, p. 117) in the sci fi that the female body is rendered silent / silenced? Is the material female body an obsolete piece of meat to be cast off or does it still matter? And how does technology play a role in all this?

These sensitive issues have been brought up in today's society and their being addressed in the sci fi discourse has particular significance in that until recently, sci fi may seek to draw on the sciences for much of its inspiration, but it has also reflected the larger culture around it. The twentieth century cultural environment has been one where traditional assumptions about the roles of men and women were still unchanged. Thus reading the body into the fields of science and technology can surely help map out the post modern society.

Before we venture directly into the discussion about post modern sci fi, let us have a brief overview of various feminist studies first. Feminism is not a closed topic. It is difficult to summarize feminist literary criticism as a whole. Who counts as woman? What is woman's identity? These have been questions of debate for a long time.

According to classical essentialist assumptions, traditional or normal sexuality

(heterosexuality) is the natural result of gender differences which are the same as sexual differences: males are and should be masculine, women are and should be feminine---not just female. (Landa, 1996, p. 20)

Therefore women are essentially different from men, and in fact there is an essence of women, there is a “she”, and there is a singularity. “Foucault would have us believe that ‘she’ was hardly present, marginal and uninteresting at best” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 22).

Over the years, American feminism had shifted away from sex issues towards gender problems, that is to say, had concentrated more on social than on pure biological factors (Rodriguez, 1996, p. 109). For instance, constructivism tells us that first of all, “masculinity” and “femininity” are the result of culture and ideology, not the result of biology. Men and women are castes, not merely sexes (Landa, 1996, p. 22). For constructivist feminists, like Simone de Beauvoir, “you are not born a woman: you become one”, and the sexual symbolism which surrounds both genders is a construction.

The female body is still the focus of different and multifarious schools of feminist criticism. Cyborg feminists like Donna Haraway subverts the beliefs in the essential unity and realizes that “female” is a highly complex term and is constructed. The concept of women is elusive: “Woman disintegrates into women in our time” (Haraway, 1991, p. 160). Women’s experience is denatured. Balsamo observes that “the female body is not an essentially unchanging, given-in-nature, biological entity, but rather is symbolically constructed within different cultural discourses situated within different historical conjunctions” (Balsamo, 1999, p.22).

How does this relate to the post modern sci fi? My argument is that in cyberspace the female body still matters and yet the natural body takes the “technologically produced simulacrum” (Balsamo, 1999, p.28), the cyborg body, as its second self.

What is cyborg? “A cyborg is a cybernetic organism, a hybrid of machine and organism, a creature of social reality as well as a creature of fiction” (Haraway, 1991, p. 149). Cyborg myth is about transgressed boundaries, fusions, and dangerous possibilities. In the cyborg world, the pristine natural nature is often an illusion, because nature has been largely married to technology and in fact technology and nature becomes almost the same thing. Therefore “nature and culture are reworked; the one can no longer be the resource for appropriation or incorporation by the other” (Haraway, 1991, p. 151). Nature is constructed, rather than discovered; truth is made, not found. Thus, according to Haraway, the only bodies that stand a chance in postmodern culture are cyborg bodies (Balsamo, 1999, p. 32). So when we look into the female body in the sci fi, we need to abandon our romantic conceptions of the material natural body.

II. *NEUROMANCER*

When *Neuromancer* by William Gibson was first published in 1984 it created a sensation. The plot of *Neuromancer* is roughly as follows: Case, the male protagonist, a twenty-four-year-old classic illegal hacker worked as a “thief, [who] worked for other, wealthier thieves, employers who provided the exotic software required to penetrate the bright walls of corporate systems, opening windows into rich fields of data” (Gibson, 1984, p. 5). Case has been nerve-damaged, rendering him unable to jack into cyber space. He is recruited and healed by Corto, who wants him to steal a digital copy of Case’s now-dead cowboy teacher, McCoy Pauley, and with Pauley’s help, break into a corporate / family computer matrix. Corto, who was formerly a military officer named Armitage, is controlled by an Artificial Intelligence (AI) named Wintermute. Wintermute wants to merge with his other self, an AI represented as Neuromancer. Case, the female protagonist Molly, Peter Riviera, and Armitage / Corto eventually succeed in releasing Wintermute and Neuromancer from the hardwired constraints that keep them from melding and evolving into a higher form of intelligence.

Virtual reality is at the heart of Sci fi. The opening image of the book: “The sky was the color of television, tuned to a dead channel” (Gibson, 1984, p. 3) compares nature to technology and sets the tone of the narrative. Thus Gibson creates an environment deeply rooted in technology and cyberspace. If we want to read anything into the name, “Case” could suggest detective fiction or technology. The mixture of flesh and machinery is introduced in the book through Ratz’s stainless steel teeth. In fact, the characters of the book---Wintermute, Neuromancer, McCoy Pauley, Case, Molly, the Finn, and eventually the matrix itself---are all entities who live to one degree or another in the machine, in cyberspace, or to use Gibson’s formulation, in the matrix of human knowledge “from the banks of every computer in the human system” (Gibson, 1984, p. 51). They are cyborg images.

Case treats his body as almost an alien entity with which he is not in friendly terms --- he describes the body as “meat” (Gibson, 1984, p. 6). Trapped in the physical body, Case feels himself drawn down to the “meat” level by the projection of Linda Lee. His seduction from the world of the Net down into the flesh is highly ironic. He also calls the girl in his cubicle a “meat puppet” (Gibson, 1984, p. 147). Yet his body is a kind of case for his mind and for the cyberspace with which he is jacking into, though it is only when his mind transcends its boundary of flesh that he feels unfettered and free.

The female protagonist Molly, a cyborg is our focus. What kind of person is she? What is her job? She is a street Samurai. Samurai originated as the faithful defenders of feudal lords during the Kamakura period, but as Japan fell into disorder, many of them roamed the country as “hired swords”. She is also a “working girl” (Gibson, 1984, p. 30), prostitute, though when Molly uses the term it at first, she suggests a willingness to work as a street samurai for anyone.

Molly plays a large role in the novel. Only by jacking into Molly’s body is Case able to jack into the matrix. Molly acts not just like masculine ass kickers, since she fights and kills in the book. She is also presented as active, dominant,

highly competent, and --- most important ---better informed than Case. She even possesses characteristics that are more masculine than feminine and she is also an extrapolation of the “tough dame” of mean-streets crime fiction.

Her physical strength (or emotional also) is due in large part to her equipment of the implanted weaponry. She has been technologically modified --- her body contains electronic technologies: glasses and razor nails. Eyes are the windows of the soul. Molly’s characteristic implant --- eyes--- are at the center of the novel. But what is more significant is that her eyes are inaccessible, masked, and inscrutable, though she can see others. This protects her from intrusions: in fact Case never truly knows her and Peter Riviera is also enraged about her invisibility.

Molly’s fingernails are retractable, made of steel, which suggests her profession of “razor girls” (Gibson, 1984, p. 28). Although Molly is depicted as a powerful embodiment of female identity, no longer constrained by norms of passivity and proper femininity, her body implants fully literalize the characteristically *threatening* nature of her female body. Why is she so threatening?

To be both female and strong implicitly violates traditional codes of feminine identity. Therefore we need to control the female body that is threatening us. Gibson’s hero, Case, must negotiate a cyberspace invasion where he is plugged in to Molly’s body. Hence Case, the hot computer cowboy, is both similar and different from a traditional cowboy. The stolen module will enable Case to experience the world inside Molly’s body without leaving cyberspace. Riding on Molly, Case gets to find out “just how tight those jeans really are” (Gibson, 1984, p. 53). Yet he is different from traditional cowboy in that Case’s mind has to use Molly’s body (If I have to choose one between male body and male mind, I would definitely choose the male body. It’s better designed than the male mind.) As mentioned earlier, only by using Molly’s body is he able to jack in. In traditional SF, a strongly independent individual often overcomes huge obstacles to solve problems affecting masses of people. *Neuromancer* departs from this pattern.

Case is not the only character in the novel that controls / manipulates Molly. Riviera’s implant allows him to project onto the retinas of any of his victims. In chapter 8 we see Riviera projects to Case subliminal image to symbolize his opinion of Molly. In chapter 11 Molly is also furious at Riviera’s sadistic fantasy performance. In chapter 18, Riviera encases Molly’s hands in a kind of “Chinese handcuffs”: the more you struggle, the tighter you are trapped. Therefore Case and Maelcum penetrate Villa Straylight to complete the mission and rescue Molly. When Molly abruptly sees her mutilated face, it is of course Riviera taunting her again.

In chapter 11 Molly gives her theory about how Wintermute is manipulating her (Gibson, 1984, p. 147-148). In fact, Wintermute has chosen each of the participants---Case, Molly, etc to manipulate, because each one has special skills and, more important, is psychologically manipulable in a predictable way. For instance, Wintermute plays upon Case’s ill-fated love affair with Linda Lee and his consequent suicidal impulses. And Molly, although better informed than Case, like everyone else except Armitage, is left in the dark about what much of the plan of action is or who is really running the show. This lack of knowledge could, on some levels, make her weak.

Therefore, although Molly is depicted as a strong and independent woman, the sexualization of the gender and the female body is a common theme in this novel. Molly is sexualized. She is strong, but still extremely sexy. She is seen as wearing tight, form-fitting clothing to show off her sexuality. What “sumauri” would actually wear skin tight leather pants?

In post modern “cyberpunk narratives, as in VR applications, cyberspace heroes are usually men” (Balsamo, 1999, p.130). Yet Case is not a manly man. He seems very weak and dependent on people to guide him through everything that is happening. Case seems to be largely desexualized, due mostly to his passivity throughout the book, also he seems preoccupied with things like jacking in and doing drugs. Notice that Case is “disoriented” (Gibson, 1984, p. 56) while riding Molly for the first time. When he is first time inside Molly’s body, he is rendered passive.

For a few frightened seconds he fought helplessly to control her body. Then he willed himself into passivity, became the passenger behind her eyes. The glasses didn’t seem to cut down the sunlight at all. He wondered if the built-in amps compensated automatically. Blue alphanumeric winked the time, low in her left peripheral field. Showing off, he thought. Her body language was disorienting, her style foreign. (Gibson, 1984, p. 56)

So his passivity refers to his lack of control over Molly’s body. Yet in a sense Case does experience, a bodily state more traditionally feminine. His passivity is easily sexualized. To tease him, Molly “slid a hand into her jacket, a fingertip circling a nipple under warm silk. The sensation made him catch his breath. She laughed.” (Gibson, 1984, p. 56).

Yet, overall *Neuromancer* still goes along with the trend that “inside of cyberspace, or out, the relations between these cybernetically connected bodies often recreate traditions heterosexual gender identities” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 129). So I would say in *Neuromancer*, the individual male and female bodies are coded only differently, instead of significantly different, than they are in prevailing cultural norms. However, as for Case, a counterargument could be Gibson tries to use Cyberspace to offer white men an enticing retreat from the burdens of their cultural identities. And in fact Balsamo notices that “in the course of Gibson’s *Neuromancer* trilogy, for example, not only is the hero’s body eventually reconstructed from fragments of skin, so is his macho-male identity” (Balsamo, 1999, p.129). Therefore it seems like Gibson himself may realize Case’s passivity and decide to correct it in later works.

The book’s overall heterosexual gender pattern also speaks directly to the ending of the book. The ending is actually interesting: Case and Molly are back where they started: alone. It is significant that Gibson doesn’t go in to detail about Case and Molly’s relationship after the job is done. This seems to imply that Case and Molly are cyborg selves

incapable of “true love”. I say this because it seems like as the action progresses Case is very concerned with Molly’s well being although the reverse of that is not really shown.

I would argue that the book’s ending implies that male authors or predominant audience for sci fi (or was in 1984?) want highly desirable but dangerous women like Molly get involved with their protagonists and then leave.

Sci fi has been written largely by men for a mostly male readership. “In fact, ... much of the new SF written by men, for all the boundary erosions and breakdowns it dramatizes, remains stuck in a masculine frame” (Pfeil, 1990, p. 88). Yes, Molly plays a powerful role in the novel, a theme if not hidden throughout most of the story. Yet she does not play a male stereotype role. Instead she is portrayed as being sexually aggressive and a tease, both qualities of which many men find sexually attractive. And in fact her power is basically through sexual attraction. This reminds me in the movie *Robocop* that female cops are quite sexualized. There are stripper costumes that are like cop outfits, except with much less fabric. Again this gives males the fantasy of being dominated by a woman. A cop has more power than a regular citizen. So why not take this into the bedroom?

Such *femme fatale* assassins are a mainstay of post modern action fiction and films. These tough Dames don’t represent women’s liberation, but they are a big draw for the male readers and also popular with male writers. So, although women’s empowerment is surely a running thread in the novel, the female characters are still gendered female and constructed according to social norms.

Nonetheless *Neuromancer* is historically significant. It is the first cyberpunk novel as well as one of the best of its kind. Gibson’s employ of contemporary technology sets a new standard for sci fi prose. A lot of ideas for contemporary sci fi films came from this book. It is definitely a seminal book.

III. QUEEN OF ANGELS

It is interesting to compare Molly with Mary Choy in *Queen of Angels* (1990) by Greg Bear. This story is situated in: December 2047, the miraculous microscopic machines of nanotechnology build a clean, prosperous America; art and LitVid flourish; the robot space probe AXIS. Mary is assigned to apprehend the missing killer for mandatory therapy---before the poet is captured by the Selectors, a network of vigilante fanatics who use neural torture on those considered mentally impure.

Mary undergoes much more transformations than Molly does. Mary changes her skin to make it “dolphinslick” (Bear, 1990, p. 5); she changes her face color to the color of “jet-black”; “Her transform chemistry could let her coast for many hours without sleep” (Bear, 1990, p. 48); she has birth control ability in that “she would lift the voluntary gates Dr. Sumpler had grown within her and let Ernest’s seed find its way all the way” (Bear, 1990, p. 131); she can hide her nipples and bring them out (Bear, 1990, p. 135); she can even smell as she likes---“She brought out the perfume..., her smell that of jasmine, seeping from her; this was Sumpler’s masterpiece, people who could smell as they wished” (Bear, 1990, p. 132).

Often times we hear stories of women, even fabulous X-women having cosmetic surgery. What are their motives? Get a man, improve beauty, “improve self-esteem, social status, and sometimes even professional standing” (Balsamo, 1999, p.58) or a little of everything? But whatever the purpose is, the female body is thus reconstructed “as a signifier of ideal feminine beauty” (Balsamo, 1999, p.58). According to Balsamo, “the female body ...serves as a site of inscription, a billboard for the dominant cultural meanings” (Balsamo, 1999, p.78), yet Mary’s body is super inscribed with a multitude of cultural meanings, central to which would be instead, a flip of gender roles and reconstructing the female body as a power.

What it means to be human? The first thing we need to know is we are all different and there is no need to feel ashamed or guilty about being different. Yet a modern mistaken belief is that “the female body is flawed in its distinctions and perfect when differences are transformed into sameness” (Balsamo, 1999, p.71). Hence cosmetic surgery. But the beauty reproduced in this way is the “assembly-line beauty”, because “‘difference’ is made over into sameness” (Balsamo, 1999, p.58).

Yet Mary chooses “an exotic design” (Bear, 1990, p. 8) and this design doesn’t make her look thin, frail, girlish, frivolous, exhibitionistic, silly, or any other “to dos” based on the weak, pathological beauty standard. Instead, her design makes her distinct, exotic, unreal, though still sexual and beautiful. She is rendered “an alien” (Bear, 1990, p. 8). Her friend Theo says to her “You are a fapping *alien*” (Bear, 1990, p. 8). Ernest also says to her “You tell me she [Theo] is your friend, Mary, but I never saw such a friend. She reflects off you. Doesn’t love you. Wants to be like you, but hates you for being different” (Bear, 1990, p. 86). Mary is also cut off from her mother and her family after the surgery.

Yes, Mary is transformed into a woman strong, “tall, night-colored” (Bear, 1990, p. 6-7), independent, intelligent, and equal with men in their potential for professional status. She is gendered active and powerful. But don’t get me wrong. The female self isn’t transformed wholly into undefined or neutral. In fact she is transformed extremely sexier. Femininity “is essentially a masquerade, a fact which is further emphasized by fashion and cosmetics” (Landa, 1996, p. 28). “Her transformed voice was deep yet sweetly feminine, powerful yet motherly. She could sing lullabies or growl a pd threat” (Bear, 1990, p. 6). She is “quiet” (Bear, 1990, p. 6-7), “elegant” (Bear, 1990, p. 23) and “composed” (Bear, 1990, p. 23). We also see Ernest is the man Mary plans “to lawbond” (Bear, 1990, p. 140).

Mary's transformation makes her has that control over her sexual body, or gives her even more power over men. I really appreciate the fact that Mary's motives [in transformation] do not lie in male appreciation, like today's women's sometimes do, yet Mary and Sandra discuss:

(Mary) "There's a real problem with female transforms in the shade". ...

(Sandra) "We're the new breed". ...

(Mary) "I'd prefer to have some male protection" (Bear, 1990, p. 404).

And couple of times we see Mary's intention to harness her beauty and power and produce effects, though we also see hesitations, doubts, ignorance, or rejections from the receivers' side. "She [Mary] narrowed her eyes and fixed on the greeter until he averted", because "The greeter might not lust for her" (Bear, 1990, p. 37); "The nice young man decided this orbital transform [Mary] was too much even for fantasy and ignored her" (Bear, 1990, p. 38); "She [Mary] smiled that lovely unnatural smile white teeth small and fine behind full lips and smooth finely downed black skin. Her expression made him [Richard] avert and gave his insiders another knot. + She cannot be real none of this is real" (Bear, 1990, p. 105); "On impulse she flashed him [Ochoa] a girlish grin and waved with her splayed fingers. Ochoa frowned and turned away" (Bear, 1990, p. 119). Their trepidations can be due to either Mary's repelling "exotic" design or their belief that "behind the skin and beauty" Mary "seemed [more] real" (Bear, 1990, p. 105).

And her strategy of harnessing female power sometimes works. When she talks with Richard, she pulls "a chair away from the dining room table and sits on it feminine and precise without doubt or obvious anxiety". "Wonderful to be like that" (Bear, 1990, p. 106). Richard thinks. The little chemistry sparks.

Molly and Mary are two characters that alter their appearances surgically, yet Mary has much more transformations and her transformations are a much more direct flaunt on traditional beauty standard or gender roles. To be specific, first, Mary is a career woman and many of her transformations relate to her career enhancement. All of Mary's modifications make Mary more content with her self or her work. In the text, Theo admits:

"You have an edge over me and I refuse to compete, Mary".

"What edge"?

"You're a transform. You are exotic and protected" (Bear, 1990, p. 7).

Wendell also asks "if Mary seems more complete now than before, and what sort of job (non entertainment related) puts so much pressure on appearance". Balsamo's observation can serve as an explanation:

A man's choice to have cosmetic surgery is explained by appeal to a rhetoric of career enhancement: a better looking body is better able to be promoted. In this case, cosmetic surgery is redefined as a body management technique designed to reduce the stress of having to cope with a changing work environment, one that is being threatened by the presence of women and younger people. (Balsamo, 1999, p. 67)

In fact, although Mary wishes to "lawbond" with Ernest, when Ernest says: "Mary, you know I adore you, I'd give up a lot to be with you lawbond". "Mary smiled, then shivered. 'I'd like nothing better, but I don't want either of us to give up anything. We haven't peaked yet, professionally. After we peak'" (Bear, 1990, p. 85). And even when Ernest says to her: "We'll be married by then. You'll protect me." "Mary chewed and watched him closely, looked away looked back with a slow blink. 'All right,' she said. ... "You'll marry me?" asked Ernest, Mary smiled. "Eat" (Bear, 1990, p. 137), instead of giving an affirmative answer, though Mary expresses her intention to have "some male protection" at the end of the book (Bear, 1990, p. 404).

Second, if there is always "an unshakable belief in a Westernized notion of 'natural' beauty" (Balsamo, 1999, p.78-79), Mary chooses a design no thing close to that standard. Her nose is made "flat" (Bear, 1990, p. 143) instead of "pert" and "upturned" (Balsamo, 1999, p.62), though her eyes are "wide and slanted quizzical" (Bear, 1990, p. 143), which is both Western and Oriental shaped. Yet in *Neuromancer*, many Japanese women undergo surgery to remove the epicanthic fold in the eyelid, in order to get "Western" eyes. Our focus next is her skin color.

Ernest says to Mary that "You are truly a dark woman. Not just nature's halfhearted night; you are dark where sun never dares inquire" (Bear, 1990, p. 132). What does he mean by "halfhearted"? He could talk about the dark women who undergo or may want to undergo surgery to change their black colors, if they are not satisfied with their skin color and want to do something about it. It is like the derogatory "banana man", which refers to Asians who are yellow outside, but white inside.

Yet Mary is brave enough to choose a color [jet-black] that is not logo centric beautiful, and she chooses that design and color for "purely aesthetic" (Bear, 1990, p. 272) reasons. Black is beauty to her. In Hispaniola, which is a black culture, her color is generally, though not always, approved. "Your design is very beautiful, Inspector Choy. ... We especially approve you of your skin color" (Bear, 1990, p. 193); "Soulavier gave Mary the sweetest smile she had yet seen in Hispaniola. 'There is a resemblance, you know,' he told her in a confidential tone" (Bear, 1990, p. 377) and this resemblance makes Mary "as human as you or I" in Soulavier's eyes (Bear, 1990, p. 377).

But Greg Bear makes the issue not so simplistic in that though Mary chooses her skin color because she finds it attractive at first, when she is in Hispaniola, she feels vaguely ashamed to wear that skin there (Bear, 1990, p. 198).

She looked at her hands, more like the hands of a mannequin than the vitally black hands of Roselle. Mary's palms were black, smooth and silken, tough as leather yet supple and flexible, super-sensitive on command; excellent high

biotech skin. Neither Jean-Claude nor Roselle seemed to think it a mockery; but theirs was a professional politeness and what they really thought might never be revealed. (Bear, 1990, p. 198)

She is ashamed because she realizes that “The inhabitants of Hispaniola had eared their blackness across centuries of misery”, whereas her “own losses---friends, family and larger parts of her past---were minor sacrifices” (Bear, 1990, p. 198) and yet she is stealing their distinctive skin color without experiencing anything that entitles her to enjoy that privilege. Here we find a blatant flip of western beauty standard in that blackness not only carries exoticness, distinction, or beauty, but also honor, pride, privilege, and power.

Third, in terms of sexuality, Mary has more control over her body and more power over men than Molly. Mary’s sexual power particularly manifests itself in her ability to choose whether or not she wants to be an active sexual being and her option of stopping her reproductive system. It prevents her from getting distracted by men or motherhood and helps her to concentrate on being a police woman. It entitles her individual dignity.

Whereas if we compare this with Molly’s feeling of sex, we see that Case and Molly forms a functional and sexual liaison. For instance, after Case jacks into Molly the first time, the cybernetic penetration is followed by a sexual encounter between them. We don’t get much about their sex. On Case’s side, “What did he know about her? That she was another professional; that she said her being, like his, was the thing she did to make a living” (Bear, 1990, p. 56). He can recall that “their mutual grunt of unity when he’d entered her, and that she liked her coffee black, afterward” (Bear, 1990, p. 56). On Molly’s side, Molly once reveals that she and Case have something important in common and she likes about her relationship with Case. Not much more than that is given.

IV. FEMALE BODY AND TECHNOLOGY

Getting a transformation in Molly and Mary’s worlds doesn’t seem odd or sick, yet it is interesting if we compare the reasons that they get a surgery, because we can discern the difference. Molly doesn’t give an obvious explanation, yet we can assume this is for self image and career both. Jamie observes Molly may also “in a way use it as protection and offense”. She is right. These motives also prompt Mary, though Mary at least is also prompted by a desire “to match inner her with an outer appearance that had never satisfied” (Bear, 1990, p. 8). The depiction of her process of interior struggle and gaining self-awareness and self-recognition shows Bear has a sure sense of his characters.

Has Mary felt satisfied after the transformation? Has she ever regretted and if so, has she come out of it eventually? Greg Bear’s characters in the book really grow and Mary’s growth is particularly shown in her changing attitudes toward “the crease of her buttocks” (Bear, 1990, p. 3). At first Mary is so concerned about the crease “turning gray in the universal deep black” (Bear, 1990, p. 3). On the surface, this can be interpreted that Mary is not pleased with the operation because the doctor leaves her a scar after the surgery.

But on a deep level, the process of her growth out of the concern about that crease also parallels her growth out of the warring selves. It is beyond the scope of this paper to trace how she grows out of the internal trauma. From a racial point of view, her crease is “a blemish” (Bear, 1990, p. 208) and makes her not black enough. In fact, not all the people in Hispaniola approve her skin color. Legar says: “You are a most attractive woman, of the kind of beauty we call marabou, though you are not negro. Surely a person who chooses to be black is to be honored by those born to the condition” (Bear, 1990, p. 241)? To him and some others in Hispaniola, people who are not black yet choose such a design are disrespecting them. And this worries Mary and she has to explain. And in the novel she feels the tension of being looking black, yet not a black inward, and her concern actually belies Ernest’s praise that she is not “halfhearted night” (Bear, 1990, p. 132). So the crease is associated with her uneasiness, her flaw---“She didn’t want him [Ernest] to see the blanching of her buttock crease. [She wanted him to see] so much else more intimate if less flawed” (Bear, 1990, p. 132).

Yet she gradually grows. When asked whether she “in fact support by [her] choice of design the political movement whereby blacks around the world have found their pride”, Mary “considered that for a moment. ‘No, I sympathize” (Bear, 1990, p. 272). And by the end of the novel, she not only risks her own welfare to rescue the tortured Ephraim, she also finds peace at heart. “During her time on Hispaniola Mary had passed through the spectrum of dark emotions: fear, anger, dismay. Now she was simply calm” (Bear, 1990, p. 293). If we contrast this with earlier on, when asked by Yardley “You’re a transform. ... Are you pleased with your new self?” Instead of giving an affirmative answer, Mary answers “I’ve been this way for some time, it’s second nature now. *Or should be*” (Bear, 1990, p. 297).

Interestingly enough, toward the end of the book, we find “her pale cleft mark was darkening. Soon she would be uniform black. Healing by itself” (Bear, 1990, p. 293). And as we have mentioned earlier, Mary chooses transformation “to match inner her with an outer appearance that had never satisfied” (Bear, 1990, p. 8). And at the end, over the New Year’s Eve, “Mary closed her eyes. *Why have I become who I am. The dark as night face smiled back at her. Ghost of younger self content to fade into. What I see outside is now what I see in. I am one not two as before. Reason enough. Who else asks*” (Bear, 1990, p. 403)?

Mary’s awakening of self-awareness can also be seen from the point of view of Mary’s compassion and maternal nature. Mary’s compassion and maternal nature overcome her blind observance of the law. However, she sets aside her sense of legal duty when she promises Ephraim an outlet, a suicidal escape. Her sense of legal duty has thus been completely supplanted by her compassion. This is irresponsible policing. In giving this promise, Mary becomes self-aware of her inner voice or conscience, her “highest and best self” (Bear, 1990, p. 395).

Molly in *Neuromancer* doesn't show her warring state explicitly when it comes to her transformations, though this mother notion is also obvious in *Neuromancer*, since Straylight, Wintermute and artificial intelligence are developed by a woman. This may show Gibson's interest in the self's relationship to culture and technology, and issues like how subjectivity produces and is produced by culture. One focal point behind the question could be: How do you recognize a self?

What is the significance of this mother notion? The gendered distinctions among cyborg characters are significant in that female body is coded as a body-in-connection and male body as a body-in-isolation. But I believe the "mothers" not just manipulate the dimensions of cybernetic space in order to communicate with other people, or go for the release it offers from the loneliness of their material bodies (Balsamo, 1999, p.144), but rather, the depiction of the major struggle / integration throughout the books between the former and transform selves or between the "mothers" and the "kids" makes the disparate duality nature in the postmodern sci fi world all the more remarkable.

In spite of the promise cosmetic surgery offers women for the technological reconstruction of their bodies, in actual application such technologies produce bodies that are very traditionally gendered. Yet I am reluctant to accept as a simple and obvious conclusion that cosmetic surgery is simply one more site where women are passively victimized. Whether as a form of oppression or a resource of empowerment, it is clear to me that cosmetic surgery is a practice whereby women consciously act to make their bodies mean something to themselves and to others. (Balsamo, 1999, p. 78)

This relates to how to define technology in the sci fi world. What is technology? What qualifies as technology? In the world of the near future, who will control women's bodies? Are they technologically constructed? If they are technologized, in what ways technologies construct gendered bodies? Technology that I have focused on in the paper does not refer simply to computers and other such machines, but is understood "in a Foucauldian sense---to mean not only machines and devices but also social, economic, and institutional forces" (Balsamo, 1999, p.159). As observed by Wajcman, "technology is more than a set of physical objects or artifacts. It also fundamentally embodies a culture or set of social relations made up of certain sorts of knowledge, beliefs, desires, and practices" (Wajcman, 1991, p. 149).

Technologies always have multiple effects. Determining the meaning of those effects is not a simple process. Balsamo argues that the transformations "appearing as a form of resistance" in that "these technological body transgressions rearticulate the power relations of a dominant social order" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 54). "This is to say that when female bodies participate in bodybuilding activities that are traditionally understood to be the domain of male bodies, ... although these bodies transgress gender boundaries, they are not reconstructed according to an opposite gender identity" (Balsamo, 1999, p.55). Thus she calls our attention to "the *persistence* with which gender and race hierarchies structure technological practices, thereby limiting the disruptive possibilities of technological transgressions" (Balsamo, 1999, p.55). She actually believes that "certain biotechnologies are ideologically shaped by gender considerations and other beliefs about race, physical abilities, and economic and legal status" (Balsamo, 1999, book cover)

Yet Mary and Molly's transformations show us that technology is not just "a powerful narrative force that qualifies and just obliterates the role of individual and collective human agency possibilities" (Spencer, 1999, p. 403). In Sandy Stones' analysis of the virtual body, she concludes that cyberspace both disembodies and re-embodies in a gendered fashion: technology is both the mechanism by which post political multinational corporate power dominates the lives of humans and the means of those humans' empowerment and resistance (Spencer, 1999, p. 403).

V. CONCLUSIONS

Generally critics believe that in traditional sci fi, the female body is still gendered passive and culturally and socially constructed. They also believe this holds true for post modern sci fi. For instance, Balsamo, as we have mentioned earlier, believes that new technologies are invested with cultural significance in ways that augment dominant cultural narratives. "My aim here is to describe," she asserts at the beginning of the book *Technologies of the Gendered Body*, "how certain technologies are, to borrow Wajcman's phrase, ideologically shaped by the operation of gender interests and, consequently, how they serve to reinforce traditional gendered patterns of power and authority" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 10). And she concludes

although cyberspace seems to represent a territory free from the burdens of history, it will, in effect, serve as another site for the technological and no less conventional inscription of the gendered, race-marked body. So despite the fact that VR technologies offer a new stage for the construction and performance of body-based identities, it is likely that old identities will continue to be more comfortable, and thus more frequently reproduced. (Balsamo, 1999, p. 131)

What she is suggesting is that in post modern sci fi, on one hand, "the symbolic reproduction of dominant ideals of femininity" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 13) is narrated, and on the other, even if we see "deviant constructions of the female body" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 13), "old identities will continue to be more comfortable" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 13). So when deviations occur, we just need to "direct our attention to how deviant constructions of the female body are staged and disciplined" (Balsamo, 1999, p. 13). My argument is that the point is we need to decide to what extent the construction of the female body is deviant. Is it like in some ways the sci fi world is an idealized society where gender and sexual

preference are no longer issues? Or, as Balsamo suggests as an example, “cyberspace playmates are beautiful, sexualized, albeit sometimes violently powerful” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 131)? In other words, the deviations are just actually cautiously constructed to be a little insane, but still good overall?

The first option is not feasible, since Haraway herself suggests that a world without gender is utopian and this is perhaps a world without genesis, but maybe also a world without end (Haraway, 1991, p. 150). Through examining the interactions between female bodies and technologies in close readings of *Neuromancer* and *Queen of Angels*, we have seen that in these two works there is an interesting paradox in action. On one hand “‘naturally’ female body is culturally constructed according to dominant codes of femininity and racial identity” (Balsamo, 1999, p.41), there is no way to consider the body without cultural influences coming through, but on the other, we see that the roles of women aren’t the traditional, socially conditioned, and arbitrary sex roles. And often times we see an active rewriting the texts of the female body and an inversion of sexual roles. Molly and Mary are typical examples.

By comparison, Bear is keener toward the tendency to challenge conventional views of gender, socialization, and sex roles. Created out of dissatisfaction with the dominant male discourse of traditional sci fi, *Queen of Angels* conceives a different view of the world. Teresa Lauretis anticipated the critical response that cyberpunk science fiction enjoys from postmodern readers when she provisionally suggested (in 1980) that in “every historical period, certain art forms (or certain literary forms...), have become central to the episteme or historical vision of a given society.... If we compare it with traditional or postmodern fiction, we see that SF might, just might, be crucial from now on” (quoted in Balsamo, 1999, p.136). I am pretty positive about the promise of post modern sci fi as long as it takes rethinking, reflecting, and challenging conventional views of gender, socialization, and sex roles as its mission and carry it on.

Historically the female body was “constructed as a hybrid case, thus making it compatible with notions of cyborg identity by more recent cultural theorists” (Balsamo, 1999, p.19). Even today, “the ambiguous constitution of the female body---predicated on the blurred boundaries between the individual and the collective, the material and the discursive, the fictive and the real” (Balsamo, 1999, p.34) is strongly related to their cyborg identity. Molly and Mary are cyborgian creations, predicated on transgressed boundaries. Generally cyborg image can be read as a coupling between a human being and an electronic or mechanical apparatus. The coupling between human and machine is located within the body itself---the boundary between the material body and the artificial machine is surgically redrawn. Yet cyborg can also be read as the identity of organisms embedded in a cybernetic information system. Thus the boundary between the body and technology is indistinct, but no less functional.

Women, gender roles, female body, and cyborgs are “simultaneously symbolically and biologically produced and reproduced through social interactions. The “self” is one inter -actional product; the body is another” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 34). The female body is eminently changeable and subject to revision. “It is never outside history and concrete relations of power and domination. It is never silent / silenced. Just as women never speak, write, or act, outside of their bodies, cyborgs never leave the meat behind” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 40).

“In postmodern social theory, the female body has been constructed as uncontainable, unruly, and ultimately undecidable. Just as this is woman’s legacy, so too is it her promise” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 38). Although the phrase “the female body” has been amply used as a critical concept in feminist denunciations of man’s traditional appropriation of woman, things began to change. To contribute to the feminist studies of science and technology, this paper offers an alternative narrative of sci fi identity and argues that the female body is always gendered and is “subordinated within institutionalized systems of power and knowledge and crisscrossed by incompatible discourses, yet it is not fully determined by those systems of meaning” (Balsamo, 1999, p. 39) and instead, always interacting with and resisting against these systems.

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The Effect of Written Corrective Feedback on Writing Accuracy of Intermediate Learners

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Abstract—The present research examined the role of written corrective feedback (WCF) in enhancing writing accuracy of Iranian Intermediate learners. The present study is quantitative and experimental survey that measured the accuracy of using two functions of English article system, namely definite article “the” and indefinite article “a” and “an” during eight weeks using pre-test and post-test. Sixty students including (20 control group, 20 experimental group, 20 experimental group) participated in the study to determine which kind of teacher written corrective feedback affects writing accuracy more. (1) Control group did not receive WCF on specific grammar errors; group (2) received direct WCF; group (3) received indirect WCF. The results of the study demonstrated that direct (WCF) affected students’ performance more.

Index Terms—written corrective feedback, accuracy, definite article, indefinite article, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Dealing with second language (L2) learner errors is an indispensable aspect of classroom pedagogy. However, there is a controversy regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback for improving L2 accuracy. In particular, the role feedback in correcting L2 students’ erroneous utterances has been the subject of an extensive debate in the second language acquisition literature. The present study primarily focused on the role of direct and indirect (WCF) in case of writing accuracy of Iranian intermediate learners with the purpose of determining which kind of these kinds of error treatment is more helpful in terms of improving writing accuracy of students in general and using definite and indefinite articles, in particular.

In the direct method, WCF involves supplying learners with the correct form “It may include the crossing out of an unnecessary word/ phrase/ morpheme, the insertion of a missing word/phrase/morpheme, or the provision of the correct form or structure” (Bitchener, 2008, p. 105). Reformulation of the whole sentence written by L2 learners with errors corrected to conform to the target language norms but preserving the original meaning is referred to as written recast (Ayoun, 2001).

With indirect feedback, the teacher brings students’ attention to an error using various strategies including highlighting or underlining errors, showing the number of errors, confirmation checks and request for clarification (Bitchener, 2008). An alternative for the above-mentioned indirect WCF method is metalinguistic feedback that identifies the nature of an error. This method of WCF combines elements of both direct and indirect CF with the purpose of saving students’ time and frustration while still pushing them to take initiative to reflect and to rely on their own knowledge, which might lead to student-generated repair (Huiying Sun, 2013). One common method of providing metalinguistic feedback is through the use of editing codes or editing symbols. Another type of metalinguistic WCF is to provide student writers with a set of criteria in the form of a help sheet (e.g., the so-called error awareness sheet in Lalande, 1980).

A common feature for indirect WCF methods is that they all withhold correct forms in hope of eliciting the correct form from the student (Carroll & Swain, 1993). In Bitchener and Knoch’s (2010) study, one group received WCF in the form of written metalinguistic explanation along with an example of the targeted grammar feature. They described this as a form of direct WCF. However, since direct error corrections were not provided, the author of this dissertation would classify it as indirect WCF because students could not simply copy the correction, rather they still had to infer from the examples and expectations. The present study hence, aims to examine and compares ESL learners’ and teachers’ opinions and preferences for different types and amounts of WCF, and also explores the reason why they prefer particular types and amount of WCF.

A common feature for indirect WCF methods is that they all withhold correct forms in hope of eliciting the correct form from the student (Carroll & Swain, 1993). In Bitchener and Knoch’s (2010) study, one group received WCF in the form of written metalinguistic explanation along with an example of the targeted grammar feature. They described this as a form of direct WCF. However, since direct error corrections were not provided, the author of the dissertation classified it as indirect WCF because students could not simply copy the correction, rather they still had to infer from

the examples and expectations. The present study hence, aims to examine which sort of written corrective feedback, namely direct (WCF) vs. indirect (WCF) is more effective in terms of promoting writing accuracy of Iranian learners who learn English as a foreign language.

II. METHOD

The primary purpose of the current study was to find out which type of WCF, namely direct WCF and indirect WCF is more effective in terms of Iranian learners at intermediate level. This section attempts to present the comprehensive methodology of the present research and presented participants, research design, instruments that were used in the study, data collection procedures, and data analyses with regard to the research questions.

A. Participants

85 intermediate students with the age range of 19-32 who were learning English as a foreign language in Iran served as the participants of the current study. Firstly, a Nelson English Language Proficiency Test, version 200 A, (Fowler & Coe, 1976) was given to the learners to find out whether they are at the same level of proficiency or not. The obtained mean and standard deviation were ($M= 29.02$ and $SD= 8.79$). Based on the test results, the researcher selected the true intermediate level participants to enhance the precision of the results and to control as many as extraneous factors as possible. This being so, 60 intermediate learners out of 85 learners at intermediate level were chosen to participate in the present research.

B. Instruments

A number of testing instruments were employed to conduct the present study.

1. Proficiency test

Nelson Battery–Section 200 A (Fowler & Coe, 1976) was used to estimate the proficiency level of the subjects. The test was quite reliable for this purpose. It included 50 multiple choice items on cloze tests, structure, and vocabulary.

2. Pretest

The second instrument used in the study was the written English test which served as the pretest in order to determine whether three groups are homogeneous with regard to their writing skill. In fact, a writing topic assigned to the participants in the three groups. The topic of the pretest, as well as the corresponding instructions, time allocation, number of words, and additional explanations were adopted from Kaplan IELTS 2009-2010 Edition. The students were given 20 minutes to write about 150 words about the pretest topic.

3. Posttest

When the treatment sessions were over for the experimental groups, another topic was given to the students to write about. Again, the topic of the posttest, as well as the corresponding instructions, time allocation, number of words, and additional explanations were adopted from Kaplan IELTS 2009-2010 Edition. The students were given 20 minutes to write about 150 words about the posttest topic.

4. Procedure

The present study investigated the role of (direct vs. indirect) WCF in promoting writing accuracy of Intermediate students of Navid English Institute, Shiraz, Iran. This study was quantitative and experimental survey. In particular, it tried to discover whether students' knowledge of utilizing indefinite "a", "an" and definite article "the" has been enhanced after eight sessions of treatment.

The present study included a sample of 60 Iranian intermediate EFL learners who were homogeneous in terms of language proficiency levels, in general, and writing ability, in particular. In order to arrive at this sample, the researcher, employing cluster sampling, selected 85 intermediate-level learners studying at Navid English language institute, Shiraz, Iran. To ensure language proficiency homogeneity, these learners sat a proficiency test, i.e., Nelson proficiency Test version (200A). From among 85 students, 60 of them met the homogeneity criteria and were selected to serve as the participant based on the result of Nelson language proficiency test. Then, students were randomly divided into three groups. From among 60 intermediate learners, 20 of the learners formed control group, 20 of them formed the experimental group (1) who had direct written corrective feedback, and 20 learners were randomly assigned to experimental group (2) who had indirect written corrective feedback. Further, to make sure the participants, in the three groups, did not possess statistically significant different abilities in terms of writing proficiency, a pretest was given, requiring the participants to write in-class one-paragraph expository compositions of about 150 words on a specific topic within a time limit of 20 minutes. 60 compositions were then scored by two raters in order to increase the reliability of scoring and to avoid any bias on the part of raters. To be more precise, two raters who were female (age 30 to 32) and M.A. holders in TEFL were chosen to correct the writings. They had 6 years experience of teaching. Furthermore, they were provided with scoring procedure instructions to ensure consistent scoring procedure.

The names of the participants were removed and the compositions were codified in order to enhance both precision and reliability. The compositions were scored on the scale of 20 to 80 and the scores awarded ranged from the minimum of 32 to maximum of 68. To determine inter-rater reliability (it shows how much homogeneity or consensus exist in the ratings given by raters, Pallant, 2005) indices for the scoring of the compositions, the correlations between two raters' awarded grades were calculated and the reliability index computed as to be 0.82.

In the experimental phase of study, students in three groups were given eight topics to write about during eight weeks of instruction. Students in control group worked based on traditional way of learning and practicing writing skill. Participants in experimental group (1) received direct WCF on their grammatical errors while learners in other experimental group (2) received indirect WCF.

In the experimental group (1), the teacher supplied the correct form of the errors (Ellis, 2009). Followings are some examples:

My father really wants a surprising gift for Christmas.
 Somebody call a policeman upon seeing a robber!
 When I was at a-the zoo, I saw the-an elephant
 I wantwanted to write my assignment yesterday.
 My brother drinksdrankthe-a whole bottle last night.
 The mouse has atiny nose while the-an elephant had a long trunk.

In case of indirect feedback, the teacher only demonstrate that an error exists without supplying the correct form (Ellis, 2009). Followings are some examples of indirect corrective feedback:

I spend my holiday in the Tehran.
 I had Xspecial birthday with lots of my friendX last year.
 My sister drew X picture for art exhibition. XPicture was beautiful.
 It is one of my goalX to continue my education in XUnited States.
 I always stand in a first row to see everything.
 My family bought thecar two years ago.

In total, 10 topics were given to the students in three groups. Two of which served as the pretest and the posttest topics which the participants were required to write about. In order for the results to be comparable, the testing condition and the test rubrics were made as uniform as feasible for three groups.

When the treatment was over, a posttest was administered to all participants to determine which type of feedback, namely direct WCF or indirect WCF is more effective regarding writing ability of the students, in general and the accurate using of definite and indefinite articles, in particular. The topic of posttest was also selected from Kaplan IELTS 2009-2010 Edition and students were given 20 minutes to write about the selected topic. Again, the compositions were scored on the scale of 20 to 80 by two raters.

After collecting data, the researcher by comparing the mean scores in both pretest and posttest for three groups tried to discover whether significant difference exist among the three group, if yes, to shed light on the most effective sort of feedback in terms of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners.

III. RESULTS

The current study primary investigated the answers to the following research questions:

RQ1: Which type of teacher corrective feedback on writing accuracy is more effective?

RQ2: Dose accuracy of using definite and indefinite articles change during eight weeks of error treatment?

With regard to the aforementioned research questions the following hypotheses were developed:

Initially, Nelson English Language Test (version 200 A) was applied to estimate language proficiency of the students. As Table 1 demonstrates, the mean and standard deviation for Nelson test were ($M=29.02$, $SD=8.79$).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR NELSON TEST (INTERMEDIATE LEVEL)

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Scores	85	14.00	45.00	29.02	8.79

In order to figure out whether the data of Nelson Test is normally distributed, we conducted Kolmlgrov-Smirnoff non-parametric test. The sig showed .07 which illustrates that the scores are normally distributed because p value was higher than 0.05, $p > 0.05$.

TABLE 2.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

		Scores
N		85
Normal Parameters ^a	Mean	29.0235
	Std. Deviation	8.78984
Extreme Differences	Absolute	.140
	Positive	.140
	Negative	-.071
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.295
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.07

*Test distribution is Normal

Among 85 intermediate students, 60 learners qualified to participate in the study. Later, the researcher administered a pretest to investigate whether students were at the same level of writing ability. The results of the participants' performance in the three groups on the pretest are demonstrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS ON THE PERFORMANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE PRETEST

Groups	N	Mean	Standard deviation
Control Group	20	45.45	9.74
Experimental 1	20	41.25	7.85
Experimental 2	20	43.25	11.99
Total	60	43.31	9.95

Moreover, to understand whether the data of pretest scores are normally distributed, we run Kolmogorov-Smirnov non-parametric test (as nonparametric test examines normality of distribution of scores, Pallant, 2005). The Sig. for control group, experimental group 1, and experimental group 2 in pretest showed .85, .56, and .095, respectively. Again, since the p value was greater than 0.05, the scores turned out to be normally distributed. Thus, parametric ANOVA was used to analyze the data. Table 4.4 manifests the results of this normality test.

TABLE 4.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

Pretest	Control Group	Experimental Group 1	Experimental Group 2	
N	20	20	20	
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	45.45	41.25	43.25
	Std. Deviation	9.74	7.85	11.99
Extreme Differences	Absolute	.137	.168	.277
	Positive	.088	.088	.277
	Negative	-.137	-.168	-.174
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.611	.788	1.23	
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.850	.564	.095	

Since we had three groups One way ANOVA was conducted to discover any significant differences among the three groups. According to Pallant (2005), Levene's test tests whether the variance in scores is the same for each of the three groups and gives information about the homogeneity of variance in the three groups. Since the significance value (Sig.) for Levene's test here is .083 which is *greater* than .05, the assumption of homogeneity has *not been* violated. Table 5 shows the result of Levene's test.

TABLE 5.
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
2.60	2	57	.083

Levene's test for homogeneity of variances tested whether the variance in scores was the same for each of the three groups. As Table 5 shows, the significance value (Sig.) for Levene's test was greater .05. In the current study the Sig. value is .083; therefore, the homogeneity of variances assumption was not violated. On the other hand, as Table 6 illustrates, there is no statistically significant difference among the three groups mean scores on the pre-test. Thus, the three intermediate groups were not statistically different from each other on the pre-test.

TABLE 6.
MULTIPLE COMPARISON OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE PRETEST

(I) participants	(J) participants	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Experimental1	4.20000	3.16518	.420	-3.7557	12.1557
	Experimental 2	2.20000	3.16518	.786	-5.7557	10.1557
Experimental1	Control	-4.20000	3.16518	.420	-12.1557	3.7557
	Experimental 2	-2.00000	3.16518	.820	-9.9557	5.9557
Experimental 2	Control	-2.20000	3.16518	.786	-10.1557	5.7557
	Experimental1	2.00000	3.16518	.820	-5.9557	9.9557

Thus, both inferential and descriptive statistical procedures demonstrated that students had the same level of language proficiency, in general, and writing skill, in particular in the pretest.

The main concern of the research questions of the present study was to probe whether using direct WCF vs. indirect WCF had any significant impacts on the Iranian intermediate EFL students' performance in writing skill, in general, and accurate using of English articles, in particular.

The researcher administered the posttest, one week after the treatment, to compare the students' performances in the three groups in both pretest and posttest and to shed light on the fact that which kind of feedback is more influential in terms of intermediate students' writing skill. To this end, the researcher, firstly, determined inter-rater reliability indices for the scoring of the compositions by computing the correlations between two raters' awarded grades. The reliability index computed as to be 0.86. Then, the descriptive statistics for the three groups was run. Table 7 shows the results of the three intermediate groups' performance on pre and posttests.

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE THREE GROUPS' PERFORMANCE ON THE PRE AND POSTTESTS

Group	Test	Mean	Std. Deviation
Controlgroup	Pretest	45.45	9.74
	Posttest	52.65	6.49
Experimental G1	Pretest	41.25	7.85
	Posttest	69.00	6.92
Experimental G2	Pretest	43.25	11.99
	Posttest	60.30	3.61

At first, to test the homogeneity of the participants in three groups the Levene's test was run. The results of this application showed that the three groups were homogeneous because Sig (.20) was higher than .05 level of significance.

TABLE 8.
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Levene Statistics	df1	df2	Sig.
1.64	2	57	.202

With regard to the research questions whether there is any significant difference between Control group, Experimental Group 1 and Experimental Group 2 in terms of writing ability of the students, a close study of Table 9 reveals that the *F*-ratio (38.90) is greater than the critical *F* (3.15). Also, Sig (*P*-value =.000 is lower than α (0.05). Therefore, it can be concluded that three intermediate groups are significantly different in terms of their writing skill and appropriate using of articles in English.

TABLE 9:
ANOVA FOR THREE INTERMEDIATE GROUPS' PERFORMANCE ON THE POSTTEST

	Sum of squares	Df	Mean squares	F	Sig
Between group	2676.90	2	1338.45	38.90	.000
Within group	1960.75	57	34.399		
Total	4637.65	59			

Although the *F*-value of 38.90 demonstrates significant differences among the three groups on the posttest, the multiple comparisons on the post hoc test (Table 10) was run to show the exact place of differences among the three groups' mean scores.

TABLE 10:
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS ON THE PERFORMANCE OF THE THREE GROUPS ON THE POSTTEST

(I) participants	(J) participants	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Control	Experimental1	-16.35000*	1.85470	.000	-21.0118	-11.6882
	experimental 2	-7.65000*	1.85470	.001	-12.3118	-2.9882
experimental1	Control	16.35000*	1.85470	.000	11.6882	21.0118
	experimental 2	8.70000*	1.85470	.000	4.0382	13.3618
experimental 2	Control	7.65000*	1.85470	.001	2.9882	12.3118
	experimental 1	-8.70000*	1.85470	.000	-13.3618	-4.0382

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.

Contrary to the results of the pretest, the mean performances of the three groups showed significant differences on the posttest. On the other hand, students in experimental group 1 who received direct written corrective feedback performed better than the other two groups, followed by students in experimental group 2 who received indirect feedback on their grammatical errors especially appropriate use of article "the" and articles "a" and "an". Finally, students in control group who worked and practiced based on traditional method of learning writing obtained the lowest mean scores compared to their counterparts in two experimental groups.

Although we know that our groups differ, we don't know the exact location of different, Thus, in order to discover where these differences occur, Post-hoc comparison was run. On the other hand, since here exist more than two levels to our independent variables, Post-hoc seems to be the best choice because this test systematically compares each of our pairs of groups, and indicate whether there is a significant difference in the means of each (Pallant, 2005). To be more

precise, **Post-hoc comparison** demonstrated that the mean score for experimental group 1 (Direct written corrective feedback) ($M=69.00$, $SD=6.92$) was significantly different from experimental group 2 (indirect written corrective feedback) ($M=60.30$, $SD=3.61$), and control group ($M=52.65$, $SD=6.49$). In fact, There was a significant difference between experimental group one and control group ($P=.001>.05$) and experimental group 2 and control group ($001<.05$). There was also significant difference between two experimental groups ($P=.000<.05$). As it is evident, students who received direct written feedback obtained higher score on the posttest compared to those students who received indirect written corrective feedback. Thus, it can safely be claimed that direct written corrective feedback was more influential than indirect written corrective feedback regarding writing skill and appropriate use of article “the” and articles “a” and “an” in terms of Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

To sum up, among the three groups, direct WCF scored the highest followed by indirect WCF and control group, respectively. It suggests that the use of direct corrective feedback during teaching writing has an important effect on the intermediate student’s performance and it is more effective than indirect corrective feedback for intermediate students. In fact, students who received direct WCF while trying to learn writing obtained the highest mean score ($M=69.00$), followed by those students who received indirect WCF ($M=60.30$), and finally control group who did not receive any sorts of feedback on their writing ($M=52.45$). Thus, the two aforementioned null hypotheses were rejected and type of feedback had effects on writing ability of Iranian intermediate students’ writing skill, in general, and their accurate use of definite and indefinite articles, in particular. Teachers should be aware of this fact that it is more effective to provide intermediate learners with direct corrective feedback in order to help them to understand better and eliminate their errors.

IV. DISCUSSION

With regard to the primary purpose of this study, and as tables and diagrams indicate, the null hypotheses were safely rejected at the 0.05 level of significance. In other words, the analysis of obtained data strongly suggested that using direct written corrective feedback during teaching writing and correcting grammatical errors of the students promoted writing skill. The findings of this study are in accordance with Ellis’ (2009) statement that “Direct CF has the advantage that it provides learners with explicit guidance about how to correct their errors” (p.99). The present study also showed that intermediate students profited from direct CF more because they may not to know correct form or they may not be able to self-correct themselves.

The finding of the current research generally lent support to the results of previous studies (Archibald, 2001; Chandler, 2003; Ferris, 1999) that error correction has positive impacts and helps students to improve their writing accuracy.

The current study also agrees with sheen’s (2007) finding that direct CF is better than indirect corrective feedback for learners at elementary or intermediate level because they are not proficient enough to detect the correct form and they may skip the errors at lower level.

The finding of the present study disagrees with Lalande’s (1982) study which found no significant difference between direct and indirect corrective feedback. Contrary to the claim of Ferris and Roberts (2001) that indirect feedback is more helpful, in the present students benefited more from direct feedback. In another study, Robb et al. (1986) also asserted no substantial difference exist between direct and indirect feedback. The result of current study also was in contrast with Norrozizadeh (2009) study which indicated indirect feedback stimulated students to become more autonomous, thereby it leads to long term learning.

V. CONCLUSION

The research probed the role of two prevalent sorts of written corrective feedback on the enhancing writing accuracy of Intermediate learners, the results demonstrated that there is significance difference in the enhancing of writing ability for the group who received directive written corrective feedback in comparison with the other two groups. This study indicates some supports for using directive written corrective feedback to expand learners’ writing accuracy. Thus, it is noteworthy to bear in mind that teacher should be trained in this regard and they should be taught how to use this kind of feedback to improve students’ writing performance.

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EFL Learners' Writing Accuracy: Effects of Direct and Metalinguistic Electronic Feedback

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effects of direct and metalinguistic electronic feedback (E-feedback) on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy and attitudes toward computer assisted language learning (CALL). Twenty nine students in two intact English writing classes comprised the participants of the study. A mixed-method design was used for data collection and analysis. In addition to the instruction provided similarly in both classes, based on random assignment, the students in one group received direct electronic corrective feedback (DECF) using Ginger software. In the other class, the students received metalinguistic electronic corrective feedback (MECF) in the form of error codes provided through Markin4 software. Results revealed that the use of E-feedback developed the learners' writing accuracy and attitudes toward CALL. However, there were no significant differences between the final overall writing accuracy scores of the DECF and MECF groups and their gain scores. Regarding writing accuracy components (i.e., structure, vocabulary, and punctuation), although the MECF group obtained higher scores in three components, a statistically significant difference between the two groups was found only in terms of vocabulary gain scores. Finally, in the interviews, the students in both groups referred to some barriers in the implementation of CALL in their context as well as some of its merits.

Index Terms—writing accuracy, corrective feedback, direct and metalinguistic feedback, electronic feedback, CALL

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Background

Simultaneous with globalization of English, it is becoming the most significant language for circulating academic knowledge, and scholars in most disciplines tend to publish their articles and journals in English rather than their own languages (Swales, 1997). Hyland (2003, p. xiii) highlights the importance of second language writing by stating that “the ability to communicate ideas and information effectively through the global digital network is crucially dependent on good writing skills”. Thus, as Olshtain (2001) emphasizes, learners' ability to communicate through writing has to be enhanced throughout their education. Given the role of writing courses in this regard, writing assignments and feedback as two integral constituents of every writing course (Kroll, 2001) merit special attention.

According to Sheen and Ellis (2011, p. 593), “Corrective feedback refers to the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language”. However, there is disagreement among researchers regarding effectiveness of feedback. Some researchers challenge the concept of corrective feedback and believe that it has no effect on language development (Hillocks, 1982; Truscott, 1996, 1999; Truscott & Hsu, 2008). In contrast, some others consider it a helpful activity in writing classes which promotes students' language skills (Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ellis, 2009; Hyland, 2003; Krashen & Selinger, 1975; Sheen & Ellis, 2011).

Ellis (2009), an advocate of corrective feedback, presented a typology of corrective feedback. Regarding the way errors may be treated, he makes a distinction between direct, indirect and metalinguistic feedback. If the correct form is provided, the feedback is referred to as direct feedback whereas indirect feedback is said to occur when the error is indicated with or without identification of the exact location. Metalinguistic feedback incorporates identification of error through error codes or short grammatical explanation.

Researchers have explored the effectiveness of direct and indirect feedback (e.g., Sachs & Polio, 2007; Sheen 2007) and have come to contradictory findings. As for metalinguistic feedback, although some researchers have shown that metalinguistic feedback in general (Chuang, 2005; Ellis, 2008; Nagata, 1993; Sheen, 2007) or metalinguistic feedback with annotation tools (Yeh & Lo, 2009) is an effective type of feedback, some others believe that students may lack the necessary linguistic knowledge (Ferris & Roberts, 2001) and time (Ellis, 2008) to correct themselves.

A review of the literature shows that studies have often focused upon traditional forms of feedback such as written and oral feedback. Nonetheless, recently “with the development of new technologies, there has been an attendant interest in applying these technologies in the educational arena, and in making predictions of how they would affect the educational future of our classrooms and students” (Sokoli, 2001, p. 477). As for writing, according to Ware and

Warschauer (2006), “points of contact between technology and second language writing converge on the concept of electronic feedback” (p. 3). With the advent of the internet and improvements in technology, students’ writings have recently been commented on using electronic corrective feedback.

In parallel with the introduction of electronic feedback (E-feedback), various types of technologies have been implemented in second language writing classes in order to examine their value in increasing the efficiency of feedback. Indeed, the last decade or so has seen a surge of interest in the study of electronic email (e.g., Selim & Ahmed, 2009; Trenchs, 1996), internet feedback (e.g., Tuzi, 2004), online materials (e.g., Tseng & Liou, 2006), electronic whiteboards (e.g., Hewett, 2006), online writing centers (e.g., Opdenacker & Waes, 2007), electronic feedback (e.g., Nagata, 1993, 1997; Tuzi, 2004), computer mediated communication (e.g., Sun, 2009), blogs (e.g., Montero-Fleta & Perez-Sabater, 2010; Plamquist, 2003; Tan, Ng, & Saw, 2010;), wikis (e.g., Plamquist, 2003), forums, blogs, and wikis (e.g., Miyazoe & Anderson, 2010), online feedback annotation (e.g., Yeh & Lo, 2009), and toolkits (e.g., Milton & Cheng, 2010). A considerable number of these studies revealed that the use of online materials and electronic tools helps students to better improve their writing skill, to be involved in authentic language use, to improve their self-management and control their learning, and to improve the quality of their texts (e.g., Hewett, 2006; Opdenacker & Waes, 2007; Takayoshi, 1996; Tan, Ng & Saw, 2010; Trenchs, 1996; Tseng & Liou, 2006; Tuzi, 2004).

Nonetheless, an important point worth considering before implementing CALL activities in classes is students’ attitudes toward the use of technology for completing their activities. Although the results of researches have shown that students and teachers generally indicated positive attitudes toward CALL (Baloglu & Cevik, 2008; Greenfield, 2003; Kelm, 1998; Liaw, Huang & Chen, 2007; Mokhtari, 2013; Rahimi & Hosseini, 2011; Rahimi & Yadollahi, 2012; Smith, 2000; Stevens, 1991; Warschauer, 1996), the findings have also revealed some barriers such as lack of time, lack of technical and theoretical knowledge, financial barriers, and students and teachers’ lack of training in implementing CALL in language classes (Daly, 2003; Ismail, Almekhlafi & Al-Mekhlafy, 2010; Kim, 2002; Lee, 2000; Riasati, Allahyar, & Tan, 2012).

B. Objectives and Research Questions

To add to the body of knowledge gained from the literature available on the issue, this study attempts to examine the efficacy of using softwares in providing Iranian EFL learners with metalinguistic electronic corrective feedback (MECF) and direct electronic corrective feedback (DECF), and to explore the students’ attitudes toward the use of CALL in writing. Based on the foregoing points, the present study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Does the corrective feedback offered to the DECF and MECF groups result in the Iranian EFL learners’ writing accuracy development?
2. Is there any significant difference between the effects of DECF and MECF on Iranian EFL learners’ writing accuracy improvement?
3. Do students in the DECF and MECF groups differ in terms of improvement in accuracy components (i.e., structure, vocabulary, and punctuation)?
4. Which intervention (DECF or MECF) is more effective in fostering positive attitudes toward the use of CALL in writing among students?
5. What are the participants’ opinions about E-feedback?

II. METHOD

A. Participants

A convenient sample of 29 Iranian male and female EFL learners took part in the study. They were sophomore students majoring in English Language and Literature who had already enrolled in two classes. Both groups participated in a Paragraph Writing course which was held for about two hours every week for a semester. The students in the two classes were at upper intermediate level based on the results obtained from Oxford Quick Placement Test (Oxford University Press, 2001). The homogeneity of the two groups in terms of language proficiency was assured based on the results of the same test ($t(27) = .659$, $Sig = .516$). The two intact classes were randomly assigned to either of the two treatment groups, DECF and MECF groups.

B. Instruments, Softwares and the Scale

1. Writing Tests

Two writing tests similarly administered in both classes at the beginning and at the end of the course functioned as the pretest and posttest, respectively. It was attempted to choose two similar topics for the two tests so that the difficulty of the tasks would be kept constant. The pretest informed the researchers of (the homogeneity of) the writing ability of the students in the two groups before the treatments and the posttest indicated their ability after the treatments. The comparison between the students’ performances on the pretest and the posttest could show the efficiency of the treatments in improving the students’ writing accuracy.

2. The CALL Attitude Questionnaire

To investigate the students’ attitudes toward CALL before and after the treatments, the CALL attitude questionnaire validated by Vandewaeterea and Desmet (2009) was used as a base draft. It assesses EFL learners’ attitudes toward

CALL through 20 items scored on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The present researchers revised, and adapted this questionnaire to address the students' attitude toward the use of computers in learning to write and, thus, developed a questionnaire which was appropriate for the purpose of the study. The revised questionnaire (henceforth briefly referred to as the CALL questionnaire) consists of 32 items related to the use of computers, technology and software in writing. The internal consistency of the questionnaire estimated through Cronbach's alpha was 0.82 which was satisfactorily high for the purpose of the study.

3. Interviews

In order to find out about the students' opinions about E-feedback, a series of semi-structured interviews was carried out at the end of the treatments. These interviews were conducted by the first researcher in the participants' native language, Persian, so that the students could express their ideas with ease. Out of 32 students in the two groups, 12 were selected (six students from each of the DECF and MECF groups) through purposive sampling procedure. In order to select the interviewees, the students were categorized into three bands based on their writing ability as indicated in the posttest, and from each band two participants were selected randomly for the interview to make sure that the ideas of the students with various writing abilities would be taken into consideration. The questions asked were about the students' opinions about electronic feedback and their preferences regarding electronic feedback or teacher feedback.

4. Computer Softwares

Two computer softwares were employed in the present study to provide the participants with electronic corrective feedback on the accuracy of their writing: Ginger and Markin4. Ginger (Karov & Zangvil, 2007), a free grammar, punctuation and spell checker software dealing with natural language processing (NLP), is an online service. The program checks and corrects punctuation and spelling mistakes, misused words and grammar mistakes in accordance with the context of the full sentence in which they are used (Wikimedia Foundation, Inc., 2013). Therefore, this software was used to provide direct electronic corrective feedback in the DECF group. Markin4 (Creative Technology, 2013) is a Windows program that provides a comprehensive set of tools enabling the teacher to mark and annotate the text, and give comments and feedback to the students; hence, the software was employed to provide metalinguistic electronic corrective feedback in the MECF group.

5. The Scoring Scale

According to Weigle (2002), one of the important components of writing assessment is the scoring scale since it "represents the most concrete statement of the construct being measured" (p. 72). In this study, the researchers used an adapted version of the essay rating scale developed by Paulus (1999). Since the course the students were participating in was intended to develop their ability to write effective paragraphs, not essays, some of the criteria mentioned in the rubric were slightly revised in a way that the scale would fit assessment of paragraphs. The scoring scale, designed on a ten-point scale, incorporates both macro and micro level criteria. Based on this scoring scale, both groups were similarly assessed and also received feedback on macro level criteria. However, though their writings were also similarly evaluated based on the micro level criteria in the same scale, the students in either group received the respective type of feedback on their writing accuracy with reference to the same criteria.

C. Data Collection Procedure

Before the inception of the instruction and the treatments, the students in both classes were given a writing task with the same topic employed as the writing pretest. The overall writing accuracy scores of the two groups were subjected to an independent samples t-test, the results of which confirmed the homogeneity of the two classes in terms of overall writing accuracy ($t(27) = .178$, $Sig = .760$). Subsequently, the classes were randomly assigned to the DECF group, who received instruction on writing and direct feedback (on their writing accuracy) generated through Ginger, and the MECF group, who, in addition to similar instruction on writing, received electronic metalinguistic feedback through Markin4. In addition to the writing pretest, on which the participants received no feedback, and some preliminary activities and assignments such as freewriting, brainstorming, outlining and writing topic sentences, the students were given nine topics on which they had to write paragraphs (of no more than 200 words) and practice different techniques of support and methods of development instructed each session during the semester.

The researchers, using either of the two softwares for the respective group, provided the students with feedback on accuracy of their nine writing assignments (regarding micro-level aspects of their writing such as grammar, spelling, and punctuation) as well as feedback on the macro level aspects (such as content and organization) which was done similarly in both groups. The students in both groups were supposed to revise their texts based on the feedback they had received and hand them in the next session.

At the end of the course, the students were given the posttest writing task which, similar to the pretest writing task, was identical in both groups. Furthermore, the researchers administered the CALL questionnaire before the commencement of the course and at the end of the course in order to explore the students' attitudes toward the use of computers and softwares for improving their writing ability. The interviews were conducted at the end of the semester and took about 10 minutes for each student. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for further analysis.

D. Data Analyses

At first, descriptive statistics of the students' overall writing accuracy scores on the writing pretest and posttest, as well as the CALL questionnaires were obtained. Then the two groups' overall writing accuracy scores on the writing

pretest and posttests were compared using a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) in order to see whether there was any statistically significant difference between the performance of the students in the DECF group and that of the MECF group. In addition, to gain a more comprehensive picture of the performances of the students in the two classes, their overall writing accuracy gain scores from the pretest to the posttest tasks were also computed using an independent samples t-test

Moreover, a one-way between-groups multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to investigate the difference between the DECF and MECF groups in terms of the components of writing accuracy (i.e., structure, vocabulary, and punctuation). To avoid type 1 error due to multiple comparisons, Bonferroni adjustment was done when considering the results of tests of between-subjects effects. Then the participants' responses to the CALL attitude questionnaires administered before and after the treatments were analyzed to determine if there were any changes in the students' attitude toward CALL in writing as a result of the treatments. A mixed between-within subjects ANOVA was run to make intra- and inter-group comparisons between the learners' attitudes toward CALL before and after the treatments.

III. RESULTS OF DATA ANALYSES

A. Evaluation of Efficiency of DECF and MECF in Improving Students' Overall Writing Accuracy

Descriptive statistics were first obtained in order to examine the value of DECF and MECF in improving the students' overall writing accuracy. According to Table 1, both groups appear to have made improvement in overall writing accuracy as a result of the type of feedback offered (DECF: Pretest M=9.27, Posttest M=18.18; MECF: Pretest M=9.11, Posttest M=19.72).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST AND POSTTEST OVERALL WRITING ACCURACY SCORES

Writing task	Group	N	Mean	Min	Max	Min Possible	Max Possible	SD
Pretest	DECF	11	9.27	7	16	0	30	3.16
	MECF	18	9.11	7	13	0	30	1.74
Posttest	DECF	11	18.18	8	24	0	30	4.60
	MECF	18	19.72	15	23	0	30	2.27

However, in order to statistically examine the differences in the two groups' performances, a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Before, examining the results, preliminary assumption testing was conducted to check for homogeneity of inter-correlations and variances; no serious violations were observed.

As the results in Table 2 indicate, there was not a significant interaction between time and group (i.e., different treatments) (Wilk's Lambda=.956, $F(1, 27) = 1.256$, $Sig = .272$, Partial eta squared=.044), meaning that in the course of time the two experimental groups' development in overall writing accuracy did not show much difference. As for the impact of the two types of treatment, similarly, the effect was not significantly different ($F(1, 27) = .734$, $Sig = .399$, Partial eta squared=.026), suggesting no difference in the effectiveness of the two feedback types (i.e., DECF and MECF) in improving the students' overall writing accuracy. However, there was a significant main effect for time (Wilk's Lambda=.140, $F(1, 27) = 165.204$, $Sig = .000$, Partial eta squared=.860) which shows that both groups greatly improved their overall writing accuracy over time and the effect of time, as indicated by the effect size, was large (Cohen, 1988).

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF MIXED BETWEEN-WITHIN SUBJECTS ANOVA FOR PRETEST AND POSTTEST OVERALL WRITING ACCURACY SCORES

Mixed-between-within ANOVA							
Multivariate tests (of within subjects effect)	Effect	Wilk's Lambda value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Time	.140	165.204	1	27.000	.000	.860
	Time*Group	.956	1.256	1	27.000	.272	.044
Tests of between- subject effect	Group	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
		6.490	1(27)	6.49	.734	.399	.026

A comparison between the improvement in overall writing accuracy of the students in the two groups over time is graphically depicted in Fig.1. As it is shown in the figure, the students in the MECF group apparently showed a better performance than their counterparts in the DECF group over time; however, as mentioned before, the results displayed in Table 3 showed no statistically significant difference between the performances of the students in the two groups in terms of overall accuracy in writing.

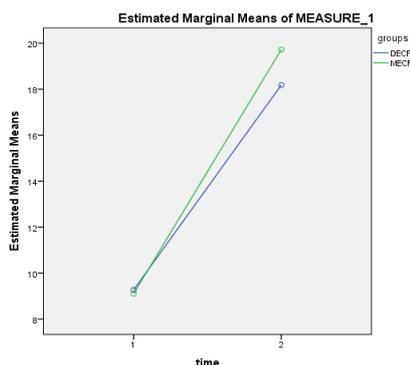


Figure 1. Comparison of Pretest (1) and Posttest (2) Accuracy Scores of the DECF and MECF Groups

Since the dispersion of overall writing accuracy scores of the DECF as compared with the MECF group in both pre- and posttests (Pretest: DECF=3.16, MECF=1.74; Posttest: DECF=4.60, MECF=2.27) considerably differed, it could be inferred that the students in the two groups did not homogeneously make improvement in writing accuracy. Therefore, the odds were that this may have affected the results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA. In order to scrutinize the issue further, writing accuracy gain scores (from pretest to posttest) of individual students in both groups were computed and compared using an independent samples t-test. As the results in Table 3 indicate, the mean accuracy gain score of the students in the MECF group ($M=10.6$, $SD=2.91$) was higher than the mean gain score of the students in the DECF group ($M=8.91$, $SD=5.30$); however, there was not a statistically significant difference between the gain score means of the two groups ($t(27) = -1.12$, $Sig = .27$). This suggests that the development in the overall writing accuracy of the two feedback groups was almost similar and, hence, MECF and DECF were equally effective in this regard.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DECF AND MECF GROUPS' WRITING ACCURACY GAIN SCORES AND RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST

Group	N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig. (two-tailed)
DECF	11	8.91	5.30	-1.12	27	.272
MECF	18	10.6	2.91			

B. Evaluation of Efficiency of DECF and MECF in Improving Students' Writing Accuracy Components

Another objective of the research was to explore how the two types of electronic feedback on learners' writing accuracy affected different components of accuracy (i.e., structure, vocabulary and punctuation) in their writing. In order to see the improvement of the DECF and MECF groups in terms of the components of writing accuracy, their gain scores in each of the components were computed and then a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was performed. The students' gain scores on the three components of writing accuracy under study comprised the dependent variables and group (i.e., the type of treatment offered: DECF and MECF) served as the independent variable. Preliminary assumption testing was run to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, and multicollinearity; no serious violations were observed.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF MANOVA FOR THE TWO GROUPS' GAIN SCORES ON THE WRITING ACCURACY COMPONENTS

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	d
Group	.652	4.44	3	25	.012	.348

As Table 4 presents, there was a statically significant difference between the DECF and MECF groups on the combined dependent variables ($F(3, 25) = 4.44$, $Sig = .012$; Wilks' Lambda = .652), and the effect size was found to be large ($d=.348$) (Cohen, 1988). To further investigate the difference in relation to each dependent variable, the results of Tests of Between-Subjects Effect were examined.

A Bonferroni alpha adjustment was run to get to an experiment-wise alpha rate. The alpha level (.05) was divided by 3 to reach an acceptable confidence level for each of the three components. The adjusted alpha level was $p < .017$. When the results of the follow-up tests for the dependent variables were examined, the only difference to reach statistical significance was the difference observed in gain scores obtained on vocabulary ($F(1, 27) = 9.36$, $Sig = .005$, Partial eta squared = .258).

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS FOR DECF AND MECF GROUPS' GAIN SCORES ON WRITING ACCURACY COMPONENTS

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Groups	Structure	.759	1	.759	.788	.383	.028
	Vocabulary	7.97	1	7.97	9.36	.005	.258
	Punctuation	.435	1	.435	.415	.525	.015

Further analysis of the mean gain scores indicated that the students in the MECF group obtained higher vocabulary gain scores ($M=3.44$, $SD=2.17$) than the students in the DECF group ($M=2.36$, $SD=.278$). Although the students in the MECF group had better performance in both structure ($M=3.33$, $SD=.231$) and punctuation ($M=3.88$, $SD=.241$) than the students in the DECF group (Structure, $M=3.00$, $SD=.296$, Punctuation, $M=3.63$, $SD=.309$), there was not a statistically significant difference between the DECF and MECF groups' mean gain scores in structure ($F(1, 27)=.788$, $Sig=.383$) and punctuation ($F(1, 27)=.415$, $Sig=.525$).

C. Assessment of the DECF and MECF Groups' Attitudes toward CALL

As mentioned before, to investigate the participants' opinions about the use of computers and technology in writing, the students in both groups were asked to answer the CALL questionnaire both before and after the treatments. Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics for both pretest and posttest CALL questionnaires for the DECF and MECF groups. According to the table, the students held nearly positive attitudes toward CALL in both the DECF ($M=4.95$, $SD=.689$) and MECF ($M=5.10$, $SD=1.21$) groups before the treatments. After the treatments, similarly, the students in the DECF ($M=5.13$, $SD=.904$) and MECF ($M=5.13$, $SD=1.03$) groups held positive attitudes too.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR CALL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Questionnaire	Group	N	Mean	Min	Max	Min Possible	Max Possible	SD
Pretest	DECF	11	4.95	3.50	6.22	0	7	.689
	MECF	18	5.10	2.03	6.63	0	7	1.21
Posttest	DECF	11	5.13	3.84	6.41	0	7	.904
	MECF	18	5.13	2.53	6.28	0	7	1.03

In order to explore the significance of changes in the students' attitude toward CALL, a mixed between-within subjects analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Assumptions of homogeneity of inter-correlations and homogeneity of variances were checked and the results showed no serious violations.

Table 7 presents the results of the mixed between-within subjects ANOVA. As the results indicate, there was not a significant interaction between time and group (i.e., different treatments) (Wilk's Lambda=.997, $F(1, 27) = .074$, $Sig=.787$, Partial eta squared=.003), meaning that in the course of time the two groups' attitude toward CALL did not show much difference. As for the impact of the two treatments, the effect was not significantly different ($F(1, 27) = .071$, $Sig=.791$, Partial eta squared=.003), suggesting no difference in the two groups' attitudes toward CALL. Similarly, there was not a significant main effect for time (Wilk's Lambda=.995, $F(1, 27) = .144$, $Sig=.707$, Partial eta squared=.005). This shows that neither groups' attitudes toward CALL significantly improved over time.

TABLE 7.
RESULTS OF MIXED BETWEEN-WITHIN SUBJECTS ANOVA FOR CALL ATTITUDE QUESTIONNAIRE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Multivariate tests (of within-subject effect)	Effect	Wilk's Lambda value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
	Time	.995	.144	1	27.0	.707	.005
	Time*Group	.997	.074	1	27.0	.787	.003
Tests of between-subject effect	Group	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
		.075	1(27)	.075	.071	.791	.003

A comparison between the two groups' attitudes toward CALL over time is graphically depicted in Fig.2. As it is shown in the figure below, the students in the DECF group developed stronger positive attitudes than their counterparts in the MECF group over time; however, the results displayed in Table 7 showed no statistical difference between the two groups in terms of CALL attitude.

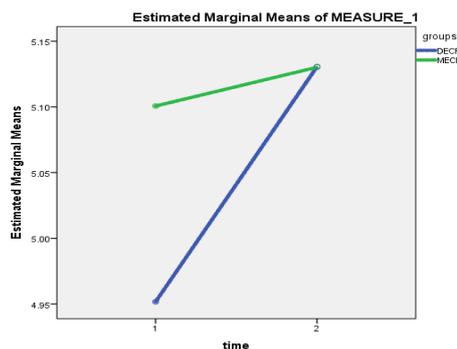


Figure 2. Comparison of pretest (1) and posttest (2) CALL attitude of the DECF and MECF groups

D. Analysis of the DECF and MECF Groups' Opinions about E-feedback

As was mentioned before, to elicit further information about the students' experience of the treatments they received and the effectiveness of E-feedback offered in each group, semi-structured interviews were done with 12 students. The interviews were transcribed and the key concepts were extracted. The students' opinions are categorized based on the interview questions and their themes below.

1. Use of Electronic Resources

All the students who were interviewed stated that they preferred electronic and online language learning materials over traditional ones since these kinds of materials motivate the students and engage them in language learning. For instance, one of the participants emphasized the merits of these assets by stating "since we live in a modern world where we do most of our activities using computers and cell phones, we feel more confident when we use electronic and online language learning resources than paper and pencil ones". Moreover, all the interviewees believed that such materials provide a stress-free environment for language learning. They asserted that if they could have access to softwares designed for language learning, they could refer to them anytime they liked and they did not have to be limited to specific time (such as class hours) and typical classroom settings for language learning. It can be inferred that electronic resources offer flexibility to students since they can use them whenever and wherever they have access to computers and the internet. Moreover, it could be concluded that electronic resources provide equal opportunities for all students.

2. Electronic vs. Teacher Feedback

Most (8 out of 12) of the students participating in the interviews preferred electronic feedback. They declared that they did not like to be corrected by their teacher since they sometimes made silly mistakes which led to their embarrassment. Furthermore, the interviewees believed that using electronic feedback generated a less intimidating environment for language learning. In their opinion, electronic feedback fostered a student-centered environment in which students themselves were responsible for their own learning as well as their strengths and weaknesses in language skills. Nonetheless, although the students considered E-feedback more convenient and less intimidating, some of them preferred it to be supplementary to teacher's feedback. "I'd like to receive both teacher and electronic feedback; in this way I have faith in the correction and I can revise my text with no doubt about the validity of the feedback that I have received," said one of the students.

3. Problems Associated with E-feedback

The participants reported some difficulties with regard to using electronic online materials. They maintained that access to the internet is an important issue to be considered when evaluating advantages of electronic online materials. They said that for those who do not have (permanent) access to the internet, online resources are not effective. One of the students stated "I sometimes had problem benefitting from online materials, in general, and the E-feedback, in particular, since I live in the dormitory where I do not have constant access to the internet". The students also stated that those who do not have basic computer knowledge may not be successful in using online and electronic resources. In addition, although the students regarded computers as user-friendly devices, they believed that computers are not reliable because they may breakdown at any time. Finally, the students cautioned that in some cases the students may encounter problems in language learning which can be resolved merely in the traditional face-to-face learning environment.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

According to the results of data analyses, the participants' writing accuracy in both groups improved after receiving either type of feedback. The data showed that students who received MECF gained higher scores on accuracy than the group who received DECF; however, there was no significant difference in the effectiveness of the types of feedback that the students received. This finding is in contrast to the studies which showed that either direct or metalinguistic feedback was more effective (Bitchener & Knoch, 2010; Ellis, 2009; Ferris & Roberts, 2001; Sheen, 2007). An explanation for the obtained results can be the fact that both groups, irrespective of the type of feedback, similarly

received systematic corrective feedback; thus, both groups rather equally improved in writing accuracy. Another possible explanation would be that the results may have been affected by the initial greater heterogeneity of the DECF students' writing ability as indicated by the standard deviation of the scores in the pretest of the writing ability. Indeed, as the results of the writing pretest showed, compared to the scores of the MECF group ($SD=3.16$), there was greater dispersion in the writing scores of the students in the DECF group ($SD=1.74$) which shows that the students in the DECF group were not as homogeneous as the ones in the MECF group in terms of writing ability before the inception of the treatments.

Nevertheless, the results are in agreement with the studies which indicated that written corrective feedback improved writing accuracy (Lalande, 1982; Li & Lin, 2007; Sheen, Wright, & Moldawa, 2009; Sheppard, 1992) and are in contrast to some early researches which revealed that corrective feedback given on the students' writing had no or negative effect on their development (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Hillocks, 1982; Robb, Ross & Shortseed, 1986; Truscott, 1996, 1999, 2009). The researchers who found feedback ineffective admitted that the correction they provided was not systematic enough to influence the accuracy of the students' writing (Cohen & Robbins, 1976; Fazio, 2001). Hence, it may be claimed that the feedback in this study improved the participants' accuracy because the feedback was provided systematically. Moreover, all the students participating in the present study were supposed to revise their first drafts regardless of the type of treatment they received. In fact, revision is regarded as an important activity that helps students to improve accuracy of their writings and develop correctness of their subsequent texts (Li & Lin, 2007).

The effect of metalinguistic and direct electronic feedback on the learners' writing accuracy components was also detected. The results revealed that the participants in the MECF group gained higher structure and punctuation mean gain scores than the ones in DECF group; however, the differences were not statistically significant. Notwithstanding, the analyses showed a statistically significant difference between the DECF and MECF groups in terms of vocabulary gain score. In fact, the students in the MECF group obtained a higher vocabulary gain score. An explanation for this result can be the fact that the students in the MECF group themselves tried to find appropriate substitutes when they received feedback on their choices of words and expressions and this raised their consciousness about their choices and using appropriate words and expressions. On the other hand, the students in the DECF group were provided with appropriate words and expressions by the software when they made mistakes. Moreover, it is also possible that the students in the MECF group had better vocabulary knowledge than the students in the DECF group before the treatment; indeed, before the inception of the treatment, the two groups' language proficiency and overall writing ability, not their vocabulary knowledge, were compared and appeared to be similar.

The participants' attitudes toward CALL in writing were also explored quantitatively before and after the treatments; however, qualitative investigation of their opinions about E-feedback was conducted just after the treatments were over when they had already experienced the use of softwares and received electronic feedback. According to the results, the participants of the present study had nearly positive attitudes toward CALL even before the inception of the treatments. Although they developed stronger positive attitudes after the treatments, there was not a statistically significant difference between their attitudes toward CALL before and after the treatments. Similarly, there was not a significant difference between the two types of feedback in terms of fostering positive attitudes toward CALL among the students. One justification for these findings can be the fact that, as mentioned above, the participants held positive attitudes toward CALL from the beginning of the research and this fact may have motivated them to be involved in the activities and to benefit from the two types of E-feedback to improve their writing accuracy; thus, in a rather similar fashion, the two groups' attitudes did not change considerably as a result of receiving either type of electronic feedback. Furthermore, it can be stated that, overall, the students' attitudes did not improve significantly due to the problems some of them faced while using computers to receive and apply the E-feedback. Moreover, as it was revealed in the interviews, some of them had already used computers for writing and self-correction and this was not their first experience of using computers.

These findings are in line with the literature which shows that students' positive attitudes toward CALL promote their interest in using computers for language learning (Greenfield, 2003; Kelm, 1998; Lasagabaster & Sierra, 2003; Liaw, Huang, & Chen, 2007; Mokhtari, 2013; Rahimi & Hosseini, 2011; Smith, 2000; Stevens, 1991; Warschauer, 1996). Learners' attitude toward computers is a crucial factor that impacts the human-computer interaction. As Rahimi and Hosseini (2011) declare, "There is evidence in the literature that individuals' positive attitudes toward computer-based instruction influence their willingness to sustain using computers for learning" (p. 183).

Apart from the quantitative analysis of the data, the participants' opinions were addressed and qualitatively analyzed. The students who were interviewed believed that electronic materials engage them in language learning and create a stress-free environment for learning. They welcomed electronic sources since they were time and place-independent resources which they can use anytime and anywhere they have access to computers and the internet. Moreover, they stated that the use of electronic sources reduces students' dependence on teachers and that the students become more responsible for their own learning. The students' positive attitudes toward CALL are in line with the literature (e.g., Daly, 2003; Ismail, Almekhlafi & Al-Mekhlafy, 2010; Kim, 2002; Lee, 2000; Riasati, Allahyar, & Tan, 2012). However, the fact that they believed there are some barriers such as lack of time, basic computer knowledge, students and teachers' training courses in implementing CALL in language classes, and the internet accessibility as well as financial barriers also further supports the findings of earlier research (e.g., Han, 2008; Kim, 2002; Lee, 2000; Riasati,

Allahyar, & Tan, 2012).

Therefore, based on the results of the present study, it is recommended that EFL teachers seek effective ways to provide students with (electronic) feedback on their writing tasks in order to improve their writing skill. Teachers are supposed to choose and incorporate appropriate approaches and tools in order to help language learners produce accurate language. In fact, teachers, material developers, and, particularly, educational authorities should become familiar with the benefits of CALL, attempt to reduce barriers of CALL implementation, and integrate it into the writing courses in order to create an environment which positively affects the learning process.

Nonetheless, the findings should be treated with caution because the present study suffered from a number of shortcomings. Due to ethical and practical issues, both groups similarly received electronic corrective feedback and the study lacked a control group. Furthermore, the small sample size needs consideration: there were only 11 and 18 students participating in the DECF and MECF groups, respectively. The next restriction deals with the internet and computer access: some students in both DECF and MECF groups who lived in the dormitory did not have easy access to the internet which may have adversely affected the results. Moreover, due to practical restrictions including financial ones, the researchers had to use the mentioned softwares which were accessible to them in order to provide corrective feedback. Therefore, it is recommended that further research compensating for the above shortcomings should be done in order to verify generalizability of the findings obtained in the present study. Future studies may, among others, take the following suggestions into account: including larger samples as well as control groups in different contexts with better technological facilities and employing other softwares providing more comprehensive electronic corrective feedback.

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Research on Negative Construction of “One Quantifier N” in International Chinese Teaching

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Abstract—Negative Construction of “One Quantifier N” has been one of the difficulties of teaching Chinese to foreign students. Quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” are restricted, and such selection restrictions are closely associated with the markedness of quantifiers. This paper makes an attempt to investigate the selection restrictions from the perspective of the markedness of quantifiers. The paper claims that when the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” is used to express complete negation, unmarked quantifiers are more readily acceptable and natural than marked ones in the construction; and less marked quantifiers can also appear in the construction, but is less readily acceptable and natural; and the more marked the quantifier is, the less natural, acceptable it will be in the construction. Feasible suggestions are accordingly put forward to solve the problems existing in the teaching of Negative Construction of “One Quantifier N”.

Index Terms—negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, markedness, selection restriction, teaching strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

As a unique language phenomenon in Sino-Tibetan language family, quantifiers have captured great attention from scholars and have been extensively examined from various perspectives, including grammaticalization, lexicalization, typology, and cognitive linguistics and so on. Negative construction of “One Quantifier N” is one of the special constructions formed by quantifier and noun, but little attention has been fixed on the teaching of the construction. We maintain that the study of negative construction of “One Quantifier N” is conducive to international Chinese teaching. This paper will explore the selection restrictions from the perspective of the markedness of quantifiers, analyzing reasons for errors in the study of negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, and accordingly put forward some feasible strategies for the international Chinese teaching.

Current researches on negative construction of “One Quantifier N” have been mainly devoted to two provinces, that is, classification of the construction and comparisons between the two subcategories of the construction, and selection restrictions on quantifiers in the construction. Negative construction of “One Quantifier N” can be further divided into two subcategories according to the word order within it (Guo, 1998; Dai, 2000; Ni, 2001; Hu, 2004/2006/2007; Liu, 2007; Cui, 2013), that is:

A: One + Quantifier + Negation

e.g. 一个人也没有 “No one”

One Quantifier Person No

B: Negation + One + Quantifier Person

e.g. 没有一个人 “No one”

No One Quantifier Person

As for the two subcategories, different scholars maintain different opinions. According to Guo (1998), A and B are the same. He further explained that A is constructed by transferring the focus of B to the front, and the only distinction between the two lies in their surface structure, which results from the arrangement of focus and other information structures. A makes the focus prominent, thus conforming to Chinese convention though compared with B it is abnormal in word order. Therefore it is more acceptable and widely used. Similarly, Dai (2000) held that A is generated by shifting the object of B to the front. But Ni (2001) maintained that A and B are parallel structures because they have the same focus and sequence. Hu (2007) thought that they are semantically equal after he found both of them express the concept of complete negation and enjoy high frequency of use. As oppose to the ideas above, Liu (2007) proclaimed that A is endowed with higher degree of negation than B though they all express complete negation. Cui (2013) also pointed out the asymmetrical relation between the two.

Selection restrictions on quantifiers in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” have been investigated by Li (2000) and Hu (2006). Li was especially concerned with A and he further distinguished two kinds within A, claiming that the first kind in A is compatible with a wide range of quantifiers and seldom has any restrictions (2000, p189).

Hu (2006) disagreed with him and conducted his research from the perspective of the theory of “the governing force of clauses”. He found that negative construction of “One Quantifier N” does have some restrictions for quantifiers appearing in it and three rules were summarized by him.

Quantifiers which can appear in negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, meaning complete negation, must be at the bottom of a ranking order, expressing the minimal, indivisible quantity.

Only those general quantifiers that are frequently and widely used and attached with no stylistic or emotional meaning can appear in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” freely with high acceptability.

Whether a quantifier can appear in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” rests upon language users’ perception of the quantifier, but is anyway constrained by the objective world.

Though the three rules are seemingly plausible, they fail to provide a concise and clear explanation for such a language phenomenon. First of all, it is too assertive to claim that only quantifiers at the bottom of a ranking order can appear in negative construction of “One Quantifier N”. Take the ranking order “Yuan (元), Mao (毛)/Jiao (角), Fen (分)” as an example. According to Hu, only Fen (分) can be found in the negative construction. But based on CCL Corpus, we found that Mao (毛) can also be used and even enjoyed high frequency of use. The following examples are quoted from the CCL Corpus: “因为日方连一毛钱也不肯出 (because the Japanese didn’t even take out one penny)”, “并没为公司赚到一毛钱 (...even didn’t make one penny profit for the company)” etc. Secondly, the third rule is poorly defined. Due to its vagueness, it is difficult to determine whether a quantifier can enter the construction. Thirdly, Hu has not explained the relationship between the three rules, that is, whether the rules work independently or interdependently.

However, based on markedness theory, problems confronting Hu will be settled down. In other words, selection restrictions on quantifiers in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” are closely related to markedness of quantifiers.

II. MARKEDNESS THEORY

Markedness reflects the phenomenon of asymmetrical distribution in language. Markedness theory, proposed by the Russian linguist Trubetzkoy who is member of the Prague School, is an important concept in structuralism. Then it was developed by many other scholars and extended to other areas including syntax, semantics, pragmatics, psycholinguistics and applied linguistics etc. As for the determination of whether a linguistic phenomenon is marked or not, various criteria have been provided by researchers from both home and abroad. In addition, scholars have also expounded why markedness is employed in language use. The following section will make a brief introduction of markedness theory from three aspects, that is, development of markedness theory, criteria for markedness, and explanations for markedness.

A. *Development of Markedness Theory*

After initiation, markedness theory has found its way in various fields because of its power for the explanation of asymmetrical language phenomena and has gained new meaning.

Jacobson first introduced markedness theory into lexical and grammatical researches to describe lexical and syntactical phenomena. Chomsky and Halle (1968) inherited the concept of markedness from the Prague School and they assigned markedness value to every distinctive feature which they used to analyze phonemes. Lyons (1977) conducted a thorough investigation on markedness in semantics, and he made a distinction among formal marking, distributional marking and semantic marking, claiming that semantic markedness of a lexeme is only a matter of degree. From the aspect of syntax, Halliday (1994) distinguished “marked theme” and “unmarked theme” in his functional grammar. Linguistic typology further developed the theory from two aspects. Firstly, it examined markedness from a multi-pattern perspective instead of traditional dichotomy, that is, it is not the case that marked items stand in binary opposition to unmarked terms but that there is a continuum between the two. Secondly, markedness theory based on linguistic typology attempts to construct an interrelated pattern by connecting different categories rather than build a markedness pattern within one category. American linguist Givon (1995) brought markedness theory into pragmatics. He argued that linguistic markedness rests upon context and even context itself can be divided into “marked” and “unmarked”. In addition, markedness theory has also been conducive to researches in second language acquisition, semiotics etc., and gained further development in related areas.

B. *Criteria for Markedness*

Markedness is the core concept in markedness theory, but what linguistic phenomena are marked and what not? Various criteria have been provided.

At the very beginning, three criteria have been established by the Prague School, i.e. syntagmatic complexity, paradigmatic complexity, and distribution (Newmeyer, 1998). In detail, syntagmatic complexity refers to the fact that morphemes in unmarked terms is less than or equal to that in marked ones, that is to say, unmarked terms are syntagmatically simpler. Paradigmatic complexity says that inflectional forms of unmarked terms are more than marked ones or unmarked terms appear in more structures than marked ones do. Distribution denotes that unmarked terms are characterized by higher frequency of use in both speech and written discourse compared with marked ones.

When markedness theory was extended to linguistic typology, Greenberg, the initiator of linguistic typology, proposed thirteen criteria, including five phonological criteria and eight morphosyntactic ones (Tang, 2003). The five phonological criteria say:

- a) In neutral context, unmarked terms, instead of marked ones are realized.
- b) Unmarked terms are endowed with higher frequency than, or, at least, equal to marked ones in discourse.
- c) Unmarked terms enjoy wider or equivalent distribution in phonological environment compared with marked ones.
- d) Allophones of unmarked terms are more than or equal to that of marked ones.
- e) More phonemes are characterized by unmarkedness rather than markedness.

Eight morphosyntactic criteria include:

- a. Marked terms can be realized by more morphemes than unmarked ones.
- b. Inflectional forms of unmarked terms exceed or equate that of marked ones.
- c. Under certain circumstances, unmarked terms can be utilized to refer to both the marked and unmarked, that is, unmarked terms can be regarded as supercategory.
- d. Only unmarked terms appear in neutral context.
- e. Allomorphs or inflections of unmarked terms are more than or equal to that of marked ones.
- f. Grammatical varieties of unmarked terms are more than or equal to that of marked ones.
- g. (Grammatical categories confined to “Number”) plural forms of gender of unmarked terms can inclusively denote masculinity and femininity.
- h. Unmarked terms turn up more frequently than, or as frequently as marked ones in discourse.

As can be seen, Greenberg’s thirteen criteria seem redundant. Croft (1990) reduced them to four categories: structural criterion, behavioral criterion, frequency criterion and neutral value criterion. Structural criterion denotes that morphemes of marked terms in a grammatical category is more than, or equal to that of unmarked ones. Behavioral criterion include two sub-criteria, i.e. inflectional criterion which is also a morphological criterion, that is, inflectional forms of marked terms are less than or equal to that of unmarked ones, and distributional criterion which is also a syntactic criterion, that is, unmarked constructions in syntax can be applied in more syntactic contexts than marked ones. Frequency criterion refers to the phenomenon that unmarked terms possess the characteristics of higher frequency from discursal and cross-linguistic perspectives. Neutral value criterion reveals that only unmarked terms appear in certain neutral context, or rather, unmarked terms can be used as super-category to refer to both the marked and unmarked. Givon (1995) argued that cognitive complexity is also an important criterion for determining whether a linguistic phenomenon is marked or not.

Shen Jiaxuan (1999), with reference to Chinese, based on Croft’s four criteria, recategorized those criteria into six categories: syntagmatic criterion, paradigmatic criterion, frequency criterion, distributional criterion, semantic criterion and diachronic criteria. Meanwhile, he pointed out that distributional and frequency criteria are especially significant to languages like Chinese which lacks inflections.

Though criteria for markedness vary from different perspectives, scholars have generally achieved a consensus that formal complexity, distribution and frequency all play a vital role.

C. *Explanations for Markedness*

According to Shen (1999), the phenomenon of markedness is pragmatically and cognitively motivated.

From the pragmatic perspective, markedness is given rise to because of economy, one of the principles in pragmatics. In other words, speakers try to reduce their efforts of speaking as much as possible, provided that they have conveyed their intentions clearly and accurately, thus, making the unmarked prominent. Other pragmatic principles, such as Cooperative Principle, are also responsible for markedness.

Markedness is also closely related to human cognition. It is held that cognitively salient, prototypical concepts or the unmarked, are much more attractive, and can be readily stored and retrieved in information processing. In addition to prototypicality, iconicity also accounts. In detail, markedness resembles natural order and compositional order of cognition. Those marked are marked because they are cognitively extraordinary, complicated, and unexpected.

III. MARKEDNESS OF QUANTIFIERS

On the basis of those criteria discussed in the second part, quantifiers generally fall into two categories, that is, those characterized by markedness and those unmarked.

A. *Unmarked Quantifiers vs. Marked Quantifiers*

Unmarked quantifiers are those that are equipped with higher frequency and wider range of usage, and without any stylistic or emotional meaning. Take Ge (个), Wei (位), and Ming (名) as an example. They express the same concept as quantifiers when co-occurring with nouns, for instance, “一个作家, 一名作家, 一位作家 (One writer)”, but they are not equal in status. In comparison, Ge (个) is neutral in both stylistic and emotional meaning, thus, widely applicable in most contexts, while Wei (位) and Ming (名) are much more formal and usually found in written text and other formal occasions. Similar stylistically and emotionally neutral quantifiers also includes Tiao (条) concurring with fish, Ben (本)

concurring with book, Fu (幅) collocating with painting, etc., which stand in contrast to their respective counterpart(s) Wei (尾), Ce (册)/Bu (部), Zhang (张)/Zhen (帧), etc. As is contrary to unmarked quantifiers, marked ones are much more unexpected and complex and as a consequence, more restricted in use. For example, compounding quantifiers, such as sortie (架次), Renci (人次), etc., quantifiers confined in contexts of natural science, such as gallon (加仑), ampere (安培), etc., and borrowing quantifiers, such as inch (英寸), mile (英里), etc., are not only abnormal but also complicated both semantically and structurally, and thus limited to special usage.

Unmarked quantifiers are also cognitively primary. For example, Fen (分) is unmarked while Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) are marked because Fen (分) is the basis upon which Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) are constructed, or rather, the concept of Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) are cognitively structured by the concept of Fen (分). Other similar examples entail the contrasts among Gen (根), Bao (包), and Tiao (条) which concurring with cigarettes, Cun (寸), Chi (尺), Zhang (丈) which co-occurring with land, etc.

B. *Markedness of Quantifiers as a Continuum*

As is in accordance with markedness of other linguistic phenomena, the markedness of quantifiers is not a complementary opposition either, but rather a continuum. In this sense, as for those marked quantifiers, there is a degree of markedness. To put it in another way, some quantifiers are more marked than others. Still take Fen (分), Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) as an instance. As have been expounded, Fen (分) is unmarked while Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) are marked. But compared to Jiao (角), Yuan (元) is more marked, since the construction of the concept Yuan (元) from Fen (分) requires more cognitive efforts than that of Jiao (角). Similar conclusions can also be drawn as far as quantifiers including Gen (根), Bao (包), and Tiao (条), Cun (寸), Chi (尺), Zhang (丈), etc., are concerned.

IV. SELECTION RESTRICTIONS ON QUANTIFIERS IN NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTION OF “ONE QUANTIFIER N”

Negative construction of “One Quantifier N” has strong preference for the quantifiers. Only quantifiers satisfying certain requirement can appear in the construction. We find that such requirement, or selection restriction, is bound up with markedness of quantifiers. Therefore, in the section, selection restriction on quantifiers in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” will be examined in terms of the markedness of quantifiers. Meanwhile, possible explanations for such a restriction will be provided.

A. *Selection Restriction Based on the Markedness of Quantifiers*

Though scholars have noticed that there are some restrictions on quantifiers in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” and conducted related tentative researches, especially, Hu Qingguo (2006) who has delved into the field from the perspective of the theory of “the governing force of clauses” and attempted to provide possible principles for the selection restrictions, most of their findings are exposed to doubts and remain to be examined.

However, in reference to markedness theory, we noticed that quantifiers are not symmetrically distributed, or rather, characterized by markedness. On the other hand, quantifiers appearing in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” are closely linked up to such a phenomenon of markedness. Based on CCL corpus and careful exploration, the selection restriction on quantifiers in negative construction of “One Quantifier N” can be described as:

A. When the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” is used to express the concept of complete negation, unmarked quantifiers are more natural, applicable and acceptable than marked ones in this construction;

B. (Though some marked quantifiers can appear in the construction) The more marked the quantifier is, the less natural, applicable and acceptable it is in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” conveying complete negation.

A can be illustrated by the example of Ben (本), and Ce (册)/Bu (部). As has been discussed in part three, Ben (本) is unmarked while Ce (册)/Bu (部) are marked. According to the statement of A, Ben (本) is more natural, applicable and acceptable in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” denoting complete negation than Ce (册)/Bu (部). Such an assumption can be verified by the CCL corpus. When consulting the CCL corpus, tremendous example sentences containing Ben (本) in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” denoting complete negation can be found, e.g. “家里没有一本书 (There are no books at home), 一本书也没有出版过 (...has not published one book yet), 没有一本书上有我要算的问题的答案 (No book can provide the answer for the question haunting me)”. However, no sentences containing Ce (册) have been found in the corpus in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” signifying complete negation and only few examples for Bu (部) which are usually reserved for formal use, such as “...还没有一部书能像《红楼梦》那样呈现出永久的艺术魅力 (...no other book has embodied with enduring artistic charm as the A Dream in Red Mansions has)”.

B can be exemplified by Fen (分), Jiao (角) and Yuan (元). It has been proved that Fen (分) is unmarked while Jiao (角) and Yuan (元) and compared with Yuan (元), Jiao (角) is less marked. In this sense, in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, Fen (分) is the most natural, applicable and acceptable among the three, while Jiao (角) also acceptable and Yuan (元) is the least acceptable for conveying the meaning of complete negation. Such a claim can also find its basis in CCL corpus. More examples as to sentences with Fen (分) in the negative construction of “One

Quantifier N” meaning complete negation, such as “现在村里办公费一分钱也没 (Not one penny of office allowance has been left now), 他从四月份到现在没有拿到一分钱 (He has not got one penny from April till now)”, have been singled out. There are also considerable amount of sentences with Jiao (角), such as “你包袱里一毛钱都没有 (You have no money in your pocket)”. Though in very rare case Yuan (元) is also used in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” meaning complete negation, for example, “可家里已是一元钱都没有 (but there is no money at home)”, it is not widely acceptable and unnatural.

Compared with the principles given by Hu (2006), the rules from the perspective of the markedness of quantifiers is more objective in the description of the selection restrictions on quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, especially when it comes to quantifiers with different degree of markedness appearing in the construction. In addition, problems confronting Hu can also be shunted. In conclusion, examined from the perspective of the markedness of quantifiers, the selection restrictions on quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” are more precise, concise and plausible.

B. *Explanation for the Selection Restriction*

The fact that only unmarked quantifiers (sometimes less marked ones) are more natural and acceptable in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” when conveying the meaning of complete negation leads us to delve into the motivation underlying such a phenomenon. Possible reasons may emerge when ideas from pragmatics and cognition are taken into consideration.

According to Shen Jiakuan (1999) and Shi Yuzhi (2001), there is an asymmetrical relation between affirmation and negation and compared with affirmation, negation is marked, because of its frequency of use, simplicity in structure and economy in cognition. It has been stated in the second part that as long as they can express their intentions clearly and accurately, language users will try to reduce their efforts of speaking as much as possible. In this case, speakers are apt to utilize unmarked (or less marked) quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” which is itself marked so that they can be economic. In addition, if they employ marked quantifiers in the construction which has already required tremendous cognitive efforts, more cognitive efforts will be needed. Therefore, from a cognitive effective perspective, unmarked (or less marked) quantifiers are more acceptable.

V. THE TEACHING OF NEGATIVE CONSTRUCTION OF “ONE QUANTIFIER N”

Reasons for the errors of negative construction of “One Quantifier N” will be analyzed as follows in the first part, and strategies put forward in the second part.

A. *Reasons for the Errors*

1. *Negative transfer of mother tongue*

The knowledge of mother tongue has greatly influenced second language learners before the acquisition of second language, thus second language learners tend to study Chinese by codes of their mother tongues, which may exert a negative influence, called negative transfer. Quantifiers are unique in Chinese. However, second language learners usually fail to master the concept of quantifiers, and under which circumstances, negative transfer may lead to errors.

2. *Negative transfer of target language*

Learners tend to apply limited and insufficient knowledge of target languages to new phenomena of target languages by way of analogy, which is called over-generalization. Most second language learners are adults with good abstract logic thinking, and they are good at applying limited knowledge to other phenomena of target language, causing inappropriate over-generalization errors.

B. *Strategies for International Chinese Language*

1. *Contrastive teaching method*

Teachers should attach great importance to the contrastive teaching of synonymous quantifiers. Synonymous quantifiers share similar meaning and measuring range, and thus delicate differences usually become difficult points. Summary teaching can be arranged to review and compare synonymous quantifiers after a certain number of quantifiers have been taught, from which the differences and similarities of synonymous quantifiers could be revealed, such as emotional color, connotations.

2. *Context teaching*

Teachers should create more opportunities for students to use quantifiers besides explaining, so that students become aware of contexts and pragmatic elements of the situation in which a quantifier could be properly used. Acquisition of a second language can be made by using it, since using language by imitating real communication has a better effect on language study than mechanically practicing.

VI. CONCLUSION

Markedness reflects the asymmetrical phenomenon in language and markedness theory is endowed with mighty explaining power and has been widely applied to various areas of researches, such as phonology, phonetics, syntax,

semantic, pragmatics, linguistic typology, etc. On the other hand, the distribution of quantifiers in Chinese has proven to be asymmetrical. In this sense, quantifiers can be distinguished between unmarked and marked ones on the basis of markedness theory. As for the negative construction of “One Quantifier N”, quantifiers in it are not without constraints. On the contrary, they are restricted and such selection restrictions are intimately connected with the markedness of quantifiers.

This paper has attempted to conduct an in-depth investigation of the selection restrictions on quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” from the perspective of the markedness of quantifiers. Two major rules have been found, that is, when the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” is used to express the concept of complete negation, unmarked quantifiers are more natural, applicable and acceptable than marked ones in this construction and the more marked the quantifier is, the less natural, applicable and acceptable it will be. Through the approach, a more plausible, concise and clear explanation of the selection restrictions on quantifiers in the negative construction of “One Quantifier N” has been offered.

Last but not the least, this paper reveals problems of negative construction of “One Quantifier N” existing in international Chinese teaching, and propose some useful strategies for international Chinese teaching.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

This paper is supported by the following projects: The Education and Teaching Reform Project in Southwest University (2013JY094), The Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities (SWU1509176), and The Higher Education and Teaching Reform Project in Chongqing (153030).

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An Exploration of High School Teachers' Evaluation of Seventh and Eighth Grade English Textbooks

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Abstract—The study was an attempt to evaluate the quality of the seventh and eighth grade English language textbooks for Iranian junior high school students which were presented at the elementary stage by the Ministry of Education in 2013 and 2014. This examination venture assessed two Prospect textbooks that were thought to be the establishment stone in the English language program in Iran. A study survey was utilized in this study to inspire the viewpoints of 80 English language teachers in Mahdishar, Shahmirzad, Semnan and Tehran, about the textbooks in question. The data were subjected to analysis through descriptive statistics. The discoveries of this examination study uncovered imperative focuses identified with the attributes of a decent course book. The discoveries were by and large for the course readings aside from the language skills in Prospect 1 and objectives in Prospect 2 and some other sub-items. The category that had the highest mean was the one on the content of the book in Prospect 1 and 2.

Index Terms—textbook evaluation, language skills, English language teaching, prospect 1&2

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of textbooks in educational system is undeniable. According to Razmjoo (2007), textbooks play a crucial role in language contexts all over the world. In a few circumstances, textbooks serve as the premise for a significant part of the language information learners get and the language practice that happens in the classroom. They may give the premise to the substance of the lessons, the parity of abilities taught, and the sorts of language tasks students effectively use. In different circumstances, textbooks may serve basically to supplement the teacher's direction.

For learners, textbooks may give a major source of contact they have with the target language, barring the information given by the educator. On account of beginner instructors, textbooks may additionally be used as a type of instructor preparing that can give thoughts on the best way to arrange and teach lessons as well as formats that teachers can use. A significant part of the language teaching that occurs all through the world today could not occur without the broad utilization of business textbooks. Figuring out how to utilize and adjust textbooks is subsequently a critical piece of an educator's expert learning (Richards, 2001).

Ansary and Babaii (2006) maintain that there are conflicts for using a course reading. A course book is a structure which manages and times the program. As per learning it is not seen as key. As a rule, a course book can serve as a syllabus. A textbook gives moment indicating texts and learning tasks. For learners, no course book means no purpose. A learner without a course reading is out of focus and teacher subordinate, and maybe most decrying of all, for beginner teachers a textbook means security, direction, and backing.

Textbooks assume a significant part in language classrooms in a wide range of instructive foundations – state schools, universities, language schools – everywhere throughout the world. Jahangard (2007) assessed four EFL course books that have been utilized as a part of Iranian secondary schools by the Ministry of Education. He talked about the benefits and faults of the course readings with reference to 13 basic criteria derived from diverse materials evaluation checklists. The criteria were as follows: expressness of objectives, extraordinary vocabulary illumination and practice instructively and socially satisfactory ways to deal with the objective group, occasional audit and test areas, clear appealing format, print easy to examine, suitable visual materials, interesting subjects and errands, clear rules, clearly formed and reviewed substance, a lot of real language uses, great syntax presentation and exercises, characteristics in each of the four skills, and free learning circumstances. The eventual outcomes of the study demonstrated that book four had better features in comparison with the three different course books which required gigantic corrections and changes.

Course book evaluation includes different perspectives. On the one hand, it can be useful to obtain the opinions of teachers. On the other hand, it seems essential to get hold of the ideas of the analyst (whether the researcher or external evaluator) so that the claims of the writers are verified and situational and syllabus requirements are considered (Tomlinson, 2003). In line with Tomlinson (2003), at the present time, learners are at the center of the class, so the materials must be related to their needs. As a matter of fact, the materials must pay attention to students' long-term and short-term goals. In other words, they must teach them how to learn within classroom settings and outside the classroom. As Tomlinson (1998) mentions, the most significant role of the materials is to involve students in decision making about their own learning by making the materials more relevant and motivating and by involving them in generating their own materials to suit their level and interest.

As technology and communication move ahead, teachers must develop their skills and improve them. This will be done when teachers reflect on their practices (Schon, 1983; Richards, 2002) and they have a desire to learn. A textbook by itself is useless unless a teacher brings it to life. Designed for the teacher, materials must provide guidance on how to make students motivated (Tomlinson, 2003). Moreover, writers of textbooks take overall views about the nature of language, the nature of language learning and their educational philosophy. These views are achieved through the tasks and activities. In order to prove the claims held by the writers, analysts' opinions are sought (Tomlinson, 2003).

Through textbook evaluation, teachers can gain insights and confidence. They can have their logical reasons for choosing or not choosing a specific textbook. They can have a photo of drawbacks and benefits of textbooks and they fill and improve the gaps and the needs which exist in them. It is therefore very important for us to lead ELT text book assessment in order to guarantee that ELT course readings can adequately encourage the achievement of our training destinations, and meanwhile, be financially practical to training and learning. Wrong choice of textbooks would be at risk to antagonistically impact both preparing and learning. Finally resources would moreover be wasted (Mukundan, 2007; Sheldon, 1988).

Mahdavi and Abdolmanafi-Rokni (2015) compared Iranian EFL teachers' attitudes toward the authenticity of the newly published textbook 'Prospect 1' with the old one 'Right Path To English 1' taught at junior high schools in Iran. The results showed that the majority of the teachers had a more positive look at the authenticity of 'Prospect 1' than 'Right Path To English 1'. The results also revealed different attitudes of EFL teachers toward the authenticity of 'Prospect 1' and 'Right Path To English 1'.

Kamyabigol and Baghaeeyan (2014) were two among the researchers who evaluated Prospect 1 that had been used in Iranian high schools. The finding of the study revealed that the curriculum had been able to integrate the four language skills, increase student-student and student-teacher interaction, promote pair and group work. However, the dialogs and contexts lacked authenticity, recordings were artificial, new words were not reviewed in the following lesson, there was no phonetic transcription for new words. The teachers believed that although the book was a great progress comparing to its predecessors, it had some shortcomings.

Considering the abovementioned points and that course books do not meet the needs and wants of every class (Tomlinson, in press), this study can help to improve the viability of the utilization of the course reading by helping educators to comprehend what territories of the textbook need further modifications, or whatever degree adjustments of other new training materials are essential. The present study tries to consider teachers' ideas in its material evaluation. So, it can be said that this research is beneficial for textbook writers and educational systems in improving their educational standards.

Research Questions

The main aim of the present study was to consider the widely used textbooks of prospect 1 and 2 in Iran in order to evaluate them. Here are the research questions:

1. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of appearance?
2. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of content?
3. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of language skills?
4. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of language elements?
5. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of activities?
6. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of objectives?
7. To what extent does Prospect 1 differ from Prospect 2 in terms of supplementary materials?

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

The participants of this study were 80 high school teachers in Mahdishar, Shahmirzad, Semnan and Tehran. Most of these teachers were from Tehran. The teachers' age ranged from 21 to 40, who were 50 females and 30 males. Most of them had language teaching experience from 10 to 15 years. All of the teachers had taught at high schools.

Instrumentation

The data collection instrument utilized in this study was a questionnaire prepared by the researchers. This questionnaire was made up of seven groups of items, each group consists of five or six items. It was adopted from two sources, from a checklist by Tomilson, et al. (2002) and from a course book assessment display by Al-Hajailan (2003). Toward the start of the survey, an arrangement of demographic inquiries was utilized trailed by 34 closed-ended

questions grouped and assembled under seven fundamental classes specifically, (a) physical appearance (b) content of the book, (c) language skills, (d) language elements, (e) activities, (f) supplementary materials, (g) objectives.

Procedure

After a pilot investigation of the survey by the analysts, the 34 item questionnaire about distinctive attributes of the secondary school English language textbooks was concluded. In this study quantitative data were obtained through teachers' questionnaires. First three cities were selected. Then the teachers in selected high schools participated in the study. A total of 80 teachers (females and males) participated in the study. Teachers were given the questionnaires, and they answered the questions on their own. Among teachers, the researchers gave the questionnaire to those who were available and ready to cooperate at the time of researchers' presence. They were requested to fill their own data, for example, training experience of the course book under study. Then, the teachers answered the questions. The questionnaires were gathered a couple of days afterwards so that the members would have enough time to consider completing the questionnaires. The data collection procedure was carried out in November 2014. After collecting the questionnaires, the researchers inserted the information in SPSS software program for further analysis.

Data Analysis

SPSS statistics was employed for the data analysis. The raw results obtained from the questionnaires were statically analyzed to provide the answers for the questions. Through descriptive statistics, means, standard deviation and percentages of each question were determined. SPSS statistics determined relative percentage of any single items in comparison with other items. In other words, the statistics showed the relative importance of every single evaluative item.

III. RESULTS

Results of Per-Statement

As tables 1 and 2 show, out of the 34 points in the survey, 29 items evoked an exceptionally positive reaction. This implies that positive reactions were given for more than 87% of the items in the review. This says nothing but good items about the course books since that educators are a decent record for assessing the said course books as they are the ones who are in immediate contact with the procedure of training and learning. Then again, in Prospect 1, the 6 announcements with most minimal means, under 3.01 and in Prospect 2, the 5 announcements with least means, under 3.12 are posted just below. This implies that these announcements specify those sought characteristics of the books that may not be available in the present course books from the perspective of the members. These are considered as the powerless purposes of the course book being referred to.

TABLE 1:
EXPLANATION WITH THE LOWEST MEANS (PROSPECT 1)

Statement	Mean
1. The illustrations are attractive.	2.28
2. The book has an appropriate glossary.	2.97
3. The objectives can be covered within the time allocated for the textbook.	2.52
4. The books try to provide adequate practice of all four skills	2.77
5. The textbook pays attention to writing activities	2.30
6. The book covers the main grammar items appropriate	3.01

TABLE 2:
EXPLANATION WITH THE LOWEST MEANS (PROSPECT 2)

Statement	Mean
1. The objectives can be covered within the time allocated for the textbook	2.47
2. The objectives of the materials suit the level of the learners.	2.82
3. The textbook pays attention to writing activities such as controlled and guided.	2.77
4. The book covers the main grammar items appropriate to this grade.	3.17
5. The posters and flash cards that accompany the book are suitable.	3.12

Despite the items said above, two different items were not bolstered by about a large number of the members. In Prospect 1, it is that whether or not the illustrations are varied and attractive. In Prospect 2, it is that whether or not the textbook pays attention to writing activities such as controlled and guided. In this way, these should be considered since a major rate of the members did not bolster them. As to standard deviation, it is clear that since there were just two decisions in the answers, it is very justifiable that the standard deviations did not diffuse excessively.

Results on Per-Category

The results revealed that in Prospect 1 and 2, all the classes of qualities characterized before in this exploration are fulfilled in the seventh and eighth grade English Language Textbook for Iranian students' secondary schools with the exception of the classification on language skills, since it was the main classification that had an arithmetic mean not exactly the normal (3.45).

The outcomes likewise uncovered that despite the fact that the criteria of the physical form, objectives, language skill, language elements and supplementary materials are satisfied in the Prospect 2 textbook but the results also revealed that although the criteria of the physical appearance, objectives, language skill, language elements and supplementary materials, with the exception of the class on objectives, since it was the main classification that had a calculation mean not exactly the normal (3.21).

TABLE 3:
CALCULATION MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SEVEN CLASSES OF EVALUATIVE CRITERIA (PROSPECT 1)

Main classes	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. physical form	80	3.696	0.726
2. content of the book	80	4.121	0.696
3. objectives	80	3.856	0.844
4. language skills	80	3.453	0.781
5. language elements	80	3.720	0.775
6. activities	80	3.958	0.730
7. supplementary materials	80	4.120	0.896

TABLE 4:
CALCULATION MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS OF THE SEVEN CLASSES OF EVALUATIVE CRITERIA (PROSPECT 2)

Main classes	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation
1. physical form	80	3.696	0.726
2. content of the book	80	4.021	0.716
3. objectives	80	3.216	0.788
4. language skills	80	3.883	0.886
5. language elements	80	3.807	0.890
6. activities	80	4.000	0.848
7. supplementary materials	80	3.813	1.19

IV. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The findings of this study are in parallel with other researches and confirm the literature which is related to textbooks evaluation in Iranian high schools. Jahangard (2007) assessed four EFL course books that have been utilized as a part of the Iranian secondary schools by the Ministry of Education. He talked about the benefits and bad marks of the course books with reference to 13 normal criteria separated from distinctive materials assessment questionnaire. The aftereffects of the study demonstrated that book four would be advised to elements in examination with the three different course books (which needed huge revisions and modifications).

This finding can be closely related to Kamyabigol and Baghaeeyan (2014) who evaluated Prospect 1 taught in the Iranian high school. The study revealed that the curriculum had been able to integrate the four language skills, increase student-student and student-teacher interaction, promote pair and group work. However, the dialogue and contexts lacked authenticity, recordings were artificial, new words were not reviewed in next lessons, there was no phonetic transcription for new words. The teachers believed although the book was a great progress comparing to its predecessors, it had some shortcomings.

The seventh and eighth grade English language textbooks for Iranian junior high schools satisfy teachers' expectations regarding its physical appearance. The content of the books are relevant to learners' needs and allow the students to think critically. Materials of books are interesting and can be connected to real life. In Prospect 1, the objectives in the textbooks were clear and precise for the learners, but in Prospect 2, its lacks of the materials that suit the level of the learners. These books are based on communicative language teaching approach and pay more attention to all four skills especially listening and speaking skills.

Further, reading and writing are the skills less paid attention to. The workbooks are categorized in good levels with appropriate activities, objectives give helpful activities and exercises that can protect students do their open attempts, in real life. The teachers are also satisfied with the teacher's guide and workbook and audio CD represented with the students' book.

APPENDIX. TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

We would like to ask you to evaluate Prospect 1 & 2 English books you teach at high school. Please give your answers sincerely to ensure the success of this project. This questionnaire includes two separate parts, 1 and 2. Part 1 is for Prospect 1 and Part 2 is for Prospect 2. We would like you to tell us how much you agree or disagree with each statement by simply circling a number from 1 to 5. Thank you very much for your help.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

Gender: Male Female

Age: ----- city

Field of study

Degree AA BA MA PhD

Years of teaching experience at School...

5-10 years 10-15 years 15-20 years 20-30years

How many hours of in service classes have you passed?.....

Part 1: Prospect 1					part 2: Prospect 2					
1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree or disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	Physical Appearance					
1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree or disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Neither agree or disagree	4 Agree	5 Strongly agree	
1	2	3	4	5	1.Layout is clear and appropriate.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	2.The illustrations are attractive.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	3.The book has a complete and detailed table of contents.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	4.Pictures are suitable to students' culture.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	5.The book has an appropriate glossary.	1	2	3	4	5
Content of the Book										
1	2	3	4	5	6. Contents are interesting and motivating.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	7. contents are relevant to learners' needs.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	8. Materials can be connected to real life situations	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	9. Different social contexts are covered in the book (e.g., job, education).	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	10.The topics of the books are varied and cover different interests .	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	11. The topics allow students to think critically.	1	2	3	4	5
Objectives										
1	2	3	4	5	12. Generally, the book fulfills the general objectives of teaching English language for elementary stage.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	13. The objectives in the textbook are clear and precise for the learners?	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	14. The objectives can be covered within the time allocated for the textbook.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	15. The objectives of the materials correspond to the needs of the learners.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	16. The objectives of the materials suit the level of the learners.	1	2	3	4	5
Language Skills										
1	2	3	4	5	17. The books try to provide adequate practice of all four skills.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	18. Different steps for teaching skills are observed (pre, while, and post stages).	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	19. The textbook pays attention to writing activities such as controlled and guided.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	20. The materials for listening are accompanied by activities which help comprehension.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	21. There are sufficient materials to practice spoken English (e.g. dialogues, role-plays, etc.).	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	22.There is a range of interesting reading text that can engage students effectively.	1	2	3	4	5
Language Elements										
1	2	3	4	5	23.The book covers the main grammar items appropriate to this grade.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	24. Language elements are ordered based on increasing difficulty level.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	25 The book includes adequate materials for teaching vocabulary.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	26. The book includes adequate materials for pronunciation work.	1	2	3	4	5
Activities										
1	2	3	4	5	27. There are a variety of activities in the workbooks.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	28. objective provides communicative exercises and activities that help students carry out their communicative tasks in real life.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	29. There are adjectives here instructions to explain how the exercises should be done.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	30. There are reasonable and appropriate number of exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	31. Tasks encourage pair work, small group work and whole class work.	1	2	3	4	5
Supplementary Materials										
1	2	3	4	5	32. The CD-ROM that accompanies the book is suitable.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	33. The posters and flash cards that accompany the book are suitable.	1	2	3	4	5
1	2	3	4	5	34.The teacher's book that accompanies the book is informative.	1	2	3	4	5

Thanks for your cooperation.

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On Tragic Heroes: A Comparative Study of *Hamlet* and *The Orphan of Chao*

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Abstract—This essay makes a comparative study between the tragic heroes in Shakespearean tragedies and classical Chinese tragedies with *Hamlet* and *The Orphan of Chao* as examples. Shakespeare usually depicts a noble person's final calamity resulting from his own defect in personality; most of the heroes in classical Chinese tragedies are common people with a perfect moral quality, who suffer a lot to defend justice and end up with a good result.

Index Terms—*Hamlet*, *The Orphan of Chao*, tragic heroes, social status, tragic flaw, ending

I. INTRODUCTION

John Dryden (1631-1700), a famous British dramatic critic pointed out to the effect that the tragic feeling of fear and pity must be mainly, if not wholly, constructed on one chief character, because if fear and pity is scattered onto several characters, the feeling will be greatly weakened. Therefore, a tragedy usually develops around one chief tragic character, that is, the tragic hero, who plays the leading part in the whole play and whose destiny arouses most pity and fear. But as for the selection of tragic heroes, the Shakespearean tragedy and the classical Chinese tragedy follow quite different traditions.

II. SOCIAL STATUS OF THE TRAGIC HERO

A. Aristotle's Theory of the Social Status of Tragic Hero

In the history of tragic criticism, Aristotle is the first person to explore the quality of tragedy and it is this ancient Greek philosopher who laid the foundation for the Western tragic theory. His *Poetics*, which discusses tragedy systematically, had a dramatic influence on the tragedy creation and tragic theory in the West. The Renaissance was a peak period for European tragic creation, during which the tragedians including Shakespeare followed the rules fixed by Aristotle in his *Poetics* in the process of their creation. As a matter of fact, we cannot even discuss tragedy without mentioning Aristotle. So let's first of all examine the principles prescribed by Aristotle as for how to choose a tragic character: "The very same difference distinguishes tragedy and comedy from each other; the latter aims to imitate people worse than our contemporaries, the former better" (Aristotle, 1996, p. 5). "Epic poetry corresponds to tragedy in so far as it is an imitation in verse of admirable people" (Aristotle, 1996, p. 9).

From these two statements of Aristotle about the difference between tragedy and comedy and the similarity between tragedy and epic, we can find out that Aristotle's ideal tragic character should be someone who is "admirable" and "better" than us. The word "admirable" reappeared in Aristotle's definition for Tragedy in Chapter Six: "Tragedy is an imitation of an action that is admirable, complete and processes magnitude; in language made pleasurable, each of its species separated in different parts; performed by actors, not through narration; effecting through pity and fear the purification of such emotions" (Aristotle, 1996, p.10).

But what kind of people can be properly called "admirable"? According to Malcolm Heath, the English translator of the Greek *Poetics*, the original Greek word equivalent to "admirable" is "spoudaios". "Like many terms of commendation and disparagement in Greek, "spoudios" and its opposite embrace social status as well as moral qualities"(Introduction to *Poetics*, xliv). As for the high social status of Tragic Character, we have completely no doubt, because Aristotle restates, "he is one of those people who are held in great esteem and enjoy good fortune, like Oedipus, Thyestes, and distinguished men from that kind of family"(Aristotle, 1996, p. 21). He thinks it is most tragic that these people in high status end in bad fortune. So "nowadays the best tragedies are constructed around a few households"(Aristotle, 1996, p. 21).

Therefore, according to Aristotle's theory, Tragedy is essentially concerned with those people who are of high social status.

B. *Hamlet*: A Tragic Hero of High Status

On the basis of studying Aeschylus, Sophocles and Euripides, Aristotle decided that tragedy is an imitation of great people, whereas comedy is that of common people. Aristotle's principle for the selection of tragic characters has been not only practiced by Western tragedians ever since but also recommended by Western dramatic theorists as a classical guiding principle. The Spanish dramatist Vega once clearly pointed out that there is only one difference between tragedy

and comedy, that is, comedy imitates the actions of the inferior people while tragedy imitates kings or nobles. Have a bird's eye view over the history of the Western tragedy, and you will find out that since Aristotle's ancient Greece to Shakespeare's Renaissance, all the Western tragedies chose kings, generals or nobles as their leading roles, such as Prometheus, Oedipus, Hamlet and Macbeth.

It was Aristotle who first gave a definition for tragedy and began the theoretical study on tragedy in the West. But it was Shakespeare who made tragedy more mature than ever before. He wrote so many excellent dramatic works among which tragedians aroused the greatest interest. But basically speaking, his creation echoed the Aristotelian tragic theory in terms of the selection of tragic characters. Characters portrayed by him always have high social status. Most of them are kings, princes, generals or ministers of state. What they experience and suffer from is quite particular. Look at what the most famous Shakespearean scholar Bradley said in terms of the status of the tragic characters: "Tragedy with Shakespeare is concerned always with persons of "high degree"; often with kings or princes; if not, with leaders in the state like Coriolanus, Brutus, Antony; at the least, as in *Romeo and Juliet*, with members of great houses, whose quarrels are of public moment" (Bradley, 1965, p.18).

The reason for choosing those people of "high degree" is that their private sufferings are closely connected with the fate of the nation and that "his fate effects the welfare of a whole nation or empire; and when he falls suddenly from the height of earthly greatness to the dust, his fall produces a sense of contrast, of the powerlessness of man, and of the omnipotence ---- perhaps the caprice ---- of Fortune or Fate, which no tale of private life can possibly rival"(Bradley, 1965, p. 19).

In *Hamlet*, Shakespeare describes the Danish prince Hamlet like this:

His greatness weighed, his will is not his own,
For he himself is subject to his birth.
He may not, as unvalued persons do,
Carve for himself, for on his choice depends
The safety and health of his whole state.
(I. iii. 20-24)

As a prince, Hamlet is fully aware of his responsibility for his people and that his decision might have effects on the whole country, so when it is time to take actions, he always hesitates. For example, when the players come to the court, Hamlet conceives and arranges the plan of having a scene of murder played before the King and Queen. Hamlet's device proves a complete success. When only six lines have been spoken by the player on the stage, the King starts to his feet and rushes out of the hall. Hamlet is beyond himself with the joy of discovery. He declares that now he could "drink hot blood, / and do such bitter business as the day, / would quake to look on" (III . ii. 397-399).

In this mood, and on his way to his mother's chamber, he comes upon the King, who is kneeling, conscience-stricken and praying. The enemy is now delivered into his hands:

Hamlet: Now might I do it pat, now he is praying:
And now I'll do it: and so he goes to heaven:
And so am I revenged. That would be scanned.
(III . iii. 76-78)

And he scanned it; and the sword that he drew at the words, "And now I'll do it," is thrust back into its sheath again. The reason Hamlet gives for his refusing to kill the King is that if he kills the villain now, he would send his soul to heaven; and he would fail to kill his soul as well as his body. But according to some critics, what he really shrinks from is the responsibility of killing of a king and its political result, because at that time the sudden death of the King might cause panic to the people and danger to the state. So what he considers now is no longer his personal wrong but the fate of his country. This is the real reason for his delay in action. Supposing that he were not the prince, when taking actions, he would not think too much about the possible results and he would have fulfilled the task of revenge much earlier without sacrificing himself.

Chu Kwang-t sien also states in his *The Psychology of Tragedy* that:

It is equally undeniable that the higher the personages, the greater the fall that follows, the more tragic would be the effect. No tale of misfortunes of a private citizen could possibly rival the sudden calamity of a prosperous prince which often carries with it consequences fatal to a whole community. If we examine the masterpieces of tragedy, we shall see that the usual practice of great tragedians bears out this truth. Among the Greeks, tragedy centers around the life of heroes and kings, God-like men whose fame was known and revered far and wide. French tragedy, modeled on the classical type, is even more rigid in selecting its personages. Even tragedies of the Romantic type do not offer any exception. Shakespeare's four great tragic-heroes, Hamlet, Othello, Macbeth and King Lear, are all men of high distinction. (Chu, 1933, p. 93)

As we see, according to the Western classical tragic theory, the tragic effect increases proportionally with the status of the character. The higher his status is, the more tragic his fall will be. Being a prince, Hamlet's death is no longer a personal matter and is regarded as a vanished star, and the tragic feeling it brings to the whole nation is incomparable by any common person's death.

C. *Cheng Ying: A Tragic Hero in Low Status*

Unlike the Western Tragedy, the Classical Chinese Tragedy never had any limitation on the social status, family

background of the Tragic Character. The Westerners are fond of abstract thinking, inducing and defining. From Aristotle, Horace to Hegel, Lessing and Goethe, they expounded features and effects of Tragedy and made formulations on Tragedy for tragedians to follow. The Chinese are used to giving appreciative prose commentary, instead of abstract definitions, so the tragedians in China could choose their characters in a relatively free way. Sometimes, just like the Western tragedians, they choose kings and nobles as tragic characters. For example, among the four greatest classical Chinese tragedies, both *Autumn in the Han Palace* and *Wu Tong Rain* describe the tragic imperial love story; while *Dou Er is Wronged* and *The Orphan of Chao* depict common people who suffer from unjust treatment.

Judging from the title ----for the full title of the play is "*The Great Revenge of the Orphan of Chao*"---- one might expect that the hero of the play is the Orphan and the climax of the play is how the orphan fulfills the revenge by filling the stage with corpses. But the fact is that the author emphasizes the escape rather than the revenge of the orphan. The orphan appears only in the last two acts and the revenge is promised only by a royal decree and not represented on the stage at all. So the chief tragic character in *The Orphan of Chao* is not the orphan, the son of the late princess, but Cheng Ying, a village physician, who risks his life to take the orphan out of the court and heroically sacrifices his own son to rescue the orphan. During the whole play Cheng Ying plays the leading role and is the one whose behaviors arouse most pity and admiration. Cheng Ying is only an ordinary doctor whose social status is by no means high, but his moral excellence cannot be surpassed.

So, for the Chinese tragedians and dramatic audience, it doesn't matter whether the hero is in a low social position or high social position, as long as the hero's behavior can arouse pity and admiration and make them shed tears. In fact, most of the classical Chinese tragedies deal with the life of the common people, especially the misfortunes of those oppressed women in feudal society. That is why some scholars name those plays as "Plays of Sufferings". In contrast, Shakespeare seldom let a heroine play the leading role in a tragedy. "it is only in the love tragedies, *Romeo and Juliet* and *Antony and Cleopatra*, that the heroine is as much the center of the action as the hero"(Bradley, 1965, p.16).

The famous Chinese writer and scholar Bing Xin once made a speech at an academic conference, in which she claimed that China had no tragedy at all and one important reason is that the hero of a tragedy should be a person in high status. She even joked that if anyone became the hero of a tragedy, he should be happy since only "a very important person" could be chosen as the hero of a tragedy. Some other Chinese and foreign scholars also consider this to be a proof that China has no tragedy.

But one thing we should note is that in the eighteenth century with the rising of the bourgeoisie, there appeared a tendency that some Western dramatists began to abandon the rigid classical tragic principle for choosing a tragic hero and, instead, appeal for the "bourgeois tragedy". The most influential ones are Diderot and Lessing. Lessing pointed out to the effect that the high status of kings and nobles can surely add magnificence and splendor to a tragedy, but it does not follow that the play becomes even more touching. Common citizens' sufferings can more powerfully touch the hearts of the audience since they have experienced similar sufferings. But some classical theorists have been strongly against breaking the traditional tragedy format. When Chu Kwang-Tsien claimed that "With the ascendance of the bourgeois tragedy, tragedy in its real sense has disappeared from the stage" (Chu, 1933, p. 94), obviously he denied the kind of tragedy which writes about the common citizen's life. The reason he gives is that "With the disappearance of hero-worship, everything is leveled down to the reach of the common humanity, the sense of sublime dwindles and Tragedy dies" (Chu, 1933, p.94). However, during the early period of the twentieth century, Tragedy flourished again. Some playwrights, such as Eugene O'Neill, Ibsen, and Arthur Miller all chose to reflect the human life of the common people so as to reveal social contradictions. They vividly depict a group of common people who struggle to survive in the cruel capitalist society. Their sufferings in life and their trouble in hearts greatly moved the audience. Is it reasonable for us to stick to the ancient principle and exclude those masterpieces, such as *A Doll's House*, *The Death of a Salesman* and *Desires Under the Elms* from the family of Tragedy? If the answer is negative, how wrong will it be to exclude the Chinese masterpieces such as *Dou Er is Wronged*, just because it describes an oppressed common woman instead of an influential person?

III. THE MORAL QUALITY OF TRAGIC HERO

A. Aristotle's Theory of "Hamartia"

As we have mentioned before, Aristotle's ideal tragic character should be someone "admirable", and according to the explanation of Heath, the translator of *Poetics*, an "admirable" person should not only occupy high social status but also morally good. Among the four things Aristotle requires for a tragic hero, "goodness" is listed prior to the other three, which are "appropriateness", "likeness", and "consistency" (Aristotle 1996:21). But a "morally good" character should be by no means morally perfect. According to Aristotle, the distinctive feature of Tragedy is that this kind of imitation evokes fear and pity. Then what kind of character can evoke such feelings?

"it is clear first of all that decent men should not be seen undergoing a change from good fortune to bad fortune---this does not evoke fear or pity, but disgust. Nor should depraved people be seen undergoing a change from a bad fortune to good fortune---this is the least tragic of all." (Aristotle 1996:20)

"we are left, therefore, with the person intermediate between these. This is the sort of person who is not outstanding in moral excellence or justice; on the other hand the change to bad fortune which he undergoes is not due to any moral defect or depravity, but an hamartia of some kind." (Aristotle 1996:21)

So the ideal tragic plot cannot be constructed around an exceptionally virtuous person or a wicked person; it must be based on someone between the two — broadly speaking virtuous, but not outstandingly so. Because their virtue is not outstanding, we do not find their downfall morally repellent; because their downfall is undeserved, we can pity them. Here, the Greek word “hamartia”, together with another word “catharsis”, which we will discuss later, have caused a great confusion and argument ever since.

As for the word “hamartia”, we will turn to Malcolm Heath, whose translation of Aristotle’s *Poetics* is generally recognized. According to the explanation in the introduction to *Poetics* supplied by Heath, “the Greek word “hamartia” covers making a mistake or getting something wrong in the most general sense”(Introduction to *Poetics*, xxxii) and “hamartia, then, includes errors made in ignorance or through misjudgment; but it will also include moral errors of a kind which do not imply wickedness”(Introduction to *Poetics*, xxxii). Heath thought that hamartia can take a variety of forms.

Another problem remains that there seems to be a contradiction in Aristotle’s theory, since he once said that the tragic character should be better than us but later when discussing the effects of tragedy he said that our fear is evoked because the person is like us. Then a problem arises: is it possible that the character is like us and at the same time better than we? A passage near the end of chapter fifteen may point to a resolution of the apparent inconsistency. There Aristotle compares poets to portrait painters. Portrait painters, he says, “paint people as they are, but make them better-looking”(Aristotle 1996:25). Heath gives us a further explanation of this sentence:

There is therefore a combination of likeness and idealization in portraiture; in the same way characters can be made better than we are while still retaining some imperfections of character; in this respect they will be like us, despite the element of idealization. They are like us, in that they fall short of the moral perfection whose downfall we would find outrageous; but they still tend to be better than the worse. (Introduction to *Poetics*, xlv)

To sum up, in Aristotle’s opinion, an ideal tragic hero should be someone in high social status and morally good, but by no means free of flaws.

B. *Hamlet’s Tragic Flaw in Disposition*

For Aristotle, the center of tragedy is “action”, for he says, “Tragedy is not an imitation of persons, but of action and of life”(Aristotle 1996:11). And for him, “Character holds the second place” and “there could not be a tragedy without action, but there could be one without character”(Aristotle, 1996, p. 12). But for Shakespeare, there could not be any tragedy without character. Shakespeare also emphasizes action, but for him character is more important since one’s character decides the actions that he may take. In fact, Shakespeare’s attention to the hero’s character is not his personal idea. According to the medieval medical theory, four humors exist in human bodies and different characters are attributed to the excess of certain humors: melancholy (black bile), cholera (yellow bile), blood and phlegm. This theory had a great influence on the theatrical creation in the Renaissance. Playwrights began to attach much importance to the depiction of characters, and so did Shakespeare.

In Shakespeare’s works, tragic disasters do not fall down from the heavens. They mainly result from a character’s action, which springs from various flawed dispositions. Othello is driven by envy and suspicion to strike his fair wife in public, and then, in her bed-chamber strangle her in spite of her pleading. Some say that the death of Desdemona is attributed to her husband’s love, but this sounds ridiculous and unreasonable. A survey of the whole plot tells us that her tragic end is destined by Othello’s flawed disposition. His credulousness pushes him into the trap prepared by Iago, first. Then, owing to his own jealousy, suspicion and narrow mind, he is increasingly agonized by Iago’s lie day after day and could not prevent himself from wrecking his own happiness. Cordelia falls out of favor with King Lear because her aged father is too self-willed, irritable and tends to swallow flattery. No matter how wise he once was, his bad temper this time and forever makes him lose what he has actually wanted and finally lose his own life. The same is true of other heroes in Shakespeare’s tragedies. The flaws in their dispositions play an important role in devastating their lives, which used to be happy, noble and magnificent.

Hamlet is no exception to this rule. It is said that the most striking feature of Hamlet’s character is melancholy, and there can be no Hamlet without melancholy. His melancholy is the result of his speculative and contemplative mind. He is a man of thought. It doesn’t mean that he never takes actions. In fact, in order to revenge Hamlet does act. He keeps the secret of the Ghost; he arranges for the play; and he kills Polonius (taking for Claudius). The problem is that at some critical moments when a sudden demand for difficult and decisive action arises, he becomes a thinker. He would examine the nature of action by asking himself, “How as I am to do it? When? Where? What will be the consequence to the State? What is the good of doing it in such a world as this?” However, after such an examination, the possibility of action is denied. Thus, the murdering of Claudius is postponed due to his hesitation.

Consequently, someone says that with Shakespeare, character is destiny. This statement is a little exaggerated, since the peculiar social circumstances contribute more to the tragedy as we discussed in the first part and if not meeting with such circumstances the characters would have lived a fairly untroubled life. But it is safer to quote Bradley’s words: Hamlet “contributes to the disaster in which he perishes” and the center of the tragedy “lies in action issuing from character, or in character issuing in action” (Bradley, 1965, p. 20).

As we mentioned above, Aristotle’s ideal tragic character should be not eminently good and just, yet whose misfortune is brought about not by vice or depravity, but by some error or frailty. Definitely, in Shakespeare’s plays, most of the heroes bear these features. The deaths of Desdemona and Cordelia are caused by the misbehaviors of

Othello and King Lear. The readers would condemn them for their errors but never consider them to be naturally evil and wicked. However, there are exceptions, such as Macbeth. He is doing something that even he himself feels evil. Aristotle denies a man of this kind to be the hero of a tragedy, since it cannot arouse pity. For Shakespeare, he accepts this character and depicts him successfully. He imbues Macbeth with ambition which urges him to murder Duncan as well as his own conscience itself which warns him frighteningly and plagues him to craziness. The picture of the unbearable internal torture overwhelms us with terror and simultaneously wins our pity and fear. In doing so, Shakespeare achieves success and also enriches tragic theory. An evil character can also be the tragic hero of a tragedy, as long as the dramatist is skillful enough to do so.

C. *Cheng Ying: A Perfect Tragic Hero*

The tragic heroes in Classical Chinese Tragedy are usually both morally and temperamentally perfect. It doesn't mean that those characters have no personal defects. Nobody in this world is perfect. It means that those heroes are innocent people and their tragedy has nothing to do with their own defect of any kind; instead, it is imposed by the evil forces. They are usually honest, royal, just and virtuous, such as Tou Er and Cheng Ying. Although they are people of little importance, their undeserved sufferings excite our pity and their virtuous behaviors arouse our admiration. Take Cheng Ying as proof: in order to keep his promise to the princess that he will save the orphan so that the only offspring of the Chao family could avenge for the family in the future, he sacrifices his own son. How much determination does it cost to make such a decision? Despite his inferior position, his moral quality touches the heart of the audience and arouses their admiration. Knowing what Cheng Ying has done for his family, the orphan expresses his admiration and gratitude like this:

Cheng Po: How many would sacrifice their own child for one of another name?

Such generosity and goodness are not easily forgotten.

I shall summon a painter of the highest rank

To make a memorial of your true likeness,

To be worshipped ever after in our family temple.

(Act Five)

A person of such eminent virtue, in order to defend justice, makes unusual sacrifices. His name, as we Chinese people always say, will go down in history and be remembered for all generations. As we will discuss later, one of the important purposes of the Chinese tragedy is moral instruction, and these heroes, as a matter of fact, have become the incarnations of virtues and are always depicted as perfect moral idols. In contrast, the heroes in the Shakespearean tragedy are usually complicated in character and have both good qualities and weaknesses as well. We have to admit that the characters in the classical Chinese tragedy are usually flat and stereotyped, while the characters in the Shakespearean tragedy are full-blooded and three-dimensional.

IV. THE ENDING FOR TRAGIC HERO

A. *Hamlet: Ending in Deathbed*

In the thirteenth chapter of *Poetics*, when discussing the plot of tragedy, Aristotle gives the best structure and the second best structure for tragedy. He holds that "a well-formed plot will be simple rather than (as some people say) double, and that it must involve a change not to good fortune from bad fortune, but (on the contrary) from good fortune to bad fortune" (Aristotle, 1996, p.21). So in his minds, "the best tragedy, in artistic terms, is based on this structure." (Aristotle, 1996, p.21) According to Aristotle's tragic theory, the best plot of a tragedy is one in which a moderately virtuous person moved from good fortune to bad fortune and Aristotle said that plays of this kind are the most tragic, and tragedians such as Euripides, despite some faults in his techniques, are considered to be the most tragic of poets. (Aristotle, 1996, p. 21)

Make a survey of the Shakespearean tragedy, and you will discover that all his tragedies end up with the death of the heroes. In Bradley's words, "no play at the end of which the hero remains alive is, in the full Shakespearean sense, a tragedy" (Bradley, 1965, p.16). As a matter of fact, one typical characteristic of the Shakespearean Tragedy is that "every deathbed is the scene of the fifth act of a tragedy" (Bradley, 1965, p.18). At the end of a tragedy, the hero is bound to die.

Hamlet, the prince of Denmark, has been obsessed with the question of "to be, or not to be" through the play. His life is occupied and consumed away by this obsession. He falls in love with Ophelia but could not do anything to make her happy, what is even worse is that quite by accident he stabs her father to death. Heartbroken over the death of her father, Ophelia goes crazy and gets drowned in a stream. Then, one after another, death befalls to Laertes, Ophelia's brother, Gertrude, Queen of Denmark, King Claudius and Hamlet himself. So as for the plot, the Shakespearean tragedy corresponds with the best plot recommended by Aristotle. In summary, we may say that the Shakespearean Tragedy is the story of a man in high status and the story of "human actions producing exceptional calamity and ending in the death of such a man" (Bradley, 1965, p.23).

B. *The Orphan of Chao: Ending in Triumph*

Then Aristotle mentions that "Second-best is the structure which some say comes first---that which has a double

structure like the *Odyssey*, and which ends with the opposite outcome for better and worse people.” Thus, the second-best plot is the kind with a double line of development, that is, the good characters ultimately enjoying good result and the wicked ones end up in misfortune, just like *Odyssey*, in which Odysseus triumphs and the wicked suitors are killed. Although he lists this kind of structure as the “second best structure”, Aristotle actually denies it to be the plot of a tragedy, because the pleasure derived from this kind of play is “not the pleasure which comes from tragedy; it is more characteristic of comedy”(Aristotle, 1996, p. 22). He says that the fact that the audience enjoy these plays more than the ones with the best plot is because of the weakness of audiences, that is, their good-heartedness and their inability to bear seeing the tragic ending; and the poets are misled by the audience and compose whatever is to their taste(Aristotle, 1996, p.22).

The classical Chinese tragedy usually adopts the second best plot mentioned by Aristotle, (there are exceptions though). The Chinese playwrights often insist on a happy ending in which the virtuous is rewarded and the wicked punished. *The Orphan of Chao* is no exception. It ends with the emperor’s decree:

Wei Chiang: The orphan’s name shall be restored to him; we bestow upon him the name of Chao Wu. He shall inherit all the titles and positions of his father and grandfather. The son of General Han Jue shall hold the rank of general; a thousand acres of land shall be given to Cheng Ying; for Gongsun Chujiu a tomb shall be erected with a memorial in stone; and all those remaining who lost their lives in this cause shall be honored by public proclamation. (Act Five)

This ending is characteristic of the classical Chinese tragedy and is totally against the classical Western tragic theory, which calls for “pure tragedy”. According to Aristotle’s theory, a good tragedian should not be misled by the audience’s taste. But we know that nothing in this world exists alone and nothing can develop without being influenced by surroundings. So, when doing research on a certain literary work, we should not only focus our attention on the work itself, but also notice its relationships with the writer, the social background and its reader or audience. This is particularly important for the research on drama, since unlike poetry and singing which is to some extent self-amusing, drama is a form of art which is commerce-oriented. The audience, as their money source, is particularly important for the actors and playwrights. Therefore, the playwright cannot compose plays only “for art’s sake”, ignoring the aesthetical habit and psychology of the audience. A Chinese playwright named Chen Renjian once talked about one of his experiences: I once wrote a play which ends in the death of a good person. After the performance, the audience felt indignant and some even cursed outside the theatre. The theatre had no other way but ask me to change the play and make the good person triumph in the end. I did as they told me and the audience stopped complaining and went home satisfactorily.

So we can see that the Chinese playwrights have a preference for a happy ending over a bad one, which is by no means a private hobby, but a cultural phenomenon. The playwrights must follow the Chinese audience’s aesthetical habit, which is shaped by the traditional Chinese culture. First, the core of the Chinese culture is Confucianism, which has influenced the Chinese people’s ideology so much. Confucianism advocates “the doctrine of the golden mean”, which has become the Chinese people’s guiding principle for their behaviors. As for art, Confucianism holds to the aesthetical standard of “joy without wantonness, sorrow without self injury”. So for the Chinese people, everything shall not go extreme and harmony is beauty. When appreciating a tragic play, after watching through the strong tragic conflicts, the audience always expect a harmonious and balanced ending to relieve their previous sorrow. Second, the traditional moral principle of the Chinese people is to be kind and just because they firmly believe that the wicked will always be punished and the virtuous awarded. So no matter what sufferings the hero or heroine endures, he or she will end up with a good result. Third, the Buddhist instruction of “transmigration and retribution”, reinsured the Chinese people that the virtuous will be awarded, if not in this world, then in the next. Fourth, in the Yuan Dynasty, the social status of the intellectuals was so low and their life was just a little better than beggars. So, no matter what suffering they had described in the plays, they would express their wishes for justice and harmony at the end of the plays.

The relatively better ending of the classical Chinese tragedy is the most important reason why many critics deny the existence of tragedy in China. Chu Kwang-t sien even puts them into the category of comedy: “As a matter of fact, drama in China is almost a synonym for comedy” (Chu, 1933, p. 219).

But in fact, the quality of a play should be decided by its climax, not its ending. A good character may start off in bad fortune because he or she is oppressed by the bad character; this kind of play will evoke fear and pity because of the good character’s initial misery. Or one could imagine plots in which fear and pity are evoked by the apparent imminence of a fall into misery, which is averted at the last moment. Plots like these will excite tragic emotions in spite of their happy ending, since the characters with whom we sympathize pass through or anticipate misfortune. For example, the emphasis of *The Orphan of Chao* lies not in the revenge but the hard process of rescuing the orphan and the sacrifices of those virtuous people during the whole process. The climax of this play is that in order to deceive Tu Anku and save the orphan, Gongsun Chujiu has to be beaten hard by Cheng Ying, and then Cheng Ying witnesses Tu Anku stabbing his son to death and at last Gongsun Chujiu commits suicide by dashing his head against the steps. The whole play is going on in an extremely sorrowful atmosphere, except that in the last act the revenge was fulfilled with the emperor’s help. The ending, I think, cannot change the tragic quality of the whole play. It is only an expression of the people’s wishes. After watching the horrible scene where the good people are being terribly maltreated and enduring the strong emotions of pity and fear that the play brings to them, a relatively happy ending can provide the audience

with an emotional relief and let them leave the theatre satisfactorily.

Bradley says that “Such poetic justice, in flagrant contradiction with the facts of life, and it is absent from Shakespeare’s tragic picture of life” (Bradley, 1965, p. 35). And some other critics also think that a tragedy with a happy ending is against realism, since actually in most circumstances the good people end up in misfortune. The famous Chinese playwright Tian Han expressed his opinion on this problem in *The People’s Daily* (Aug. 4th, 1959), when he was ordered to change the happy ending of his play *Guan Hanqin* into a sad one, because it is held that the happy ending had weakened the criticism of the cruelty of the Yuan rulers, “Some people think that only a tragic ending conforms to realism. But in my opinion, I end it happily because it combines realism with the people’s wishes”.

In fact, the longing for a better life for the tragic hero is not unique to the Chinese. There is in man a natural desire to turn every tragedy into a comedy and the audiences always sincerely wish a better fortune for the tragic hero, no matter he is a Chinese or a Westerner. The stage history of *King Lear* is a convincing evidence. From 1681 to 1838, for a century and a half, the play was made to appear on the stage in the adapted versions of Garrick and others, in which Cordelia married Edgar and Lear was restored to his kingdom. The dictum that “truth and virtue shall at last succeed” was faithfully observed, although according to aestheticians, such practices are just guided by psychological motive and should be blamed from artistic point of view. But there are also some scholars who are opposed to the ending that good people suffer and the wicked people enjoy good fortune. The most famous one is Plato, the teacher of Aristotle, who once attacked the tragedians in his famous work *Utopia* and excluded them out of his ideal state, because they always made the wicked people enjoy good fortune and the good people suffer.

V. CONCLUSION

In Conclusion, the Shakespearean tragedy requires tragic heroes to be great, heroic and in high position, while the classical Chinese Tragedy often requires tragic heroes to be weak and common (there do exist exceptional cases); the Shakespearean tragedy usually has a tragic hero with a complicated character and the tragedy was caused, to some extent, by the tragic flaw in the disposition of the character, while the classical Chinese tragedy usually depicts the tragic heroes as both morally and temperamentally perfect people whose suffering is imposed by the evil forces; the heroes in Shakespearean Tragedy usually end in death, while the heroes in the classical Chinese tragedy usually have a relatively better result after the unbearable suffering.

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Differential Potential of SLA Output Tasks versus Input-based Teaching of English Grammar: A Comparative Study

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Abstract—The present study is an attempt to investigate a) the effect of output requirement on the acquisition of grammar and b) the differential functions of two output tasks (picture-cued production and editing reconstruction tasks) on the interlanguage improvement of participants. To this end, twenty four Iranian elementary EFL learners were assigned to two experimental groups (EG1 & EG2) and a control group (CG). A pre-test was administered to the three groups to measure their knowledge of the target grammar structure (present perfect tense) prior to any treatment. The participants in EG1 were required to produce their language based on a set of pictures presented, while the learners in EG2 were asked to edit a given text based on its grammatical appropriacy. Those in CG were exposed to the target grammar item merely by providing input. The effectiveness of the treatment tasks was measured using a post-test. The results revealed that those participants in the CG who were provided with input outperformed their peers in the EGs. Also there was no statistically significant difference found between the two output tasks.

Index Terms—output hypothesis, output task, input-based instruction, teaching grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

Recent findings in second language acquisition (SLA) studies point to the fact and make it clear that ‘noticing’ is a leading factor in SLA development (Ellis, 1994; Long, 1991; McLaughlin, 1990; Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 2001; Smith, 1993; Tomlin & Villa, 1994). For a long time, the process of language learning was deemed to be merely input-based, thus calling for mechanisms to enhance the noticing of the input to turn it into intake, which would, in turn, improve the interlanguage of the learners (Gass, 1997; Johnson, 1996; Skehan, 1998; Van Patten, 1993). Later on, it was hypothesized that in addition to input (intake), it is output that can function as a key factor in acquisition of language, establishing it as a legitimate approach in teaching different language skills, including grammar. (Schmidt, 1992; Swain 1985, 1995, 2000)

The bulk of studies conducted thus far have primarily investigated different methods of providing output production to enhance the noticing of learners (Doughty, 2001; Doughty & Williams, 1998; Izumi, 2002; Izumi et al., 1999; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Long, 1991). The underlying assumption of these studies has been that drawing learners’ attention to the target linguistic forms, which might occur incidentally during communication, facilitates acquisition of both form and meaning. Yet, a significant issue which has not received due attention in many of the studies conducted on the role of output as a promoting factor of learners’ interlanguage (IL) is the comparison of different production tasks which might yield different results in different domains of language, including grammar, vocabulary, and pragmatic acquisition. This study is an attempt to compare two output tasks, namely editing reconstruction and picture-cued production tasks, with regard to grammar improvement for learners of English as a foreign language in the context of Iran.

II. BACKGROUND

In SLA literature it was a universally accepted and long established belief that comprehensible input plays the dominant role in improving the interlanguage of the foreign language learners (Krashen, 1985; Loschky, 1994). In other words, the proponents of ‘comprehensible input theory’ maintained that language learners can improve if provided with ample input which is both comprehensible and slightly beyond the current linguistic level of the learners (i+1).

In 1985 Merrill Swain who is considered, by many, as the initiator of what is now known as the ‘Output Hypothesis’ argued that, contrary to what was the prevalent belief then, only comprehensible input could not benefit the interlanguage of nonnative learners of a language. In other words, she maintained that providing opportunities for the learners to produce the language was a crucial factor to improve the language proficiency of the learners. Her main sources of evidence were findings from immersion programs in Canada, where she observed that unlike plenty of

comprehensible input provided many of the learners lagged far behind the expectations in terms of grammatical and sociolinguistic competence. In a number of studies (Allen, Swain, Harley and Cummins, 1990; Harley & Swain, 1978) it was shown that though learners in immersion programs were fairly proficient in their discourse skills and were confident enough to use L2, they lacked full sociolinguistic competence and were unable to master more marked grammatical distinctions. This could not be justified by lack of sufficient comprehensible input of which immersion programs were rich and ample practice had been done previously. Swain proposed her comprehensible output hypothesis to signify the role of the learners' output in SLA studies. She defined comprehensible output as "the output that extends the linguistic repertoire of the learner as he or she attempts to create precisely and appropriately the meaning desired" (Swain, 1985, p. 252). She contended that production entailed syntactic (bottom-up) processing, while comprehension relied mainly on semantic (top-down) processing. Thus, concluding that while comprehension of a message might occur with little syntactic analysis of the input, production requires attention to the means of production, especially if learners are to produce socially appropriate messages.

Swain proposed three functions for comprehensible output of the learners: 1. noticing (consciousness-raising) function, 2. hypothesis-testing function and 3. metalinguistic function. In her later modifications of the theory, Swain added a fourth component of 'fluency function' which deals with the ability to develop quick access to the language repertoire for a fluent productive performance.

Evidence from studies conducted to investigate the effectiveness of providing opportunities for production of L2 learners is mixed, and far from being taken as conclusive. For instance, Ellis (2008) contends that there is no evidence which can unambiguously show the relationship between learners' productive participation in the classroom and its impact on the rate of language development. He further elaborates on the results of many studies that have been conducted on the relationship between learner production and language proficiency and concludes that yet the results are mixed and inconclusive (p.807).

Shehadeh (2002), in a similar vein, believes that:

After well over a decade of research into Swain's (1985) comprehensible output hypothesis, few definitive conclusions can be made, because the question of whether and how learners' output, or output modification, helps with L2 learning is still largely unanswered (p. 601).

Izumi and his colleagues researched the noticing function of comprehensible output in a number of their studies. The predominant thrust of their studies was to investigate the role of output as a prompt for noticing followed by learning certain targeted grammatical features. (Izumi, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Izumi, Bigelow, Fujiwara & Fearnow, 1999). For instance, Izumi et al. (1999) investigated the noticing function of output and its probable result on the performance of the participants. To this end, they addressed two research questions: (a) does output promote noticing of linguistic form? and (b) does output result in improved performance on the target form? The participants were asked in phase one of the treatment to reconstruct a short passage, followed by a second reconstruction after being exposed to it, and in phase two to write about a given topic twice, just prior to their second writing they were presented with a model written by a native speaker. In order to check the noticing function of the output, the participants were asked to underline parts of the sentences they thought might be "particularly necessary" for subsequent (re)production. The control group only received input material. The results indicated that output production could not provide any significant effects on noticing of the form. On the other hand, the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group on the production task

In another study Izumi and Izumi (2004) studied the role of providing language learners with the opportunity to have oral output and its effect on the ultimate gains of the participants in comparison with non-output-provided learners. They randomly assigned the twenty-four participants into the three groups of: output (engaging in a picture description task involving input comprehension and output production), non-output (engaging picture description task requiring input comprehension only), and a control group. The findings indicated that, to the surprise of the researchers, the non-output group revealed to have more learning gains than the output group. The authors attribute the results to the different cognitive processes that the participants probably underwent in different groups. In the output group the participants only engaged in oral production which seems less cognitively demanding in terms of syntactic processing than picture sequencing task conducted by the non-output group. This might have facilitated the ability of form-meaning mappings of the subjects.

In a similar vein, Horibe (2002) in his study, on the role of providing output for learning several syntactic structures (target forms), compared two instructional treatment conditions (input only and input+output). The subjects were 31 college students in 3 intact classes of input only (input group), input and output (output group), and a placebo group receiving no instruction (control group). The subjects' thought processes in the spoken output were elicited and recorded via think-aloud protocol interviews. The results revealed an insignificant difference between the two groups of input vs. output in terms of learning the target structures.

Shehadeh (2002) explored learners' 'hypothesis testing episodes' during a picture description task. Each participant was aided by a native speaker partner in the study. Learners were required to monitor and modify their initial output, by confirming the structural correctness with the native speaker. Shehadeh concludes that learners confirmed their self-initiated hypotheses as correct when did not received any feedback from the native speakers.

In another study, Ellis and He (1999) conducted a research on different effects of giving input and providing output on language proficiency of English learners. Their experiment was based on a listen-and-do task regarding four different conditions of: a) unmodified input b) pre-modified input c) interactionally modified input and d) modified output. The findings were in line with Swain's hypothesis. They revealed that those participants who were required to produce the comprehensible output (fourth group) outperformed those who received input only (in its different forms). In this vein of research, De La Fuente (2002) observed that learners of Spanish vocabulary who were involved in negotiated interactions that entailed pushed output were, to a far extent, superior in productive acquisition of new words than those who received either pre-modified input or negotiated interaction without pushed output.

In sum, due to the inconclusive evidence of the studies conducted by many researchers on the role of output in SLA literature, there seems to be justification for another study on the issue. As Ellis (2008) puts it:

What is not yet clear, however, is whether output assists learners to acquire new linguistic forms or only to automatize use of partially acquired forms. Further work is needed to establish whether (and under what conditions) the modified output constitutes acquisition.

In this study the primary aim is to investigate the differential roles of output tasks on the acquisition of a certain grammatical item (present perfect tense) by Iranian learners of English as a foreign language. Specifically, this study is guided by the following two questions and seeks answers for them:

1. Does output requirement result in a significant difference on learning grammar over merely providing input for the learners?
2. Is there a significant difference between the two output tasks of editing and picture-cued with regard to acquisition of grammar?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 45 Iranian Elementary learners of English in one of the language institutes in Iran, namely Iran Language Institute. They ranged in age from 16 to 28, and were, minimally, passing the courses at the institute for 1.5 years. They were assigned to either groups of experimental group 1 (EG1), experimental group 2 (EG2), and control group (CG) on a random sampling basis, and were offered an extra-curricular training for participation in the study.

B. Target Form on Focus

The target structure of this study was the present perfect tense (e.g. *I have studied my lessons for two hours since ten o'clock*). This tense was deemed to be teachable (Pienemann, 1989), since the learners were already familiar with other tenses of present, past and present continuous. The participants' attempts to use this tense in the pre-test of the study revealed that they were not familiar with it, and could not use it accurately.

C. Instrumentation

In order to observe the gains of the participants a test which aimed to tap the present perfect tense knowledge of the learners was developed. The test consisted of nine items whose main verbs were deleted (acting as the blanks of the test totaling 12 in number). The participants had to produce the correct form of the verb with regard to the tense of the sentence. The interval between the pre-test and the post-test was a six-week period intervened by the treatment of the study. Also, in order to ensure the internal consistency of the test it was measured using Cronbach's α which turned out to be 0.83 for the pre-test and 0.76 for the post test.

D. Data Collection Procedure

This experimental study was carried out over a period of around eight weeks. As stated earlier there were 45 participants in this study, who were assigned to the three groups of EG1, EG2, and CG. One week prior to the initiation of the treatment the pre-test was administered to the participants. Then the two groups of EG1 and EG2 underwent the treatment of the study which continued for eight consecutive sessions and entailed doing picture-cued production tasks for EG1 and editing reconstruction tasks of English grammar tenses for EG2 (see Appendices A and B for samples of the treatment). Using tasks has revealed to be a productive means of investigating classroom research. 'Task', as a general overarching term, has been figured as a good device for delivering instructional treatment in experimental studies, and for measuring the outcomes of this treatment. Therefore, as Pica (1997) contends, tasks can serve as a bridge between pedagogy and research in SLA studies.

Both groups of EG1 and EG2 were briefly introduced into the functions of present perfect tense prior to receiving the treatment. The CG, as the placebo group, only received input-based lessons of present perfect tense which were according to the teaching principles of the institute course book.

As for the participants in EG1, they were required to produce a short text (at a minimum of three or four sentences) describing the pictures shown to them. It was ensured that the participants could use a variety of tenses in their writings, including the present perfect tense.

The texts provided for the participants, to be edited, in EG2 included three to five sentences with underlined verbs. The participants were required to check the tense of the verbs in the sentences and correct them if used inappropriately. The sentences were of a variety of tenses including present, past and present perfect tense. Storch (1997) concluded in his study that an editing task succeeds in drawing learners' attention to a range of grammatical and lexical choices targeted for instruction.

The tasks were given to the students in the last half hour of the class (a one hour and forty-five minute class). The students completed the tasks individually and could leave the class upon completion of the task. The whole procedure started in session four of the term and ended in session twelve.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

In scoring the pre- and post-tests of the study each correct response received one point and all the scores were added up to a total of sum. There was no penalty assigned for the wrong responses.

In order to compare the control and the experimental groups' scores on the pre-test, and post-test, two independent sample t tests were run, using SPSS 21, setting the level of significance at 0.05.

V. RESULTS

Analysis of the Pre-test of the Study

For such a study to sound meaningful and also to check for the comparability of the knowledge of the participants regarding the target structure (present perfect tense) a pre-test was administered. The descriptive results of the pre-test are shown in the Table 4.1 below.

TABLE 4.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRE-TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
EG1	12	3.00	12.00	7.4166	3.5791
EG2	12	1.00	12.00	6.5454	3.5032
CG	21	2.00	12.00	6.4583	1.7687

As can be observed from the table above the mean scores of the three groups are very close to each other ($7.41 \approx 6.54 \approx 6.45$), thus convincing that the prior knowledge of the structure in question was almost statistically equal for the three groups of the study.

Research Question 1

The first research question aimed to investigate whether there is any significant difference between the final target structure attainments of the participants in the output-required versus input-based groups. In other words, the result of the post-test of the CG was to be compared with that of the EGs. In order to come up with the result, an independent sample t-test was run to measure the significance of differences between the means of the two groups. The results are displayed in Table 4.2 and Table 4.3 below.

TABLE 错误! 文档中没有指定样式的文字。 4.2.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST RESULTS OF EG & CG

Group	N	Mean	SD	SEM	
Post-test	EG	24	5.91	2.21	.46
	CG	21	7.31	1.98	.42

Based on the information given in the Table above, it can be seen that the mean of the results of the post-test for the CG (7.31) is higher than that of the EG (5.91).

TABLE 错误! 文档中没有指定样式的文字。 4.3.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR EG AND CG

	T	Df	Sig.(2 tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Post-test	-2.36	44	.023	-1.42	0.60	-2.63	-.20

Based on the information given in Table 4.3 it can be deduced that there is a significant difference in the scores obtained from the CG and EG because the probability value is smaller than the specified critical value ($0.023 < 0.05$) and the t statistic is at a high value (2.36).

Thus it can be claimed that the input-based only teaching of grammar for the participants of CG helped them significantly outperform those learners who were attending output-required classes of EG.

Research Question 2

The second research question asked whether there is any significant difference in the final performance of the learners who attended the experimental groups and were required to have production during the treatment sessions, namely EG1 who did picture-cued tasks, and EG2 who underwent editing tasks. In order to answer this question an

independent-sample t test was run. Tables 4.4 and 4.5, below, provide the descriptive statistics along with the results of the independent-sample t test.

TABLE 错误! 文档中没有指定样式的文字。 4.4.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR POST-TEST RESULTS OF EG1 & EG2

Group	N	Mean	SD	S.E.Mean
Post-test EG1	12	5.91	2.57	0.74
EG2	12	5.92	2.01	0.53

TABLE 错误! 文档中没有指定样式的文字。 4.1.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR EG1 AND EG2

	T	Df	Sig. (2 tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
						Lower	Upper
Post-test	-.013	23	.99	-0.01	0.90	-1.87	1.84

As can be seen from the results of Table 4.4, the mean scores of the two groups (EG1 and EG2) revealed to be surprisingly near to each other (EG1= 5.91 \approx EG2=5.92). Also, on a closer inspection of the t-test on Table 4.5 the probability value (0.99) was observed to be bigger than the critical value (0.05) signifying the similarity of performance of the two groups. In sum, it can be maintained that the two different output tasks administered on the participants could not exert any differential influence on the ultimate acquisition of the target structure.

TABLE 错误! 文档中没有指定样式的文字。 4.2.
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS OF MEANS

Scheffe Test		Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
Posttest					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
dimensi on3	EG1	1.25	.89	.38	-1.03	3.53
	EG2	1.66	.89	.19	-.62	3.95
dimensi on3	Control	-1.25	.89	.38	-3.53	1.03
	EG2	.41	.89	.89	-1.87	2.70
dimensi on3	Control	-1.66	.89	.19	-3.95	.62
	EG1	-.41	.89	.89	-2.70	1.87

Furthermore, in order to see where the difference(s) among the means of the three groups may lie, a post-hoc Scheffe test was run on the post test results. (Table 4.6). The results of Scheffe's test indicated that there were not significant differences between the means of the three groups (CG, EG1 and EG2). This is, vividly, indicative of non-difference in performance of the subjects in either input-received or output-required groups.

VI. DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to answer the two questions which have been regularly addressed in SLA studies, namely comparison of output- versus input-based learning of a language, and second, comparison of different production tasks for language learning. Results from the first question of the study revealed that input-based learning did influence the learning of the target grammatical structure in a more significant way than the output-based counterpart. While this finding might seem in direct contrast with the tenets of output hypothesis and many of the studies conducted on the issue (Izumi, 2002; Izumi et al., 1999; Song & Suh, 2008; Swain 1993, 1995; Swain & Lapkin, 1995), yet it is in line with other studies (Horibe, 2002; Izumi & Bigelow, 2000; Izumi & Izumi, 2004; Shintani, 2011) which have specifically compared the input vs. output-based treatments in language acquisition and came up with the finding that output-based teaching could not be deemed any superior to the input-based equivalent. These studies point to the non-significance of differences between learning gains of participants involved in output tasks in comparison with those engaged in non-output tasks. Though the account advanced here implies an ineffective role of providing output opportunities through different production tasks, this does not negate the probable suitability of such practices for different learners with different linguistics, social and psychological backgrounds.

As of the second research question there was no significant difference found between the two output tasks of editing reconstruction and picture cued. This is not consistent with the general trend observed in earlier studies. For instance Nassaji and Tian (2010) as part of their study compared two output tasks, and came up with the finding that reconstruction editing task was more effective in terms of promoting negotiation and learning than reconstruction cloze task. Storch (2001) also in his study which compared the performance of tertiary ESL learners of intermediate second language proficiency on three different grammar-focused classroom tasks found that although all three tasks succeeded in drawing the learners' attention to a range of grammatical items, the text reconstruction task was the most successful in doing so. The participants of the study also reached correct grammatical decisions in a majority of instances. Thus it could be contended that different output tasks may yield different influences on language learning assuming the differences between language learners and forms.

In sum, based on the inconclusive, and at times controversial, results obtained thus far further research on the issue, also taking into account learner differences seems necessary.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study revealed as its findings that first, input-based teaching for grammar does a better job than providing output tasks for the learners and, second there is no difference between the two output tasks of picture-cued production and editing reconstruction. Thus, adding to the confusion over the preferred way to enhance the learners' noticing and ultimate attainment of the language. In terms of output tasks this piece of research suggests a further inquiry into the issue for different learning outcomes stimulated by various task types. To further probe the application of output in noticing enhancement and SLA, future studies are recommended to explore various grammatical forms under varying circumstances. This vein of research in SLA is also hoped to shed light on the conditions under which output production in line with input enhancement can facilitate and promote the learning of a second language.

APPENDIX A. SAMPLE PICTURE-CUED PRODUCTION TASK

Directions: Please look at the picture and produce a text of yours (consisting of at least one paragraph to describe the event of the picture). Use the verb given in your composition.



APPENDIX B. SAMPLE TEXT OF EDITING RECONSTRUCTION TASK

Direction: Put the verb in brackets into the correct tense, if necessary.

1. He **lived** (live) in London for two years and then **goes** (go) to Edinburgh.
2. When I left school I **have cut** (cut) my hair and **wore** (wear) it short ever since.
3. My brother **has written** (write) several plays. He **just finished** (just/finish) his second tragedy.
4. I **did not see** (not see) him for three years, I wonder where he is.
5. He **has not smoked** (not smoke) for two weeks. He is trying to give up.

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A Complementary Perspective of Conceptual Blending Theory and Relevance Theory on Metaphor Interpretation

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Abstract—Conceptual blending theory and relevance theory fall under the umbrella of cognitive science. Both of them have contributed to our interpretation of the role of metaphor in cognition and language use. Conceptual blending theory considers metaphor interpretation to be the activation of relevant conceptual structures and places emphasis on how conceptual mechanism works in metaphor interpretation. Relevance theory views metaphor interpretation to be the recovery of an array of weak implicatures and places its major emphasis on the functions of the communicative principle and the relevance principle in metaphor interpretation. This article holds that conceptual blending theory and relevance theory may provide a complementary perspective on metaphor and suggests an integrative hypothesis on metaphor understanding on account of the similarities between and deficiencies of both theories.

Index Terms—metaphor, conceptual blending theory, relevance theory, complementary, similarities

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphor seems to be of obvious interest in the area of linguistic study. Ever since the time of Aristotle, researchers from many fields have endeavored to define metaphor and interpret metaphorical language. The past few decades has seen an explosion in the study of metaphor within cognitive science, where scholars from linguistic, philosophical and psychological disciplines have put forward diverse theories on metaphorical thought and language (Tendahl & Gibbs, 2008). Many of these theories hold that metaphor is pervasive in life, not only in ordinary language but also in our thoughts and experience (Lackoff & Johnson, 1980). Among these theories, the most important and influential one specific to metaphor interpretation has been proposed by Fauconnier and Turner (2002), namely, conceptual blending theory.

A different perspective on metaphor is proposed by relevance theory (Carston, 2002; Sperber & Wilson, 1995; Wilson & Carston, 2006). Relevance theory originates in a broad theoretical framework for explaining cognition and communication in its primary claim that human cognition is geared to the maximization of relevance, such that each act of ostensive communication carries a presumption of its own optimal relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). From their viewpoint, verbal metaphors are instances of “loose talk” and speaking in a metaphorical manner is the most appropriate way to achieve optimal relevance. Although verbal metaphors deviate from the accurate state of affairs on surface, listeners can understand the speaker’s communicative intention by resorting to the appropriate context and interpretative strategies on the basis of the principle of optimal relevance.

To many metaphor researchers, there are so many important differences between these alternative perspectives on metaphor interpretation that systematic comparison of these two theories in an effort to understand how and why they are different from each other seems impractical since these theories pursue different theoretical goals and follow different methodological assumptions. To some other scholars, however, conceptual blending and relevance account of metaphor understanding may be complementary. Taking into account the deficiencies of each theory, they believe that both perspectives may have their contribution to make toward an integrative cognitive theory of metaphor.

This article aims to investigate the possibility that conceptual blending theory and relevance theory can be integrated as a cognitive theory of metaphor despite the significant differences between these two theories in terms of theoretical basis and methodological assumptions. I believe that neither the conceptual blending theory nor the relevance theory is adequate enough in discussions of metaphor and that these alternative perspectives on metaphor are both in need of in understanding why people use metaphor and how they do so in daily life.

The article continues with an introduction of conceptual blending theory, relevance theory and their respective views on metaphor. After comparison of these two theories in the following section, important connections are made in the last section between these two alternative theories in an effort to provide a more comprehensive theory of metaphor.

II. CONCEPTUAL BLENDING THEORY AND METAPHOR

Conceptual blending theory provides interesting insights into the possible creation of metaphors. Conceptual blending theory develops from mental space theory (Fauconnier, 1994/1997), aiming to offer an account for meaning construction from conceptual perspectives. Conceptual blending refers to a basic mental operation that gives rise to new meanings (Fauconnier, 2001). In conceptual blending theory, mental spaces are small conceptual packets constructed the moment we think and talk, for the sake of local understanding and action (Fauconnier, 1998). The essence of the operation is the construction of a partial match between two inputs, selective projection from those inputs into a novel blended mental space, where an emergent structure is generated (Fauconnier, 2001).

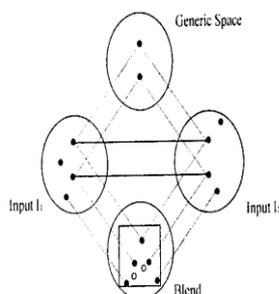


Figure 1 A four-space conceptual blending network

As is depicted in Fig.1, conceptual blending network consists of four connected mental spaces: two partially matched input spaces, a generic space, and the blended space. The two input spaces go through cross-space mapping, through which the cognitive relationship between the counterpart elements of the two inputs can be reflected. The generic space is composed of whatever structure that is recognized as common to both of the two input spaces. The blended space provides a new space in which the selective structures and elements projected from the inputs are manipulated. And out of the operation of three blending processes, i. e. composition, completion, and elaboration, the emergent structure is born. Composition refers to the (partial) selection of elements, structures or frames from input spaces and their projection to the blended space to generate new relations and scenarios. Completion points to introduction of additional material from the speaker's background knowledge to the blend to enrich the relations and scenarios of the blend. Elaboration has to do with the running of the blend, or the unfolding of the scenarios or development of the relations involved (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002).

To make sure that meaning construction is constrained such that we derive the right structure to be projected to the blend (Evans & Green, 2006), Fauconnier and Turner (2002) put forth several optimality principles, including integration principle, topology principle, web principle, unpacking principle, good reason principle and metonymic tightening. Satisfaction of these principles is selective, which means satisfying one constraint may result in the inconsistency with another. Among all of the interpretations of a given blend, the one that best observes the constraints is the one that is most likely to be selected.

Central to conceptual blending theory is the ability of the integration networks to compress diffuse conceptual structure into easily understood and manipulated human-scale situations in a blended space. Compressions operate on a group of essential conceptual relations of Cause-Effect, Analogy and Disanalogy, Time, Space, Change, Identity, Part-Whole, and Representation which can be compressed into a human-scale version of themselves, or into different vital relations (Pan, 2012).

Conceptual blending account of metaphor proposes that metaphor interpretation involves the projection of partial structure from the input spaces of the target and the source and the integration of this information in a blended space. As conceptual blending theory usually sees metaphors as analogical mappings (Fauconnier & Turner, 2002), the association between the two concepts (i.e. the target and the source) is often said to be based on shared features which are aligned with the two (Grady, 2005). The figurative conception of surgeon as butcher, for instance, must begin with an activation of the target space containing a representation of the surgeon. The image of an incompetent surgeon, his imprecision, and insensitivity toward his patients in the surgeon space, can evoke the same elements in the butcher space. The cognitive link between the relevant elements in each space constitutes the counterpart connection(s) between surgeon and butcher which blending theory requires in order for the spaces to be combined. These selected elements from both of the inputs are manipulated in the blending and hence the emergent inference that "My surgeon is incompetent, crude, etc." In the metaphor "Caroline is a princess", the semantic attribute of "princess" in the source is mapped onto the attribute of Caroline in the target, and therefore the emergent structure and the metaphorical meaning that Caroline is spoiled, indulged girl, self-willed, free from housework, etc. (Wilson & Carston, 2006).

Conceptual blending theory is vulnerable to criticism, however, due to its failure to specify the interpretive process for producing emergent structure. In response to this, Brandt and Brandt (2002) propose a network of six mental spaces: a semiotic space, a presentation space, a reference space, a relevance space and a virtual space. These spaces are designed to obtain the critical meaning of any given utterance based on conceptual metaphor theory, conceptual

blending theory and cognitive semiotics. They exemplify the six-space model through analysis of the Surgeon is butcher blend by drawing the context that the operation causes a large scar on a patient. Under this circumstance, the blend is used to question the ethical conduct of the surgeon instead of complaining that the surgeon is incompetent. Under this model, the local context has a vital role to play in the generation of the intended meaning of an utterance. Given different contexts, the hearer may interpret the speaker's intentions in quite different ways.

III. RELEVANCE THEORY AND METAPHOR

Relevance theory offers a different perspective on metaphor. It makes two general claims about the role of relevance in cognition and communication. According to the Cognitive Principle of Relevance, human cognition tends to be geared to the maximization of relevance. That is to say, people focus their attention on information that seems most relevant to them. According to the Communicative Principle of Relevance, every act of ostensive communication communicates the presumption of its own optimal relevance (Sperber & Wilson, 1995). To be specific, the speaker produces an utterance which is expected to be relevant enough for it to be worth the hearer's effort to process it. In accordance, the hearer will consider the utterance to be the most relevant one the speaker is able and willing to produce.

Relevance is dependent on two factors: cognitive effect and cognitive effort. Cognitive effects are achieved when a speaker's utterance strengthens, revises or contradicts an available assumption in combination with in-hand context assumptions or by combining an in-hand context assumption with the new information to produce some new cognitive implications. Cognitive effort refers to the effort made in the mental representation of the input or the access to contextual information (Tendahl & Gibbs, 2008). Every utterance goes with itself a presumption of the best balance of cognitive effort against cognitive effect. For one thing, the effect that can be achieved will never be less than is needed to make it worthy of processing. For another, the efforts that are required will never be more than is needed to achieve these effects. In comparison to the effects achieved, the effort needed is always the smallest. Roughly put, human cognition tends to achieve the optimal contextual effects with the least cognitive efforts. Other things being equal, the larger the contextual effect, the smaller the contextual effort, the greater the relevance of the input will be to the individual (Hu, 2001).

Relevance Theory makes a distinction between explicature and implicature. Explicature refers to an assumption that is explicitly communicated. And implicature is what can be derived from the proposition expressed by the utterance in combination with the context. In other words, the implicatures are contextual assumptions and those which the addressee has to recover in accordance with the principle of relevance. According to Vyvyan Evans and Melanie Green (2006), explicature and implicature corresponds to the traditional idea of semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning respectively. Despite that relevance theory adheres to the standard formal view that semantic decoding takes place prior to calculating pragmatic inferences, the recovery of explicatures is thought to depend on inference to a considerable degree. And the recovery of implicatures is believed to rely on explicatures, long-term memory and the context.

Relevance theoretic account of metaphor holds that metaphors are examples of "loose talk" (Sperber & Wilson, 1985/1986) instead of "an extraordinary phenomenon of language" (Wilson & Carston, 2006) and that speaking loosely is the best way to achieve optimal relevance (Tendahl & Gibbs, 2008). Metaphor interpretation requires the listener to make cognitive efforts to seek out the optimal relevance between the source and the target, or seek out similarities between the source and the target. In metaphor understanding, the listener relates the source to the target, forms assumptions on hearing an utterance, and after relating the assumptions to the appropriate context and inferring, gets the conversational implicature.

Consider the metaphoric utterance "Caroline is a princess". According to relevance theory, the addressee is supposed to assume that the addresser is aiming for optimal relevance by producing this utterance. Since Caroline is not literally a princess, this utterance literally makes no sense and thus is irrelevant. The addressee, therefore, must assume that the addresser intends some other interpretation and then resorts to his encyclopedic knowledge and contextual knowledge in order to produce an inference. Encyclopedic knowledge brings about the fact that a princess is associated with the attributes of being spoiled, indulged, and willful, etc. The resemblance between the encyclopedic knowledge of a princess and Caroline in the given context allows the addressee to infer that the addresser intends to convey the message that Caroline, who is not a female royal, is spoiled, indulged, and willful and so on. According to Relevance Theory, the use of this metaphor carries additional contextual effects which the direct expression that Caroline is spoiled, indulged, willful may fall short of. By comparing Caroline to a princess, the speaker provides a much richer representation of the attributes of Caroline which might trigger further implicatures.

Relevance theory holds that metaphor interpretation involves an array of weak implicatures, the understanding of which requires the listeners to make additional cognitive efforts. According to the principle of relevance, however, this cognitive effort can be offset by the extra cognitive effects achieved, or rather the poetic effects. In other words, the wider the range of potential implications and the greater the addressee's efforts to infer them, the more poetic the effects and the more creative the metaphor will be.

IV. COMPARING CONCEPTUAL BLENDING THEORY AND RELEVANCE THEORY

Conceptual blending and relevance theoretic account of metaphor both try to provide a cognitive explanation of metaphor interpretation. In cognitive linguistics, metaphor is primarily a matter of thought and action and only derivationally a matter of language (Lackoff & Johnson, 1980). In relevance theory, metaphor is the loose use of language which expresses ideas that would otherwise be difficult to convey using literal language. Conceptual blending theory focuses more on the role of metaphors in our conceptual system whereas relevance theory focuses more on the role of metaphor for communication (Huang & Yang, 2014). Conceptual blending theory sees metaphors to arise from mental mappings and complex conceptual blending while relevance theory views metaphor comprehension to be the recovery of strong or weak implicatures. Despite these differences, being rooted in a broader theoretical framework of cognitive philosophy which views meanings as the product of cognitive process, conceptual blending theory and relevance theory share some similarities (Jiang & Ma, 2003).

First, they both adhere to the principle of economy in utterance interpretation. In speech acts speaker will adopt the most economic strategy to convey what he/she intends to do. Namely, speakers try to convey to the hearer the largest amount of relevant information with the minimum coding effort. In consequence, it may not be possible for a conceptual structure to be fully represented in an ostensive semantic structure. For instance, in the sentence “my surgeon is a butcher”, the attributes of the butcher are left out in the semantic structure. This, however, would not prevent one from understanding this utterance since one would generally trigger more concepts than is represented in speaking and listening. In the expectation of optimal relevance, the hearer will draw the inferences based on the shared communicative intention with the least decoding effort. In a word, under the pressure of relevance, least-effort strategy is taken by the interlocutors to yield the greatest cognitive effect.

Fauconnier once pointed out that language form is simplified such that one linguistic form may be suitable for a variety of scenarios. Consider the example of “John is a soldier”, One may come up with several possible interpretations, among which are: (a) John is devoted to his duty, (b) John obeys orders willingly, (c) John shows obedience to authority, (d) John identifies with the goal of his team, (e) John is a member of the military, etc. (Tendahl & Gibbs, 2008). All that needs to be done is to select from these interpretations the one that is most relevant to a certain context. Take the following conversation cited from Sperber and Wilson (2002, p.319):

Peter: Can we trust John to do as we tell him and defend the interests of the Linguistics department in the University Council?

Mary: John is a soldier!

This conversation is about whether or not John can be trusted to defend the interests of the Linguistics department. In this specific context, Mary uses the word ‘soldier’ to convey the idea that John is just like a devoted soldier and follows orders willingly. As a consequence, Peter would obtain the implicit meaning that they can rely on John to defend the interests of Linguistics department.

Second, they both put emphasis on conceptual blending in online meaning construction. Conceptual blending theory and relevance theory both place emphasis on the important roles of working memory in conceptual blending and information processing. To Fauconnier & Turner, conceptual blending is a dynamic process, which cannot be presented statically. Semantic meanings are dependent on one’s cognitive association abilities, or the abilities of cross-space projection and conceptual blending. Relevance theory claims that utterance interpretation is a decoding process and an inference process as well, which involves identifying the coding information, activating the contextual assumptions, matching the coding information with the contextual assumptions and drawing an inference. To Sperber & Wilson (1995), utterance meaning is achieved through association and complex operations between the ostensive information and the physical and contextual contexts.

Their similarities make it possible for us to carry out an integrative analysis on metaphor understanding. Nevertheless, neither of them provides satisfying answers to metaphor interpretation. Their deficiencies on metaphor understanding make it necessary to integrate these two theories.

According to relevance theory, human cognition and communication are relevance-oriented. Communication is a process in which the balance between the cognitive efforts and cognitive effects is sought in its primary aim to achieve optimal contextual effects in the dynamic cognitive context and hence improve one’s cognitive environments. The relevance theoretical account of metaphor is of important significance in metaphor study, but it places more emphasis on the function of pragmatic principle and cognitive principle in metaphor interpretation, overlooking the important role played by the conceptual structures and cognitive mechanism that activate conceptual structures (Zhang & Cai, 2005). Conceptual blending theory, on the contrary, could make up for its defects.

Conceptual blending network is a multi-space projection network in which the four spaces interrelates and interacts with one another, among which the corresponding components in the two input spaces (i.e. the source and the target) mapped onto the blending space, where an emergent structure comes into form through the cognitive processes of composition, completion and elaboration. Conceptual blending theory offers a more detailed analysis of metaphor interpretation. It treats metaphor inference as activating relevant conceptual structures and places emphasis on the cognitive structure and its dominating role in metaphor interpretation. Yet, conceptual blending theory fails to acknowledge the vital role of contextual constraints on information processing, which undoubtedly plays an essential part in emergence of the intended meaning. Strictly speaking, isolated words cannot be metaphorical. It is only in a context can an expression be judged whether or not it is metaphorical. Metaphorical expressions cannot be understood

or even recognized when only interpreted from semantic perspectives regardless of contextual factors. The good thing to see is that relevance theory seems to complement for that.

Taking all these into account, conceptual blending theory and relevance theory may be complementary in metaphor interpretation: the activated mappings between the source space and the target space of a given metaphorical structure are essential for pragmatic inference; the two principles of the relevance theory---the cognitive principle and the communicative principle constrain the activated mappings and determine which mapping is to be first activated in a given context.

V. A COMPLEMENTARY VIEW ON METAPHOR

A comprehensive theoretical account of metaphor provides important insights to metaphor interpretation. This complementary perspective on metaphor interpretation gives full recognition of the vital role that contextual constraint plays in both the optimal relevance aspects between the source and the target and the generation of the intended meaning of a metaphorical utterance in the blended space. In this article, I take the initiative to draw a distinction between broad contextual factors and local contextual factors. Broad contextual factors refer to the background information relevant to an utterance while the local contextual factors refer to the specific context in which an utterance is made. Take the example of “my surgeon is a butcher”. The broad contextual factors refers to background information of the nature of both surgeon and butcher, the fact that they operate on animated beings, etc. whereas the local contextual factors refer to the context in which the utterance is made, as when the operation causes a large scar on a patient, for instance.

Under this integrative model, metaphor interpretation becomes an online conceptual blending process in which the optimal relevance (i.e. the similarities between the source and the target) is sought out before cross-space mapping takes place. In this process, the linguistic form selects from the broad conceptual factors (the background information) activated in the cognitive context the optimally relevant contextual assumptions and then establishes the corresponding mental spaces. After cross-space mapping between the source space and the target space of a metaphorical structure, these optimally relevant contextual assumptions selected from the input spaces are projected to the blended space to generate new relations and scenarios. In the blended space, local contextual factors will act as a checking filter to make sure that the derived emergent structure or the implicature best reflects the speaker’s intention. In this process, one achieves cognitive effect enough to change his cognitive environment.

Consider “My surgeon is a butcher” in the context that the operation causes a large scar on a patient, as is exemplified by Brandt and Brandt (2002). On hearing the utterance, the hearer would draw from the cognitive context the background information of both surgeon and butcher and map onto each other the relevant constituents in the source space of butcher and the target space of surgeon, like the nature of surgeons and butchers, their operations on animated beings, their imprecision, their insensitivity to humans/animals, etc. The corresponding elements in the input spaces are then projected into the blended space, where local factors specify the elements to be processed in the blended space, like their insensitivity toward dealing with animals/ human beings. Hence comes out the emergent structure and the metaphoric meaning “my surgeon is crude, insensitive, indifferent to his patients’ feelings, etc.” In this local context, the blend is used to question the ethical values of the surgeon.

In general, the above example offers a glimpse of how conceptual blending theory and relevance theory can be applied to metaphorical interpretation. Metaphor interpretation is a conceptual blending process in which optimal relevance between the source and target are sought for by the principles of relevance theory before cross-space mapping takes place and new meanings come into being with reference to local contexts afterwards.

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Mixed Approach in Syntax: Evidence from Persian

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Abstract—This paper sheds new light on Persian Linguistics; meanwhile to criticize the traditional trends pushed theoretical linguistics formal approach) and applied linguistics (Functional approach¹) part; as well as welcome the evidence and opportunities that this mixed approach provide for bringing them together. This model of analysis will be known as a mixed model that can achieve more comprehensive responses for Persian diversities than considering each approach in isolation. They're both are vital for Persian syntactic analyses; they are complementary. Relying on each approach is misleading. The main objective is to support this claim by evidence from Persian Language. The Persian evidence shows the constraints and varieties in this language is not only originated from syntactic principles, but also they are greatly motivated by pragmatic considerations. Therefore the variety of syntactic structures such as wh-constructions, sluicing, ditransitive verbs and obligatory adjuncts can not be determined or stipulated by the absolute formal constraints. As an evidence the first group of constructions will be discussed.

Index Terms—formal approach, functional approach, mixed approach, Persian language

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of syntax is a huge field that has generated a great deal of theoretical and applied work over the decades (Chomsky 1957-2013, Givon2001, Goldberg 1995-to appear, Chung et al 2011). Different theories of syntax were raised in the linguistic landscape; however, some of them have considerable members. Syntactic theories are generally classified into two main types, formal and Functional. In other words, most of the syntactic explanations are strongly based on these two different approaches. In formal analysis, linguistic researchers focus on linguistic form e.g. grammatical structures and the hierarchical relations of the phrases, clauses and sentences. This purely formal explanation of sentence structures merely considers the syntactic categories and structural relationships among the words of a sentence without considering their discourse functions or the context. The dominant theory in this field is Chomsky's in which syntax is autonomous and grammatical knowledge in a speaker's mind is divided into different modules or components, which separates the linguistic knowledge from its meaning and communicative use in context. By contrast Functional analysis emphasize on the functions of linguistic patterns. They analyze the sentence structures in terms of factors outside the form of the structure. They deny the existence of everything in syntax. This division between these two approaches was supported by the majority of linguists. Meanwhile These two rather different approaches are constituents of two broad branches of science in linguistics which are theoretical and applied linguistics.

For many years, these two main types of linguistics had been separated and considered apart. This dichotomy thinking may be remarkably issued by Ferdinand de Saussure (1972). While the different ways linguists see formal and Functional approaches, the author agrees with the following idea from known people:

Bourdieu (1988) believes that *Theory without empirical research is empty, empirical research without theory is blind* (p.774-775).

Dabir- moghaddam (2009) thinks, *If we want to obtain a comprehensive grammar we should attempt to be faithful to the[real] data rather than being faithful absolutely to the theories*(p. 68).

Newmeyer(2010) writes *One can be a formal and functional linguist at the same time without being any contradictions* (p. 133).

In spite of these critical thinking and challenges, most of the linguists believe distinction between them actually covers many various aspects worth considering separately. Pure/radical formal approach is primarily interested in the form itself. Pure/radical functional approach is primarily interested in the function and the content that the linguistic structures have outside in the world.

There are numerous cases in Persian language that show they need one another to fulfill their explanations. It will be argued that Functional explanations are absolutely necessary for verification of acceptability degrees in wh-constructions in Persian. To have an actual and comprehensive analysis, interactional/bi-dimensional approach is unavoidable.

¹ The difference between functional and Functional should be mentioned here. In this paper, Functional with capital F refers to all approaches and theories which are contrast to Formal approaches such as cognitive, discourse, information structure and typological explanations. For more information you can refer to Croft (2001).

Thus the proponents of non-radical version of two approaches; in particular interactional model, believe that they are able to interact and learn from one another. They can feed each other. This opinion is witnessed by increasing interest in discourse phenomena (Rizzi 1997, Newmeyer 1998, Karimi 2005, Karimi & A.Taleghani 2007, Dabir-moghaddam 1992).

In fact, this situation is considered as a state of complementary condition rather than as a state of a competition and relying on each is inadequate. Persian evidence can show that formal explanation can find its another side of responses in the interaction of discourse/ pragmatics. In this sense, the dichotomy view between these two approaches will make little sense. In this view these two poles come together in a point to fulfill each other.

This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 the arguments on wh- constructions will show that considering the absolute syntactic constraints to discuss the grammaticality or acceptability judgments of the sentences are insufficient. In section3, it will be discussed the Persian evidence from Functional perspectives in order to show that the formal analysis can be fulfilled by Functional analysis. Then both approaches will be evaluated to answer this question whether the formal explanation is sufficient or not. To illustrate that, two competing approaches on wh- constructions will be taken as evidence in this language.

II. FORMAL EXPLANATION

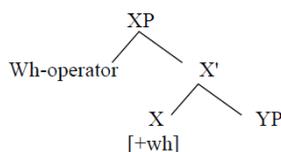
In this section, it generally outlines the properties of formal explanations on wh-questions. An explanation is formal if the properties of sentence structures are derived from a set of principles formulated in the generative syntax (in particular Minimalism). Regarding formal explanations the following structures in Persian will be evaluated.

A. Wh-questions

- (1) a. Maryam ketaab raa xarid.
 Mary.subj book.obj obj M buy.PST²
 'Mary bought the book.'
 b. Maryam chi/chi-o xarid?
 Mary.subj what/obj.M buy.PST
 ' Mary bought what?'
 c. Chi- o Maryam xarid?
 What- obj M Mary buy.PST
 ' What did Mary buy?'

The examples in (1) show that the question form is derived from declarative sentence (1a) in two ways: - one by remaining of wh-word in its same position in declarative sentence(no overt movement of wh-word). – second by movement of the wh-word from its first position into the front of the sentence(overt movement).

The theory of universal grammar provides a mechanism for carrying out such cases(1b,1c). It is a feature based theory in which the feature [+wh] must be satisfied by a wh-operator in the spec- head configuration. In Chomsky's theory this is called Wh-criterion(Rizzi 1991,1996) or wh- movement(Chomsky 1995,2000,2008).



Thus wh- criterion or wh movement helps to account for the syntax of example (1c). The landing site of the wh-word was discussed; on the basis of Rizzi (1997) in the split Cp it goes to the Focus Phrase in Persian³. This general principle formulated for the internal structure of non-declarative sentences.

On the basis of this criterion/assumption we consider another example in (1b). This sentence should be unacceptable because there is no wh-operator in the specifier of the Focus phrase in this language. Is this type of sentence falsify this rule?

In this type of grammar we can hypothesize that a covert movement of an operator in this type of language will satisfy the feature [+wh]. This movement is constaint by distance in this grammar; that is the locality condition (minimal link condition, shortest move) constraints this movement. This movement does not only belong to simple sentences, it can be in complex sentences too. Consider this example:

- (2) a. Ki-o (to) fekr mikoni (ke) Ali be mehmuni davit kone?
 Who-objM you.subj think.pres that Ali.subj to party invite.pres
 'Who do you think Ali will invite to the party?'
 b. [ki-oi [to [fekr mikoni [t'i ke [Ali [ti be mehmuni [davit kone]]]]]]]

² Category symbols are as follows: subj= subject obj.M= object marker PST=past tense

³ Our discussion is not the landing site, so we leave it here, for further reading you can refer to karimi & A.Taleghani 2007, Kahnemuirpour 2001, Ahangar 2006, Vaezi 2010.

In (2b) *wh-* operator moved from the complement clause in successive cycles to the front of the sentence. The subjacency condition / minimal link condition / shortest move was obeyed too. Generative grammar introduced this principle as a universal one. This idea comes into the mind that this principle can verify grammaticality / ungrammaticality of the sentences.

However it will be shown that in Persian it won't happen and this universal principle will not be sufficient for the Persian sentences.

B. Criticism of Formal Explanation

The only question in this section should be answered is whether formal explanation is necessary and whether it is sufficient. To get the response, first we discuss the necessity of generative syntax and its constraints by some evidences from Persian language.

The first was whether it is necessary or not. To support this claim that the existence of formal explanations is necessary, some examples will be provided from displaced phrases in Persian:

(3) Questions: *ki - o fekr mikon i ke u ---- dide baashe?*

Who-ACC think.pres you-sing that he ---- saw
'Who do you think he saw?'

(4) Relative clause: *Man mardi raa ke shoma -----dided mishenaasam.*

I the man obj.M that you ----- saw know
'I know the man you saw.'

(5) Topicalization: *ketaab -o u---- be Ali daad.*

Book the he to Ali gave
'The book, he gave to Ali.'

In each type, a phrase was displaced from its normal position in phrase structure, creating a dependency between itself and co-indexed gap as indicated by '----' in(3-6).Some linguists know these constructions as filler-gap constructions(Ambridge & Goldberg 2008). The best and reasonable stipulation is the subjacency principle which generativists believe it is a universal principle (Newmeyer 1991). It constraints the *wh-* movement in its structure. It says: no movement over more than two bounding nodes, if it happens the sentence should be ill-formed.

(6)* *Who did you believe the claim that John saw----?* (Newmeyer 2010: 9)

Ross (1967) introduces the islands that constraints the movements in the structures. Complex Noun Phrase was converted as Subjacency in modern syntax. *The claim that John saw* is a complex noun phrase that *wh-*phrase can not be extracted from that. Or the bounding nodes IP and NP prevents this movement. As it is a universal principle should be uniform for all of the structures in a language.

To answer the second question whether the formal explanation is sufficient, we will argue more examples from Persian. Three types of verbs are taken for this goal:

a) Bridge verbs (are verbs that their meaning is so explicit) such as think, say, believe.

b) Factive verbs (are verbs that their complements are presupposed) such as understand, regret.

c) Manner of speaking verbs (are verbs that show the speaker's status of speaking) such as whisper, murmur, scream, cry.

(7) a. *man fekr mikonam [ke Ali Maryam -o dide baashe].*

b. *Ki- o fekr mikoni ke Ali ----- dide baashe?*

(8) a. *man faryaad zadam ke [Maryam ketaab -o borde].*

b. *?? chi -o faryaad zadi ke [Maryam ----borde ast?*

(9) a. *man fahmidam ke [Ali maashin xaride ast].*

b. *?? chi -o fahmidi ke Ali ----- xaride ast?*

(10) a. *man faryaad zadam ke [Ali Maryam raa dide ast].*

b. ** ki -o faryaad zadi ke Ali ----- did east?*

(11) a. *man fahmidam ke [Ali Maryam raa dide ast].*

b. ** ki-o fahmidi ke Ali ---- dide ast?*

In these sentences (7-11) all the formal structures are the same; however the extraction of *wh-*phrase shows different degree of acceptability. Examples (8b-11b) have lower degree of acceptability and grammaticality than sentence (7).

Thus the answer is that formal explanation is not sufficient for these type of sentences in Persian. Here, to stipulate the acceptability and grammaticality of others, Functional explanation is needed. Relying on the absolute syntactic and formal constraints are not sufficient. To verify this claim we will argue on these sentences in the following section.

III. FUNCTIONAL EXPLANATIONS

In this section, the extraction of *wh-*words is examined to support the idea that semantic and pragmatic considerations can influence on *wh-*extractions from the complements of bridge verbs, factive verbs and manner of speaking verbs.

Wh movement is one of the controversial topics in formal linguistics. It was considered by many formal linguists. On contrary to formal explanations, relying on pure syntactic principles is not sufficient to answer a language diversity. The objective is to show how wh-constructions operate after different types of verbs.

Long wh-extraction can be explained by passing the cycles from one clause to another one. In this usage based approach, such extraction relies on the type of information included within the complement clause. Subjacency condition that is one the formal principles, can not interpret the diversity in wh- extraction from the complement clauses. In this approach, the acceptability of wh- extractions can be predicted by discourse/ pragmatic properties and its information(Ambridge and Goldberg 2008: 350).

During the development of construction grammar, the constructionists intend to differentiate their method from formal one, they use *filler- gap construction*, in which a constituent taken a movement. This type of construction is included three types:

- wh-Qs

- Relative clauses

- Topicalization

(12) *ki* -o fekr mikoni ke u ---- dide baashed ? (wh-Qs)
Whom.ACC think that he.NOM.3 visit
'Whom do you think he visited?'

(13) Man mardi raa ke shomaa ----didid , mi shenaasam.(Relative clauses)
I.NOM.1 man.ACC OBJM that you saw know
'I know the man that you saw.'

(14) Ketaab-o u ----- be Ali daad. (Topicalization)
Book.ACC he.NOM.3 ----to Ali.ACC gave
'The book, he gave to Ali'

In examples (12-14), one of the constituents has moved from the basic place and landed in another position. In wh-constructions which is the subject of this paper, wh-word has moved out of the complement clause and landed at the beginning of the main clause (example12). *Filler* refers to wh-word, and *Gap* refers to the empty place remained after wh-movement. Thus wh-word is a filler has moved from its position and landed at the beginning of the clause. The first position is considered as a gap (Ambridge and Goldberg 2008: 351).

A complement as an island and its relation to information structure

Ross (1967) first observed some constraint and introduced *island* term. He introduced the island complements to show what constraints are imposed on the operation of the constituents within the complement clauses. The island notion (which later included in *subjacency* constraint) is regarded in this analysis. In this type of analysis, being an island is related to information structure. The following discussion consists of four sections: first, the islands are introduced in Persian. Second I provide some evidence to support this idea that the diversity of wh- constructions can not be determined by the pure syntactic constraints. Third, the negation test is used to confirm that the island complements included background information. Finally, it specifies the general conclusion and the frequency of verbs in Persian. The frequency of verbs can confirm the hypothesis and the operation of wh- constructions in this language.

1. Subjacency Constraint

One of the constraints introduced in Generative Grammar, that restricts the extraction of wh-words is subjacency. On the basis of this constraint, the gap can not be separated from the filler by two or more *bounding nodes*. The formalists regards this constraint a universal one (Newmeyer 1991). The subjacency account predicts that complex NP, subject and all adjuncts should be islands. However it can not predict the various types of verbs in relation to their complements. In this study three types of verbs are looked into:

a. *Bridge verbs* – the main verb is a semantically light such as fekr kardan (to think), goftan (to say), Bavvar kardan (believe).

b. *Factive verbs* – their complements are presupposition such as fahmidan (to understand)

c. *Manner of Speaking verbs* – they show the way of speaking such as zemzemeh kardan (to whisper).

These three types can have a complement clause in Persian. The considerable subject of them is that the extraction of wh- word from the complements of these three types of verbs are different. The hypothesis is that in spite of the sameness of the structure, their extraction of wh-word is different. Thus in the analysis of these types of sentences, absolutely relying on subjacency and ignoring the information factors misleads the analysis. For example:

(15) a. Man fekr mikonam ke Ali *Maryam raa* dide baashad.
I.NOM.1 think that Ali.NOM.3 Maryam .ACC see
'I think that Ali has seen Maryam.'

b. *ki-o* fekr mikoni ke Ali ----- dide baashad?
Whom.ACC think that Ali.NOM.3 see
'Whom do you think that Ali saw?'

(16) a. Man faryaad zadam ke Maryam ketaab raa borde ast.
I. NOM.1 shout that Maryam book.ACC take
'I shouted that Maryam took the book.'

- b. ?? *Chi-o* faryaad zadi ke Maryam ----- borde ast?
What.ACC shout that Maryam.NOM.3 take
'What did you shout that Maryam took?'
- (17) a. Man *fahmidam* ke Ali *maashin* *kharide ast*.
I. NOM.1 understand that Ali.NOM.3 car buy
'I understood that Ali bought the car.'
b. ?? *Chi-o* fahmidi ke Ali ----- kharide ast ?
what.ACC understand that Ali buy
'What did you understand that Ali bought?'
- (18) a. Man *faryaad zadam* ke Ali *Maryam raa dide ast*.
I. NOM.1 shout that Ali Maryam.ACC see
'I shouted that Ali saw Maryam.'
b. * *ki-o* faryaad zadi ke Ali -----dide ast ?
whom shout that Ali see
'Whom did you shout that Ali saw?'
- (19) a. Man *fahmidam* ke Ali *Maryam raa dide ast*.
I. NOM.1 understand that Ali Maryam.ACC see
'I understood that Ali saw Maryam.'
b. * *ki-o* fahmidi ke Ali -----dide ast ?
whom understand that Ali see
'Whom did you understand that Ali saw?'

Examples (15-19) show their formal structures are the same; however, the wh- extraction regarding subjacency represents some differences. Examples (16b-19b) in the comparison to example (15b) are either ungrammatical or unacceptable. Thus the evidence show relying on subjacency is not adequate, and this constraint predicts the diversity of wh-extraction. Constructionists emphasize on their propositional content and analyze them (Ambridge & Goldberg 2008: 351). To argue this constructional differences in these sentences are shown in two ways:

1- One of the tests is used to show these types of differences are to add complement clause after the related verbs. The complement clause is added after the verbs such as factive verbs and manner of speaking.

- (20) a. U faryaad zad [ke Ali rafte ast]
He. NOM.3 shout that Ali go
'He shouted that Ali has gone.'
b. U faryaad zad.
He.NOM.3 shout
'He shouted.'
c. U [esm e Ali raa] faryaad zad
He. NOM.3 name Ali.ACC shout
'He shouted his name.'
- (21) a. U fahmid [ke Ali rafte ast]
He.NOM.3 understand that Ali go
'He understood that Ali has gone.'
b. ? U fahmid.
He.NOM.3 understand
'He understood.'

In example (20) verb *faryaad zadan* (to shout) as a manner of speaking verb shows three cases. This type of verb can be with a complement clause, noun phrase and without a complement clause. In example (21) verb *fahmidan* (to understand) as a factive verb, takes a complement clause. However, the omission of this clause after the verb is measured different acceptability.

2-The second way to argue the constructional and structural differences among sentences (15-19) is to add a noun phrase like '*the fact*' and '*the idea*' to the sentence. Kiparsky & Kiparsky (1971) used this way to determine whether a complement clause is an island or not. This noun phrase should be added before the complement clause. It's named as '*Silent NP*'. For example:

- (22) a. U [in haqiqat raa ke Ali Maryam raa dide ast] fahmid.
He. NOM.3 the fact that Ali.NOM.3 Maryam.ACC see understand
'He understood the fact that Ali has seen Maryam.'
b. * *ki-o* U [in haqiqat raa ke Ali -----dide ast] fahmid?
Whom he.Nom.3 the fact that Ali see understand
'Whom did he understand the fact that Ali has seen?'
c. ?? *ki-o* U fahmid ke Ali ----- dide ast ?
Whom he understand that Ali see
'Whom did he understand that he has seen ?'

- (23) a. Man [be in ide ke Ali Maryam raa be mehmaani miaavarad] fekr mikonam.
 I.NOM.1 the idea that Ali.NOM Maryam.ACC to party bring think
 'I think the idea that Ali bring Maryam to the party.'
- b. * *ki-o* fekr mikoni be in idea ke Ali ----- be mehmaani miaavarad?
 Whom think the idea that Ali to party bring
 'Whom do you think the idea that Ali bring to the party?'
- c. *ki-o* fekr mikoni ke Ali ----- be mehmaani biaavarad?
 Whom think that Ali to party bring
 'Whom do you think that Ali b
- d. *ki-o* fekr mikoni ke Ali ----- dide baashad?
 Whom think that Ali see
 'Whom do you think that Ali has seen?'

In examples (22a, 23a) silent NP was added to the sentence. By this addition, the complement clause will be considered as a part of a complex NP. In this sense, the separation of one part from the complex NP can make an ungrammatical sentence such as examples (22b, 23b). In both type of verbs, bridge verb and factive one, the separation of one part of the complex NP, made the sentence ungrammatical. These examples show that the complement clauses on the basis of examples (22b, 23b) are islands that the wh extraction made it ungrammatical.

Through the study of examples (22c, 23c & 23d) can conclude that the complement clause after the factive verbs is an island stronger than the complement clause after the bridge verbs. In these examples that the silent NP omitted, wh-extraction is less acceptable after factive verbs. The conclusion of this test is that the structure of complex sentences with the verbs such as factive, bridge and manner of speaking are different.

In this approach and on the basis of its method of analysis, syntactic island (in formal view) is versus pragmatic island(functional view). Pragmatic island refers to the type of knowledge within the complement clause. Thus the complement analysis on being an island depends on the type of information included. It is claimed that the complement clauses with background knowledge are islands such as the complement clause in factive verbs or presupposed adjuncts. On contrary, the complement clause includes assertion or foreground knowledge are not an island for the wh-extraction. This type of extraction is permitted and acceptable.

2. Backgrounded complement clauses as an island

In this section of analysis the information inside the complement clauses of three types of verbs is examined. The objective is to provide some evidence that the information in these types of complement clauses is different. Many scholars related the constraints on wh-extraction to information structure. These studies clarified that the gap remained after the wh- extraction, should be placed within a *focused*⁴ domain (VanValin & Lapolla 1997, VanValin 1998, Erteschik-Shir 1979, 1998, Takami 1989).

Thus the presence of the gap within the backgrounded complement clause can not be acceptable. In other words, the hypothesis is that the wh-extraction from the backgrounded complement clauses are not permitted. The complement clauses are presupposed after the verbs such as factive and manner of speaking. This claim will be confirmed by Negation Test.

2.1 Negation Test

This type of test is to determine whether a complement clause is presupposed or not. This test includes two types: a- the classic / old one b- the modern one

In *classic* way, the sentence is negated. After negation of the sentence presupposition is the same in positive and negative forms. For example:

- *Complex NP*

- (24) U [gozareshi raa ke dar mored e Maryam bud] nadid
 He.NOM.3 report.ACC that about Maryam was not.see
 'He did not see the report was about Maryam.'
- presupposition** → gozaresh dar mored e Maryam bud
 report about Maryam was
 'the report was about Maryam.'

- *Sentential Subject*

- (25) [inke u haqiqat raa midaanest] azaarrash nemidaad.
 That he.NOM.3 the fact know not bother
 'That he knows the fact, did not bother him.'
- Presupposition** → U haqiqat raa midaanest.
 He fact know
 'He knows the fact.'

- *Presupposed adjunct*

- (26) Aanhaa khaane raa tark nakardand [taa zamaani ke qazaa khordand]

⁴The complement with foreground knowledge

They. NOM house left not until that food eat
 'They had not left the house before they ate their food.'
Presupposition → *Aanhaa qazaa khordand*
 They food eat
 'They ate the food.'

- Complement of Factive Verbs

(27) Maryam nafahmid [ke Ali ketaabhaa raa did e ast]
 Maryam not understand that Ali books see
 'Maryam did not understand that Ali has seen the books.'
Presupposition → *Ali ketaabhaa raa did e ast*
 Ali books see
 'Ali has seen the books.'

The negative forms of the examples (24-27) show the presuppositions are the same and they do not change when the sentences are negated. Thus all complement clauses in the above sentences (24-27) are presupposed and island. The complement clause of the factive verb (in example 27) is presupposed too. This type of a clause is an island and wh-extraction is not acceptable within them (example 17b & 19b).

On the base of this hypothesis the complement of manner of speaking verbs are islands as well. The reason is that the wh-extraction makes the sentences unacceptable or ungrammatical (examples 16&18). The analysis of Persian sentences show this type of verbs have some exceptions. We discuss it in the following examples. The following discussion is considered in a separate classification.

(28) a. U faryaad zad [ke Maryam rafte ast].
 He.NOM shout that Maryam go
 'He shouted that Maryam has gone.'
Presupposition → Maryam rafte ast
 Maryam go
 'Maryam has gone.'

b. U faryaad nazad [ke Maryam rafte ast].
 He not shout that Maryam go
 'He did not shout that Maryam has gone.'
Presupposition → Maryam rafte ast
 Maryam go
 'Maryam has gone.'

(29) U baa khodash zemzemeh nakard ke Maryam rafte ast.
 He.NOM.3 himself not murmur that Maryam go
 'He did not himself whisper that Maryam has gone.'

The negation test in example (28) shows the presupposition is the same in both sentences (28a & 28b). Manner of speaking verbs behaves similarly in this aspect (focus is on the complement). However, the focus is on the verb in the main clause as in example (29) the presupposition is not represented (cleared). When the speaker focuses on the verb zemzemeh nakard (didn't murmur) in a special context, it can convey other information and it shows 'the action that the person did not do'. Thus if the emphasis of the speaker is on the manner of speaking rather than the propositional content (complement clause), can transfer other information.

In example (29) speaker says this sentence to tell the listener that "he is not unhappy because she went or conversely "because of much sadness he does not say anything". The conclusion of the analysis is that the complement clause of factive verbs are islands.

In the *new way* of negation test, a pair of sentences can be negated. One of them is the negation form of the testable sentence (the main sentence) and the second one is the negation form of the complement clause of the first sentence. In this test the speakers should judge the relationship between these two sentences. If the speakers claim one sentence entails the second sentence, the complement clause consists of background knowledge. If the speakers don not feel this relationship; it means, the complement clause is not backgrounded (it is foregrounded). The fact is that the second sentences in examples (30b & 31b) are presuppositions. The relationship between the first and the second sentence refers to the backgroundedness in the complement clause.

(30) a. U faryaad nazad [ke Maryam rafte ast].
 He.NOM.3 not shout that Maryam go
 'He did not shout that Maryam has gone.'

b. Maryam narafitte ast.
 Maryam go not
 'Maryam has not gone.'

(31) a. Man fekr nemikonam [ke Maryam rafte baashad].
 I.NOM.1 not think that Maryam go
 'I don't think that Maryam has gone.'

- b. Maryam narafte ast.
Maryam not go
'Maryam has not gone.'

In the example (30) sentence *a* entails sentence *b*. In this example, the complement of the sentence is presupposition. The native speaker's judgment proves this fact. In example (31) there is no this relationship; that is, sentence *a* does not entail sentence *b*. The bridge verb like *fekr krđan* (to think) does not have any presupposition, because speaker does not exactly know that "*U rafte ast yaa na*" (whether she went or not).

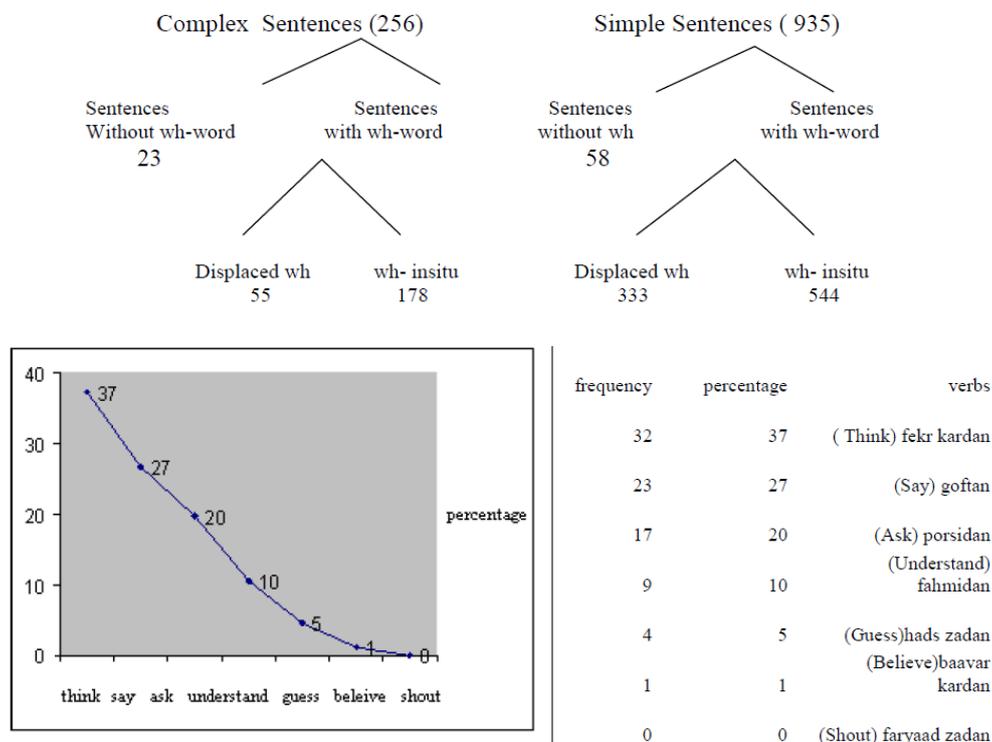
However, in the manner of speaking verb like *faryaad zadan* (to shout), this is "*U raft e ast*" (she has gone) is presupposed. Thus there is an entailment between (30a & b). Language studies prove this claim.⁵

These two tests showed the complements of factive verbs and manner of speaking verbs are islands and wh-extraction is not permitted. However, this case is not the same with the complement clause of bridge verbs. Thus wh-extraction is permitted from the complement clause of bridge verbs. Persian evidence shows wh-extraction from the complement clause of bridge verbs is more than the others. The accurate table and diagram will be represented at the end of this article as evidence. Some collected data from other languages confirm this claim⁶.

IV. CONCLUSION

To sum up this discussion, the classification of the verbs and their complements are necessary to extract the constituents in filler- gap constructions. The function of wh-constructions is related to information structure. The wh-extraction from the complement clauses of bridge verbs is acceptable. This type of complement is not an island (that is to consist of foregrounding knowledge). However, this extraction from the complement clauses of the verbs like factive and manner of speaking are not accepted (or less accepted). Their complement clauses are an island (included background knowledge).

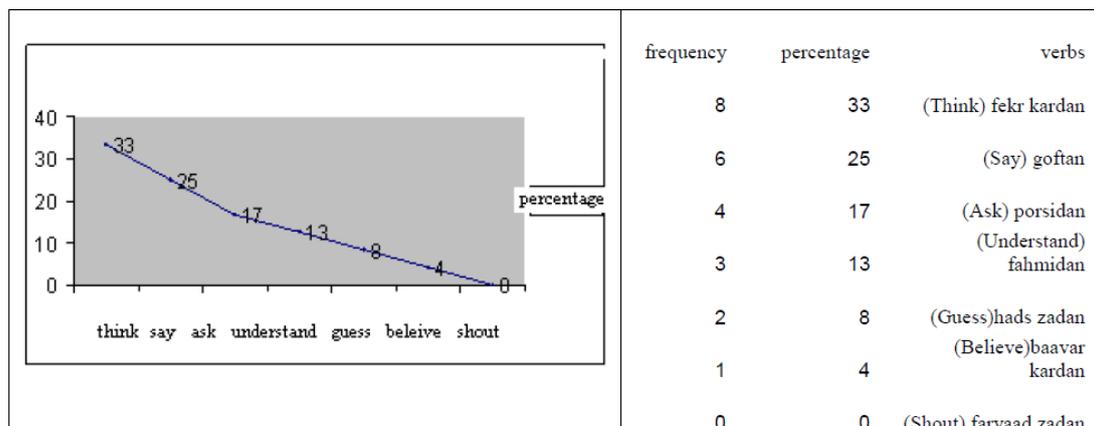
The frequency of Persian evidence confirm this claim that *wh-extraction is more from the complements of Bridge verbs*. From 1191 gathered in Persian, 256 are complex and 935 simple sentences. This statistical analysis shows the number of simple sentences is more than complex sentences. The frequency of wh-extraction from the complement of bridge verbs is more in comparison to other verbs in Persian.



⁵This assumption is not just considered in wh-words within the complement clauses. Language studies show, If *topic* in subject questions included new information, is not considered as presupposition. When a constituent is placed in focus domain, can not be omitted. Thus *Subject* can possess new (Lambrecht 1994: 274). For example: - *what happened? -The window was broken.* - * *was broken* (Ambridge and Goldberg 2008: 135) claims in the following example wh- word is a primary topic.- *Who is bald?* so primary topic and the constituents in the focus domain are not presupposition.

⁶ In Manchester Corpus 96 % of the constructions are included these verbs *fekr kardan* (to think) and *goftan* (to say) (Dabrowska 2004:197).In English and Poland languages 10 sentences out of 11 are made with *fekr kardan* (to think). The same evidence can be studied in (Poulsen 2006 in Ambridg and Goldberg2008).

The number and Frequency of the three types of verbs in Persian simple sentences with wh-in situ (bridge, factive and manner of speaking)



The number and Frequency of the three types of verbs in Persian complex sentences with displaced-wh (bridge, factive and manner of speaking)

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Quantitative Analysis of the Speech of the Teachers and Students in High School English Classroom—Based on Information Technology-based Interaction Analysis System*

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Abstract—Through the matrix quantitative analysis of the talk of the teachers and students in high school English classrooms, it indicates that in current English classroom teaching, the amount of the teachers' talk is still higher than that of the students in English classroom teaching, the ratio of indirect impact is higher than that of the direct ones, the ratio of pupil initiation is low and so on. In order to change the situation, it is suggested that English teachers should constantly update teaching ideology, highlight the subjectivity of the students in the classroom learning, constantly improve the classroom interaction, activate students' active thinking, increase the use of indirect impacts, develop the harmonious relationship between the teachers and students, stimulate the motivation of the students, ensure the smooth transition between the teaching procedures, and improve the efficiency of the English classroom teaching.

Index Terms—ITIAS, quantitative analysis, the speech of the teachers and students

I. INTRODUCTION

In Flanders Interaction Analysis System, the talk between the teacher and students is considered as the most important teaching behavior in classroom teaching, accounting for about 80 percent of all teaching behaviors (Flanders, 1970). English class is the core of the whole English teaching activities which are primarily conducted by speech. Speech act is the main teaching behavior in the class and its effectiveness is directly related to the overall effect of English teaching activities. New English Curriculum Standard puts forward new requirements for English teaching in China and whether it can be well applied in English classroom teaching by English teachers has become one of the heated topics among educational researchers.

The related literature reviews show that the majority of domestic empirical researches on verbal interaction between teachers and students focus on discussing their interactive activities. From the perspective of verbal interaction, the relevant research is still uncommon. Some researches focus on a certain specific teaching process such as questioning and feedback of the teacher (Hong, 2010) (Lin & Zhou, 2011). Some empirical researches study the classroom activities of disciplines in elementary school or the comparison of English and other subjects (Hu, 2011) (Zeng, 2005). This paper attempts to reveal the progress and shortcomings of the teachers brought about by the new curriculum standards, based on the classroom videos of four English teachers of different seniority in high school in L area and the quantitative analysis by ITIAS tool.

II. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION OF ITIAS

Flanders Interaction Analysis System (FIAS) (Moore, 1992) is the most famous example in the analysis of the classroom teaching behavior, put forward by an American expert on the classroom Ned • Flanders in 1960. It adopts ten types of behavior code to carry out the research of speech interaction between teachers and students and initiates quantitative research of the contemporary classroom observation. But it is no longer widely used in the later researches because it is found that there is less consideration to the teacher-student interaction and ignorance of the role of the media in the classroom. Chinese scholars Gu Xiaoqing and Wang Wei in East China Normal University made refinement and additions in 2004. Information Technology-based Interaction Analysis System (ITIAS) is the system improved, as is shown in Table 2-1. Although Gu Xiaoqing made improvements for Flanders Interaction Analysis

* This paper is one of the research results of the general project of the Humanities and Social Sciences of the Ministry of Education, "Linking-up of the middle school English education and English professional education in Normal universities" (Project Number: 11YJA880028) and Teaching Reform Project of Shanxi Normal University (Project Number: SD2013JGXM-17).

System, there is still some shortcomings in ITIAS coding system. Therefore, the author makes some adjustments and optimization on the basis of other research results.

The optimization and adjustments of other research results are as follows:

(1) Both the "response (active reaction)" in the original code 10 of ITIAS and "taking the initiative to ask questions" in the original code 11 emphasize students' initiative. The ninth type is defined as "students take the initiative to speak" according to the traditional FIAS.

(2) Considering that the students in the class can take the initiative to ask questions and the teachers will answer those questions, which is a kind of classroom teaching behavior. But it is not encoded in ITIAS. The teacher's answering the students' questions belong to the category of teachers affecting students directly, so this kind of teaching behavior is taken into account to encode.

(3) "thinking" in the original code 14 of ITIAS and "to do the exercises" in the original code 15 of ITIAS are beneficial to the silent teaching. Meanwhile, in the actual classroom teaching, these two kinds of behaviors in many cases are performed alternately, and thus they fall into the same category.

(4) "Teacher manipulating technology" in the original code 16 of ITIAS and "technology affecting students" in the original code 18 of ITIAS are mostly carried out simultaneously in the actual classroom teaching, thus merging into "Teacher manipulating technology" in the new code 14.

Classification		Code	Description
The speech of the teacher	Indirect impact	1	Acceptance of the feelings
		2	Encouragement and praise
		3	Adoption of the views
		4	Asking open questions
		5	Asking closed questions
	Direct impact	6	Imparting
		7	Instruction
		8	Criticism
The speech of the students		9	Answering (passive reaction)
		10	Taking the initiative to speak
		11	Discussion with the partner
Silence		12	Chaos which is not conducive to the teaching
		13	Silence which is conducive to the teaching
Technology		14	Teachers' controlling the technology
		15	Students' controlling the technology

III. THE RESULTS OF THE INTERACTION ANALYSIS OF THE TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN CLASS

A. Research Design

The research, each lesson is split into samples uninterruptedly every three seconds. Each sample is classified and encoded, which is convenient to use interactive matrix to analyze and obtain accurate data of the whole class teaching. Then it is adopted to describe the classroom activities. In view of this, the research is carried out in a key high school in Linfen City. All English teachers' teaching are recorded in this high school. According to different teaching ages (less than 5 years and more than 20 years), English class of four teachers (two novice teachers and two experienced teachers) are selected by random sampling to study. In this paper, the improved ITIAS classroom behavior code is employed and it is shown in Table 1.

For ease of expression, the element (fine grid) in each row and column of the matrix in ITIAS is called cell (i, j), the sum of each row is called Row (i) = , the sum of each column is called Col (j) = , and the sum of all elements (fine grid) of the matrix is called Total = .

B. Analysis

1) The analysis of the amount of the speech of the teachers and students in the classroom teaching

Classroom teaching is the basic approach and core of curriculum implementation. To implement the principle of student-centered and advocate the students to participate in the teaching activities, teachers must transform the traditional classroom teaching behavior which emphasizes the imparting of language knowledge. As the designer and organizer of the classroom teaching and helper for students, teachers should "make the students achieve objectives and enjoy success with the guidance of teachers by perception, experience, practice, participation and cooperation." according to the task-based teaching model advocated by the new curriculum standards.

TABLE 3-1
THE AMOUNT OF SPEECH IN THE CLASS AND SILENCE

	A	B	C	D
The amount of speech of the teacher	51%	51%	42%	47%
The amount of speech of the students	41%	37%	36%	40%
Silence	3%	2%	21%	9%
Silence which is conducive to the teaching	1%	1%	21%	7%

The amount of speech of the teachers and students in the classroom teaching reflects the proportion of classroom time, which to a large extent reveals who holds the initiative in the classroom. As can be seen from Table 2, the amount of speech of four teachers is larger than that of students. Wherein, the amount of speech of teacher A and teacher B is larger than that of teacher C and teacher D. Seen from video and data, teacher C and teacher D are experienced teachers, in the classroom teaching, they give more time to students for group discussions, presentation and other communicative activities. Therefore, the amount of speech of teacher C and teacher D is larger than that of novice teacher A and teacher B. In addition, from the perspective of the proportion of the total amount of speech of the teacher and students, the highest is the novice teacher A, accounting for 92% and the lowest is the experienced teacher C, accounting for 78%. Combining classroom videos and interviews, the author finds that the reasons are that the lack of teaching experience, fewer classroom activities and more initiative being in the hands of teachers. The experienced teacher C design group discussions, self-learning and other classroom activities.

Table 2 is the statistics for students' classroom quietness, which shows that the length of quietness of the experienced teacher is generally higher than that of the novice teacher. By watching the classroom video, the author finds the reasons include: 1) the teaching pace of novice teacher is past, leaving students short time to think independently, but that of experienced teacher is relatively slow, leaving students more time to discuss and think independently; 2) there is a period of time which is not conducive to teaching. For instance, student don't take the initiative to answer the teacher's questions or they cannot answer the questions quickly enough. In short, from the point of view of the amount of classroom speech, the amount of students' speech is smaller than that of teachers. The time occupied by teachers is more than that allocated to students, leaving little time for students to interact. In addition, quietness can be caused by the cohesiveness between activities, which needs to be further improved.

2) The analysis of the speech act of the teachers in classroom interaction

By observing classroom videos, the author finds that the interaction between teachers and students generally begins with teachers' questions and center on the questions. This part focuses on the teacher question ratio, question types, instantaneous teacher question ratio and indirect-to-direct ratio in the interaction. Teachers' questioning is a very effective way of interaction. The formula of teacher question ratio (TQR) is $Row(4) \times 100 \div \sum_{i=4}^5 Row(i)$. High TQR indicates that the teachers use questions to guide students to learn. As can be seen from Table 3, teacher question ratio of teacher A is the highest and that of teacher C is the lowest. The reason is that teacher C save more time to students with small amount of teacher's speech. In general, all subjects guide students to learn by asking questions, rather than only relying on teacher's imparting in the teaching. Teachers in Linfen City perform better in this regard.

TABLE 3-2
TEACHERS' QUESTIONING

	A	B	C	D
The ratio of teachers' questioning	17%	8%	6%	11%
The ratio of the open questions	30%	30%	30%	30%
The ratio of the closed questions	70%	70%	70%	70%
Instantaneous teacher question ratio	82%	80%	87%	76%
Indirect-to-direct ratio	75%	29%	29%	33%

With regard to the ratio of open questions and closed questions, "Foreign studies pointed out that when the complexity level of the behavior is lower, the best ratio of closed questions and open questions is 7: 3; when the complexity level of the behavior is higher, the best ratio of the two is 6: 4" (Gu & Wang, 2004, p.21). Four teachers' teaching are English reading class in high school with relatively low level of teaching design complexity. As can be seen from Table 3, the ratio of closed and open questions is 7: 3 in their teaching, which is reasonable.

The instantaneous teacher question ratio is the ratio of speech time when the students stop talking, the teacher immediately ask them questions to respond to students. The immediate speech of the teacher is directly related to his teaching (questioning and speaking) and in response to the students. The higher the ratio is, the more instantaneously the teachers ask students questions. The Norm is about 44% (Gao, 2007). Such kind of questioning is conducive to strengthen the meaningful instantaneous communication between teachers and students. The formula is

$$[\sum_{i=9}^{10} \sum_{j=4}^5 cell(i, j)] \times 100 \div [\sum_{i=9}^{10} \sum_{j=4}^6 cell(i, j)]$$
. Table 3 shows that the instantaneous teacher question ratios of the four teachers are higher than the norm value, which indicates that four teachers can use questioning instantaneously to offer feedback on the students' response and further guide students to think, thus reinforcing the students' meaning construction process in class learning.

Meaningful praise and encouragement can make students maintain good mood and motivation. In this paper, what the teacher indirect-to-direct ratio reflects is that "In the communication with students, teachers interact with students indirectly by accepting students' emotions, encouraging, praising and accepting students' opinions or interact with students directly by instructing, commanding and criticizing students". It is reflected by the ratio of 1-5 and 6-8 row in the matrix. If the data is more than 100%, it indicates that teachers' indirect interaction can guide students effectively to create harmonious relationship between the teacher and students (Jin & Gu, 2010). According to Flanders interaction

analysis theory, the formula is: $\sum_{i=1}^5 \text{Row}(i) \times 100 \div \sum_{i=6}^8 \text{Row}(i)$. As it can be seen from Table 3, the indirect impact of teacher A is closest to 100%. The indirect impact of the other three teachers is far less than 100%. Thus, the four teachers tend to mainly interact with students directly to guide students' behavior.

3) The analysis of the speech act of the teachers in classroom interaction

TABLE3-3
THE INTERACTIVE BEHAVIOR OF THE STUDENTS

	A	B	C	D
Student initiation ratio	10%	3%	1%	3%
Student discussion ratio	27%	28%	28%	0%

The ratio of discussion among students refers to the ratio of discussion among students and the whole amount of speech in class. Table 5 shows that, the four classroom teachers, the ratio of the students' interaction in Linfen City is more than 50% and that of Linfen towns is close to 50%, which shows that the teachers emphasize the students' group interaction and cooperation. In addition, the pupil initiation ratio refers to the ratio of time the students take the initiative to speak and the time of students' speech. The higher the data is, the more courageous the student is to take the initiative to express their views. The norm is about 34.^[10] And the formula is: $\text{Row}(10) \times 100 \div \sum_{i=9}^{10} \text{Row}(i)$. Table 4 shows that the pupil initiation ratios of the four teachers are significantly lower than the norm value, of which the lowest is the teacher C. It indicates that the students participate in classroom interaction with low initiative and the classroom interaction is mainly organized and controlled by teachers. Students' ability to think and participate in the teaching actively remains to be improved.

IV. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Through the quantitative analysis of classroom videos, it can be found that the four teachers basically abandoned the traditional teaching method of cramming, strengthened the teacher-student interaction to varying degrees, designed some tasks to organize group discussion, and emphasize the student-orientation in the classroom learning according to the new English curriculum standards. Thus implement the spirit of the English curriculum standards, that is to say, to truly cover the student-oriented development, to carry out effective English teaching, to develop their English communication ability on the basis of students' physical and mental health, there are still problems need to be improved. Specifically, it includes the following aspects:

a) Enhance students' subjectivity in classroom learning

Teaching ideology determines teaching behavior. In terms of the amount of speech of the teacher and the students in classroom teaching, the amount of speech of the teachers are larger than that of the students, of which that of the novice teachers is larger. This means that the teachers still dominate the teaching in the classroom. Therefore in order to implement the spirit of the new English curriculum standards and reflect the subjectivity of students, the teachers not only have good professional quality, but also need to change the teaching ideology. They should offer opportunities for the students to communicate and make the students really have more opportunities to use English in the class and encourage them to perceive, experience and practice in the application and ultimately master English communication skills by designing English learning tasks which are close to the students' life. The teachers should not replace students' learning experience with teachers' imparting for fear of students' making mistakes or affecting the progress of teaching, which may lead to the dislocation of the role of teachers and students. To solve these problems, the in-service training for teachers need to be strengthened to make teachers continue to absorb new teaching ideas and apply the advanced teaching ideology to guide the classroom teaching.

b) Improve classroom interaction and activate students' initiative thinking

English classroom teaching is the core of an enhancement of teaching quality and development of the students' ability. The main approaches of interaction between teachers and students and interaction among students are questioning and discussion. It can be found that there are mainly four types of problems in the classroom interaction between teachers and students: First, among the four teachers, only the teacher indirect-to-direct ratio of teacher A is close to 100% and that of the other three teachers is nearly 35%. These data indicate that most teachers tend to interact with students directly, which is not conducive to establish a harmonious relationship between teachers and students and stimulate students' enthusiasm; Secondly, the ratios of students taking the initiative to speak and raise questions are far below the norm, indicating that students mainly participate in the learning activities passively in the class without high active thinking.

The first problem is the ratio of direct impact is higher than that of the indirect impact. In general, the teachers instill the students with their own views and understanding directly in the communication between teachers and students. Meanwhile, the students are corrected directly. To solve these problems, firstly, the teachers must respect students and communicate with them equally. An equal, democratic and liberal environment should be created in the classroom teaching. The teachers should encourage the students to speak without being afraid of making mistakes. Secondly,

teachers should know that the errors are inevitable in the process of using the target language and different types of errors reflect the different stages in the language learning process. On the one hand, teachers can analyze these errors and design targeted activities to help students eliminate some interlanguage quickly and avoid fossilization; on the other hand, different types of errors should be treated differently in different stages of learning. In a communicative task, teachers and students should focus on the meaning rather than the form. Therefore, the errors which do not affect the mutual understanding do not need to be corrected immediately. Even though the errors need to be corrected immediately, they should be corrected in a tactful manner, avoiding direct manners such as instructions, orders and criticism. Teachers should help students learn to maintain good mood and motivation, relieve students' tension and anxiety and improve students' psychological mechanism with meaningful praise, encouragement, the adoption of students' opinions, the acceptance of the students' feelings and so on.

To increase the pupil initiation ratio and to improve the students' thinking in the class, questions should be provided in advance or arranged in other tasks before class, which allow students to preview with his own thoughts and problems found and then participate in the classroom learning process. Teachers should give the students opportunity to present their learning outcomes and question in the class. Teachers should use the task to guide students to think, propose more profound problems and open a new topic so that students truly become the subject of learning, and the teacher as the organizer, guide and helper, participate in classroom activities, avoid teachers' talking endlessly and students' passively listening and answering. Long period of quietness which is not conducive to teaching will inevitably affect the efficiency of teaching. To solve this problem, teachers should carefully design the teaching process and activities when they prepare for the class; check the teaching equipment before the class. They can provide plenty of opportunities for the students to take the initiative to speak, express themselves boldly and improve the participation of the students in the classroom with the introduction of interesting tasks in class, variations of the organization of classroom activities and improvement of the evaluation.

Although this research only selects the classroom videos of four English teachers of different seniority in the same school, the related data and classroom video show that with the continuous progress of English curriculum reform, English classroom teaching in high school has undergone great changes, but there are still many problems. To solve these problems, measures should be taken to continuously improve classroom teaching, truly implement the spirit of the English curriculum standards and develop the students' communicative ability. Of course, classroom teaching include many factors affecting students' learning outcomes and this research may provide some reference to solve the problems in the classroom teaching.

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The Interference of First Language and Second Language Acquisition

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Abstract—One of the most important and fascinating aspects of human development is language acquisition. The present review summarizes some difficulties that second language learners may face to learn English. It has tried to find out factors that play an important role in the acquisition of second language. It is a popular belief that first language has an effect on the second language acquisition, and it is claimed that L1 can interfere with the acquisition of L2. It is also believed that the role of L1 in the L2 depends on some similarities and differences between the two languages. The present review brings to the fore the similarities and differences between the first language and second language acquisition. It then concludes with some implications for teachers and researchers.

Index Terms—second language acquisition, interference, first language

I. INTRODUCTION

The language which is acquired during early childhood starting before the age of about 3 years is first language (Sinha, Banerjee, Sinha, & Shastri, 2009). First language has different names such as, mother tongue, native language and primary language (Sinha et al., 2009). A second language acquisition is needed for education, employment and other purposes, and it is typically an official or societal language (e.g. English).

A growing body of research was done on the first language transfer in second language acquisition. Almost all of the previous researchers believe that first language has interference in second language acquisition. For example, Karim and Nassaji (2013) investigated the first language transfer in L2 writing, and they found that when second language learners write in L2, their L1 has an effect on their writing. Fatemi, Sobhani and Abolhassan (2012) investigated the differences in consonant clusters orally in the first and second language, and pointed out if the structures of first and second language were different, learners have difficulty in L2 pronunciation because they faced to unfamiliar phonological rules, but Lord (2008) did the converse study; he investigated the different effects that L2 acquisition has on L1. He pointed out that learners who become a member of bilingual communities lose their L1.

There are two assumptions of contrastive analysis hypothesis: first the degree of difference between the two languages shows the degree of difficulty. Second, the degree of similarity shows the degree of simplicity. Therefore, if the two languages have more differences, it will be more difficult for learners and if the two languages have more similarities, it will be simpler for the learners (Hayati, 1998). Nation's (2001) research shows first language has small but important role to play to communicate meaning and content. The influence of first language on second language indicated low acquisition, and it can be reduced by natural intake and language use or it can be eliminated (Taylor, as cited in Krashen, 1981, p.67).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Acquisition of L2*

The only way a learner can start to communicate in a second language is the time a learner begins to assume word-for-word translation equivalence or it is thought that every L1 word has one translation in L2 by the learners (Blum-Kulka & Levenston, as cited in Bhela, 1999, p. 30).

When learners of second language want to write or speak in the target language, they tend to rely on their first language structures. If the structures are different, then a lot of errors occur in L1 thus this indicates an interference of first language on second language (Decherts & Dllis, as cited in Bhela, 1999, p. 22). Interference is the errors that can be traced back to the first language, while the learners use the second language (Lott, as cited in Bhela, 1999, p.22).

A learner has difficulties in second language such as phonology, vocabulary and grammar due to the interference of habits from L1 and L2 (Beardmore, 1982). Those errors that occur in learning of second language cause interference which are categorized as follows: 1. Developmental errors: the errors that are not related to learner's first language. 2.

Ambiguous errors: the errors that involve interference and developmental errors. 3. Unique errors: those errors which cannot be categorized neither in interference nor developmental errors. Interference is the result of old habits of the first language, and it must be unlearned before the learning of the new habits of second language (Dually, Burt, & Krashen, 1982).

Learners of second language tend to transfer the forms, meaning and culture of their L1 to the foreign language and culture when attempting to speak the language. By learning L2 habits, L1 habits are also transferred and then the errors occur (Beebe & Seliger, as cited in Nemati & Taghizadeh, 2006). Similarly Beardsmore (1982) suggests that if the learners have difficulty in phonology, vocabulary and grammar of L2, there are due to the interference of habits from L1.

Towell and Hawkins (as cited in Nemati & Taghizadeh, 2013, p.2479) point out that very few L2 learners become successful in achieving native speakers level, the majority of L2 learners cannot achieve native speakers level of ability.

Further, Dulay et al. (1982) showed that the path of second language acquisition is different from the acquisition of first language, but the errors of L1 and L2 learners are very similar. Selinker (1983) points out that there are two types of transfer in learning a second language: positive and negative transfer. In positive transfer, L1 facilitates the acquisition of second language, but in negative transfer the first language has negative impacts on L2 and interferes in L1.

As Odlin (1989) points out when negative transfer occurs, we can study learners with different native language and compare them to find out the effect of L1 in learning a second language. First language can be considered as a tool for language acquisition to solve learning and communication problems. Faerch and Kasper (1987) argued that transfer is a mental and communicative process through which L2 learners develop their inter language skills by activating and using their previous linguistic knowledge. Lord (2008) mentions that “while many researchers analyze the effect of second language acquisition on the first language, very few studies examine the converse situation.

The Merge Hypothesis of Fleg (1987, 2005) points out that “the merging of phonetic properties of phones that are similar in the L1 and L2 can potentially impact not only the acquired language but the native one as well”. For example, an English speaker with higher proficiency in Spanish can have problem both in English and Spanish. He pronounces Spanish with English characteristics, and he pronounces English words less English-like than a monolingual English speaker would. Learners who acquire an L2 cannot pronounce the words native-like both in L1 and L2. Thus there are 3 options for the learners: 1- They can preserve their L1, but they cannot achieve native-like L2 pronunciation. 2- They lose their L1 and achieve native-like L2 pronunciation. 3- They lose native-like pronunciation both in L1 and L2.

“One might think that with increasing skill, learners become more capable of functioning autonomously in the L2” (e.g. Segalowitz & Hulstijn, as cited in Sunderman & Kroll, 2006, p.388).

However, recent evidence that demonstrates parallel activation of words in both languages during visual and spoken word recognition suggests that acquiring proficiency in a L2 does not imply that the individual has acquired the ability to switch off the influence of the L1. (e.g. van Hell & Dijkstra; van Wijnendaele & Brysbaert, as cited in Sunderman & Kroll, 2006, p.388)

B. *L2 Acquisition of Child vs. Adult*

Researchers have found the relationship between the age and some aspects of the second language (Tohidian & Tohidian, 2009). As Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) find out, the age is an important factor in building a second language. Moreover, McLaughlin (as cited in Nemati & Taghizadeh, 2013, p.2477) suggests the optimal way to learn a second language is to learn two languages simultaneously at birth.

There are two parts that Lennenberg (1967) suggested for second language acquisition: firstly, normal language learning which occurs in childhood. Secondly, reaching the age of puberty. In this stage, brain loses its elasticity and reorganizational capacities which are necessary for language acquisition. At an early stage, in childhood, human can learn languages, if it is not done, it will reduce by the stage of puberty. In childhood the left hemisphere is more involved in language and speech than right hemisphere. After that in stage of puberty, the two hemispheres become quite specialized for function because the children have inability in transferring and recalling the vocabulary of the first language. This is the advantage for them in learning a language without interference from their first language.

Acquisition of second language before the age of about L2 has higher chance because lateralization is not completed yet. The performer's first language of adult's second language performance is the only major source for many years. (Lado, as cited in Krashen, 1981). Moreover, Lennenberg (1967) proposed that learners must acquire second language which acquire within childhood. Secondly reaching the age by puberty, that in this part brain loses its plasticity and reorganizational capacities necessary for language acquisition. Because the children have more flexible brain than adults, thus the children are superior to adults in learning a second language. They can learn language easily because the cortex of children is more plastic than older learners (Lennenberg, 1967; Penfield & Roberts, 1959).

When child efforts to express himself, his or her parents become happy and accept his bits of words. They understand what he says, they never correct a child's pronunciation or grammar, but the teacher in class does care what the students say, they always correct their sentences and that is why the class is not a real place compared with the conversation between mother and child (Nemati & Taghizadeh, 2013).

“The critical period for grammar may be later than for pronunciation (around 15 years).some adult learners , however may succeed in acquiring native levels of grammatical accuracy in speech and writing and evenfull linguistic competence” (Tohidian & Tohidian, 2009, p.12).

“For instance,the morpheme studies showed that the order of acquisition of a group of English morphemes was the same for children and adults”(Bailey, Madden, & Krashen, 1974). Adult L2 acquisition is very similar to child L1 acquisition as some researchers such as Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982) argued, and in this process L1 background of learners does not have any effect on L2. Adult language acquisition typically falls far short of native like competence. Various explanations have been proposed for this limited attainment, such as critical periods for language acquisition, socio cultural differences, motivational differences, and restricted input. It shows that “adults have difficulty in the associative learning of form-meaning relations in linguistic constructions”. (Ellis & Sagarra, 2010, p. 554)

C. *L1 Transfer in L2 Writing*

When the learners feel gaps in their L2 syntactical structures for writing in L2,they use syntactical structures of their first language (Bhela,1999).Where there are similarities between the structures of L1 and L2 because of lack of understanding of the learners in L1 an error occurs inL2 (Bhela,1999).

In L2 writing, transfer can be considered both as a learning device and as a strategy to solve communication problems (Karim & Nassaji, 2013).Language learners may use the L1 strategies in their L2 writing because of similarities in L1 and L2. If the learner’s knowledge of the target language is not enough, the learner relies on her or his L1 to express his or her idea and this reliance can be positive and negative (Karim & Nassaji, 2013). Ringborn (1987) points out the learners use L1 as a tool both for composing and for sampling the composing and for simplifying the complexity of the L2 writing task.

The examination of Lameta-Tufuga (as cited in Nation, 2001, p.3) shows that if learners have discussion in their first language before writing task in the second language, they can perform better in writing task in English because they have opportunity to fully understand the content of the task. Knight (as cited in Nation, 2001, p.3) also came to the similar findings. If the learners have a preparatory L1 discussion in groups, they can do much better in the L2 written task than the learners had a preparatory L2 discussion in group. Therefore, if learners want to gain a higher level of L2 performance, L1 plays a useful role in helping the learners. The L1 is a useful tool like other tools which should be used in learning L2 but should not be overused (Nation, 2001).

D. *Similarities of L1 and L2 Writing Strategies*

Many researchers studied the writing strategies of L1andL2 and found there are similarities between the two (Karim & Nassaji, 2013). When the writers with lower proficiency write in second language may not be able to easily transfer L1-based strategies, and they use their L1 source some matters, such as generating idea, monitoring and lexical-searching purposes. The L2 readers have access to their L1 and often use their L1 as a reading strategy (Carson & Carrel, as cited in Namati &Taghizade, 2013, p.2481).

Silva (1993) carried out an empirical study to scrutinize L1 and L2 writing. The participants of this study had a variety of conditions. At least 27 dissimilar L1s were represented. The participants were university students in the U.S. who had highly developed levels of English proficiency and showed an extensive range of levels of writing capability. Silva mentions that his study demonstrated that writers who were asked to do in L1 and L2 dedicated more concentration to producing fabric in L2 than in L1, and discovered content production in L2 more complex and less flourishing. A great deal of the materials produced in L2 were not used in the students' written text (Silva, 1993). Besides, Silva discovered that writers did less arrangement, at the comprehensive and restricted levels. Comprehensive level denotes that the writer is coping with the subject from a diversity of viewpoints. Limited level signifies that the writer is dealing with her syntactic and lexical alternatives in the background of her own written text. Based on Silva (1993), L2 writers did less aim-setting and had more trouble arranging produced material (the same writers did not have this trouble in L1). Generally, adult L2 writing was less effectual than L1 writing. Regarding lower level concern, L2 writing was stylistically diverse and less complex in formation. Although there are many differences in L1and L2 reading, Jiang (as cited in Nemati &Taghizade, 2013, p.2481) marked that if the learner has good educational background in L1 that their reading skills and strategies have developed, they apply these skills and strategies when they are reading in L2.

Matsumoto's (1995) investigation in Japan demonstrated that experienced EFL writers employ strategies like those employed by skillful native English speakers. An interview with four Japanese university instructors on their processes and strategies for writing a research article in English as a foreign language (EFL) was conducted. The participants of this study were researchers who held degrees in the humanities from universities in the U.S. and had published articles in both English and Japanese. All the participants began learning EFL at the age of 13. Results of the study discovered that the participants used the equal process and used the identical strategies across L1 and L2 writing.

An attractive discovery in this study demonstrates that all of the participants stated that they do not include L1-to-L2 translation into their research article writing processes, i.e., they do not write in Japanese initially and after that translate the text into English. Furthermore, participants' observation on writing in L1/L2 and writing ordinarily were alike. Matsumoto (1995) proposes that, there must be present something basically ordinary to any operation of writing, apart

from of the language, specifically, something non-linguistic, but cognitive-strategic that assisted writers to meet the objective of creating effectual and consistent writing.

As Bhela (1999) states that the learners rely on their native language when they want to produce a response in the target languages. A high frequency of errors occurs in L2 when the structures of two languages are different, so it indicates an interference of L1 on L2 (Dechert & Ellis, as cited in Nemati&Taghizade, 2013, p.2482).

III. EMPIRICAL STUDIES

Bhela (1999) studied the learner's writing as they either have young school-aged children who request some help with schoolwork from time to time. There were 4 participants in the study. Two sets of sequential pictures were given to them and were asked them to write a story beginning with the first picture and ending with the last picture. They must write individually without any group interaction initially and after an individual attempt, they can interact to each other if they wish. They must write in second language and then write the same story a second time in the native language. After that they were asked to write a story with second sets of picture both in English and native languages. This provided a broader base for the analysis of the errors made and provides a suitable sample of written performance. After the writing tasks, they explained why they use a specific structure in L1 and L2 in an individual interview. Four learners have errors in both their L1 and L2 text, found out by the analysis of the results. When an error made in L2, it shows a lack of understanding of L2 and the learners used the L1 form in L2 and making errors in L2. The learners used their structures to help them for their L2 texts, and it indicates a direct interference of L1 and L2. With the existence of similarities in L1 and L2, the learners use the L2 easily, without that, some difficulties may appear.

In Fatemi, Sobhani and Abolhassani's (2012) study, 30 female and male were chosen randomly from 3 classes at Qeshm and Mashhad Language Institutes whose age ranged between 18-30 years old. All of them were Persian native speakers and they were tested individually in a quiet room at first. In this study there were six sentences. Each sentence included at least two clusters and the total number of these clusters was fourteen. The students had to read the sentences. The researcher used MP4 to record learner's oral production and just the words recorded and described by the researcher to be analyzed then. "The order in all phonetic transcripts is as their phonemic transcripts in the sentences as follows: <prove>, <stole>, <strength>, <class>". The researcher concluded that the cause of Persian language learners' problem in pronunciation is the difference between the syllabic structure of Persian and English. When the Persian language learners learning English as a second language, faced with some syllables which are not present in their first language structure, thus they rely on their first language rules to solve this difficulties in this study. It was found that because of little or no similarities between the syllable structures of Persian and English language, the learners try to use their phonological knowledge of syllabic structure that already internalized which it cause an error in learning.

Alternatively, Lord (2008) conducted a study on second language acquisition and first language phonological modification. The participants of the study were 15 students, they are divided into experimental and control group. English monolinguals and Spanish monolinguals are in the control group and native English speakers with high proficiency in Spanish are in the experimental group. At first participants filled out a language background questionnaire and also asks for information regarding their language experience and use. After that recording of the tasks and reading out a list of isolated words are continued by them. The monolingual control groups performed tasks in their native language. But experimental group do it in both Spanish and English. The result at this study show that the effects of L2 interference in L1 are dependent on the amount of attention that the participants paying on their speech.

Jabbari and Samavarchi (2011) investigated syllabification of English consonant clusters by Persian learners. Children who were at the elementary state of SLA were chosen as the subjects of the study. They were engaged in an oral production task in which the terms told by the writer twice and children were asked to replicate the words independently. This assignment was recorded to observe if there was a resemblance between the first and the second replication. The results discovered that the learners syllabified syllable-initial clusters again when they employed epenthesis rather than removal, consequently one syllable was syllabified again into two (two-consonant clusters), three or four syllables. This was a negative transfer from Persian learners of English coming across trouble in pronunciation of primary consonant clusters because there are not primary consonant clusters in Persian. They add a vowel before the cluster or between that to pronounce it easier (Keshavarz, 2001). Consequently, primary consonant clusters are not permissible by Persian language (Yarmohammadi, 2002). At times, Persian speakers exclude one of the consonants of a closing cluster which is made of three consonants. It is another means to make hard consonant clusters simpler (Keshavarz, 2001).

IV. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This review was done to reveal the role of second language acquisition and the role of first language on it. It was found that first language has interference in second language. A lot of factors that cause interference were considered such as the similarities and differences in the structures of two languages, background knowledge of the learner, proficiency of learners on second languages, and the structures of consonant clusters in L1 and L2. If there are similarities in L1 and L2 the learners have less problems in acquisition of L2 and fewer errors may occur in L2, but if there are no or little similarities of the structure of first language and second language, learner is faced with a lot of

problems in L2 acquisition and it is not easy for them to learn. The previous studies showed that first language can have a negative or positive transfer on second languages. Where the structures of two languages are different, negative transfer occurs, and where the structures of two languages are similar, the positive transfer occurs and L1 facilitates the L2 acquisition, but as Lord (2008) pointed out, it was found that the acquisition of L2 can have an effect on L1. He stated when learners learn L2 cannot speak their L1 as a native. L1 information is active by reading or listening in L2 by bilinguals (e.g. Dijkstra & van Heuven, as cited in Sunderman & Kroll, 2006).

Mayberry (2007) stated the determining factor in the success of acquisition of L1 and L2 is the age of L1 acquisition.

It is of importance that the effects of age of L1 acquisition on both L1 and L2 outcome are apparent across levels of linguistic structure, namely, syntax, phonology, and the lexicon. The results demonstrated that L1 acquisition bestows not only facility with the linguistic structure of the L1 but also the ability to lean linguistic in the L2. (Mayberry, 2007, p.537)

“Oral CF research has been largely grounded in SLA theories and hypotheses, whereas written CF research has drawn on L1 and L2 writing composition theories” (Sheen, 2010, p.171).

It was found that many studies were done to find out the interference of L1 in L2, but a very few bodies of research was done to unearth the interference of L2 in L1. It is therefore suggested that more studies should be conducted to investigate to what extent the L2 influences L1 or how L2 acquisition can have an effect on the first language.

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Comparative Study on the Appraisal Resources of *China Daily's* Disaster News

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Abstract—This study compares the appraisal resources of the 1998 Shangyi earthquake reports and the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake reports collected from *China Daily*, examining whether there's improvement in disaster reporting. It finds that great changes have taken place over the 10 years. The most prominent changes are that the instances of Attitudinal and Engagement resources as well as the proportions of the Affect and the negative Attitudinal resources increased in the 2008 earthquake reports; moreover, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake reports are far more diversified. The changes implicate a development in the disaster reports of *China Daily*, i.e., an ordinary people oriented reporting strategy was adopted in the 2008 earthquake reporting; more civilian were concerned in the disaster reports; the traditional sheer positive reporting method has been abandoned and more attention has been paid to people's true feelings.

Index Terms—disaster news reports, appraisal resources, diachronic changes

I. INTRODUCTION

We live in a fragile world, fraught with the threat of disaster, looming like the sword of Damocles overhead (Ayan Sen, 2005). Each year, disasters like earthquake, landslides, volcanic eruptions, flood, cyclones and other catastrophic events kill thousands of people and destroy billions of dollars of property. Many countries that experienced disasters in the past attach great importance to the role of media. They say media can play a vital role in informing people of the latest news of disasters, facilitating governments' disaster-relief work and arousing people's sympathy towards victims. Some have gone as far as to call media a "vital arm of government" during disasters (Graber, 1984, p.286). This study, adopting Appraisal Theory, conducts a discourse comparison between two sets of English disaster news discourses taken from *China Daily*, the most dominant English newspapers in China, investigating whether there's any improvement in China's disaster reports in terms of appraisal resources. We hope to provide some insights into disaster reporting.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Disaster news, as one of the sub-varieties of news discourse, is now a hot research topic in Communication Science and has been studied mainly from the aspects like cross-cultural comparison (Quarantelli, E. L., Wenger, Dennis E., 1990, etc.), journalist ethics (Himmelstein H, Faithorn E P., 2002, etc.), journalist practice (Jason Roe, 2006, etc.) and political ideology in disaster news (Tian, 2008; Joye, S., 2009, etc.).

Unlike the prosperous situation in Communication Science, the disaster news discourses yet haven't drawn much attention from the linguistic field, let alone being studied from the perspective of the Appraisal Resources.

Appraisal theory is developed by Professor Martin and White. It is "concerned with evaluation: the kinds of attitudes that are negotiated in a text, the strength of the feelings involved and the ways in which values are sourced and readers aligned." (Martin & Rose, 2003, p.22). Up to now, only a few researchers have applied this theory in disaster news discourses. Wang Zhenhua (2004) applied the appraisal theory in the analysis of hard news. Since the news discourses he used in the study are disaster news reports on the earthquake which happened in China in 1998, it is actually a study on disaster news reports. He found that the linguistic device of Judgment is employed more than that of Affect and Appreciation in the earthquake news discourse. Although Wang's study adopts only one aspect (attitude) of the appraisal theory, it does introduce a new perspective for other researchers to study disaster news reports. Later, Ma Weilin (2007) analyzes a report about the earthquake in Pakistan in *New York Times* of October 9, 2005 from the material process and the three subsystems of the Appraisal Theory--Engagement System, Attitude System and Graduation System. Although the study is more elaborate and comprehensive than Wang's study, the limitations cannot be ignored, e.g. the small data size and the simplified analysis, etc. Most importantly, like Wang's study, Ma's study also merely dedicates to finding out the appraisal resources underlying the "objective" disaster news reports and has done no further exploration, let alone put forward any suggestions on disaster news writing. Wu Qianqian (2009), adopting quantitative and qualitative methods, studies the Affect resources (a sub-system within Attitude system of appraisal theory) of six feature stories taken from *China Daily's* 2008 Wenchuan earthquake reports. She finds that the Affect resources do not influence the objectivity of the feature story. She also discovers that the news writers prefer positive and non-authorial Affect in the feature story about the earthquake and some Affect resources are used more

frequently than others. In addition, she explores the functions of the Affect resources in the disaster news reports. Wu's study is far more intensive and profound than the previous studies, but it ignores the other aspects of the appraisal system and fails in explaining why these discourses have such appraisal features.

From the literature review, it can be clearly seen that the previous studies have done some work on the disaster news reports, but there're still lots of questions to be answered and many unknown areas to be explored. This paper is trying to answer such questions as whether there is any attitude in disaster news reports; if any, how the news writers convey their attitudes and how intense their attitudes are. In order to answer these questions, the Appraisal Theory will be adopted in this study.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. Theoretical Framework

This study adopts the Appraisal theory which deals with the linguistic resources that are used to express, negotiate and naturalize particular inter-subjective relationship and ideological positions. The Appraisal theory encompasses three sub-systems, namely, Attitude, Engagement and Graduation. Attitude is concerned with our feelings, including emotional reactions, judgments of behaviors and evaluation of things. Engagement considers how writers/speakers convey their point of view and how they align themselves with respect to the position of others. Graduation attends to grading phenomena whereby feelings are amplified and categories blurred (Martin & White, 2008, p.35). The Appraisal system with its sub-systems is outlined in Figure 3.1 below. Each of these sub-systems has its own sub-categories or options, and all these options are semantic ones that transcend diverse lexical-grammatical structures.

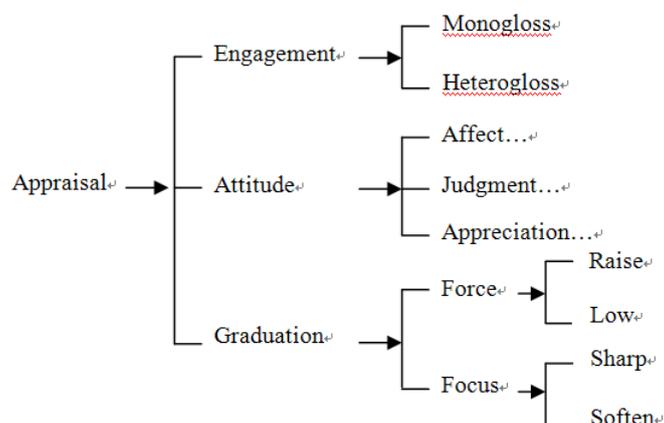


Figure 3.1 An overview of Appraisal resources (Martin & White, 2008, p.38)

The three sub-systems of the Appraisal theory adopted in the study can be perfectly used to answer the three research questions. The Attitude system is adopted to reveal the attitudinal meaning conveyed in *China Daily's* disaster news reports, the Engagement system to explore by what means the attitudinal meaning and the writers' or speakers' point of view are negotiated and the Graduation system to show how the attitudinal meaning and the writers' or speakers' point of view are graded.

B. Data Collection

China Daily is regarded as one of China's most influential English media. It is the only national English Newspaper in China, the only one that has entered the western mainstream society and the only one that has been quoted by foreign news presses so far¹. The current study selects 20 news discourses about natural disasters from it (10 are the news reports of the Shangyi earthquake in 1998; and the rest are the news reports of the Wenchuan-earthquake in 2008). The 20 texts are not random selection; they all meet the following criteria:

1. The news discourses are sequential front-page reports on the same disaster.
2. The contents of the discourses only appear on the front page without considering the rest on other pages.

C. Analysis Methods

Both quantitative and qualitative approaches are involved in this study. The quantitative approach is adopted to study the distribution and frequencies of Appraisal resources in the two data. In order to make the quantitative study more scientific and efficient, a computer-assisted discourse analyzing software----UAM Corpus Tool 2.36 will be adopted in data analysis. UAM Corpus Tool is a set of tools developed by Mick O'Donnell for the linguistic annotation of text and images. It can provide some basic statistics and some research tools for the statistical results.

¹ Introduction to *China Daily*. http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/static_c/gyzgrbwz.html (accessed 7/3/2015)

Inter-rater reliability was addressed by having a research assistant code 4 of the 20 reports, 2 from each data. The percentages of agreement between the two coders for the 4 reports were 89% and 88% respectively, which is an acceptable level of agreement.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS OF THE DISASTER NEWS DISCOURSE

This section reports on the results of the analysis. First, it gives a comprehensive comparison of the data in a systematic and statistical way. Then it presents some sample analysis of the data. Besides, some necessary discussions are also provided in this section.

A. Attitude Analysis

An Attitude analysis includes values of emotional response (Affect), values by which human behavior is socially assessed (Judgment), and values which address the aesthetic and socially valued qualities of objects, entities and natural phenomena (Appreciation). As the core system of Appraisal, Attitude plays a crucial role in negotiating solidarity by showing other people our attitudes towards things and people, and thus making people respond to the viewpoints and get involved in the ongoing interaction (Martin, 2004). Below is a detailed distribution of the attitudinal resources.

TABLE 4.1
DISTRIBUTION AND RATE OF THE ATTITUDINAL RESOURCES

Feature	Wenchuan earthquake reports			Shangyi earthquake reports		
	number	percentage	rate	number	percentage	rate
Affect	24	20.51%	0.5	6	10.71%	0.1
Judgment	62	52.99%	1.3	36	64.29%	0.7
Appreciation	31	26.50%	0.7	14	25.00%	0.3

As shown in Table 4.1, there's a strong contrast between the two sets of discourses: the rate (appraisal items per 100 words) of the attitudinal resources in the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake reports is obviously higher than that in the 1998 Shangyi earthquake reports. This means attitudinal resources are more frequently employed in the 2008 earthquake news reports and a humanistic reporting strategy rather than a mere cold description was adopted.

Next, we will examine the Affect resources, Judgment resources and Appreciation resources in detail. Martin and White (2008) argue that it is useful to note the source of the Attitude (who is judging or appreciating, normally we interpret speakers and writers as the source of evaluations, unless Attitude is projected as the speech or thoughts of an additional appraiser) and what is appraised (who is judged and what is appreciated). Therefore, the appraisers and the appraised are also within the concern of the analysis.

1. Analysis of Affect Resources

Affect itself involves different kinds of feeling, ways of realization, people who have emotions and the things or people that cause the emotions. Martin & White (2008) call the conscious participant experiencing the emotion an Emoter, and the phenomenon responsible for that emotion a Trigger. This paper follows Martin and White (2008), treating the emoter as the appraiser, and the trigger of the emotion as the appraised. A summary of the analysis is presented in Table 4.2 below.

TABLE 4.2
SUMMARY OF THE AFFECT ANALYSIS

Feature	Wenchuan earthquake reports		Shangyi earthquake reports	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
Affect-TYPE				
happiness	13	54.17%	1	16.67%
security	4	16.67%	0	0.00%
satisfaction	6	25.00%	4	66.67%
inclination	1	4.17%	1	16.67%
POLARITY				
positive	14	58.33%	6	100.00%
negative	10	41.67%	0	0.00%
EXPLICITNESS				
inscribed	24	100.00%	6	100.00%
invoked	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
APPRAISER-TYPE I				
authorial	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
non-authorial	24	100.00%	6	100.00%
APPRAISER-TYPE II				
officials	10	41.67%	6	100.00%
non-officials	14	58.33%	0	0.00%

Table 4.2 reveals striking differences between the two sets of news reports. First, the Affect resources in the 2008 Wenchuan earthquake news reports are far more various and abundant than that of the 1998 Shangyi earthquake reports. All the four kinds of Affect can be found in the earthquake reports while only three kinds of Affect in the 1998

earthquake reports; the un/happiness type, in particular, shows a strong contrast; there are 13 un/happiness resources in earthquake reports while only one in the 1998 earthquake reports. In addition to the type of Affect, the polarity also displays a big difference; in the 1998 earthquake reports, all the Affect resources are positive, on the contrary, nearly half of the Affect resources are negative in the 2008 earthquake reports. This implicates that news writers pay more attention to people's true feelings rather than just reporting positive aspects. When it comes to the appraisers of these Affect resources, though all the Affect resources are non-authorial, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports are more diversified than that in the 1998 earthquake reports ---- all the appraisers are government leaders in the 1998 earthquake reports while the non-official appraisers account for 58.33% in the 2008 earthquake news reports. This indicates that common people are paid more attention by public media at present than before.

In order to better describe the Affect analysis, some sample analyses are given below, which demonstrate how the Affect resources are identified in the text.

[1] He told the villagers: "I know some of your family and friends have died. We are deeply **saddened** (*attitude; affect; -happiness*). Some people are still trapped. We will do our utmost to rescue them."

In the above example, the Affect resource "*saddened*" is cited from the speech of Premier Wen Jiabao. The news writer puts the speech here in order to tell the victims that the government and other people are deeply concerned about them. "*Saddened*" is used to show that he (Premier Wen Jiabao) and other people are very sad to see the disaster and what the disaster has caused. The emotion embodied in the word "saddened" can be ascribed to that of unhappiness. Since the word "*saddened*" is quoted from Premier Wen Jiabao's speech rather than the writer's own comment/opinion. Therefore, "*saddened*" can be regarded as the non-authorial and negative Affect.

[2] "We are very **happy** (*attitude; affect; +happiness*). We have been standing here shouting for two days," said Pan Jianjun, a relative. "We are so **grateful** (*attitude; affect; +satisfaction*) to the rescuers and the government."

In example [2], Pan Jianjun is a relative of the rescued person Zhang Xiaoyan. The word "*happy*" reveals Pan Jianjun and other people's excitement and happiness when they see Zhang Xiaoyan and her mother being successfully rescued. It can be ascribed to the sub-category of happiness. The word "*grateful*" shows Pan and other people's feeling of appreciation to the rescuers and the government. It can be ascribed to the sub-category of satisfaction. Since "*happy*" and "*grateful*" are both quoted from Pan's words, not the writer's own comment/opinion, they can be regarded as the non-authorial and positive Affect.

2. Analysis of Judgment Resources

With Judgment we move into the region of meaning construing our attitudes to people and the way they behave—their character (how they measure up). Disaster news reports undoubtedly involve people like victims, rescuers, the government leaders and etc. therefore, it is impossible for the reporters to avoid making judgments on these people involved, either directly or indirectly. Table 4.3 below shows a summary of the analysis.

TABLE 4.3
SUMMARY OF THE JUDGMENT ANALYSIS

Feature	Wengchuan earthquake reports		Shangyi earthquake reports	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
JUDGMENT-TYPE				
social-esteem	45	72.58%	24	66.67%
social-sanction	17	27.42%	12	33.33%
ESTEEM-TYPE				
normality	1	2.22%	1	4.17%
capacity	13	28.89%	7	29.17%
tenacity	31	68.89%	16	66.67%
SANCTION-TYPE				
veracity	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
propriety	17	100.00%	12	100.00%
POLARITY				
positive	48	77.42%	24	66.67%
negative	14	22.58%	12	33.33%
EXPLICITNESS				
inscribed	10	16.13%	2	5.56%
invoked	52	83.87%	34	94.44%
APPRAISER-TYPE				
authorial	35	56.45%	36	100.00%
non-authorial	27	43.55%	0	0.00%
APPRAISED-TYPE				
earthquake	12	19.35%	12	33.33%
government	18	29.03%	7	19.44%
others	32	51.62%	17	47.23%

As shown in Table 4.3, in the 1998 earthquake reports, all the appraisers are news writers. In contrast, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports are far more diversified, many people's Judgment other than the news writers' are attributed. As to the appraised items, there are much more judgments on the government's and other individuals' performances during the disaster time in the 2008 earthquake news reports than the 1998 earthquake reports. These

differences implicate that the coverage range of the 2008 earthquake news reports is bigger than that of the 1998 earthquake reports and the reporting perspective gradually turns to civilians.

In order to better describe the Judgment analysis, some sample analyses are given below, which demonstrate how the Judgment resources are identified in the text.

[3] Rescuers were last night racing against time (*attitude; judgment; +tenacity; invoked*) to find survivors a day after the strongest quake to hit China in 32 years jolted Sichuan province, demolishing buildings and burying tens of thousands beneath the rubble. (*attitude; judgment; -propriety; invoked*)

The underlined part “racing against time” is used to show that the rescuers were trying their best to save people; it invokes the readers’ positive evaluation towards the rescuers (how brave and hardworking they are), and therefore, it can be regarded as positive and invoked Judgment; within the underlined part “demolishing buildings and burying tens of thousands beneath the rubble”, though there’s no direct criticism towards the earthquake, it does invoke the readers’ negative attitude towards the earthquake (how bad and evil the earthquake is). Therefore, it can be regarded as negative and invoked Judgment.

[4] He described such siphoning of relief materials as “extremely despicable”. (*attitude; judgment; -propriety; inscribed*)

Not long after the earthquake, some Internet users posted pictures showing tents earmarked for disaster relief, including some donated by foreign countries, put up in luxurious residential communities in Chengdu. The underlined part “despicable” is quoted from the speech of Chen Kefu, Deputy Head of Sichuan’s civil affairs bureau. It is used to directly show Chen’s negative attitude towards those who siphon relief materials (how selfish they are). Since “despicable” is quoted from the speech of Chen Kefu rather than the news writer’s own comment/opinion, it can be regarded as negative, inscribed and non-authorial Judgment.

3. Analysis of Appreciation Resources

This section will be devoted to the analysis of Appreciation which looks at resources for construing the value of things, including natural phenomena and semiosis (either product or process). According to Martin and White (2008), Appreciation can be divided into our ‘reaction’ to things (do they catch our attention; do they please us?), their ‘composition’ (balance and complexity) and their ‘value’ (how innovative, authentic, timely, etc.). Like Affect and Judgment, the appraisers and the appraised of the Judgment resources are also noted in this section. The statistical results are summarized in Table 4.4 below.

TABLE 4.4
SUMMARY OF THE APPRECIATION ANALYSIS

Feature	Wengchuan earthquake reports		Shangyi earthquake reports	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
APPRECIATION-TYPE				
reaction	4	12.90%	0	0.00%
composition	11	35.48%	3	21.43%
valuation	16	51.61%	11	78.57%
POLARITY				
positive	20	64.52%	10	71.43%
negative	11	35.48%	4	28.57%
EXPLICITNESS				
inscribed	31	100.00%	13	92.86%
invoked	0	0.00%	1	7.14%
APPRAISER-TYPE				
authorial	9	29.03%	6	42.86%
non-authorial	22	70.97%	8	57.14%

Table 4.4 reveals some differences between the two sets of disaster news. First, there’re 4 instances of reaction resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports while there’s no reaction resources at all in the 1998 earthquake reports. Second, the 2008 earthquake news reports possess more negative Appreciation resources than the 1998 earthquake reports. Third, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports are more diversified; the proportion of the non-authorial Appreciation resources is higher than the proportion in the 1998 earthquake news reports. These differences implicate that on the one hand, reporters were more skillful in dealing with the attitudinal resources in 2008 earthquake reports. On the other hand, the true opinions and feeling of people involved in the disaster were preferred in the 2008 reports, which was more likely to arouse sympathy within audience.

In order to better describe the Appreciation analysis, some sample analyses are given below, which demonstrate how the Appreciation resources are identified in the text.

[5] Lifeline (*attitude; appreciation; +valuation; inscribed*) to epicenter opened.

The buckled roads and collapsed bridges caused by the quake hindered the rescue work since it prevented the delivery of disaster relief materials to the epicenter of Wenchuan. Therefore, a road which can ensure faster delivery of disaster relief materials to the epicenter of Wenchuan seems very important. In the above example, the underlined word “lifeline” is used to show how important, how valuable the road that connects the epicenter to the outside world is. It

belongs to the sub-category of valuation. The appraiser, though there is no clear source mentioned, is the news reporter him/herself. Therefore, “*lifeline*” can be regarded as positive, inscribed and authorial Appreciation.

[6] “Within 72 hours after the disaster is the *critical* (*attitude; appreciation; +valuation; inscribed*) period. Generally, the sooner the victims are rescued, the better,” Liang Guiping, the chief engineer of Shijiazhuang Bureau of Seismology, told CCTV.

After the 5.12 earthquake, many people, including police, firefighters, the PLA and many other rescuers were racing against time to save victims since the sooner they are rescued, the bigger chance they can survive. In the above quotation, the word “*critical*” is used by the speaker to stress the valuation (or importance) of the time period of within 72 hours after the earthquake. Since it is quoted from the speech of Liang Guiping, therefore, it can be regarded as positive, inscribed and non-authorial Appreciation.

B. Engagement Analysis

In the previous section, attitudinal resources are dichotomized in terms of authorial and non-authorial. In fact, authorial/non-authorial belongs to the Engagement category. Engagement resources are used to adjust and negotiate the agreeability of the speaker's or the writer's utterances. The use of such resources can be considered as an interpersonal strategy to realize the alignment or disalignment with the ideal audiences or readers by the speaker or the writer. This section is concerned with the Engagement devices and the ways they contribute to the expansion and contraction of heteroglossic space, namely, the room for mediating the multiple voices in a text. Table 4.5 below is a summary of the distribution of the Engagement resources in the two sets of texts.

TABLE 4.5
SUMMARY OF THE ENGAGEMENT ANALYSIS

Feature	Wengchuan earthquake reports		Shangyi earthquake reports	
	number	percentage	number	percentage
ENGAGEMENT-TYPE				
mono-glossic ²	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
hetero-glossic	193	100.00%	122	100.00%
HETERO-GLOSSIC-TYPE				
contract	37	19.17%	20	16.39%
expand	156	80.83%	102	83.61%

Table 4.5 shows that there's no big difference between the distributions of Engagement resources of the two data. The proportion of dialogic expansive resources is higher than that of the dialogic contractive resources (contractions account for 19.17% and 16.39% while expansions account for 80.83% and 83.61%); the prevalent expand values are the salient feature of disaster news discourses of *China Daily*, which indicates that the news writers tend to attribute or entertain other voices or stances rather than to challenge, fend off or restrict other voices or stances.

In order to better demonstrate the analysis of the Dialogic Expansive resources, some sample analyses are presented below.

[7] Death toll hits 8,500, *likely* (*engagement; expand; entertain*) to rise. (2008 May 13th)

In example [7], the word “*likely*” is used by the news writer to express the negotiability of the proposition. The news writer gets prepared to recognize the contrary proposition that “the death toll will not rise”. Thus, the dialogic space is expanded. In this way the news writer allows dialogically alternative opinions and provides for the possibility of solidarity with those readers who hold this opposite proposition. Therefore, “*likely*” can be regarded as Entertain resource.

[8] Many people *were believed* (*engagement; expand; entertain*) to be under the debris. (2008 May 14th)

In example [8], the use of “*were believed*” places the proposition “Many people were under the debris” in one of the possible propositions. That is to say, by employing “*were believed*”, the news writer presents the proposition as individualized and admits that there may be other people who will not fully share his/her points of view on this matter. From this perspective it can be seen that this resource is dialogic; it makes allowance for a dialogic background for alternative propositions. Therefore, it can be regarded as Entertain resource.

[9] *Premier*: (*engagement; expand; attribute; acknowledge*) Quake adds uncertainties to economy (2008 May 22nd)

In the above example, by the use of: (*colon*), the news writers simply reports the words and viewpoints of Premier Wen Jiabao. Thus, the textual voice can refer to the opinion “*Quake adds uncertainties to economy*” neutrally without expressing the news writer's attitude. In this way, the news writer indicates that the opinion is individual and contingent and therefore but one of a range of possible dialogic options. The colon here can be regarded as Attribute resource.

C. Graduation Analysis

In the previous sections, we analyzed the attitudes invested in the disaster news reports and how the news writers negotiate these attitudes. This section will be concerned with the ways in which the news writers up-scale or down-scale the attitudes---Graduation. Graduation covers two subcategories: Force and Focus. Force interacts with Attitude to either increase (turn up Attitudinal meanings) or decrease (turn down Attitudinal meanings) the ‘volume’ of that

² Mono-glossic is not discussed in this thesis; therefore the occurrence is not counted.

Attitude. It includes two sub-categories----intensification and quantification. By the employment of Force resources, the news writers can easily turn up or turn down the Attitudinal meaning embedded in the news discourses. Upscaling of Attitude frequently acts to construe the speaker/writer as maximally committed to the value position being advanced and hence as strongly aligning the reader into that value position. Downscaling, in the opposite, frequently has the obverse effect of construing the speaker/writer as having only a partial or an attenuated affiliation with the value position being referenced. Focus can either sharpen the specification of the graduated terms so that prototypicality is indicated or to soften the specification of the graduated terms so as to characterize an instance as having only marginal membership in the category. When the term being graduated under Focus is non-attitudinal, instances of sharpening often strongly flag a positive attitudinal assessment while instances of purported marginality a negative assessment. When the term being graduated is already explicitly attitudinal, instances of sharpening usually have the effect to indicate maximal investment by the authorial voice in the value position being advanced while instances of softening have the effect to indicate a lessening of the speaker/writer's investment in the value position. A summary of the analysis of Graduation resources in the two sets of disaster news reports is presented below in Table 4.6.

TABLE 4.6
SUMMARY OF THE GRADUATION ANALYSIS

	Wengchuan earthquake reports		Shangyi earthquake reports	
Feature	number	percentage	number	percentage
GRADUATION-TYPE				
force	261	100.00%	292	100.00%
focus	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
FORCE-TYPE				
quantification	221	84.67%	239	81.85%
intensification	40	15.33%	53	18.15%
QUANTIFICATION-TYPE				
number	178	80.54%	210	87.87%
mass/presence	8	3.62%	5	2.09%
extent	35	15.84%	24	10.04%
INTENSIFICATION-TYPE				
quality	31	77.50%	46	86.79%
process	9	22.50%	7	13.21%
POLARITY				
up-scale	235	90.04%	269	92.12%
down-scale	26	9.96%	23	7.88%

Table 4.6 reveals that there's no big difference in Graduation resources between the two sets of disaster news reports. In both news texts, all the Graduation resources are Force resources, besides, the up-scale Graduation resources are preferred by the news writers rather than down-scale resources. Within the category of Force, quantification resources far outnumber intensification resources; and within the sub-category of Intensification, quality resources outnumber process resources. In addition, the massive use of figures or numerical expressions (178 and 210 instances respectively) is another distinct feature of the two sets of disaster news reports.

In order to better demonstrate the analysis of the Graduation resources, some sample analyses are presented below.

[10] He described such siphoning of relief materials as "*extremely* (graduation; force; intensification; up-scale) despicable". (2008 May 24th&25th)

In example [10], the up-scaling resource "*extremely*" construes the speaker as maximally committed to the community of shared value which regards siphoning of relief materials negative. This value position is going to guide the readers toward one interpretation (the behavior of siphoning relief materials is despicable), hence fending off other possible contraries since the interpersonal costs will be added when trying to make other contrary interpretations. The word "*extremely*" is a quotation that indicates the writer aligns the readers indirectly.

[11] Officials also said they have been cracking down on price-gouging in quake-affected areas after *some* (graduation; force; quantification; down-scale) businesses were caught overcharging for goods. (2008 May 24th&25th)

In the above example, "*were caught overcharging for goods*" can arouse readers' negative attitude towards businesses. This will perhaps cause tension between the news writer and some news readers (e.g. those good businessmen). When reporting this unfavorable and negative news, the linguistic means of "*some*" is chosen to tune down the interpersonal force, which reaches the effect of establishing a harmonious relationship between the news writer and news readers since it indicates that this phenomena is individual.

V. DISCUSSIONS

The data comparison reveals that the disaster news reports in *China Daily* experienced some changes over a period of 10 years from 1998 to 2008.

First, more Attitudinal resources are invested in the 2008 earthquake reports than the 1998 earthquake reports. Within these Attitudinal resources, the Affect resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports are far more various and abundant than that of the 1998 earthquake reports. All the four kinds of Affect can be found in the 2008 earthquake reports while

only three kinds of Affect in the 1998 earthquake reports. The un/happiness type, in particular, shows a strong contrast; there are 13 un/happiness resources in 2008 earthquake reports while only 1 in 1998 earthquake reports. In addition to the type of Affect, the polarity also displays a big difference; in the 1998 earthquake reports, all the Affect resources are positive, on the contrary, nearly half of the Affect resources are negative in the 2008 earthquake reports. When it comes to the appraisers of these Affect resources, though all the Affect resources are non-authorial, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports are more diversified than that in the 1998 earthquake reports ---- all the appraisers are government leaders in the 1998 earthquake reports while the non-official appraisers account for 58.33% in the 2008 earthquake news reports. As to the Judgment resources, all the appraisers in the 1998 earthquake reports are news writers, on the contrary, the appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports are far more diversified, many people's Judgment other than the news writers' are attributed; and the 2008 earthquake news reports make more judgments on the government's performances and other individuals during the disaster time than the 1998 earthquake reports. As to the Appreciation resources, there're 4 instances of reaction resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports while there's no reaction resources at all in the 1998 earthquake reports; the 2008 earthquake news reports possess more negative Appreciation resources than the 1998 earthquake reports; the appraisers of Appreciation resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports are more diversified than that of in the 1998 earthquake reports.

Second, more Engagement resources are adopted in the 2008 earthquake news reports than the 1998 earthquake reports. Within the Engagement resources, the Attribute resources, especially the acknowledge resources, in the 2008 earthquake news reports far outnumber those in the 1998 earthquake reports; the Disclaim resources, especially the sub-category of Counter resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports obviously outnumber those in the 1998 earthquake reports.

In fact, the disaster news reports are ever changing along with the development of the society. According to Wang (2008) who has systematically studied the disaster news reports in China over the past 60 years, the disaster news reports in China can be divided into three periods.

The first period is from 1949 to 1978. Since the founding of the Republic of China, Chinese government had required the news media to be prudent of reporting disaster news in consideration of social and political stability. If there's any report on disasters, they must be positive publication of the achievements attained in struggling against disasters. The purely objective coverage of disasters was prohibited at that time. During this period, China's principle for reporting disaster news was to highlight the revolutionary heroic spirit, praise the Party and Chairman Mao's care, pay a tribute to mankind's victory of overcoming disasters, stress moral enlightenment and always report disasters from the perspective of how people overcome disasters in order to fully praise the human spirit and strength.

The second period is from 1978 to 2002. After the Third Session of the Eleventh Central Committee of the CPC which was held in December 1978, China began to reform and open up to the outside world and build democracy and legal system. The introduction of the concept of "Information" reconfirmed the function of news paper as to disseminate information. The coverage of disasters, once regarded as a "forbidden zone" and "minefield", acquired a certain degree of liberation. A reporting series which includes brief message at the beginning of the disaster and depth follow-up reports had formed at that time, which enabled news reporters to present the reality in a complete and comprehensive way. China's principle for reporting disaster news was to pursue the time effectiveness of news and focus on the audience's right to know. Disaster news coverage at that time no longer remained in the stage of stressing the moral significance of news, but rather into the level of pursuing the value of information.

The third period is from 2002 up to now. The 16th NCCPC was held in November 2002, after which the CPC Central Committee put forward and upheld the "people-oriented" concept of governance. 2003 is an extraordinary year for news dissemination, the rampant SARS pushed Chinese journalists to the huge catastrophic events. The spread of SARS crisis became a historical turning point for reporting disaster news. During this period the principle for reporting disaster news is to get constant breakthroughs in restricted areas and strive to make information transparent.

The three periods actually reflect the three development stages of China's disaster news reports. The 1998 earthquake reports are at the second stage while the 2008 earthquake news reports at the third stage. Under different principles for reporting disaster news, there would surely be some changes in reporting disaster news. For example, the reporting objects and approaches. Attitude, as an ideological element within news reports, is impossible to stay intact from the influence. Now, it's clear what cause the changes. Next, this paper will try to explain the implications of the changes.

Yang (2003) argues that the realization of news value includes perception of events, experience of emotion and communication of information. He explains that the emotion of news text is often twofold: First, the news itself contains emotion. News, especially the social news is itself a product of human activity, which surely contains a variety of people's emotions like happiness, sorrow, anger, etc. so that the news itself has different emotional colors. Second, the reporter itself shows emotion in the dissemination of events. When facing and disseminating certain events, the reporter is by no means just a heartless informer, but a human with feeling and emotion. Wang and Zhang (2008) point out that news reporters at the scene is not only the communicator of the reported people's sense and emotion, but also a specific symbol involved in the scene and an important person to inform events as well as emotions. They should report the true feeling accurately.

An increase in Affect resources is in accordance with what Yang, Wang & Zhang said. It implicates that news writers pay more attention to people's feeling during disaster time, this can make the news reports more vivid and more easily to arouse readers' sympathy.

In China, "disasters are not news, only fighting disasters and disaster-relief work are news." (Wang, 1987, P.51). In fact, China has long implemented the press policy of advocating positive news reports while prohibiting or avoiding negative news reports. If there're any negative news reports like disasters, they usually focus on the performances of the Party leaders or the governments and propagate the belief that people can overcome any disasters.

In the 2008 earthquake news reports, an increase in negative Attitudes implicates that the news media has given up the coverage method of sheer positive publicity. More negative Affect resources indicate that the news reports pay more attention to people's true feeling (in fact, a disaster usually causes more negative emotions like sadness than positive emotions). More negative Judgment resources indicates that the news media no longer just praise the positive performance of the people, but also increase criticism to those immoral and illegal behaviors. More negative Appreciation resources indicates that the news media disclose more negative consequences caused by disasters, which makes coverage more objective and comprehensive.

The people-oriented guideline has been established since the 17th NCCPC. News media play an important role in embodying and promoting the people-oriented idea. Therefore, news media should focus on the people, especially those common people when report disasters so as to show humane care in the news reports.

The diversification of appraisers in the 2008 earthquake news reports indicates that a common people-oriented reporting strategy was adopted; more civilian are concerned in the reports, which reflect the humane care of the news reports.

It is believed that news should be objective. But with more Attitudinal resources invested in the news texts, more Engagement resources will have to be adopted in order to properly deal with these Attitudinal resources, thus to prevent these Attitudinal resources from influencing the objectivity of news reports. More Engagement resources, particularly the acknowledge resources in the 2008 earthquake news reports indicates that the reporters are more skilled in manipulating the Attitudinal resources. By employing these Engagement resources, they can well handle these Attitudinal resources without damaging the objectivity of news reports.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

Adopting the appraisal theory, this study compares the appraisal resources of two sets of disaster news reports taken from *China Daily*. It finds that great changes in disaster news reports have taken place over the 10 years from 1998 to 2008. It also reveals that the changes in the two sets of news discourses implicate a development in the *China Daily*'s disaster news reports----a common people-oriented reporting strategy was adopted in the 2008 earthquake news reports; more civilian are concerned in the reports; the traditional sheer positive reporting method has been abandoned and more attention has been paid to people's true feelings.

This study is significant in that it has demonstrated the applicability and explanatory power of the theory, which has contributed due effort to the development of the theory; this study also casts some light on how to report disaster news, especially on how to deal with Attitudes in the disaster news so as to embody humane care to the victims and yet keep the news reports objective.

The work undertaken in this paper is one of the first efforts to probe into the appraisal nature of English disaster news reports in China from a systemic functional perspective. However, there is much ground needs to be improved. Further study shall select more news texts concerning various disasters since there are many kinds of disasters. Besides, news discourses should be taken from more newspapers rather than just from one kind of newspaper.

APPENDIX

Below is a sample of the detailed analysis of the Affect, Judgment and Appreciation resources in the disaster news reports collected in this study. According to Martin & White [2008, p.71-76], the ideational tokens/invocations are marked with the notation 't' to indicate invoked Affect, Judgment and Appreciation. In addition, the abbreviations below are adopted in the analyses.

- + 'positive'
- 'negative'
- des 'Affect: desire'
- hap 'Affect: un/happiness'
- sec 'Affect: in/security'
- sat 'Affect: dis/satisfaction'
- norm 'Judgment: normality'
- cap 'Judgment: capacity'
- ten 'Judgment: tenacity'
- ver 'Judgment: veracity'
- prop 'Judgment: propriety'

reac 'Appreciation: reaction'
 comp 'Appreciation: composition'
 val 'Appreciation: valuation'

Inscribed and Invoked Affect			
ITEMS	APPRAISER	AFFECT	APPRAISED
crying	a child	- hap	various
saddened	Wen Jiabao"	- hap	some of your family and friends have died
appreciation	Wang Zhenyao	+ sat	all domestic and foreign donations
welcomed	A Foreign Ministry spokesman	+ hap	the international community's aid
mourn	various	- hap	the victims of the quake
despair	people in Dujiangyan and Beichuan	- hap	being ravaged by the earthquake
celebrate	people in Dujiangyan and Beichuan	+ hap	more people have been rescued
cheered	exhausted rescuers and residents	+ hap	pulling an eight-month-pregnant womanthey were buried
Stricken	relatives	- sec	various
happy	Pan Jianjun	+ hap	Zhang, 34, and her mother being saved
grateful	Pan Jianjun	+ sat	the rescuers and the government
shaken	Zhang and her mother	- sec	being buried under the clapsed building by the earthquake
thank	"the Party and the country"	+ sat	disaster relief personnel
sorrow	"residents"	- hap	various
confident	an unnamed woman	+ sec	that you were coming to rescue me
happy	an unnamed woman	+ hap	being rescued and still alive
pain	President Hu Jintao	- hap	lost family and property
hugged	President Hu Jintao	+ hap	an eight-year-old boy
PLEA	various	+ des	more tents
hurts	Chen Kefu	- hap	to learn of such news
thanks	Wen Jiabao	+ sat	international donors
panicked	a CCTV reporter	- sec	the earth quake
gratitude	Wen Jiabao	+ sat	UN Secretary-General Ban Ki-moon
appreciates	Wen Jiabao	+ sat	the efforts of the international community
Inscribed and Invoked Judgment			
ITEMS	APPRAISER	JUDGMENT	APPRAISED
3,000 killed in one county	author	t, - prop	earthquake
Wen arrived in Dujiangyan last night to direct the rescue work.	author	t, + ten	Wen Jiabao
the number of deaths is estimated at more than 3,000. More than 80 percent of the buildings there were destroyed and about 10,000 were injured.	author	t, - prop	earthquake
RESCUERS RACE AGAINST TIME	author	t, + ten	rescuers
Tens of thousands under rubble	author	t, - prop	earthquake
Rescuers were last night racing against time to find survivors	author	t, + ten	rescuers
demolishing buildings and burying tens of thousands beneath the rubble	author	t, - prop	earthquake
pulled more than 1,000 people from debris	author	t, +cap	People's Liberation Army (PLA) soldiers
national death toll reached more than 12,000 by 2 a.m. today	author	t, - prop	earthquake
will try our best	Wen Jiabao	t, + ten	government
ensure children do not go hungry	Wen Jiabao	t, + ten	government
Wen was visiting cities worst hit by the quake, including Dujiangyan, Deyang and Mianzhu	author	t, + ten	Wen Jiabao
will do our utmost	Wen Jiabao	t, + ten	government
more than 70 percent of the roads in the town were damaged, and almost all bridges had collapsed. Many people were believed to be under the debris	author	t, - prop	earthquake
At least 149 cargo trains and 31 passenger trains were affected	author	t, - prop	earthquake
the quake has resulted in the damage of "a considerable number of water projects".	E Jingping	t, - prop	earthquake
exhausted	author	t, + ten	rescuers& residents
with the bodies of her parents shielding her	author	t, + prop	her parents
miraculously	author	+ norm	a 3-year-old girl who was buried under the debris for 40 hours being rescued
50-hour rescue operation	author	t, +ten	rescuers
the building was very dangerous and highly unstable so the rescue operation was very risky.	Sun Guoli	t, +ten	rescuers

more than 1,000 students and teachers from Juyuan Middle School were buried when the building collapsed on Monday. So far more than 60 have been confirmed dead.	author	t, - prop	earthquake
Rescuers have been struggling to reach all quake-hit areas, battling landslides, buckled roads, collapsed bridges and wet weather.	author	t, + ten	rescuers
more than 130,000 troops were engaged in rescue operations	author	t, +prop	government
they had reached all 58 counties and towns stricken by the massive quake.	author	t, +cap	the rescue troops
government will make the utmost efforts to help the victims	Wen Jiabao	t, + ten	government
thorough	Ma jian	+ ten	the military
complete	Ma jian	+ ten	armed police and the PLA
“There is no problem at all.”	Ma jian	t, + cap	government
“every available means”	Hu Jintao	t, + ten	government
We must try every method to send rescuers to every quake-hit village	Hu Jintao	t, + ten	government
We must send rescue teams carrying food and drinking water to the worst-hit villages, even on foot, as soon as possible	Hu Jintao	t, + ten	government
visit one quake-hit village after another	author	t, + ten	Hu Jintao
make every effort	Hu Jiantao	t, + ten	government
brave	Hu Jintao	+ ten	a boy
not to surrender to difficulties	Hu Jintao	t, + ten	a boy
We shall have confidence, courage and strength	Hu Jintao	t, + ten	various
orderly	Ma jian	+ cap	Chinese military
efficient	Ma jian	+ cap	Chinese military
A total of 113,080 soldiers and armed policemen	Ma jian	t, + ten	government
working at full capacity	Jiang Li	t, + cap	military
the government has purchased enough materials	Jiang Li	t, + cap	the government
We will do our utmost to ensure that homeless people find a place to live.	Jiang Li	t, + ten	government
pledged	Wen Jiabao	+ ten	government
generous	Jiang Li	+ ten	donators
the disaster is so great	Jiang Li	t, - prop	earthquake
783,984 cotton-padded quilts, 1,783,600 items of cotton-padded clothes and food and drinking water worth 218 million yuan have been sent to the disaster areas	author	t, + cap	the government
pledged	the NAO	+ ten	government
The quake destroyed thousands of buildings, knocked out power and phone services and damaged factories, mines and other facilities.	author	t, - prop	earthquake
About 45,000 medical workers are working in all quake-hit counties and townships in Sichuan	author	t, + cap	Ministry of Health
About 1,196 tons of disinfectants and bactericides were distributed	author	t, + cap	Ministry of Health
In seven out of the 11 worst-hit counties, sanitation work has been completed and in the other four, one-third of the town ships have been covered	author	t, + cap	health workers
fighting time to find survivors	author	t, + ten	rescuers
saved and evacuated 396,811 people	author	t, +cap	rescuers
A total of 6,452 have been dug out alive	author	t, +cap	rescuers
in every village, to ensure that no one was left behind, and try to treat all injured people, in order to “save as many lives as possible	author	t, + ten	government
the second time in less than two weeks.	author	t, + ten	Wen Jiabao
doctors and nurses are stationed round the clock in refugee camps to try to prevent survivors from falling sick.	author	t, + ten	doctors and nurses
despicable	Cheng Kefu	- prop	the people siphoning the relief materials
overcharging for goods	author	t, - prop	some businesses
is determined to	author	t, + ten	the government
Two people were killed, hundreds injured and 70,000 houses collapsed	author	t, - prop	earthquake
Inscribed and Invoked Appreciation			
ITEMS	APPRAISER	APPRECIATION	APPRAISED
leading	author	+ val	Wolong Nature Reserve
crucial	Weng Jiabao	+ val	rescue work
urgently needed	an official with the Ministry of Civil Affairs	+ val	search and rescue workers
MAGICAL	author	+ comp	moments

synonymous with death and destruction	author	- reac	Dujiangyan and Beichuan
moving	Sun Guoli	+ reac	rescue of Zhang and her mother
miracle	Sun Guoli	+ reac	rescue of Zhang and her mother
miracle	Sun Guoli	+ reac	rescue of Zhang and her mother
dangerous	Sun Guoli	- comp	the building
unstable	Sun Guoli	- comp	the building
risky	Sun Guoli	- comp	the rescue operation
Lifeline	author	+ val	roads
critical	Liang Guijing	+ val	Within 72 hours after the disaster
encouraging	author	+ reac	news
inadequate	Minister of Water Resources Chen Lei	- comp	management systems
poor	Minister of Water Resources Chen Lei	- comp	data collection
crucial	Minister of Water Resources Chen Lei	+ val	to prevent secondary disasters, and control floods at damaged reservoirs, hydropower plants and dikes
necessary	Minister of Water Resources Chen Lei	+ val	to study and judge potential dangers
fabricated	Ma Jian	- val	rumors
groundless	Ma Jian	- val	rumors
helpful	Ma Jian	+ val	the experience Chinese troops had in rescue and relief work in other countries
LIFE PEG	author	+ val	tents
desperate need	Jiang Li	+ val	tents
the most wanted	author	+ val	tents and awnings
fast-growing	author	+ comp	China' economy
major	author	+ val	Sichuan
stable	Weng Jiabao	+ comp	the economy
grave	party leadership	- comp	the current situation
tough	party leadership	- comp	the relief work
a hard and long-term task	Weng Jiabao	- comp	Reconstruction
urgently needed	internet users	+ val	tents

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

This work was supported in part by a grant from the Scientific Research Foundation of the Education Department of Sichuan Province, China (13SB0305).

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An Investigation into Rohani's Meeting Coverage in Two English Daily Newspapers with a Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective: Tehran Times vs. Los Angeles Times

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate the ideological differences between the discourse of Los Angeles Times and Tehran Times in representing Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. To this end, 4 reports in relation to the Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. were collected from the websites of two newspapers of Los Angeles Times and Tehran Times. The reports were grouped and analyzed. The articles were analyzed in terms of the utilized discursive strategies. Hence, the similarities and differences between the two newspapers in representing Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. were discussed. It was shown that the Los Angeles Times heavily relied on Authoritative, Explanation, Evidentiality and Counterfactual discursive strategies and Tehran Times on Actor Description, Hyperbole, Lexicalization, Repetition and Situation Description discursive strategies.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, discursive strategies, ideology, micro-strategies, macro-strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

News reporting involves a choice of lexical items, semantic and syntactic structures through which complex social issues are reproduced or even directed (Van Dijk, 1998). In effect, newspapers as authentic sources of language manipulation are the places in which different social and cultural issues are depicted.

In making use of newspapers either as a teaching material or as a source of information, the issue should be considered that the different events or phenomena are not usually (re)presented as they are in reality, but they are represented as particular version of reality (Reah, 2002). It means that the events being focused in journalistic activities have undergone different, sometimes paradoxical, linguistic 're-contextualization' in language through which the events were shown and identified differently by different writers based on the ideology and perspectives of diverse newspapers. Hence, the writers play with words or structures in visualising the events in order to influence the readers' angels of the events. Fowler (1991) argues that "news is not just a value- free reflection of facts. Anything that is said or written about the world is articulated from a particular ideological position" (p.101). In effect, few people are aware that the news is the mirror of the events. For example,

very few people would agree with the statement that: Women are weak and can have only limited number of roles, but they encounter this view expressed in newspapers without even challenging it, because this view and the likes are not clearly expressed, but hidden in the words, grammatical constructions and argumentation lines that the writers may employ (Reah, 2002, p. 71).

The aforementioned issues are related to the concepts of: manipulation, hidden ideology, hidden meanings, bias, power of language, discursive structures, etc. which are the main concepts in Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA). CDA, according to Gee (2004), refers to "an approach to language analysis that considers texts as parts of specific social practices that have political implications about issues of status, solidarity, and of distribution of social goods and power" (pp. 32-33 cited in Ahmadian and Farahani 2014).

Hence, CDA is primarily concerned with discourse in forming and being formed by social and political practices (Fairclough, 2001). In effect, CDA aims to raise the readers' consciousness of the power of language to change the events and influence the perspectives of the readers in a particular way.

Using van Dijk's (2000) Socio-cognitive model, this study tries to reveal how Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N are represented in *Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* and to investigate whether there is any bias in the representation of this issue in these two newspapers. It should be noted here that Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N is selected just as a social and political event which among other events has received more media attention in Iran and America during days this article was written. It is worth mentioning that, this study is not concerned with political issues and official

relationships between the two countries. Rather, it focuses on the role of language, on the power of language, on how language and its structures are manipulatively used by some in the society who has more access and control over discourse, and, finally, on the need of being more alert when using and encountering language in our daily life.

II. BACKGROUND KNOWLEDGE

Discourse analysis (DA) is an umbrella which consists of a number of methodological approaches deal with the way language is used in different disciplines, e.g. psychology, sociology, linguistics, anthropology and communication studies (Wiggins, 2009). Wiggins considers discourse analysis as an interdisciplinary approach which has "developed from work within speech act theory, ethnomethodology and semiology as well as post-structuralism theorists such as Michel Foucault and Jacques Derrida, and the later works of philosopher Ludwig Wittgenstein" (p. 427). Wiggins states that

Discourse analysis approaches are crucial for understanding human relationships because they focus primarily on interaction: how we talk to each other and the discursive practices (talking, writing) through which relationships develop, fall apart and so on. This entry covers central features of discourse analysis, methodological issues and some of the most commonly used versions of discourse analysis (Wiggins, 2009, p. 427).

Effectively, discourse analysis involves a number of approaches which are formed based on a set of theoretical assumptions—e.g. conversation analysis, discursive psychology, critical discourse analysis and Foucauldian discourse analysis. It is worth mentioning that different approaches are positioned based on the data, the way they are explored, as well as based on the whatness and howness of the method utilized (Widdowson, 1998).

In order to have a better understanding of the concept of discourse analysis, three main orientations of discourse analysis is discussed—i.e. *discursive psychology*, *critical discourse analysis (CDA)*, and *interactional sociolinguistics*.

Discursive psychology, in effect, studies the "psychological concepts (such as emotions, attitudes and beliefs) in everyday interaction" (Wiggins, 2009, p. 429). *Critical discourse analysis (CDA)* is another orientations of discourse analysis which refers to a paradigm based upon broadly Marxist principles. *Interactional sociolinguistics* and the *ethnography of speaking*, on the other hand, deals with the "groups or communities of people) and the notion of speech genres" (Wiggins, 2009, p. 430). Considering the fact that critical discourse analysis was the focus of the present study; some sentences were devoted to this orientation of discourse analysis.

Critical discourse analysis (CDA) as one of the orientations of discourse analysis clarifies "the relationship between discourse and power" (Van Dijk, 2001, p. 363). Widdowson (1998) views CDA as an instrument to manifest the implicit ideologies or perspectives which are covered in the texts. Gee (2004) emphasizes that CDA is a model to language analysis in which texts are considered "as parts of specific social practices that have political implications about issues of status, solidarity, and of distribution of social goods and power" (pp. 32-33). Effectively, CDA explores the texts "within a specific ideological system" (Heros, 2009, p. 173).

Hence, CDA is a paradigm for revealing the ideological performances which are realized through discourse. It means that CDA fight against the inequalities which are apparently naturalized which have led to the privileges, power and access to goods and services in society for elites and dominant people. Generally, critical discourse analysis has taken two orientations, i.e. linguistic analysis and texture one (Rogers, Malancharuvil-Berkes, Mosley, Hui, & Garro Joseph, 2005). In effect, CDA is based on *Systemic Functional Linguistics (SFL)*—a linguistic theory which was developed mainly by M.A.K. Halliday in the U.K. during the 1960s.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus of the Study

The sources of data for this study were two daily English newspapers of *Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* from which the articles covered the news of Rohani's meeting at the UN were selected during one month.

B. Procedures

The following steps were taken in conducting the present study:

- ▶ Gathering news articles from the two newspapers of *Tehran Times* and *Los Angeles Times* which covered Rohani's meeting in the UN;
- ▶ Analyzing them in both headlines and content;
- ▶ Classifying different paragraphs of the articles based on the both macro- and micro-strategies;
- ▶ Tabulating the gathered data;
- ▶ Answering the raised question

IV. RESULTS

On May 7, 2013 Rouhani was selected as the president of Iran. After which, he attended in the UN meeting which was held in New York. Considering that the USA and Iran have had many political problems, attendance of an Iranian President was appeared to be a milestone in the relations between the two countries. Hence, this phenomenon was represented differently in the two English Daily newspapers based on the perspectives of the two countries.

Tehran Times selected two headlines with the similar themes as follow:

Topic one: *Rouhani and Obama talk on phone, express will to resolve nuclear issue*

Topic Two: *Rouhani-Obama phone call focused on sanctions, nuclear issue: official*

The first topic was published on September 28, 2013 and the second one on September, 29, 2013.

The lead paragraph for the first report was:

President Barack Obama and new Iranian President Hassan Rouhani spoke by telephone on Friday, the highest-level contact between the two countries in three decades and a sign that they are serious about reaching a pact on Tehran's nuclear program, Reuters reported.

And the lead paragraph for the second report was:

Iranian President Hassan Rouhani and U.S. President Barack Obama discussed ways to lift the sanctions imposed on Iran and Iran's nuclear program during their telephone conversation in New York on Friday, Iranian Deputy Foreign Minister Abbas Araqchi said on Saturday.

The headlines and the lead paragraphs were presented in which an event was reported, however it apparently carried the message that this event was a turning point in the relations between Iran and US during the last 30 years. The rest of the report can be divided into four parts: The first part which consists of paragraphs 3, 5, 6, 7 and 9 provide some details of the speech between the two presidents. The second part deals with the ideological stances of the phenomenon (paragraphs 2, 4, 8, 11, and 12); the third part is contributed to the political consequences of such a phenomenon especially on the prices of oil and the fourth part deals with the background knowledge of the relation between the two countries which the writer reminds that this phenomenon is, in effect, a milestone for the world.

Effectively, the report has started with the lead paragraph which is ideological and followed by the supporting details as well as ideological background paragraphs. Put it scientifically, the report is dominated with the strategies of *Explanation* and *Situation description*, and *repetition*, which emphasize on the crucial role of this phenomenon.

In paragraphs 2, 4, 8, 11 and 12 of this report, as mentioned above, the phone call between the two presidents was described as phenomenal. To this end, the micro strategies of *Consensus*, *Authority*, *Actor Description* and *Evidentiality* were utilized in which the significance of such a phenomenon is discussed. Effectively, the aforementioned strategies are paving the road for the *positive self-presentation* which is a macro-strategy. For example in the second paragraph it was written:

The 15-minute call is the culmination of a dramatic shift in tone between Iran and the United States, which cut diplomatic relations with Iran a year after the 1979 revolution that toppled U.S. ally Shah Mohammad Reza Pahlavi and led to the U.S. Embassy hostage crisis in Tehran.

"the culmination of a dramatic shift in tone between", emphasizes on the ideological perspective regarding a call phone which took place between the two presidents. Effectively this paragraph has resorted to the *Hyperbole (Rhetoric)* micro-strategy to develop its ideological point of view.

The next paragraph, i.e. paragraph three deals with some detail of the call happened between the two presidents in which the U.S. president talked about the subject of the call as follow:

The U.S. president had hoped to meet with Rouhani at the UN General Assembly in New York this week, but the Iranian side decided an encounter was too complicated.

The paragraph has, in effect, utilized the *Evidentiality (meaning, argumentation)*, *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* and *Implication (meaning)*. For example the paragraph which states *"The U.S. president had hoped to meet with Rouhani at the UN General Assembly"* has utilized *Evidentiality (meaning, argumentation)* and *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* micro-strategies or *"an encounter was too complicated"* resorting to the Norm expression ideological micro-strategy.

Paragraphs 5, 6 and 7 are the paragraphs which dealt with the details of the call between the two presidents. For example, the expression *"speaking to reporters, Obama said"* is apparently utilizing the *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* micro-strategy or the paragraphs 6 and 7 are direct quotation which is shedding light on the *Evidentiality (meaning, argumentation)*, *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* and *Authority* micro-strategies. Suppose the following paragraphs, i.e. paragraphs 6 and 7:

"While there will surely be important obstacles to moving forward and success is by no means guaranteed, I believe we can reach a comprehensive solution," Obama said at the White House.

"The test will be meaningful, transparent, and verifiable actions, which can also bring relief from the comprehensive international sanctions that are currently in place" against Iran, Obama said.

As the above two paragraphs show, *Evidentiality (meaning, argumentation)*, *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* and *Authority* are the dominant micro-strategies utilized in forming the two paragraphs.

The eighth paragraph has interestingly quoted two expressions which shed light on the phenomenal nature of such a negotiation call.

Rouhani, in his Twitter account, said that in the conversation he told Obama "Have a Nice Day!" and Obama responded with "Thank you. Khodahafez (goodbye)."

For example, it states that the presidents expressed their enthusiasm utilizing the language of the other president in which *Rouhani* said *"Have a Nice Day!"* and *Obama* said *"Thank you. Khodahafez"*. These two expressions highlight the *Interaction and context* as well as *Consensus (political strategy)* micro strategies.

The next paragraph fulfills the previous paragraph and states positive attitudes of the two presidents for resolving the challenges exist between the two countries. The paragraph, effectively, utilizes direct quotation of Iranian's president. In fact, this paragraph has utilized the *Consensus (political strategy)*, *Hyperbole (Rhetoric)*, and *Repetition (rhetoric)*.

In paragraph 10, the writer made use of the discursive strategy of *Situation description (meaning)* and *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* when he says "the price of oil fell on Friday as tensions eased between the United States and Iran after the Obama-Rouhani talk". In fact, the paragraph illustrates the side effect of such a phenomenon.

In the next paragraphs (paragraphs 11 and 12) discursive strategies of *Repetition (rhetoric)* as well as *History as lesson (topos)* and *Situation description (meaning)* were used.

Paragraph thirteen, on the other hand, deals with the opposite counterpart, i.e. the president of US which has utilized the discursive strategies of *History as lesson (topos)* and *Situation description (meaning)* as well as *hyperbole*. The next paragraph, i.e. paragraph fourteen highlights the discursive strategy of *Consensus (political strategy)* when it states "Iran's Supreme Leader has issued a fatwa against the development of nuclear weapons. President Rouhani has indicated that Iran will never develop nuclear weapons," Obama said.

In supporting the previous paragraph, paragraph fifteen uses a direct quotation from the US counterpart and utilizes the *repetition discursive strategy* when says "I have made clear that we respect the right of the Iranian people to access peaceful nuclear energy in the context of Iran meeting its obligations". In paragraph sixteen, the role of Israel on the relations between Iran and the US is emphasized. Effectively, paragraph sixteen utilizing *implication* discursive strategy emphasizes that the US follows Israel' intentions.

Finally, the last five paragraphs summarize the aforementioned issues along with the issues on which Iran and the US have different points of view. In fact, the last five paragraphs heavily rely on *Distancing*, *Example/Illustration*, *explanation* and *implication* discursive strategies. This issue should be noted that negative macro-strategies were repeatedly utilized in the speeches of US counterpart when addressing Iran's nuclear program. Effectively, this issue was highlighted by emphasizing that it is the responsibility of Iran to resolve the program and the US speaks on the angles of power.

It is worth mentioning that the second articles of *Tehran Times* on the similar headline followed the same strategies and trend.

Los Angeles Times, in a similar vein, has selected a headline to cover the phone talk between the two presidents. The headline was:

Headline: *Obama speaks by phone with Iran's president*

This headline was published on 27, September, 2013. This headline started with the following lead paragraph

Ending three decades of official estrangement, President Obama spoke by telephone with Iranian President Hassan Rouhani on Friday and said he is hopeful the two countries can reach a deal to resolve the long diplomatic standoff on Iran's disputed nuclear program.

The lead paragraph was started with a topicalization to highlight the significance of such a phenomenon. Furthermore, the nuclear program of Iran is interpreted as challenging. The paragraph, in effect, utilizing *presupposition*, *lexicalization* and *implication* discursive strategies stresses on the nuclear program of Iran. In fact, the leading paragraph is designed in such a way that it is Iran's behavior that is challenging and problematic. Hence, the leading paragraph is utilizing the macro-strategies of *positive-self representation* in which the US is positively represented and *negative-other representation* in which Iran is described implicitly.

The second paragraph of this reading passage is a direct quotation from Obama, the US president. Effectively, the paragraph has utilized the micro strategy of *Situation description (meaning)* when uses the expression "Obama said in televised remarks at the White House". Furthermore, the paragraph has utilized *Counterfactuals (meaning, argumentation)* micro strategy when states "while there will surely be important obstacles to move forward, and success is by no means guaranteed, I believe we can reach a comprehensive solution".

The third paragraph which is a supporting paragraph for the previous ones has utilized *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* discursive strategy with the *hyperbole* one when it states "It was the first direct communication between American and Iranian presidents since the 1979".

The next paragraph, i.e. paragraph four is in completing the phone call between the two foreign ministers besides the presidents and utilizes the *Explanation (meaning, argumentation)* discursive strategy as you see in the example:

The call followed a 30-minute, one-on-one meeting Thursday between Secretary of State John F. Kerry and Iranian Foreign Minister Mohammad Javad Zarif to discuss the nuclear issue, and conciliatory remarks by Rouhani at the U.N. and with American audiences, including comments that repudiated his predecessor's denial of the Holocaust.

The fifth paragraph is a direct quotation, too. This paragraph is a direct quotation from the US president. This paragraph heavily relied on the *Counterfactuals (meaning, argumentation)* micro strategy along with the *hyperbole* when it states "Rouhani, who was elected in June" indicates the prospect of moving beyond that difficult history.

The other paragraphs also deal with the statements of the President of US which heavily resorted to the *Counterfactuals (meaning, argumentation)* micro-strategy as well as *context and interaction* along with *implication*. It is worth mentioning that all the paragraphs tried to use *positive-self representation* about US and Obama and *negative-other representation* about Iran and Rohani. Hence, the report is in such a way that Iran has resorted to the USA to resolve its nuclear problem.

The next article which was analyzed in this paper was a report selected from *Tehran Times* which had the headline:

Headline: *Rouhani says Iran expects to hear a 'consistent voice' from Washington.*

The headline implicitly argues that it is the USA which has the flip-flop behavior and claims. Hence, the headline is utilizing the *Evidentiality (meaning, argumentation)* as well as *Authority (argumentation)*.

This article was published on September, 25, 2013 with the following lead paragraph:

Iranian President Hassan Rouhani has said that Iran is prepared to engage immediately in time-bound and result-oriented nuclear talks to build mutual confidence and removal of mutual uncertainties about Tehran's nuclear program with full transparency, but it expects to hear a consistent voice from Washington. Rouhani made the remarks during an address to the United Nations General Assembly in New York on Tuesday.

The paragraph is, in effect, deploying the *positive-self presentation* and *negative-other representation*. It denotes that it is the USA that expresses each time a new claim. In fact, the report is deploying the *Actor description (meaning)* discursive-strategy when it states "*Iranian President Hassan Rouhani*" or *Counterfactuals (meaning, argumentation)* discursive strategy when it mentions "*but it expects to hear a consistent voice from Washington*". Furthermore, the last part of the paragraph is, in effect, *Situation description (meaning)* discursive strategy when it says "*during an address to the United Nations General Assembly in New York on Tuesday*".

The rest of the report is devoted to the direct quotation of the speech of Rohani in the UN. Hence, the rest of the report is heavily relied on the *Positive self-presentation (Semantic macro-strategy)*, *National self-glorification (meaning)*, *Lexicalization (style)*, *Implication (meaning)* and *Dramatization (Rhetoric)* discursive strategies. Effectively, this report is solely a political lecture in which *exaggeration* and *lexicalization* are heavily utilized. For example, in this report, it is stated that

The recent elections in Iran represent a clear, living example of the wise choice of hope, rationality and moderation by the great people of Iran.

It is an example of the utilized *Categorization (meaning)*, *Hyperbole*, and *Example* discursive strategies. Also when it states

The firm belief of our people and government in enduring peace, stability, tranquility, peaceful resolution of disputes and reliance on the ballot box as the basis of power, public acceptance and legitimacy, has indeed played a key role in creating such a safe environment.

The *hyperbole* and *categorization (meaning)* discursive strategies are heavily deployed. Furthermore, the report is vastly utilizing *lexicalization* discursive strategy when it states "*this sensitive juncture in the history global relations, the age of zero-sum games is over*" or when it mentions "*this propagandistic discourse has assumed dangerous proportions through portrayal and inculcation of presumed imaginary threats*".

V. DISCUSSION

This study was an attempt to answer the research question "how do the different ideological perspectives are depicted in the discourse of *Los Angeles Times* and *Tehran Times* dealing with Iran's president Rouhani meeting at the U.N.?"

To this end, four articles in relation to this subject were gathered from the websites of the two newspapers and were analyzed which resulted into some differences. Effectively, it was revealed that the two newspapers are representing the *Disclaimer (meaning)* strategy which refers to "the combination of the ideologically based strategy of positive self-presentation and negative other-presentation" (Van Dijk, 2000, p.67). In fact, the two newspapers try to represent their own perspective positively and others negatively. In other words, the *Los Angeles Times* depicted the politics and behaviors of the United States of America as well as Israel positively; whereas, this newspaper published its articles in such a way that Iran's intention is deceitful and dishonest. Furthermore, the *Tehran Times*, in a similar vein, depicts Iran's intention and politics as the honest one; whereas, this is the USA that shows flip-flop behaviors.

It was also revealed that the *Los Angeles Times* heavily relied on *Authoritative*, *Explanation*, *Evidentiality* and *Counterfactual* discursive strategies. Furthermore, it was found that *Tehran Times* has dominantly utilized *Actor Description*, *Hyperbole*, *Lexicalization*, *Repetition* and *Situation Description* discursive strategies. Hence, the results of the study are in harmony with Mahfouz (2013, p. 309) in which the reports are developed "with the beliefs held by the two newspaper's target audiences".

The findings of this study also support Ghannam's (2012) findings which emphasize that different newspapers have deployed diverse and opposing political ideologies through manipulating language. Hence, language is an instrument which is purposely manipulated to meet the hidden interpretation the newspapers expect. In addition, the results of the study highlight the significance of teaching news and newspapers' articles. Hence, the findings of the study are in harmony with Fowler's (1991, p. 10) argument that

Institutions of news reporting and presentation are socially, economically and politically situated, all news is always reported from some particular angle. The structure of the medium encodes significances which derive from the respective positions within society of the publishing or broadcasting organizations. Effectively, newspapers need to be considered purposeful sources of broadcasting in which different news and reports are presented and interpreted based on ideological perspective and biases of the newspapers. Van Dijk (2000, p. 34) points out that:

The ideology of news reporting is not only limited to content and style of news reports, but imbues all aspects of news gathering, attending to sources, interaction with other journalists as well as news actors, and the organization of

the professional activities of journalists (meetings, deadlines, etc.). Professional as well as other social (gender, ethnic, class, age, etc.) ideologies of journalists fundamentally control who will be searched for, who will be covered, listened to, interviewed, or cited.

Accordingly, it was revealed that the two newspapers have utilized different types of discursive strategies to represent Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. and the relations between US and Iran with some traces of favoritism. Hence, the two newspapers "function to legitimate domination, articulate resistance in relationships of power" (Van Dijk, 2006, p. 115).

In fact, the two newspapers have deployed a vast variety of discursive strategies to represent different outlooks. Hence, the two newspapers are apparently representing Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. with nearly significant divergence. Hence, the two newspapers have represented this issue differently based on their ideological perspective.

In effect, the two newspapers have utilized self-positive representation and negative-other representation based on their ideological perspectives. More generally, the findings of this study corroborate earlier findings of Koosha and Shams (2005), Ghiasian (2006), KhosraviNik (2008), Atai and Adriani (2009), and Yaghoobi (2009), among many other studies conducted in a CDA framework, about the biased representation of events and social groups in newspapers. The results of this study also lend supports to van Dijk's (2000) belief that "discourses express, confirm, instantiate or constitute ideologies" (p. 86 cited in Ahmadian and Farahani 2014) and to the fact that ideologies are injected in discourse by the use of different kinds of discursive strategies like the ones which are included in van Dijk's framework.

VI. CONCLUSION

The results of the study showed that the two newspapers have utilized different types of discursive strategies to represent Iran's Rouhani meeting at the U.N. and the relations between the US and Iran with some traces of favoritism. Hence, the two newspapers have deployed a vast variety of discursive strategies to represent different outlooks. In effect, the two newspapers have utilized self-positive representation and negative-other representation based on their ideological perspectives.

More generally, the findings of this study are in harmony with the findings of Koosha and Shams (2005), Ghiasian (2006), KhosraviNik (2008), Atai and Adriani (2009 cited in Ahmadian and Farahani 2014), and Dowlatabadi (2014), among many other studies conducted in a CDA framework, about the biased representation of events and social groups in newspapers.

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Impacts of Chunks Input on Chinese English Major Students' Oral Production

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Abstract—Chunks have been a hot research in the field of second language acquisition since the 1970s. Aiming to explore the impacts of chunks input on Chinese English major students' oral production, two classes of sophomore English major students were chosen as research subjects who were defined as the control group and the experimental group. Oral tests were taken before and after the research. After using chunks input in English teaching for 12 weeks and comparing the differences between the experimental group and the control group, the impact of lexical chunks on oral production was observed. Based on the analysis of the statistics, it's found that chunks input in teaching plays a significant role in improving Chinese English Major Students' speaking proficiency. The speaking test after the research showed that the fluency and accuracy of students in the experimental group had improved a lot during this period. Though students' speaking ability in the control group did improve, their performance was not as significant as that of experimental students. It's hoped that the result could provide any guidance for English teaching in China.

Index Terms—second language acquisition, oral production, chunks input, lexical chunks teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of lexical chunks was proposed by Becker in the 1970s for the first time. He pointed out that the understanding of the whole language should be based on the understanding of the phrase (Becker, 1975). According to Becker, the memory, storage, output and usage of a language do not only depend on its separate words, but on those idiosyncratic chunks which are the smallest unit of human language communication. With the development of chunk theory, different definitions were raised according to different research scopes and aims. Chunks referred to a single word or an idiom, which could freely combine words by means of language rules, and they were also the fixed phrases that were not bound by the language rules (Lewis, 1993). Lewis (1997) thought that language was not composed of grammar and vocabulary, but was made up of prefabricated chunks. There were a lot of prefabricated chunks in English, which were the clusters of language structures. They were language phenomena which had both lexical and grammatical features. Wray (2002) regarded lexical chunks as "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other meaning elements, which appears to be prefabricated, stored and retrieved wholly from the memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar". Zimmerman (1997) believed that, throughout history, the functions of the chunks in foreign language teaching were undervalued.

Lewis (1997) considered that an important part of language acquisition was the ability to understand and produce chunks. Language learners could gradually master the whole language system through the learning and usage of the language. Pawley and Syder (1983) also pointed out that in order to speak as fluently as native speakers, foreign language learners should learn more chunks. After the psycho-linguistic research, they found that the language learners' brain could only handle 8-10 words at a time, while native speakers could speak the sentences which included more complex words (Pawley & Syder, 1983). This result suggested that native speakers' brain stored a lot of chunks, which were larger than words. Each chunk was a memory block, which would not increase the burden of memory and could be extracted directly when it was used. Thus, there were advantages of learning chunks in storage and output of languages.

Krashen's second language acquisition theory believed that language acquisition was accomplished through language input, and the ideal input procedure should be interesting and association (Krashen, 1985). Therefore, the main focus of teaching should be placed on how to provide the students with the best method of language input. The traditional teaching method could enhance students' language input, increase their accumulation and consolidation of language knowledge as well as their sense of language. It also developed their habit of thinking in English, which improved their language abilities. According to statistics, 90% of daily communication was realized by those prefabricated chunks which existed as the phrases and fixed implementations (Skehan, 1998). In the process of language acquisition, each learner must go through the process of the use of prefabricated chunks. Thus, the input of chunks played a pivotal role in the process of students' learning and accumulation of the language. By using the prefabricated chunks to improve the efficiency of language input, students may further improve proficiency in comprehensive language.

Domestic research on chunks started at the beginning of this century, including the research and exploration of their functions in second language acquisition and teaching. The content of research has changed step by step from the introduction of theories and experience to the exploration of the combination of theory and teaching practice. Research on chunks can be classified into three categories: The exploration of the theoretical principles, application and learning

model (Chen Xin, 2004; Zhengyou Qi, 2007); The exploration of the relationship between second language input or output and capacity and strategy (Diao Linlin, 2004; Xu Jiajin & Xu Zongrui, 2007); The exploration of use of the lexical chunks in teaching practice, both qualitative and quantitative (Pu Jianzhong, 2003; Chen Yi, 2006; Wang Lifei & Zhang Yan, 2006; Zheng Jing, 2008). In China, school education attaches great importance to learning English. For a long time, there have been two extremes in our English teaching. One of them lays too much emphasis on the structural method, which attaches too much importance to the syntactic rules and ignores the language use in the specific context. It is helpful to the language correctness, but resulting to broken oral production. And the other is communicative approach, which gives weight to the utilization in the context. It's good to the fluency of the oral production but leading to the lack of correctness in communication (Yang Yumin & Wen Qing, 2010).

So, there comes a problem. Is the input of chunks beneficial to the learners' output of oral English? If so, chunks will have an important impact on language learners, which will also help learners with language learning. Therefore, the exploration and research of the relationship between the input of chunks and oral production can be very necessary.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Questions*

The purpose of the study is to find out the functions of chunks input on English major students' oral production, so the whole experiment is designed to collect more information and gain a deep insight into it. Therefore, the research questions are proposed. Are there any differences in oral production between two groups of subjects?

B. *Subjects*

60 English major students from Nantong University were invited to participate in the experiment. Those subjects have been studying English for 8 or 12 years, and most of them had passion for English, sharing similar English background. These subjects were divided into two groups, an experimental group and a control group. The way of chunks input was employed in teaching in the experimental class, while in the control class, the traditional way of teaching was used.

C. *Procedure*

For the teaching in the experimental class, the emphasis was laid on the cognition and drill of chunks. Through the input and output in the teaching and learning activities, subjects were taught to identify, study and use chunks. Thus, subjects would be able to master and use chunks effectively and skillfully, and their ability to use English would also be improved. The process was divided into four steps.

Firstly, subjects were trained to be aware of chunks. This required experimental group students to preview and get some information about the articles. While getting the information about the articles, they should mark the chunks. First, of course, students should figure out the chunks, the type of chunks and so on. On this basis, students were required to use their own English knowledge to identify chunks in the context. This was a proactive process to construct knowledge through language attention, analysis and memorization. It not only trained the students' ability to identify the chunks, but also enhanced the students' awareness of chunks.

Secondly, subjects were required to practice with chunks. First, the researcher asked questions and then required students to find the chunks in the textbooks. As for the key chunks, students were required to make sentences or translate them over and over again.

Thirdly, subjects were expected to accumulate chunks. When doing exercises, students were required to detect chunks by themselves, which could cultivate their awareness of chunks. When coping with the doubts in these exercises, the researcher raised questions for subjects and then did further explanations. As for some useful and authentic expressions in the text, the researcher gave the Chinese equivalents, and then urged subjects to make some marks on them. Lexical chunks teaching required students to accumulate the chunks in the texts and exercises. At the end of each unit, students were required to check these chunks by dictation.

Fourthly, chunks were applied to real contexts. Students were required to use the expressions learned from the textbooks to complete the output tasks. During the output, lexical chunks teaching focused on putting new knowledge into existing knowledge structures, expecting that students' systematization, their memory storage would be increased. After that, students would have accumulated a large amount of chunks. In order to prompt students to use and master the new chunks, the researcher required experimental group students to discuss in small groups. The oral compositions and group discussions not only stimulated the students' interest and enthusiasm of their study, but also made them use these chunks creatively. Gradually, they could use chunks appropriately and learned to put chunks in different contexts accurately.

For the teaching in the control group, traditional method was used, which mainly went through the following steps. Before the class, the researcher required students to preview the text. In class, students were taught the key words and phrases. After the class, they were asked to complete the exercises and the teacher explained the difficult parts of the text. Finally, students were required to dictate words and phrases in the words list.

This experiment lasted about 12 weeks, comparisons were made between the experimental group students' oral production grades and the control group students' grades.

D. Data Collection

Data collection mainly aimed at the results of pre-test and post-test for students' oral proficiency in the two groups at the end of the experiment. In the process of detecting the use of chunks in oral production, it was necessary to make it clear that only the correctly used lexical chunks were counted. Moreover, the accuracy and fluency of the oral production were also measured. 60 students' scores were collected at the end of experimental teaching.

Independent Sample T Test and Paired Sample T Test were used to verify the significant differences of test results, and verify that if the way of chunks input is significant.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Results

1. The Effect of Chunks Input in Groups

When comparing the differences exerted by chunks input in teaching, oral production in and between groups was observed. By employing the Paired Sample T Test, the differences in groups were analyzed. The results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1
SPEAKING PROFICIENCY IN EXPERIMENTAL CLASS

	Before the experiment (n=30)		After the experiment (n=30)		MD	T(58)
	M	SD	M	SD		
Grades	5.883	0.9440	6.983	0.8952	-1.1000	-9.289*

*P<0.05

Table 1 shows that oral production in experimental class after the experiment was significantly improved compared with the results gained before the experiment ($t(58) = -9.289, p < 0.05$). The comparison presented learners' fluency and accuracy of oral production by using chunks. Inspections of the two group means indicate that the average score of learners' oral production (6.983) after the experiment is higher than that (5.883) before the experiment, and standard deviation (SD) (0.8952) of the former is higher than that of the latter (0.9440). Based on the data, it's found that chunks input plays a significant role in improving learners' oral proficiency.

2. The Effect of Chunks Input between Groups

To further explore the significance of chunks input, the effect between groups was also analyzed. By using the Independent Samples T Test, the differences between groups were measured and displayed as follows.

TABLE 2
COMPARING THE SPEAKING PROFICIENCY BEFORE THE EXPERIMENT

	The experimental group (n=30)		The control group (n=30)		MD	T(58)
	M	SD	M	SD		
Grades	5.883	0.9440	5.917	0.8816	-0.034	-.141*

*P<0.05

Table 2 shows some grades before the experiment without using chunks input in teaching. The mean value of control class is 5.917, which is much the same as experimental class's. Besides, its standard value is 0.8816, a little lower than that 0.9440 of the experimental class. There aren't any obvious differences in speaking proficiency between the experimental class and the control class.

TABLE 3
COMPARING THE SPEAKING PROFICIENCY AFTER THE EXPERIMENT

	The experimental group (n=30)		The control group (n=30)		MD	T(58)
	M	SD	M	SD		
Grades	6.983	0.8952	6.017	0.8251	0.966	4.349*

*P<0.05

Table 3 demonstrates that speaking proficiency of students exposed to chunks input in the experimental was significantly different from that of learners in the control group ($t(58) = 4.349, p < 0.05$). Through observation of two groups of statistics, it is found that the average grade of learners in the experimental group (6.983) is significantly higher than the grades of learners in the control group (6.017). The difference between the means is 0.966 points on a 10-point test. The results suggest that chunks input plays a positive role in enhancing learners' speaking proficiency.

B. Discussions

1. Role of Chunks Input

TABLE 4
COMPARISONS BETWEEN GROUPS

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Before the experiment	The experimental group	30	5.883	0.9440
	The control group	30	5.917	0.8816
After the experiment	The experimental group	30	6.983	0.8952
	The control group	30	6.017	0.8251

Table 4 presents test grades of each group before and after the experiment. It is pretty clear to see the extremely differences in oral proficiency. Through the comparisons between the experimental class's two tests and the results of the two classes, it can be found that the input of chunk language is good to the improvement of spoken English.

It's demonstrated that the average 5.917 in the control class is higher than 5.883 in the experimental class, while the experimental class's standard deviation 0.9440 is lower than the standard deviation 0.8816 in the control class. The results show that the experimental class's grades are lower than the control class's and their distribution were not as even as the control class's.

At the beginning of the experiment, the experimental class students' cognition of chunks was not strong enough. They couldn't make good use of the chunks learned in class and apply them to the communication. However, as the experiment kept going, the oral test results of the experiment show that the experimental class's and the control class's P value in the test is less than the average verbal score 0.01. Besides, there is also a great difference between their average scores. The average of the experimental class is 6.983, which is higher than the average score 6.017 of the control class.

The total points of the oral exam are 10. From Table 4, the average score rates of the experimental class can exceed 69% of the total scores, showing that the input of chunk language indeed improves the students' oral proficiency. The control class students who were taught under the traditional language teaching approach were also improved. But compared with their scores before the oral test, their improvements were lower than the experimental class students'. Under the influence of the lexical chunks teaching, experimental class students enhanced the awareness of chunks and the ability to apply what they had learned to their communication. However, due to the differences of individuals, only some of them could use chunks properly and improve their spoken English quickly and efficiently. And the control class students who under the influence of the traditional teaching method, to some extent, could remember and recite some beautiful sentences of the learning materials. However, when it came to another topic, they could not use the learned sentence structures and pragmatic sentences flexibly. In summary, the input of chunk language has a significant effect on the learners' spoken English. It can raise the students' spoken language significantly. Besides, it is more effective than the traditional language input.

In brief, lexical chunks teaching is better than the traditional teaching method, and the input of chunks does help to improve spoken English. However, it is a common phenomenon in China that spoken English is often ignored by the teachers or the students. Even some students' English test grades are very high or nearly full marks, spoken English may be a rather difficult problem for them in daily communication. However, it is the spoken English that is more significant than reading, writing.

2. Problems in Chunks Input

It's apparent that chunks input in teaching could significantly improve learners' speaking proficiency. However, learners under the traditional teaching mode didn't show any significant improvement in speaking proficiency. By observing the process of teaching in the control group, the root of the problem has been explored. Although the problems are complex and diverse, they can be mainly summarized in the following points, namely the simplicity of evaluation criteria, learners' own defects, and the traditional mode of teaching.

Firstly, the problem lies in the simplicity of evaluation criteria. Today, for the English majors, their English assessment criteria are TEM4 and TEM8. Examination pass-rate is the main criteria for each college or university. Therefore, Chinese college students never get rid of the burden of learning English, which makes them committed to the examinations themselves instead of comprehensive ability. Thus, the focus of the study is on the numerous tests and the significance of speaking proficiency is usually ignored, which makes it impossible for both teachers and learners to be aware of the importance of chunks input in improving speaking proficiency. It's believed that chunks input in teaching is undervalued.

Secondly, the problem lies in learners' awareness of chunks. In many colleges' teaching class, the role of lexical chunks is not stressed in a high degree, only few of teachers practice the teaching of using lexical chunks in their teaching class. As is known to all, speaking is a process of information reprocessing and expression. Whether you can use lexical chunks proficiency has a direct effect on oral production in terms of accuracy and fluency, and it also plays as tunnels of learners' language. Learners in the experimental group had a stronger awareness of lexical chunks than students in the control group. It can be concluded that learners in the second group are lack of awareness of chunks.

If students lack awareness of lexical chunks, when they are speaking, they can not use lexical chunks consciously. Therefore, students should make it clear that lexical chunks are the basic unit of language learning and any production is mainly composed of lexical chunks. Students learning to use lexical chunks can effectively eliminate the influence of mother tongue so as to make their expression more exactly.

Thirdly, the problem comes from the traditional way of teaching. Due to the large size of English classes, one to one exchange is only limited to teachers and some students. Most of the students' behaviors are greatly restricted, they can

only be passively input with a limited number of chunks, but can not output actively. The traditional way of teaching makes learners in a passive and mindless state. However, the teaching of lexical chunks is a supplement of the present foreign language teaching methods, which makes the purpose of teaching and study becomes more concentrated (Yuan Wenxiang, 2008). In the teaching class, teachers can arrange a series of activities which are in the form of input, internalization and output. By this way, the ability of using lexical chunks can be strengthened as well as the competence of grammar and pragmatic can be improved. Schmidt thinks that language learning is an accumulation of chunks (Schmidt, 1990). Lexical chunks teaching method not only requires students to accumulate the phrases in the book but also requires them to accumulate lexical chunks in daily practice. On the basis of a large number of real language input, the teacher create the corresponding context, then teachers guide their students to make oral productions by lexical chunks. Therefore, they could complete the default communication tasks and communicative activities (Liu Jiaying, 2006).

IV. CONCLUSION

A. Findings of the Study

Lexical chunks incorporate the advantages of syntax, semantic and context. It has specific expression function and can be used as a whole. Lexical chunks play an important role in oral production. Through studies on how to help learners better improve English speaking proficiency are so many, people should be aware of the importance of chunks input in teaching. The results of the paper show that the chunks can obviously promote the students' language ability and there is a positive correlation between chunks and speaking proficiency of college English learners. All in all, the importance of lexical chunks should be stressed, students need to pay attention to students' language knowledge accumulation and to improve their speaking proficiency. Teaching of lexical chunks will help improve students' English comprehensive application ability. It advocates note memory in learning English and accumulate a large number of lexical chunks, which not only can enhance the students' English learning ability, and can promote the improvement of speaking ability.

B. Limitations of the Study

Through this research, the relevance between lexical chunks and the competence of English speaking has been observed. However, the present research is still elementary and experimental. There exist some limitations. The research involves only 60 students all together, which is quite a small sample and thus the reliability of the funding may be limited. Therefore, in further studies, it is advised that more varied subjects should be used to further test our present findings. In addition, longitudinal studies can be conducted in the future, which will present the development route of learners' English speaking proficiency.

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Kiarostami's *Through the Olive Tree*: A Postmodern Analysis

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Abstract—In the age of technology, films have become the most popular form to convey the message of art. With this issue in mind, the present study has examined Kiarostami's *Through the Olive Tree* (1994) from a postmodern perspective. The postmodern techniques used for this research are similar to those applied in literary studies. Through this investigation, it has been suggested that Abbas Kiarostami's *Through the Olive Tree* has some common features with a postmodern novel. In this respect, both focus on the instability of meaning and the inadequacy of language to thoroughly exhibit the truth. Accordingly, Kiarostami has more focused on the process of filmmaking to convey his message. In conclusion, he has emphasized the significance of audiences' involvement in a film by using postmodern techniques.

Index Terms—postmodernism, film, feminism, fall of grand narrative, historical metafiction

I. INTRODUCTION

Every era has a particular art form for conveying its desirable meaning to the audience. In the ancient time, there was the epic poem, theatrical presentation and songs. Generally, the majority of audiences enjoyed what could be transmitted orally. However, by the gradual increase of the reading public in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the novel became the prominent art form of its era. And as we reached the twentieth century, radio, film, and television have been brought to the fore. Among these, film is the most versatile one. This new form is almost distinct from all the pervious arts from. It is almost as if we are living in a visual culture. During the last decades, films have evolved into a complex form of artistic representation and communication and their huge influences are barely comprehensible for the common people. They have so infiltrated and permeated our everyday life which popular may be an understatement for its description.

These films shape the way we consider the world around us and our place in that world. Therefore, a close analysis of any particular movie can provide us a great deal about the society and the people living in it. Certainly any art form with such considerable influence and insight is worth exploring on the deepest possible level. As a result, the present study is an attempt to analyze the film, *Through the Olive Tree*, directed by Abbas Kiarostami on the deepest level. In fact, instead of exploring a specific critical theory on a work of fiction by a famous author, there has been an attempt to investigate the film, *Through the Olive Tree*, by Abbas Kiarostami. Moreover, the basis of this analysis is the postmodern theories used in the literary studies so as to situate this film in the place of a postmodern novel with all its features.

II. POSTMODERNISM

"Postmodernism" is often ascribed to a wide range of aesthetic, cultural, historical, literary, and philosophical subjects. Mostly researchers assume that there is a considerable difference between the modern era and the postmodern era. Therefore, it is believed that the modern era began in the late 17th century and ended almost in the 1960s while the postmodern is the last 30 years or so. Glass (1995) emphasized such definition of postmodernism by stating that: "Postmodernism is a philosophy that has reacted strongly against several assumptions of modernity: those concerning progress, history, causality, system, absolutes, meanings, the unitary self, technological judgment, and conformity"(p. 1).

The matter of unity, wholeness, and totality is considered to be the main difference between the two eras. In the modern age people were in search of totality, a unified perception of the world, a unified set of values and a unified culture and lifestyle. Many people of the modern era persistently searched for such totality, whereas others no longer intended to find such unity. Though they didn't really look for it, they still missed its loss and regretted it. As a result, modern people had a sense of nostalgia for pre-modern times when unity was possible. Nonetheless, the postmodern does not support these notions. In their view, there is no such thing as unity and totality at all. In other word, "where modernists hoped to unearth universals or the fundamentals of art, postmodernism aims to unseat them, to embrace diversity and contradiction". (Hoover; 1994. p. 24)

In fact, the term postmodernism shows drastic deviation of man's thought line. This could be implied that the significance of postmodernism lies in riveting our attention "to the changes, the major transformations, taking place in contemporary society and culture" (Sarup, 1993, p. 34). Moreover, it is an attempt to break the fossilized shackles of the established norms and notions, which have expanded into economic and political institutions. These fixed beliefs are the key resources of the power-maniac figures, who used them so as to justify and legitimize their brutality and unjust justice. Thus many postmodernist intellectuals consider themselves as the brave dissident to save humanity. This view declared the beginning of a pluralist age in which the arguments of scientists and historians are deemed no more than quasi narratives which compete with all the others for acceptance. From postmodern perspective, these arguments have no unique or reliable touch to the world. They are just another form of fiction.

Thus a postmodern perspective to art opposes the discrepancy between low and high art forms. The postmodern creator feels free to instill any elements or styles in a work, even if they are trivial to the apparent function of the object. "Postmodern style is often characterized by eclecticism, digression, collage, pastiche, irony, the return of ornament and historical reference, and the appropriation of popular media" (Waugh; 1992. p. 43). Postmodernism dismisses strict genre boundaries and instead supports parody, irony and playfulness. Moreover, there has been a sudden shift in the subject matter as Lyotard asserts that "postmodern artists regard the mass media as a fundamental subject for art, and use forms, tropes, and materials such as banks of video monitors, found art, and depictions of media objects as focal points for their art (Lyotard; 1988. p. 55). As a result, the significance of cinema has been elevated in artistic discussions and it is placed on a peer level with the other fine arts due to the blurring of distinctions between "high" and "low" forms, and the recognition of the creation of simulacra in cinema. Post modernism in film can be applied to those films in which it is tried to destroy the audience's suspension of disbelief and to free the audience's adulation of the work, and the creator's means used to express it. The foundations of conventional narrative structure is changed and even upside down in order to generate a work whose internal logic forms is its means of expression. Even though such movement in theatre started with Bertolt Brecht's epic theatre, post-modernist film didn't came into appearance until the advent of the French New Wave in the 1950s and 60's, with such films as Jean-Luc Godard's *À bout de souffle*. Likewise, Kiarostami is not portraying the socio-political issues, but presenting a medium, its concepts and whole apparatus put in the service of these which seems to be a heritage of the French and National New Waves.

III. KIAROSTAMI'S CINEMA

Kiarostami's perspective toward cinema is almost lined up with Lumière-brothers. He has abandoned the rules of transparency and fiction. Kiarostami has broken the distinction between reality and fiction in his films. His cinema is centered on the progressive role of audience's participation in the process of achieving the final purpose of a film. In this respect, he has tried to project the lives of common people and rather than focusing on the superstars with their bigger-than-life personalities and he has used nonprofessional actors whose faces are compelling.

Kiarostami's fame outside of Iran began by *Where is the Friend's Home?* This film is the first of the series which continued through the next decade by *And Life Goes on* (1992) and *Through the Olive Trees* (1994). This series is called 'Koker Trilogy' in the West. For the reason that all the three films take the village of Koker which is located in north of Iran as their setting. Since then, a worldwide study of Kiarostami's artworks is established. Comparing to the other intercontinental filmmakers such as Eric Rohmer, Jacques Tati and Satyajit Ray, he has often applied the techniques of his own invention which is known as Kiarostami's style. Moreover, his position in the world cinema can be understood when, the Guardian's panel of critics ranked him as the best non- American film director in 2006.

IV. KIAROSTAMI'S *THROUGH THE OLIVE TREE*

Through the Olive Trees is the last film of "Koker Trilogy" directed by the famous Iranian director Abbas Kiarostami in 1994. The films are related to each other by the use of the same actors, characters and location. The latter two resolve around the 1990 earthquake that stroke in the area which killed close to 50,000 people. *Through the Olive Trees* starts when an actor addresses the camera and states his name. He tells the audience that he is an actor who plays the role of a director in this film. The film provides us with a glance into the inner workings of Kiarostami's filmmaking process. Like the time when the director decides to choose from the girls who are the non-actor students and they are in the middle of taking their exams at school. Even though only one or two girl will be selected for the final shooting in the film, the process of selection is covered on camera. The film falls into a romantic turn when the director gets to know Hussein better. Hussein is a young man who is desperately in love with Tahereh, one of the actors selected to play in the movie. Hussein's real life preferences are brought forward to the movie. It seems that Hussein was originally a mason who is told to carry a bag of plaster up a flight of stairs. However, due to his denial and unwillingness to handle the material, the director revises Hussein's character so as to make him and Tahereh a couple.

V. FALL OF THE GRAND NARRATIVE

Modernism stresses over a central point which is the ultimate truth. This concept of ultimate truth is placed primarily upon the optimism of both the Enlightenment (faith in science and reason) and upon the Hegel's idea of the Unity of all Knowledge (man's evolutionary process of growth of the mind from ignorance into total being).

These ideas are described to be the grand narratives which molded our secular culture throughout most of the 20th Century. Certainly, modernism proved itself to be quite limited and inadequate to solve humanity's problems, rendering it to be just another useless means of man in searching for his salvation. However, noticing the postmodern theorist like Lyotard, the Enlightenment felled sharply and science also showed its unstable base which was once believed to have universal stability. As a result the modern man was never led to total truth and the grand narratives proved to be limited and ineffectual, therefore, Lyotard and the other postmodernists neglected the objective truth in favor of a new strategy. This new approach expresses disbelief in the truth of grand narratives by restoring to the subjective use of language and media to prop up subjective ideas about meaning and truth.

Lyotard's postmodernism supports little narratives which asserts to avoid totalization and heterogeneity. Lyotard's challenges the conceptualization of history as events in a linear sequence so as to show that postmodernism can never be defined in language or in history. Postmodernism for Lyotard is neither formed in a specific style nor in an historical period. Instead, postmodernism is an undefinable deferral of conceptualization and totality. It should be noted that postmodernists emphasize on anti-foundationism and epistemological uncertainty. One may reach this conclusion that postmodernism is not easily comprehensible and it is illustrated by using and meddling with the process which puts diverse contexts together and employs its various exponents.

The reflection of the fall of grand narrative can be seen in postmodern novels which lack any kind of unified narrative. By reading these types of novels, one is encountered by different narratives which are developed side by side. In such cases, one narrative can never overcome the other. As a result, even the narrator cannot convince us that his narrative can unify the whole text together while in pre-modern novel, the narrator is the omniscient one who has controlling power over the whole text. Subsequently, the reader of the postmodern novels is faced with a couple parallel narratives and it is as if the reader has to find his way in a labyrinth of narratives.

Similarly, in the common modernist movie, the events begin in a specific time and develop through a definable timeline. It mostly has a linear development along the timeline. Even if the lateral thinking of the character deviates from the linear development of the timeline, it is still developing through the timeline and forming a unified narrative, however, *Through the Olive Trees* which seems to be influenced by postmodern novels resist any kind of unification of narrative. By proposing different narrative simultaneously, it confounds the reader and pushes him to a postmodern space.

Mostly, in each movie, the first narrator is the camera which tells the story. Its narration consists of different elements it captures thorough filming. However, in *Through the Olive Trees*, we have some other narratives developing in a parallel way. The film begins when an actor is introducing himself as the director: "I am Mohammad Ali Keshavarz; the actor who plays the director" (1994, scene 1). From the beginning, we are introduced to two narratives; one is the camera and the real recruit of filmmaking and the other one is the so-called director who plays the role of the director and aims to produce a film. As this point, the audience is put in an ambivalent situation and will be hesitant to find the most suitable and stable narrative. This kind of beginning can fully show the absence of a grand narrative. Nonetheless, as the film goes on, another narrative is added to the previous ones. The audience is introduced to a character named Hussein who is supposed to play in the film in which our director talked about in the first scene. However, Hussein himself becomes another narrator who tells us his love story. Therefore, just in the middle of watching the film, the audience is encountered with several different narrative which makes him unable to determine the superior one. As a result, there isn't any grand narrative at all and instead the story is narrated through different narratives which unable the audience to follow a unified plot. And he should be content to see a collage of different narratives at the same time. And as Elena (2005) says such a situation engages the reader in "an uncomfortable but productive state of uncertainty" (p.87-88).

VI. REALITY VS. FICTION

Since ancient time the artist had to hide his fictitiousness of his work so as to make it seem real to the audience. For example, a painter was supposed to draw his painting in a way so close to the real things in the external world. Similarly a novelist could become famous as long as he writes in close imitation of the events of the society and makes his novel as real as possible. All these effort was done to abide by a main principle: "Ars est selare artem" which is a Latin phrase signifying that the true art hides its means of expression. Therefore, there shouldn't be any reference to the means of expression of the art. However, postmodernism aims to highlight the fictitiousness of art and renounce the existence of any absolute reality. In most of the postmodern novels the, the narrator himself cut the story and mentions some information about the plot, character or the setting.

As an example, in the famous postmodern novel, *The French Lieutenant's Woman*, the narrator moves from his main discussion and says: "This story I am telling is all imagination. These characters I create never existed outside my own mind". By telling this, the narrator is actually reminding the reader that the characters are fictitious and they are far away from the real people of our world. And their interaction could never be occurred in the real world, therefore, there never could be any of such interaction in the real world and it is just a work of fiction. Or as the narrator of *If on a Winter's Night a Traveller* says directly at the beginning of the novel:

"You are about to begin reading Italo Calvino's new novel, *If on a winter's night a traveler*. Relax concentrate. Dispel every other thought. Let the world around you fade. Best to close the door; the TV is always on in the next room. Tell

the others right away, “No, I don’t want to watch TV!” Raise your voice-they won’t hear you otherwise- “I’m reading! I don’t want to be disturbed! “May be they haven’t heard you, with all that racket; speak louder, yell: “I’m beginning to read Italo Calvino’s new novel!” Or if you prefer, don’t say anything; just hope they’ll leave you alone.”

The narrator distinguishes between the real world and the world of fiction by such references. And the reader will be reminded persistently that an author has written the work. Similarly, at the beginning of *Through the Olive Trees* the actor, who tells us of his role as a director, explains to us the process of producing a film as he says:

I am Mohammad Ali Keshavarz; the actor who plays the director. The other actors are recruited on the site. We are in Koger approximately 400, no 350 kilometers to the north of Tehran where last year an earthquake destroyed everything. We are in a rebuilt school to choose a young actress (Abbas Kiarostami, scene 1).

As it is clear, *Through the Olive Trees* highlights its features of fictitiousness above reality. As Elena (2005) mentions:

In reality, from the moment of the first sequence—the presentation to camera made by the actor who says he is the film’s director—*Through the Olive Trees* is deliberately situated in ‘undecided territory’ halfway between fiction and documentary, what is ‘real’ and what is ‘filmed.’

Upon further consideration, one can see that the postmodern film like the postmodern novel focuses on the means of writing or producing the work rather than on what it is specifically about. Furthermore, it has been really hard to distinguish between the reality and fiction through the various techniques used by the director such as the flashback to the cemetery, the plenty of point-of-view shots (from inside vehicles, basically) and the persistent use of off-camera (the whole conversation taking place between the teacher and Mrs. Shiva).

VII. HISTORICAL METAFICTION

As we are taking a postmodernism stand, we should cope with the paradoxes of fictive/historical representation and the present/ the past. “And this confrontation is itself contradictory, for it refuses to recuperate or dissolve either side of the dichotomy, yet it is more than willing to exploit both” (Hutcheon, 1996, p.73). As it is clear, this age of technology has caused the development of mass media like television. And by the advent of mass media the existence of different cultures and histories previously invisible due to geographical distance was highlighted. As a result, a destabilization of grand narratives is experienced which provokes “the very grounds of social and cultural periodization have seemed to dissolve. [...] History has been radically “relativized,” fissuring into a multiplicity of contingent, ‘local’ narratives or ‘micro-histories,’ discontinuous and incommensurable ‘times,’ whose interrelations are –in the absence of universals–uninterpretable” (David Bennett, 1990, p. 262).

Writing about the past has always been highlighted as a controversial issue. Because any representation of the history is substantially dependent upon the perspective of individual. Consequently, the historiography can never provide us with an exact and true representation of the past time but rather a replica of the past. The term “historical metafiction” was first coined by Linda Hutcheon) in her essay “Historiographic Metafiction: Parody and the Interest of History”. As Hucheon argues that the postmodern fiction is not to “deny the existence of the past [but to] question whether we can ever know that past other than through its textualized remains” (1988, p. 19-20). In other word, by gaining this new perspective, the author is throwing some light on the past events and is interpreting them in a new way. And it is mostly done to pose the serious problems of the past which may have been neglected by the reader or audience. In this case, the narrator plays an ironical role to declare his intention that “history consists essentially in seeing the past through the eyes of the present and in the light of its problems” (Carr, 1983, p.21).

Through the Olive Trees (1994), Kiarostami has intentionally represented a historical event which has also been shot in his previous movie. As mentioned earlier, his so-called ‘Koker trilogy’ consists of *Where is the Friend’s House?* (1987), *Life and Nothing More* (1992) and *Through the Olive Trees* (1994). After his first film, *Where is the Friend’s House?* (1987), Kiarostami decided to search for his main character who has been living where the earthquake had occurred, therefore, his second film *Life and Nothing More* (1992) is about the journey of the director back to the place where the first one was shot. And the third one of this trilogy, *Through the Olive Trees* (1994), is about the process of making the second one.

Thus through filming *Through the Olive Trees*(1994), Kiarostami has represented some scenes from his previous movies through new perspective. Even it could be said the whole film is historical metafiction as it is exploring the events of previous films through a new light. The second scene of *Through the Olive Trees* (1994), shows Ms. Shiva driving a car through the road which is situated from the both sides to wreckage left from the 1990 Manjil-Rudbar Earthquake. Such a documentary-scene is so close to the one which Kiarostami has shown in his second film, *Life and Nothing More* (1992). Similarly, in the second scene of that film, Mr. Kheradmand is driving a car through the wreckages left by the 1990 Manjil-Rudbar Earthquake. However, there is a big difference between these two scenes. In the one from the *Life and Nothing More* (1992), we see many people especially from government (these people are distinguishable from the same uniform which they have worn) coming to help and search for the victims in the wreckages.

Nonetheless, in the scene from the *Through the Olive Trees*, we see nobody there to help these people anymore and all the wreckage are left desolate. Interestingly this scene begins while the car radio is on and it is playing a program

named "Calendar". This program is about the historical events which have happened through the history at that particular day. Therefore the broadcaster starts by saying that:

"Today is Sunday, the ninth of the month of Khordad of the year of 1372 of the solar hejira or the eighth of month of Zihadjeh of the year 1413 lunar hejira or again the 30th of May, 1993. There are 1353 years in a similar day..." (Abbas Kiarostami, car-driving scene).

We hear the broadcaster till this moment and after that his voice is not audible anymore. In any case, the audience remembers the time of earthquake. As he watches the wreckage and listens to the broadcaster saying that "in a similar day", the audience well remembers the time of earthquake. Actually, Kiarostami is re-filming the history for us by juxtaposing these two scenes which are both taken from a historical event. In fact, the scene from *Life and Nothing More* (1992) is shown to us again in *Through the Olive Trees* (1994) but it is shown from a different perspective so as to throw some light to a serious problem whom the people may have forgotten. It is the desperate and unpleasant situation of the people who are still suffering from the 1990 Manjil-Rudbar Earthquake. Kiarostami also mentions how these people and their problems have been forgotten and they have become part of the history. Though Kiarostami has denied to be a socio-political filmmaker, he has dealt with social problems of his time in the best possible level. He has tried to make people aware of the difficulties of the people of this area.

VIII. INSUFFERABLE FEMINISM

As it is discussed above, postmodernism rejected the existence of the grand narratives or any kind of universal and teleological philosophy. In this respect, treating women as inferior and not considering their rights and values were common and relatively emphasized in 19th century. This kind of attitude shapes a patriarchal society which considers women as servicing creatures. Consequently, this perspective on women became a grand narrative which dominated most of the works written in 19th century. However, by the advent of 20th, an opposition force took shape against this kind of attitude which was called feminism. The term feminism is ascribed to set of movements towards achieving equivalent economic, social, cultural and political rights in the society for women as well as men. Flax considers his definition of feminism in this way, "Feminist theories call for a trans-valuation of values—a rethinking of our ideas about what is just, humanly excellent, worthy of praise, moral, and so forth". (1991, p. 21). In fact, there have been many relentless endeavors by women toward shackling the obstacles during the past century. And it is hoped that a path for creating a more balanced and equitable conditions for both genders will be paved.

In a rather short scene of *Life and Nothing More* (1992), Kiarostami has filmed a newly married couple. Based on their conversation, one can understand that the man dose have the superior power over the women. He is always ordering the women in an unpleasant and disrespectful way. For example in a scene when the man comes home; the women says: "Welcome home" (Abbas Kiarostami, coming-home scene) but the man instead of answering the women says: "you give me a little water" (Abbas Kiarostami, coming-home scene). Moreover, during this short time, we just see the ordering of man and the women's servicing.

However, this rather short scene from *Life and Nothing More* (1992) takes up the whole time of *Through the Olive Trees* (1994). In *Through the Olive Trees* (1994), the process of production of this scene is displayed to the audience. Therefore, Kiarostami has enough time to focus on his character more. In this film, we get to know the incidents which have happened between the newly married couple, Hussein and Tahereh, of the previous film. Hussein tells us of the time that he has been working near Tahereh's house as a construction worker and how he first fell in love with Tahereh. Then he decided to go to her parents and proposed to her. But he had been rejected instantly and also fired from working there. Accidentally, that night the earthquake occurred and all of Tahereh's family were killed except herself and her old grandmother.

After that, we see Hussein persistently going to Tahereh's grandmother and proposing but each time he is rejected. However, during the filmmaking, there is a suitable opportunity for Hussein to talk to Tahereh in person when the filming has been stopped to check some technical filmmaking points. At this moment Hussein starts talking to Tahereh and says:

Tahereh, when I asked for my socks... Do not think that I am really myself, it is what the director wants. I am not someone that keeps asking: where are my socks? If I marry you, I will have enough tact to put away my socks, my clothes and my things? I want to marry to be happy, not to have you cook for me nor to have you take care of my clothes. I would want you to keep studying if you wanted while I work and ate in the bazaar, the only thing I want is your happiness. I want you to be happy. (Abbas Kiarostami, Hussein-speaking scene)

This is one of the most dazzling scene in which Kiarostami has tried to portray the difficulty of keeping an individual personality. In this case, Hussein by referring to the order of the director, is actually referring to the confines of a stereotyped social role which has been posed upon him. It is implied that the social and parental conventions is the true cause of unhappiness of a couple as they are never allowed to act to each other respectfully. Kiarostami tries to discover the basic human values especially for women as they are persistently oppressed by the society and its convention.

In another scene, when the filming is finished everybody is preparing to go home. At that moment, Tahereh decides not to go home by the crew's car and goes home on foot. As Hussein sees that Tahereh has decided to walk home alone, he himself decides to walk by her and talk to her. From this moment till the end of film, we see Tahereh walking silently while Hussein is accompanying him and asking her to give him an answer of whether she likes to marry him or

not. Even on the way, Hussein threatens Tahereh that she needs a husband in a case that her mother and father has died and she has nobody to take care of her. However, Tahereh is determined and not willing to answer Hussein. Finally, at the end of the road, it seems that Tahereh has given him the answer and Hussein becomes so happy.

By this scene Kiarostami aims to imply this concept that first the Iranian girls need to be freed from the conventions and the restraint of the society and while abandoning everything, they should search for a new identity and meaning in their life. Similarly, in this scene, Tahereh strives to become a self-motivated human being in a woman-denying man's world. Thus, by showing Tahereh going home alone, Kiarostami has tried to describe her struggle for acquiring an independent identity. This part of the film defines the exact concept of postmodernism that not only defines postmodernity in a magnificent way, but it also attacks the elements of modernism as well. Generally speaking, this part of the film is not about the concept of feminism or the unbearable domination of men in a modern society, but it indicates the exact right of each individual, no matter single or married, to escape from the myriad of restricting rules of the modern world to gain his or her right in the postmodern world in which every individual is considered as a respectful society by itself and to acquire the freedom which is summarized in choosing what you truly believe in.

IX. CONCLUSION

Kiarostami is considered as one of the post-modern directors. Certainly, to arrive at the post-modern cinema; one should consider the postmodernist view of the world first. Also it is worth mentioning that post-modernism is the act of destroying modernist viewpoints but it is certainly the vision of both present and future offered to us. Kiarostami's cinema seemingly differs greatly from his predecessors. For him, this postmodern world is a simulation in which there is no longer any difference between reality and surface. Kiarostami has chosen a new path by breaking the rules of narratives and has not got stuck in a definite framework. Though most of his works belong to the modern era, postmodern characteristics can be seen in his works. The above project has tried to approach the postmodernist features of Kiarostami's *Through the Olive Trees* (1994) from the viewpoint of literary scholar and it has explored some postmodernist features such as the fall of the grand narrative, the subjugation of reality, the historical metafiction and the insufferable feminism. Thus, it is claimed that Kiarostami's *Through the Olive Trees* (1994), though a cinematic masterpiece, has followed the postmodernist features of literature.

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Cultivation of Foreign Language Talents Viewed from the Perspective of Educational Ecology*

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Abstract—From the perspective of educational ecology, this study systematically and comprehensively analyzes the ecological imbalance existing in the process of the cultivation of foreign language talents. By taking the outer dynamic balance between individual development and the external environment and the inner balance of the development of the individual as guiding principles and by employing the basic laws in ecology, this study puts forward some suggestions to establish a positive, interactive and ecological cultivation mode for international foreign talents, embodying the ecological philosophy of people-orientation and sustainable development.

Index Terms—ecological perspective, foreign language talents, ecological balance

I. INTRODUCTION

With the growing trend of globalization and internationalization, cultivation of foreign language especially English talents is getting increasingly significant for a country to participate in international affairs and cooperate with business partners from all over the world. Since 2002, the new round of College English Teaching Reform has been carried out in China and made gratifying achievements, but still some problem have been left unsettled. Viewed from an ecological point of view, all these problems can be boiled down to the ecological imbalance in the talent cultivation process. This paper adopts a perspective of educational ecology and tries to analyze the causes of ecological imbalance in foreign language education, and to figure out the solutions to these problems.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *What Is Educational Ecology?*

Ecology is the scientific study of the interrelationship and interaction between organisms and their environment. Educational ecology, first proposed by Ashby, E. (1966), is the combination of education and ecology and it seeks to interpret education with ecological fundamentals. The connection between language acquisition and ecology lies in that both stress the context or situation of individual activities. Students, like organisms, adapt their language use according to the environment, situation and interpersonal dynamics((Hawkins, 2004; Orellana & Bowman, 2003; Paris, 2010).To put foreign language education under the guidance of ecology is to situate language learning in contexts of individual mental processes as well as the social and cultural and historical contexts (Berkeley Language Center, 2004). Ecological perspective seeks to identify how ecological settings relate to English language learning. It orients at the all-around development of each individual and emphasizes the internal balance of individual development and interrelationship between personal development and the external environment, which is in accordance with the concept of people-centered and sustainable development.

B. *A Review of the Previous Studies and Their Limitations*

In the past few decades, the study of educational ecology has witnessed a shift from the theoretical exploration to practical application, from the macro-study of the interrelationship between education, politics and economy to the micro study of its application to pedagogy and classroom teaching (Deng&Du, 2009). In the early 21st century, ecological ideas were introduced to foreign language education and ushered in heated discussion on the cultivation of ecological and individualistic foreign language talents.

A detailed analysis of the previous studies shows that most of them focus on one sub-ecosystem such as curriculum design (e.g. Han & Dong, 2011; Xiao, 2010), ecological classroom (e.g. Sommer, 1967; Doyle, 1977, Jacobs, 1989), ecological teaching methods (e.g. An, 2009; Chen, 2010) etc. Studies to put foreign language education into a complete, dynamic, systematic and balanced ecosystem are quite rare. Foreign language education, as a organic, complex and unified ecosystem(Cremin,1976), covers the setting of cultivation goal, curriculum design, teaching content, teaching methods, evaluation system and teacher development, with each factor interconnected with others and finally form a complex and unified whole. No factor in the ecological system can be studied in isolation. In view of this, this paper

* This paper is a fruit of the research grant “The application of blended teaching and learning based on SPOC in College English”.

aims to put foreign language education into the ecological framework based on a complete, dynamic, systematic and balanced viewpoint, and examine how environment influences the development of foreign language talents.

III. METHODOLOGY

Exploration of the social needs for foreign language talents is mainly based on the news report, and examination of the classroom sub-ecosystem and the internal balance development of each individual is based on a questionnaire designed by this author.

A. *Participants*

Six hundred college students aged between 19 to 22 from 3 universities participated in this questionnaire survey, and finally 592 valid questionnaires were collected.

B. *Instrument*

Social specifications for foreign language talents were analyzed by referring to the latest reports from newspapers and authoritative websites to explore whether there is imbalance between the social need and the cultivation mode in universities.

A questionnaire (see Appendix) was adopted to comprehensively examine the foreign language teaching and the inner balance individuals achieved in foreign language education. Besides background information, the questionnaire contained 5 aspects of foreign language education with 5 questions for each aspect: teaching attitude, teaching method, teaching content, teaching evaluation and after-class English learning.

C. *Procedures*

Reports about the need of foreign language talents were collected to find out the social needs for foreign language talents.

Questionnaires were distributed randomly on campus and students were asked to finish it in the face of the researcher. A small gift was rewarded for their cooperation. Altogether 600 students filled in the questionnaires, but some were found to be invalid as they made all the same choices to all the questions, and thus was excluded. Finally, 592 questionnaires were left in the final analysis.

D. *Analysis*

Social need for foreign language talents is mainly analyzed qualitatively and the result of the questionnaire is mainly analyzed quantitatively, expressed in terms of percentage.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. *Imbalance between the Cultivation Goal and the Social Needs*

According to the news reports about the social needs for foreign language talents, versatile or compound foreign talents are in urgent need and the shortage of them has become a bottleneck in many industries. Renming website claimed the need for talents familiar with foreign trade has surpassed 790,000 in China and with the popularity of internet, personnel expert in international e-commerce also suffer from severe shortage and it is estimated that 6 million more such talents are needed to cater to the development of international trade on line. Besides, the lacking of high-level specialized translators and interpreters has greatly hindered the process of "Introducing Chinese culture to the world".

When some foreign language talents are urgently needed, some English majors are suffering from unemployment. According to a survey conducted by Mycos (2010), 30 percent unemployment bracket come from some majors like English, accounting, law and computer etc. The high unemployment rate of English talents and the proportion of talent gap form a great contrast, which shows that the cultivation of English talents in Colleges and universities lags far behind the social needs and there is a serious mismatch between the personnel training and the social demand.

A glance at the orientation of foreign language education in China shed some light on our understanding of this phenomenon. For a long time, foreign language education has aimed to cultivate personnel to carry out research or academic work in diplomatic and teaching and research department, where language is learned for the sake of language itself. Quite a number of foreign language personnel trained in this way only know about the language, but can not use the language in real communication. Lu (2011) conducted a survey with 60 undergraduates in Qinghua University who have finished their college English learning and finds that 60% of them could not understand academic lectures in English and 81.6% had no confidence to have academic exchange in spoken English and 83.3% were not sure to be able to write essays in English.

If this objective were still true when the Republic of China was founded, such an orientation has been totally out of date when time steps into the 21st century, when talents of various specifications are in bad need. In this globalized and internationalized era, foreign language talents are not only required to be proficient with the language itself, international laws, rules and regulations, foreign cultures and other professional knowledge are also vitally important

for graduates to be competent in their jobs. Need analysis should be conducted to maintain a dynamic balance between the personnel training and social need.

B. Inconsistency between the Curriculum Design and Students' Starting Point, Cognition, Need and Interest

Like organisms, learners have their upper and lower limit for their tolerance of the environment (Shelford, 1913) and deficiency and excess of any factor will bring in negative effect. In foreign language education, according to the survey conducted by this author, about 80% college students admit they have a big English class with about 100 students and thus less opportunity for them to participate in class activities, and 25.8% students claim what their English teachers presented in class is either too difficult or too easy for them, which may be closely linked to another fact that graded teaching is still not carried out in College English course in some universities as revealed by 32% students in this survey. Facing with such a big class, it is almost impossible for teachers to know the aptitude of each student, and thus unable to assign tasks in accordance to students' proficiency level and offer pertinent suggestions for each student, no matter how devoted they could be to teaching.

In teaching method, great reliance on multi-media is found to be a solution to a big class, but too much reliance on multi-media has also invited some complaint from the students because of indigestion for what teachers have presented.

As for the content of teaching material, 71% students prefer the authentic textbooks in English, and 85% approved of the combination of language teaching with their major or professional knowledge and 73% regarded it necessary for their English to keep pace with the latest information and applicable in real life. However, current textbooks, focusing more on language skill than on real content, are out of line with students' cognitive levels. It is said Chinese English textbook for college students have almost the same requirements in cognition as those for the seniors in primary school in western countries. Mechanical training with little interest and practical value, greatly reduced students' motivation, not to mention creativity and analytical thinking.

In fact, according to this survey, 41.6% students showed dissatisfaction in their English learning in college. How to manage the teaching within students' tolerance limits and satisfy the needs of students of different levels is still a challenge for Chinese English teachers.

C. Flowerpot Effect Resulted from the Closeness of Classroom Teaching

Flowerpot is a man made environment, where plants or flowers may grow well with the agreeable temperature and moisture controlled by human beings. But once they leave the flowerpot to live in the natural environment, their adaptation would be found to have greatly declined (Wu & Zhu, 2000:168). Language is learned not for the sake of language itself; it should serve the purpose of communication in real situations. Too much emphasis on linguistic features may undermine students' development of pragmatic competence. Students performing very well in class or in CET-4 or CET-6 (College English Test, Band 4 or 6) may turn out to be inadequate in real communication with foreigners.

According to this survey, the most frequent activities English teachers conduct in class are explaining the text, analyzing grammatical structures and doing the exercise after the text, of which explaining the text is the most time-consuming but least effective way for students. Activities aiming to train students' skills are not stressed and independent thinking and analyzing are not properly encouraged in class. Contexts are not created for students to have the communication in the real sense. Instead, too much emphasis on linguistic features and language drills bored students and discouraged their enthusiasm in English learning. Worse still, in this teacher-centered class, students feel less challenged and assume a less positive role in class, thus laziness is encouraged.

After class learning should have been an effective supplement to class teaching. In fact, 65% students would choose English movies, songs and some website etc. with the hope to improve their proficiency, but due to the lack of instruction in learning strategies from the teacher and inadequacy in autonomous learning ability, 45% claimed the effect of after-learning is rather low.

Classroom teaching neglecting students' involvement and lacking the supplementary after-class learning is like a flowerpot, where students may feel comfortable to deal with the exercise in textbook and the language drills, but once exposed to the real situation, they may find themselves quite inadequate to carry out a smooth and successful communication.

D. Inner Ecological Imbalance of Individuals in Foreign Language Education

Inner balance of organisms or individual is the basis for them to interact with the outside environment, which is achieved through various factors like affective, cognitive, psychology etc. A rapport relationship with the teachers and peers would reduce students' anxiety in performing communication tasks. A well-balanced knowledge structure would enhance students' confidence in real communication. Correct world and life value and optimistic attitude towards life would guide them in the maze of pluralist cultural communication. From the survey, however, 41% of students could not establish a close relationship with their teachers and even 23% thought their teacher could not know them. As for whether they would feel confident to carry out some tasks in English after graduation, 63% showed great anxiety. Some claimed they could not have many opportunities to practice their language and thus less motivation is behind their learning and still others claimed that inadequate number of courses to combine English with other subjects is available, thus hindering students' practical use of English in real communication.

E. The Qualification of English Teachers – A Potential Limiting Factor in Educational Ecosystem

Limiting factors refer to any potential factor that may limit or affect the over-all growth and development of students, of which the qualification of English teachers should not be ignored. In China, English is learned as a foreign language, detached from the target language and culture and depending heavily on teacher's teaching in class. Therefore, if the teachers' knowledge structure is unbalanced or their teaching ideas are outdated and teaching methods very inappropriate, the teaching effect will greatly suffer. Through this study, it is pitifully found that some language teachers would make some errors due to their ignorance in some special areas. Statistics also shows that English teachers in college lack the motive to do research or update their teaching theory (Chen, 2003) and pluralistic knowledge structure of English teachers still leaves much to be desired.

V. CONSTRUCTION OF ECOLOGICAL CULTIVATION MODE OF FOREIGN LANGUAGE TALENTS

Ecological balance is "a state of dynamic equilibrium within a community of organisms in which gene, species and ecosystem diversity remain relatively stable, subject to gradual changes through natural succession" (Arthur 1973:13). In view of the ecological imbalance in foreign language talent cultivation, a balanced, dynamic and systematic perspective should be proposed in the cultivation mode of foreign language personnel.

Ecology stresses the adaptability of organisms to the surroundings and in the following part environmental factors will be examined and the external balance between the individual and environment and internal balance that learners should maintain within themselves will be proposed.

A. Keep a Dynamic Balance between Social Needs and Qualifications of Foreign Language Talents

According to the principle of multiple symbiosis and mutual competition, ecological foreign language talents training should consider the macro social needs, determine diversification in the training goal, and avoid the single personnel training specifications and the competition among homogeneous foreign language talents.

A shift from elite education to mass education in China requires the hierarchy and multiplicity in foreign language talent training. Besides academic talents, foreign language education should give top priority to the cultivation of talents proficient in business, tourism, law and finances etc. Cross-cultural awareness should be highly raised and major knowledge should be expanded so as to adapt to the international stage and become competitive in international business. To avoid the competition caused by homogeneity of foreign language talents, colleges and universities should cultivate talents with characteristics, by giving full play to the geographical advantages, (such as Qingdao, Weihai and other places can strengthen their training of Japanese and Korean talents with the close tie established with South Korea and Japan) and the discipline advantage (such as colleges and universities of Finance and economics, can avail themselves of the professional advantages of finance and economics in cultivation of foreign language talents) etc. Talents of different levels would be needed for different positions, so vocational colleges and universities may set different specifications in their training and be responsible for the division of the labor.

An ecosystem should be open to the exchange of energy and information outside to survive. Foreign language teaching in colleges and universities should understand the social needs, and keep pace with the times in the curriculum and teaching contents. In order to make the students realize the social demand for foreign language talents, the school can develop social practice bases for foreign language talents to accumulate their experience in practical use of their learning.

Evaluation system should also be pluralistic. Whether a graduate is qualified or not is not only judged by how well they can perform in school, his/her company or clients may have more to say. Schools should conduct tracking survey to know how well graduates adapt to their working environment and how proficiently they can handle the problems in real situations so as to adjust the teaching in school in time.

B. Maintain the Ecological Balance in Classroom

The main source of learning for students of EFL is classroom, which forms a relatively self-contained micro-ecosystem, covering the physical environment, teaching objectives, teaching content, teaching method and evaluation and teaching and learning climate etc.

Appropriate class size, rapport relationship between students and teachers, interactive style of learning tasks, cognitively matched teaching material, flexibility and diversity of teaching method, pluralistic evaluation and proper expansion of extracurricular activities after class all benefit the effectiveness of foreign language teaching and contribute to the virtuous circle of the micro-ecosystem of classroom.

C. Concern about the Internal Balance of Individuals

Young (1998) stresses individuality in foreign language teaching and highlight the multi-intelligence development of each individual. The cognitive state, individual need and the balanced development of individual knowledge structure should be born in mind so as to attain the all-round development of foreign language talents.

In accordance of the law of tolerance (Shelford, 1913), the implementation of graded teaching is highly recommended to cater to the different needs of students with different proficiency. Balanced development of learners' knowledge structure should also be highlighted to improve their adaptability in practical application, so the barriers

between subjects and disciplines should be broken down in curriculum design, and talents with mixed abilities are greatly welcome in market.

In addition to a solid foundation in cultural knowledge and major knowledge, correct world outlook and values are also necessary for foreign language talents to rationally interpret foreign culture and scientifically inherit the traditional values in the cultural collision between the west and east. A strong inner world and high adaptability to the society also contribute to the individual stability and all-around development.

D. Strengthen Teacher Development

China is typical TEFL environment for English learning. Under such a background, the quality of foreign language teachers themselves even than other environmental factors is more likely to influence the learner's success. To cultivate international foreign language talents, first of all, we need international foreign language teachers. Foreign language teachers should constantly update their ideas and knowledge structure through attending lectures, participating in international conferences, short-term training, acting as visiting scholars to learn from other universities etc. in the integration of knowledge structure, language teachers and major teachers should learn from each other to make up for what they are weak.

VI. CONCLUSION

The ecological perspective, according to Leo Van Lier (2004), is neither a theory nor a method, but a way of thinking. To put all ecological factors of foreign language talent cultivation into a big ecosystem is conducive for us to plan every aspect of personnel training from a dynamic, balanced, systematic and complete viewpoint. Talents cultivated in this way tend to maintain the internal balance of individual development and the external balance between individuals and the environment and would have stronger adaptability and competence.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

同学:

你好! 为了解你对教学效果的评价和意见, 帮助教师改进教学, 请你根据实际情况如实客观地填写以下问卷。(可以多选)。感谢你的大力支持!

个人基本情况

1. 我所在学校 ()
2. 我的学院() 年级 () 专业 ()
3. 年龄: () 性别 ()
4. 你所在的大学英语课堂班级人数 ()
5. 你所在的学校是否实行分级教学 ()

教学态度

1. 平时英语课堂教学中教师的主要目的是以学生的全面发展为主。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
2. 平时教师在组织教学方面精心设计教学环节, 课堂时间安排科学、利用充分。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
3. 平时教师在教学准备方面以教材知识为主, 兼顾教学内容、学生状况和教学方法。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
4. 老师能够根据学生的具体学习能力分不同层次布置课后练习。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
5. 老师对所布置的作业总是能及时有效地检查和批阅。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意

教学方法

6. 平时教师在教学方法的选择方面积极采用现代教学理念, 虚心征求学生意见, 不断改进教学。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
7. 你认为平时教师在教学方法的使用方面能够做到以学生为中心, 因材施教。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
8. 你认为平时教师在教学手段方面存在过分依赖多媒体、网络等现代教育技术手段的现象。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
9. 老师在课堂上使用的英语的比例大概占(), 中文占(), 你希望老师使用英文的比例占(), 中文占()。
A. 20% B. 40% C. 60% D. 80% E. 100%
10. 在英语课堂上, 主要的课堂活动有(), 这些活动的量从多到少的顺序是(), 您认为最有效的方

式是(), 最需要改进的是()。

- A. 解释课文 B. 讲解语法 C. 口语练习 D. 听力练习 E. 翻译练习
F. 看电影 G. 写作文 H. 自学课文 I. 做课后题 K. 小测

除了以上几项, 还有:

教学内容

11. 目前英语学习过程中的教材应该使用英文引进的原版教材。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
12. 前英语学习教材的内容应该与学生所学专业相结合。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
13. 教师在教学内容的选择方面应该讲授知识丰富, 创设情境, 反映最新信息, 把所学知识与实际生活相结合。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
14. 在课堂教学中, 老师对学生学习策略、分析和解决问题能力的培养非常注重, 而且方法得当。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意
15. 课堂上, 老师出现知识性错误的频率为()
A. 特别频繁 B. 经常出现 C. 偶尔出现 D. 从未出现

教学效果

16. 你认为你的大学英语课堂教学效果()
A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较低 E. 很低
17. 以这样的学习方式, 你对毕业后从事与外语相关的工作的信心()。
A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较低 E. 很低
18. 您对自己的外语水平如何评价?
听说能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
阅读能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
书面表达能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
口、笔头翻译能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
文化知识能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
专业相关知识能力 A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较差 E. 很差
19. 你觉得在校学习和校外培训哪个效果更好? 原因
20. 目前大学英语教学存在的主要问题是教与学的目的相脱节。
A 完全同意 B 同意 C 一般 D 不同意 E 完全不同意

课外英语学习状况

21. 你是否会在课外学习英语? 如果是, 你通常会采取什么方式? ()
A. 听英文歌曲 B. 看英文电影 C. 上网浏览英文网站
D. 跟外国人聊天 E. 到英语角练口语 F. 到自主学习中心训练
G. 去英语系旁听 H. 跟学校的外教交流
I. 除了以上几项, 还有: 早读、
22. 上述课外英语学习能否得到老师有针对性的指导和监督?
A. 是 B. 否
23. 你认为上述课外学习的效果如何?
A. 很高 B. 较高 C. 一般 D. 较低 E. 很低
24. 你课后平均每周花在英语学上(含预习、复习及其他听说读写训练)的时间() 小时。
A <7 B. 7 C. 14 D. >14
25. 你参加哪些类型的英语水平测试?
A. CET4 / 6 B. BEC C. TOEFL D. IELTS E 其他 (请给出名称: _____)

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I would like to show my gratitude to the participants of this study, the students of the following 3 universities: Shandong University of Finance and Economics and Shandong Normal University and Shandong Jianzhu University. Besides, my sincere thanks also go to Professor Zhu Huimin who gave me valuable advice and helped me revise the paper.

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Essay Writing Errors of Iranian EFL Learners at Under-graduate Level: A Case Study of Medical Learners

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Abstract—This study aimed at analyzing essay writing errors of Iranian EFL learners at under-graduate level in Bushehr. Moreover, the researcher tried to find that if there was a significant difference between kinds of essay writing errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at under-graduate level. The significance of the results of their committed errors was also considered. The participants of this study were 80 under-graduate students at medical science university in Bushehr. Three questionnaires were used during the fall semester of 2014 to reach the aim of this study. The first one was general English proficiency test in order to have homogenized participants. The second was background questionnaire that was used to elicit information on students' age, gender, and level of education, etc. The last one was essay writing test which was selected to examine the ability of the subjects in order to distinguish various parts of an essay. The findings showed that there was a significant difference between kinds of essay writing errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at under-graduate level. Also, it was found that most of the errors occurred due to lack of knowledge. To eradicate and overcome the errors special drilling and practices have been suggested.

Index Terms—contrastive analysis, EFL learners, error analysis, essay writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Today English language is used as an international language; therefore, there has been a growing tendency to learn English among a large number of people all over the world. Error analysis as a field of language teaching has been used in language settings by many researchers. Errors are an inevitable part of learning a language and English is no an exception. Errors are actually the defective forms of utterances which appear regularly in the learner's language. Errors are regarded as incorrect forms since the norms of code are violated. Errors are committed by the second language learners because they do not have an adequate amount of knowledge of the target language. Therefore, errors occur at the competence level because the learners' knowledge of the target language is insufficient. In order to refer to erroneous features, various terms are used. Selinker (1972) uses the term "inter-language" that indicates the middle stage between the first language (L1) and the target language (L2). Nemser (1971) defines the errors as "approximate system". The term signifies that the learners system is transitional and goes on changing. There is a continuous changing of errors as the learners' competence increases. Corder (1973) calls them "idiosyncratic dialects" which reveals that errors are peculiar to individuals. The committed errors have been studied through contrastive analysis and error analysis method.

Contrastive Analysis (CA) came into view in the 1950s and 1960s. CA is to find the similarities and differences between two or more languages. Here, errors are considered as signs of evil and failure; therefore, the problematic areas must be predicted in learning second language to prevent committing errors. The main source of errors is the interference of mother tongue (L1). CA consists of two concepts of transfer: positive and negative transfer. Positive transfer is occurred when learners' native language facilitates the second language learning and when learners' native language makes the second language learning difficult, it is called negative transfer.

On the other hand, Error Analysis (EA) is defined as the study of errors which is committed by second or foreign language learners; actually, it is a reaction to native language interference thought by contrastive analysis' pioneers for the reason that it was considered as the major source of errors in second language learning (Khansir, 2010). According to Corder (1982), to analyze the errors, there is a comparison between the errors made in the target language and that target language itself. As it is mentioned before, CA is based on the prediction, but EA is in touch with actual errors that are appeared in the learners' performance.

There's no question that writing is a complex skill in nature, that's why it always absorbs so much attention as one of the four main language skills and needs much practice to be mastered (Rezapanah & Hamidi, 2013). Writing stimulates thinking and reinforces learning. Learners need motivation for writing because they usually consider it a tough job and are frightened to start writing, especially essay writing for an academic purpose (Hamidi & Montazeri, 2014). According to Richards (2010), an essay is a piece of writing that regularly analyses and evaluates a topic or issue. An essay is

actually a piece of writing that is usually written from an author's personal point of view. Essay is regarded as a non-fiction kind of writing that tries to make a point in an interesting way. Recently, a vital part of an education system is essay writing. Essays are exercised in various schools in order to improve the students' writing skills; moreover, essays are often utilized by universities in selecting candidates. Essays are also used to examine the subjects' comprehension level. They are asked to write considering a topic of study in the form of an essay. The writers' may be allowed to write an essay on his/her sight, but the use of the first person is often discouraged; then, the result will be judged to show their comprehension level.

There are different types of essay: one- paragraph essay and five-paragraph essay. One paragraph essay is rarely seen in publications, but it is remarkably handy for improving writing. It has some advantages. One obvious advantage is that it is short enough to allow the writer to spend his/her study time writing a really good one. Moreover, it is long enough to practice and demonstrate the fundamentals of writing. On the other hand, five paragraph essays includes an introduction paragraph in which the thesis statement is presented; three body paragraphs in which all sentences are in line with the thesis statement; and a conclusion, which restates the thesis and summarizes the supporting points. In this study, the participants were asked to distinguish different parts of an essay as shortage of time was the main problem.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Theoretical Background*

Error Analysis is regarded as one of the most essential issues in second language learning. Error analysis is a branch of Applied Linguistics that emerged in the early 1960s to show that learner's interference of the first language was not the only source in committing errors.

Corder (1982) mentioned that errors are valuable in three different ways. For teachers, since they will become aware of their learners' growth in second language learning. For researchers, the evidences of second language learning strategies are provided. For learners, as they are able to test their hypotheses on the language that they are learning.

Keshavarz (2011) maintained that errors are inevitable parts in the process of second language learning; actually, errors can be used to determine "the nature of his/ her (learner) knowledge of the target language at a given point in his/her learning career and discover what s/he has to learn" (p. 58). Moreover, Keshavarz made a distinction between errors and mistakes. Keshavarz remarked that "errors are regarded as rule- governed since they follow the rules of learner's interlanguage" (p.60). He also added that there is no self-correction in committing errors. On the other hand, mistakes are those which are not rule- governed. They are occurred because of some factors such as fatigue, lack of concentration, slip of the tongue or the pen. They can be corrected by the learners when their attention is called. According to Keshavarz (2011, p.58), "a primary focus of error analysis is on the evidence that learners' errors provide to an understanding of the underlying processes of second language acquisition".

B. *Related Studies*

A large amount of error analyses have been done since during the past few years. The study of these errors, which are committed by groups of foreign and second language learners, revealed interesting findings.

Khansir (2008) conducted a research in an Indian university on a group of one hundred students. In this study, he did his best to classify "errors" made by these students. The research revealed that errors occurred in the use of auxiliary verbs, passive forms and tenses. It was shown that the errors occurred due to systematic errors in learner's target language. Actually, the errors showed that teaching English was not satisfactory in the colleges, and the learning strategies were the cause of errors. Ghadessy (1980) studied freshmen 'errors of Iranian university in their written composition. He discovered that most of errors occurred in tenses, articles, prepositions, word order, morphology, syntax, lexis that were similar to his previously reported studies. He stated that these errors appeared due to overgeneralization, analogy, incomplete application of rules, and false hypothesis on limited knowledge of the target language.

Al-kahtybeh (1992) checked up the syntactic errors in Jordanian tenth grade students' essays. 243 male and female students were selected from 8 schools in Irbid district. It was shown that males' major errors were in tense, auxiliary verbs and prepositions parts, but they had little problem in pronouns and concord. On the other hand, the females' main errors were in tense, article and prepositions parts, but they had little problem in subject - verb agreement and concord. It was concluded that the various syntactic errors were committed due to mother tongue interference, overgeneralization and ignorance of rules of usage.

In a recent study, Sarfraz (2011) examined Pakistani undergraduate students' errors in their essay writing. He found that the learners' interlanguage process was the main cause in committing errors and mother tongue interference was considered as second cause in committing some errors. Darus and Subramaniam (2009) studied 72 Malay students' errors in their essay writing. They discovered six types of errors in the subjects' essays. The committed errors were occurred in singular/plural form, verb tense, word choice, preposition, subject-verb agreement and word order.

Furthermore, Ridha (2012) investigated 80 EFL college students' English writing samples. The errors were classified according to the following taxonomy: grammatical, lexical/ semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The finding proved that L1 transfer played a significant role in students' committing errors. Furthermore, she stated that the learners applied their mother tongue in conveying their thoughts. She also mentioned that there were different types of errors, but the most serious and repeated errors were grammatical and mechanical errors.

Sawalmeh (2013), in an attempt to study essay writing errors made by a group of Saudi EFL learners at university level, stated that errors were usually occurred in viz., verb tense, word order, subject/verb agreement, pronouns, spellings, capitalization, prepositions, articles, double negatives and sentence fragments.

C. Research Questions

RQ. Is there a significant difference between kinds of essay writing errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at under-graduate level at Medical Science University in Bushehr?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Sample/Participants

A total of 80 Iranian students in the age range of 18 to 25 at under-graduate level in Bushehr Medical Science University during the first semester of the academic year 2014/2015, as foreign language learners participated in this study. To control the variable of gender, the present researcher invited both male and female students to take part in this study. They were selected after they took a General English Proficiency Test and then they were ready to do administration of an Essay Writing Test.

B. Instruments

Three instruments were applied in this study. One of them is General English Proficiency Test (Transparent); this test was used to determine the participants' proficiency level in English. A Background Questionnaire was used to elicit information on students' age, gender, and level of education and Essay writing test was used to get information about the knowledge of the learners in English language.

C. Procedure

The procedures that were adopted in this study in order to achieve the objectives were as following:

1. Development of the Background Questionnaire
2. Administration of the General English Proficiency Test
3. Development of Essay Writing Test
4. Analysis of collected data

In order to analyze the data of the aforementioned tests Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) software was used in this study.

To analyze this study, these following procedures were applied:

- Classification of errors
- Comparison of errors
- Suggestion for remedial measures

Actually, the goal of this study was to help the learners to improve their language and use English faultlessly.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Language attitude is referred to the speakers' feeling of different languages towards other's languages or to their own language. There are positive or negative feelings towards a language that may cause ease or difficulty in the process of language learning. The following table is based on the participants' responses on language attitude in the current study:

TABLE 1.
LANGUAGE ATTITUDE

Language Attitude	Under-graduate level	
	Number	Percent
Like	63	78.75
Dislike	12	15
Tolerate	5	6.25
Total	80	100

Satisfaction with teaching English

In this part, the subjects' responses revealed that most of the under-graduate students were satisfied with teaching of English in their university.

TABLE 2.
SATISFACTION WITH TEACHING ENGLISH

Items	Satisfaction with teaching English
Yes	70%
No	30%

Analysis of test

A test of essay writing was conducted and administered in this study. The test offered a clear picture of participants' essay writing errors in English language for the researcher. In addition, it helped her in order to suggest remedial

measures for the subjects' committed errors in the test.

In this research, the essay writing test was particularly selected to examine the participants' ability in distinguishing different parts of English essay writing. This essay writing test includes two different parts.

Errors in recognizing different parts of essay

The first part of the test was classified in these major categories as: topic sentence, supporting sentence, supporting detail, and closing sentence. The following table manifests the subjects' committed errors in their essay writing test.

TABLE 3.
ERRORS IN DIFFERENT PARTS OF ESSAY WRITING TEST

Test items	Correct responses		False responses	
	Numbers of students	Percent	Numbers of students	percent
Topic sentence	34	47.5	46	52.5
Supporting sentence	31	38.5	49	61.5
Supporting detail	31	38.5	49	61.5
Closing sentence	31	38.5	49	61.5

The table displayed the participants' committed errors in their recognition about different parts of essay writing test. Table (3) revealed that the total numbers of errors in the participants' recognition of topic sentence were 46 which came to 52.5%. Moreover, this table displayed that the under-graduate students' errors in their recognition of supporting sentence and supporting detail were 49 and 49 that came to 61.5% and 61.5% respectively. Errors also occurred frequently in their recognition of closing sentence. The errors of closing sentence were 49 which came to 61.5%. In order to avoid errors in the recognition of various parts of an essay, the students should be familiar with the fundamental points of essay writing; in addition, they should be clearly taught about the parts of an essay. Teachers should do more practice in essay writing and its different parts in order to ensure the students having acquired them.

Errors in the participants' recognition of main idea of the essay

In other part of this essay test, the participants were asked to underline the main idea of the paragraph. After analyzing the Essay Writing Test, the following was found and it manifested the subjects' committed errors in the main idea part of the essay writing test.

TABLE 4.
ERRORS IN THE PARTICIPANTS' RECOGNITION OF MAIN IDEA OF THE ESSAY

Test item	Correct responses		False responses	
	Numbers of student	Percent	Numbers of students	percent
Main idea	32	40	48	60

In this part of the essay test, the participants were asked to underline the main idea of essay. In this category, the under-graduate students produced 48 errors which came to 60%. In order to avoid errors of recognition main idea, the subjects must be familiar with main idea. Teachers also should do more practice in their classroom situations and they should try to increase the knowledge of their participants in this part and other parts such as: topic sentence, supporting sentence, supporting detail, closing sentence.

Grammatical errors

In this study, the essay writing test also involved some fill in the blank parts and the subjects were asked to choose one option. This test was classified into four major categories as: article, tense, spelling, proposition. The following table indicated the grammatical errors of under-graduate student.

TABLE 5.
GRAMMATICAL ERRORS

Test items	Correct responses		False responses	
	Numbers of subjects	percent	Numbers of subjects	Percent
Articles	18	22.5	62	77.5
Tense	30	27.5	50	72.5
Spelling	35	43.5	45	56.5
Proposition	38	47.5	42	52.5

The table indicated that the total numbers of grammatical errors in the parts of article, tense, spelling, and proposition were 199.

Errors in the use of articles

Articles (definite and indefinite article) are small word and they are frequently applied before noun or noun phrase. This test included sentences requiring definite articles. The subjects committed errors by choosing indefinite article instead of definite article. So, the main problem was wrong use of one article for another article. The total number of errors found in this category was 62 which came to 77.5%. This study indicated that the participants committed some errors in using articles. Test demonstrated that that the subjects were not entirely mastered to use the article in their right positions. In order to avoid these kinds of errors, more attention is called in the classroom environment. Moreover, a meaningful drilling should be conducted until the students overcome the difficulties of this category.

Errors in the use of tenses

In grammatical errors, tense is applied to display the time of an action, event or state. The total number of errors found in this category was 50 which came to 72.5%. Test displayed that the students could not handle the different tense forms of the verb. They didn't notice that they had applied simple past instead of present tense. So, the learners should be taught how to use the correct form of the tense in English through some appropriate drills along with their separate rules. It should be taught to them when they can use present tense, and the teachers must explain that the present simple are used to express a habitual action, general truths, etc. The teacher should also do more practices in the classroom to make everything comprehensible.

Wrong use of spelling

This test also included some tests on spelling. The participants were asked to choose the correct form of a word. The total number of errors found in this category was 45 which came to 56.5%. For example, they choose wrong form "daily" and "nowdays" instead of the correct form of "daily" and "nowadays". These errors indicated the participants' lack of knowledge or lack of attention. In order to avoid these errors, the subjects must pay more attention and have more practice to overcome their difficulty in spelling part.

Wrong use of proposition

This current study involved some tests that asked the students to select the correct proposition. Errors in this category were 42 that came to 52.5%. In this part, the participants erroneously selected "with" and "of" instead the correct form "for". It indicated that the subjects' knowledge is insufficient and they must do more practice and have more study. The teachers must teach them to use the proper proposition in English language through suitable drills; since, a meaningful drilling can assist the learners to overcome the difficulties of proposition.

Discussion

In this part the findings of this study are compared with those of the most related previous studies. The present study found that there is a significant difference between kinds of essay writing errors committed by Iranian EFL learners at under-graduate level at Medical Science University in Bushehr.

This study and the previous studies tried to find the differences between diverse kinds of errors. The researcher found that there is a significant difference between kinds of essay writing errors at under-graduate level. Errors in essay writing and grammatical part were reported in a large number of previous studies (Darus & Subramaniam, 2009; Ghadessy, 1980; Khansir, 2008; Ridha, 2012; Sarfraz, 2011; Yang, 1994). This research revealed that the errors were similar to those previous studies; moreover, it was stated that these errors were considered as problematic area for EFL learners in the process of language learning. It was also mentioned that there were a significant difference in types of errors existed in essay writing. Moreover, the result of this present study indicated that the learners need to be taught more than what is being done at present. The learners should be encouraged to focus their grammatical knowledge on actual errors in their own work. Teachers should have more attention on their teaching in order to improve their students' ability in recognition of diverse parts of essay. Furthermore, to eradicate the errors, learning strategies and teaching plans should be based on scientific perception of grammatical use.

It should be stated that all factors that caused the divergence in the errors of under-graduate learners cannot be identified. In this study, teaching English and learning strategies could be considered as a responsible factor to increase or decrease the number of errors among the subjects' recognition of various parts of an essay. As a final point, remedial materials, teaching programs and planning of learning strategies should be designed and applied to enable the participants to improve their language and learn target language (English) perfectly.

V. CONCLUSION

Errors are integral and inevitable parts in the process of language learning no matter it is first language or second language. It is stated the analysis of errors are significant and valuable for the learners, for the teachers, for the course designer, and for the producer of the teaching material.

Teachers should identify that language learning ability is not the same among all learners. Accordingly, EA can be regarded as the best tools in order to describe, explain, and analyze the learners' errors in their process of language learning. The essay writing errors of the under-graduate learners can help the teachers to recognize the importance of errors which can be considered as one of challenging areas in teaching English.

It should be stated that all factors that caused the divergence in the errors of under-graduate learners cannot be identified. One factor, which was found in this study, was teaching English and learning strategies that could be responsible to increase or decrease in the number of errors among the subjects' recognition of various parts of an essay. As a final point, remedial materials, teaching programs and planning of learning strategies should be designed and applied to enable the participants to improve their language and learn target language (English) perfectly.

APPENDIX. ESSAY WRITING TEST

1. Write the correct answers and underline main ideas in this essay.

TV

TV is one of1..... of media,2....., despite the development of the internet television has become the most popular kind of media and the most important source of information. It's also the indispensable device in

our3..... life. Many people all over the world4..... most of their free time watching television. However, there are many advantages and disadvantages of watching TV there5..... considered in this essay.

- | | | |
|--------------|--------------|-------------|
| 1. a: kinds | b: the kinds | c: the kind |
| 2. a.nowdays | b: nowadays | |
| 3. a.daily | b: daily | |
| 4. a.spend | b: spent | c: spend |
| 5. a. is | b: are | |

2. a) Under the topic sentences, supporting sentences, supporting details, and closing sentence. b) Write the correct answers.

There are a lot of advantages of watching TV making it so popular. One of the main advantage and disadvantages of watching TV is that everybody can get the source of information. The main reason why so many people choose this means of getting information is its simplicity and convenience. Everybody can press a button and watch it. Another reason is so that there are a lot of scientific channels which are suitable for all ages. By pressing several simple buttons, you can see your appropriate programme that fit you taste. Last reason is that television 1..... an important role in our..... 2..... activities. It 3..... us informed of all current affairs in the world. Events through television are more vivid than those through books and magazines.

Apart from its advantages, however, television also brings lots of disadvantages to viewers too. The first disadvantage is that many people neglect their families so they can watch television. A family may be in the same room but would not say a word to each other. The second disadvantage is that many people do not realize how much time they spend watching television. You can only4..... what you could do with that time, it is possible to learn a language or do a university course. The final disadvantage of watching television is5..... violence that young children are often exposed too. Many television programs show6..... violence movies that are not suitable7..... children of young ages. The violence movies can also lead to more problems into adulthood. TV is one of the world's greatest8..... however, it has advantages and disadvantages as considered in this paper.

- | | | | |
|------------------|--------------|------------|----------|
| 1. a: played | b: plays | c: play | |
| 2. a: daily | b: daily | | |
| 3. a: keep | b: kept | c: kept | d: keeps |
| 4. a: imagined | b: imagines | c: imagine | |
| 5. a: the | b: a | c: an | |
| 6. a: a | b: an | c: the | |
| 7. a: of | b: with | c: for | |
| 8. a: inventions | b: invention | | |

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A Brief Study on the Symbolic Meaning of the Main Characters' Name in *The Scarlet Letter*

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Abstract—As a great romantic novelist in American literature in the 19th century and a central figure in the American Renaissance, Nathaniel Hawthorne is outstanding for his skillful employment of symbolism and powerful psychological insight. *The Scarlet Letter*, which is considered to be the greatest accomplishment of American short story and is often viewed as the first American symbolic and psychological novel, makes Nathaniel Hawthorne win incomparable position in American literature. With a brief introduction into *The Scarlet Letter* and a brief study on the two literary terms, i.e. symbol and symbolism, the paper attempts to expound Hawthorne's skillful employment of symbolism in his masterpiece through the analysis of the symbolic meaning of the main characters' name in this great novel.

Index Terms—*The Scarlet Letter*, symbol, symbolism, character, name

I. A BRIEF INTRODUCTION TO *THE SCARLET LETTER*

The Scarlet Letter is the masterpiece of Nathaniel Hawthorne, one of the most significant and influential writers in American literature in the 19th century. It is also regarded as the first symbolic novel in American literature for Hawthorne's skillful use of symbolism and allegory. In the novel, the settings (the scarlet letter A, the prison, the scaffold, the rosebush, the forest, the sunshine and the brook) and the characters' images, words and names are all endowed with profound symbolic meaning by Hawthorne. It is the superb employment of symbolism that helps readers to probe into the colorful inner world as well as the spiritual conflicts of the main characters and makes the novel more artistic and successful.

The novel describes a love tragedy in the colonial times in Boston in the seventeenth century. An aging English scholar named Roger Chillingworth sends his beautiful young wife Hester Prynne to start their new life in New England. But when he arrives about two years later he is surprised to find his wife in pillory on the scaffold, holding a baby in her arms and wearing a scarlet letter on her breast. Disguising himself as a physician, Chillingworth discovers that the adulterer is Arthur Dimmesdale, the much-respected and brilliant young clergyman. Then Chillingworth begins his cruel revenge on the clergyman physically and mentally for seven years. Although Dimmesdale gets away from the punishment on the scaffold, he is condemned by his own conscience constantly and lives in utter misery. Gradually, Dimmesdale is worn out by the torture of the Puritan moral modes, his inner conflicts, his love for Hester and the ruthless revenge from Chillingworth. Different from Dimmesdale, Hester turns to be brave and positive toward the punishment and the scarlet letter A. Living in complete isolation from the community, Hester is determined to protect her lover's reputation and tries her best to reestablish her relationship with people in town on a friendly and honest basis. She works hard to support her daughter Pearl, gives her hand to people in need and finally regains respect, dignity and admiration. In the end, Dimmesdale dies in Hester's arms while confessing his sin and revealing a scarlet letter carved into his breast at a public gathering. Hester and Pearl leave Boston, Chillingworth withers quickly and dies afterwards. Years later, Hester comes back to Boston and is buried alongside Dimmesdale after her death.

II. AN ANALYSIS OF SYMBOL AND SYMBOLISM

As is mentioned above, symbolism is a striking feature of *The Scarlet Letter*, it runs through the whole novel and plays a very important role in it. The applying of symbolism in the novel revolves around not only the scarlet letter A, but also the natural settings as well as the main characters' images, names and words. It is no doubt that Nathaniel Hawthorne is the pioneer and master of symbolism, his unique gift for using this kind of writing skill taps into the roots of human's moral nature and gives vivid explanation of the implications in his works. As a frequently adopted writing skill in literature, symbolism makes literary works worthy of pondering and provides association and suggestions for thinking. When it comes to symbolism, we must mention another term symbol. These two terms are closely related to each other in literature, without symbol, symbolism may become meaningless and achieves nothing.

"A symbol is an object that represents, stands for or suggests an idea, visual image, belief, action or material entity. Symbols take the form of words, sounds, gestures or visual images and are used to convey ideas and beliefs." (Campbell, 2002, P143) For instance, a lion is a symbol of courage, a wolf is a symbol of greed, pigeons are the symbol of peace, the bald eagle and the Statue of Liberty are the symbol of the United States, a red octagon may symbolize "stop", a red rose may symbolize love and passion, a picture of a tent on a map may represent a campsite, different

colors stand for different meanings and so forth. Symbol is different from sign, as sign just has one meaning. "Symbols are a means of complex communication that often can have multiple levels of meaning." (Womack, 2005, P125) To some extent, symbols reflect culture and are used to convey specific ideologies, social structures and different aspects of different cultures. That is to say, the true meaning of a symbol lies in the cultural background it belongs to. "Symbols are the basis of all human understanding and serve as vehicles of conception for all human knowledge." (Langer, 1953, P93) Symbols help us get a better understanding of the world we live in and guide us through the way we make judgments. When used in literary works, symbols can make the abstract concept more concrete and the complicated things plainer and simpler. Elaborate and skillful employment of symbols can create a kind of artistic conception of the literary works and enhance their expressiveness and artistic effect.

As a form of creative aesthetic, symbolism has a long history and can be dated back to the period of Plato. "Symbolism was largely a reaction against naturalism and realism, anti-idealistic styles which were attempts to represent reality in its gritty particularity, and to elevate the humble and the ordinary over the ideal. Symbolism was a reaction in favor of spirituality, the imagination and dreams." (Balakian, 1967, P217) Generally speaking, Symbolism is a unique artistic technique used to explain invisible things by using visible symbols and it aims to present the hidden things and inner thoughts through certain phenomenon. According to Chadwick Charles, symbolism can be defined as "the art of expressing ideas and emotions not by describing them directly, not by defining their overt comparisons with concrete images, but by suggesting what these ideas and emotions are and by recreating them in the mind of the reader through the use of unexplained symbols." (Chadwick, 1971, P82) Different from symbolism in art, symbolism in literature is a literary style that originates in France in the middle 19th century and spreads to other European countries in the 20th century. As an ideological trend and a core branch of the modernist literature, symbolism in literature covers widely and influences greatly. It seeks to discover the rational world hidden in nature and tries to create supernatural art via personal sensitivities and imaginations. Symbolists put great emphasis on men's inner feelings and personal phantom and attach primary importance to the use of image, hint, foil, contrast and association to creation. In addition, symbolism can achieve great success in harmonizing the concrete and the abstract by using colorful concrete objects to express the abstract theory.

III. THE SYMBOLIC MEANING OF THE MAIN CHARACTERS' NAME IN *THE SCARLET LETTER*

Nathaniel Hawthorne is known as the first American romantic writer who starts a new tradition, namely the Symbolism Romance, in American literature. As a great master and pioneer of symbolism, Nathaniel Hawthorne shows a strong tendency toward symbolism in his works. The application of symbolism makes his works exceed the narrow individual world and helps connect the subjective with the objective as well as reinforce and typify his individual experiences and thoughts. His ideological and artistic sense are best conveyed in his masterpiece *The Scarlet Letter*, which is considered to be the first American Symbolic novel. In the novel, Nathaniel Hawthorne makes full use of symbols to express personal inner emotions, disclose the novel's theme and reveal social reality, etc. Throughout the whole novel, symbolism plays a decisive role and nearly everything is endowed with deep symbolic significance, such as the scarlet letter A, the natural setting and the main character's name, etc. The paper offers a brief analysis of the symbolic meaning of the three main characters' name intending to reveal the inherent connection between the characters and the theme of the novel.

A. *The Symbolic Meaning of Hester Prynne*

Hester Prynne is one of the most important characters in *The Scarlet Letter*. Hawthorne expresses his love and attention to Hester by giving her this special name. First, "Hester" sounds like "Hestia", the beautiful virgin goddess of the hearth, architecture, and the right ordering of domesticity, the family and the state in Greek mythology. Hawthorne describes Hester in the novel like this: "The young woman was tall, a figure of perfect elegance on a large scale, she had dark and abundant hair, so glossy that it threw off the sunshine with a gleam, and a face which, besides being beautiful from regularity of feature and richness of complexion, had the impressiveness belonging to a marked brow and deep black eyes. She was ladylike.....characterized by a certain state and dignity....." (Hawthorne, 2001, P41) From these words, readers can know that in Hawthorne's eyes Hester is as beautiful as a goddess. Hearth always gives people a feeling of warmth, so does Hester. When isolated from the community, Hester makes a living and raises her daughter on her own. Despite the poverty and hardship of life, Hester is still willing to help those who are in need, which brings warmth and sunshine to that indifferent and dark society. The essence of a goddess is also demonstrated in Hester's refusal to reveal her lover's identity, her willingness to endure all the punishments and her courage to protect the reputation of her beloved man. Therefore, just as her name is, Hester is really a charming woman with beautiful appearance, kind heart, diligence, competence and courage.

In addition, "Hester" is the variant of "Esther", a Jewish queen of the Persian king Ahasuerus. As a queen, not only is Esther beautiful, but also she is smart and capable, she tries her best to protect her people from massacre and bring welfare to them. The life of Esther is a story of exile and empowerment, in which she evolves into someone who plays a decisive role in both her and her people's future. In *The Scarlet Letter*, Hester is also exiled by the puritans because of her adultery. Instead of leaving New England, Hester stays to take the cruel punishment and tries to atone for her sin through beneficence. Esther has been interpreted as a model for marginalized groups and a post-feminist icon. Hester is

also a soldier who challenges and defies the puritan society in her own way. At the end of the novel, people in town come to respect Hester and think of the scarlet letter as a “cross on a bosom”, which explains that Hester surmounts herself and becomes a great woman with noble qualities.

What’s more, “Hester” bears a degree of resemblance to the word “hasty” both in form and in pronunciation. The dictionary meaning of “hasty”, acting or deciding too quickly, without enough thought, is an appropriate explanation for Hester’s reckless behavior. Hester’s marriage to Roger Chillingworth is an action without due thought and it has nothing to do with love. The combination of a beautiful, passionate, young wife and an ugly, indifferent, old husband who puts all his energy into learning and researching is definitely a strong contradiction and inevitably indicates tragedy. To some extent, Hester’s haste in her marriage has a great negative influence on her later life. Then Hester’s falling in love with Dimmesdale and giving birth to Pearl once again illustrate the “hasty” elements in her character. Due to lack of exact news from her missing husband and long time’s suffering from the abnormal marriage, Hester can’t restrain her desire for the handsome, promising, respectable young clergyman and commits the so-called sin of adultery. Hester’s reckless but deep love for Dimmesdale shoots an arrow into her tragic destiny and forces her to start the miserable life of expiation with a scarlet letter on her breast. It’s obvious that Hawthorne chooses the heroine’s name with great deliberation which makes the character become alive and vivid.

The heroine’s surname “Prynne” also conveys certain symbolic meaning. First, “Prynne” is related to the word “prurient”, which means having or showing excessive interest in sexual matters. Lacking mutual understanding and affection for each other in marriage, Hester is restrained in sexual matters and falls for Dimmesdale quickly. In this sense, “Prynne” reveals Hester’s sin of adultery. Second, “Prynne” sounds like “prune”, a word with the meaning of “cut out parts of something and purify”. For seven years, Hester tries hard to “cut out” her sin and to “purify” her soul through hard work and beneficence. Third, “pry”, the first syllable of “Prynne” reflects Hawthorne’s intention to probe into the essence of human evil, which is one of the main themes of the novel.

To sum up, “Hester Prynne” implies the symbolic meaning of beauty, indiscretion, competence, courage, diligence, passion, desire, the purification of human souls and the exploration of human nature. Among the listed symbolic meaning, beauty is Hester’s outward appearance, passion and indiscretion is her personality, desire reflects her evil, i.e.. the adultery. Meanwhile, purification of human souls is the moral behavior which Hawthorne advocates, and the exploration of human nature and evil reveals the theme of the great novel.

B. *The Symbolic Meaning of Arthur Dimmesdale*

Arthur Dimmesdale is another important character in *The Scarlet Letter*, to whom Hawthorne puts much more attention. The description of Dimmesdale’s psychological conflicts reveals Hawthorne’s standpoint of human inner conflicts and dilemma as well as his ambiguous attitude towards Puritanism. The symbolic meaning of the name Arthur Dimmesdale is obvious.

First, “Arthur” is similar to “author” in pronunciation, which indicates that he is a man of profound learning and thinking. Graduated from a famous university in England, Arthur Dimmesdale is a holy clergyman with great religious accomplishment and high social status. His parishioners turn to him for guidance and direction, and in their mind he is a perfect model and almost sinless. Then, readers may tend to associate “Arthur” with “Adam”, the first human who commits the “original sin”. As is written in the Holy Bible, Adam and Eve, yielding way to the temptation of the serpent, eat the fruit from the tree that is in the middle of the Garden of Eden. After that, their eyes are opened and they begin to have self-consciousness and come to know good, evil, sex and other things. As a result, God punishes them and drives them out of the Garden of Eden. Just like Adam, Arthur also can not resist the temptation of love and desire, he falls in love with Hester quickly and commits the so-called adultery. What’s more, careful readers may find that the initials of “Arthur Dimmesdale” are “A” and “D”, which may be viewed as the abbreviation of the word “adultery”. Apparently, Hawthorne intends to tell his readers who are the hidden sinner in this disgraceful love affair at the very beginning of the novel.

“Dimmesdale”, the surname of this young clergyman also conveys a lot. The first syllable of the word “Dimmesdale” is “dim”, which means not bright, hopeful or good, and the last syllable “dale” has the meaning of “valley”. People always tend to draw an analogy between human mind and valley. That is to say, “dim dale” stands for Dimmesdale’s dark and hopeless inner world. He has to hide his deep love for Hester and Pearl in his heart. Hester’s suffering from the sin they have committed makes Dimmesdale live in a state of the worst agonies, but he lacks the courage of making a public confession about his sin because of his cowardice and vanity. And the behavior of concealing the sin definitely adds great mental agony to Dimmesdale. For seven years, he suffers from severe disease and the tortures of his troubled soul. He even carves onto his own chest a scarlet letter A, the symbol of hidden and unforgivable sin. Finally, near the very end of his life, he overcomes himself and gathers all the courage to confess his sin in public, exposing the previously hidden scarlet letter on his breast. He earns people’s forgiveness and escapes external damnation from his soul at the expense of his life.

Therefore, the symbolic meaning of “Arthur Dimmesdale” is “a man who has committed adultery conceals his sin in his dark inner world because of his cowardice and vanity”. At the same time, through “Arthur”, Hawthorne intends to convey the information that the sin Dimmesdale committed is not the disgraceful adultery in people’s mind but the forgivable original sin. What deserves to be mentioned is that

Arthur Dimmesdale finally triumphs over his cowardice and hypocrisy, escapes from his dark hopeless inner world

and makes a public confession of his sin, which once again indicates that good will always triumphs over evil in the end.

C. *The Symbolic Meaning of Roger Chillingworth*

As a “crazy avenger”, Roger Chillingworth is marked as a bad character, a cruel devil and an absolute villain in *The Scarlet Letter*. And actually, the name “Roger Chillingworth” contains the symbolic meaning of the character’s wickedness.

In the first place, there is some similarity between the form of “Roger” and the word “rogue”, which refers to dishonest or unprincipled man. Being Hester’s husband, Roger puts all his energy and time into learning and researching, totally ignoring his beautiful young wife’s feeling and life. Old and ugly as he is, he intends to cover up his physical deformity through the veil of his intellectual talents. The reason of his marrying to Hester has nothing to do with love, he just wants to “light a household fire in his lonely and chilly heart.” (Hawthorne, 2001, P60) To some extent, Roger Chillingworth’s ill intention in this abnormal marriage is the indirect source of Hester’s tragedy. Secondly, “Roger” may remind people of the “Jolly Roger”, the traditional English name for the flags flown to identify a pirate ship about to attack during the early 18th century. With the skull and crossbones symbol on it, the black flag is now most commonly identified as the Jolly Roger. As is known to all, pirates are always characterized by revenge and hunting for treasure. So does Roger Chillingworth. After knowing his wife’s betrayal, he dedicates all his time and energy to seeking revenge and hunting for “treasure”, which is not the precious things like gold, silver, pearls or jewels, but the deep-hidden secret in Arthur Dimmesdale’s heart. Hawthorne describes the physician’s action of hunting for “treasure” like this: “He now dug into the poor clergyman’s heart like a miner searching for gold; or, rather, like a sexton delving into a grave, possibly in quest of a jewel that had been buried on the dead man’s bosom.....He groped along as stealthily, with as cautious a tread, and as wary an outlook, as a thief entering a chamber where a man lies only half asleep—or, it may be, broad awake—with purpose to steal the very treasure which this man guards as the apple of his eye.” (Hawthorne, 2001, P108)

The surname “Chillingworth” is made up of two words, i.e. chilling and worth. The word “chilling” means frightening, usually because it is connected with something violent or cruel. The words like frightening, violent and cruel are the best description of Roger Chillingworth. On the other hand, “chilling” is derived from “chilly”, a word with the meaning of “too cold to be comfortable, not friendly”. Roger Chillingworth is too cold and of course unfriendly, outwardly he is mild-tempered, but inwardly he is a merciless avenger with all the evil intentions. Disguising himself as a physician and a friend worthy of trust, he follows Dimmesdale wherever he goes and cruelly digs into the clergyman’s inner world. Just like a ferocious wolf, he “dissects” the painful heart of the poor lamb Dimmesdale, and causes severe harm to the clergyman physically and psychologically. When the physician finally catches sight of the scarlet letter “A” on the bosom of the minister, he is as excited as a pirate who has found the hidden treasure after countless hardships. At that moment of great happiness the physician shows “a wild look of wonder, joy and horror” (Hawthorne, 2001, P116) and he has to “throw up his arms towards the ceiling and stamp his foot upon the floor” (Hawthorne, 2001, P116) to express his ecstasy. Hawthorne then makes the following conclusion: “Had a man seen old Roger Chillingworth, at that moment of his ecstasy, he would have had no need to ask how Satan comports himself, when a precious human soul is lost to heaven, and won into his kingdom.” (Hawthorne, 2001, P116) By using the word “worth” in the name “Chillingworth”, Hawthorne intends to imply that the physician’s life is totally worthless. In order to seek revenge on the clergyman, Chillingworth gives up his identity and goes to great lengths to cause physical and mental suffering to Dimmesdale. Chillingworth “had made the very principle of his life to consist in the pursuit and systematic exercise of revenge” (Hawthorne, 2001, P223) and when “there was no more Devil’s work on earth for him to do” (Hawthorne, 2001, P224), “all his strength and energy—all his vital and intellectual force—seemed at once to desert him, insomuch that he positively withered up, shrivelled away, and almost vanished from mortal sight, like an uprooted weed that lies wilting in the sun.” (Hawthorne, 2001, P223) The decease of Chillingworth comes after Dimmesdale’s death a year later. Without revenge and hatred, Chillingworth finds life meaningless, which is a powerful illustration of his worthless life.

In a word, the symbolic meaning of “Roger Chillingworth” is a combination of revenge, rouge, pirate, indifference and cruelty. Being a wicked man full of all evil, he is hateful and totally worthless.

IV. CONCLUSION

In *The Scarlet Letter*, Nathaniel Hawthorne successfully applies Greek mythology, biblical allusions, words initials, implications of words and similar words in form or pronunciation to name the three main characters: Hester Prynne, Arthur Dimmesdale and Roger Chillingworth, which makes these names full of symbolic significance. The three names are not only an exact summarization of the characters’ image, personality and inner world, but also are the hint of the plot and the reflection on the theme of the novel. The symbolic meanings conveyed by these names become more effective and vivid because they are so natural and profound. While exposing the main characters’ spiritual world, the symbolic meaning of the names also expresses Nathaniel Hawthorne’s superb craftsmanship and his powerful psychological insight into the guilt and anxiety of human soul as well as his conflicting views on the world and Puritanism. At the same time, readers are left to use their fertile imagination to get the charm and inner feelings of the characters. It is the use of symbolism by Nathaniel Hawthorne that makes this novel outweigh the plain words and

convey profound significant implication and it is the colorful symbols that help develop the depth of the novel.

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Analogy and Some Case Studies in the Historical Study of Iranian Languages: With Emphasis on Persian

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Abstract—Generally, the historical changes of human languages depend on linguistic and metalinguistic factors. The linguistic changes are, themselves, divided into two subgroups: 1. the changes which are the outcomes of the phonological, grammatical, and semantic rules of a given language; 2. the changes which are the results of *analogy*. This article concentrates on the analogical changes which are, themselves, some kinds of imitation with varying degrees happening based on the principle of economy of language. The article investigates the issue in the two separate sections as follows: a. the theoretical discussion on analogy, which is mostly in accordance with Chapter 10 of *Introduction to Historical Linguistics* (Arlotto, 1981); b. examples of analogy in the historical changes of Iranian languages (with emphasis on Persian). The results for these two sections show that analogy stresses on such phenomena as regularity and irregularity, majority and minority, productivity and sterility, centrality and marginality, and generalization in world languages, including Iranian languages.

Index Terms—diachronic changes of languages, analogy, Kurylowicz's six Laws, Iranian languages

I. INTRODUCTION

The students of different branches of Linguistics and some other enthusiasts of the field of diachronic study of languages, are interested in linguistic universals. In other words, all languages experience changes through time. The reasons for the changes depend generally on *linguistic* and *metalinguistic* factors. The linguistic factors are totally relevant to the processes special to that language including phonological, morphological, syntactic, and semantic ones; while the metalinguistic factors are related to the relationship between language and such factors as art, society, culture, history, geography, politics, religion, etc. The changes in linguistic processes are of two kinds: 1. the changes which are the results of the sheer phonological, grammatical, and semantic rules in a certain language; 2. the changes which are the results of analogy. The article focuses on the second type.

Analogy was superficially been discussed in chapter 10 of *Introduction to Historical Linguistics* by Anthony Arlotto (1994)⁽¹⁾. There are provided some examples from some modern and extinct languages, but the Iranian languages were not convincingly exemplified in the mentioned book. Some examples of analogical process in Iranian languages are provided in the present article since analogy enjoys a special status in the diachronic study of Iranian languages. Among the Iranian languages, Persian was deemed as the best language out of which to give examples, since documentary sources are available from all historical periods of Persian, i.e. Old, Middle, and New Periods.

Analogical changes can be found in Iranian languages in abundance. Analogy mostly occurs in affixes and stems, and to some extent, even in syntactic structures. A number of 12 cases of analogy in Iranian languages are presented in this article.

II. METHODOLOGY

The present research investigates the second type of linguistic changes, i.e. *analogy* in the course of historical changes of Iranian languages focusing on Persian. This is a comprehensive issue, so the paper is limited to two topics as the following:

- A) Theoretical discussion on *analogy* in linguistics – focusing on the issues in Arlotto's work;
- B) Presenting a number of 12 cases of analogy in the course of historical changes of Iranian languages – focusing on Persian language changes.

III. ANALYSIS

Analogy is actually a type of similarity and imitation of varying degrees which linguistic elements show due to economy of language (the principal of least effort). The related issues are mainly regularity and irregularity, majority and minority, productivity and sterility, and centrality and marginality; the ones based on which the examples are provided.

Regarding regularity and irregularity, a group of linguists called neo-grammarians founded a new school of linguistics in Leipzig, Germany, in the last decades of the 19th century⁽²⁾. Later on, their theories heavily influenced the historical studies of languages. The most important of all was the theory claiming that linguistic changes follow rules of their own and diachronic linguistics does not consider *scientific* what is called today as ‘irregularity’. According to this theory, the linguistic elements which are considered as *irregular* at present, are in fact regular and there is no exception. We consider them *irregular* only because we do not detect their historical patterns which are the results of historical changes, such as irregular verbs in English and other languages. Synchronic study considers them irregular, but if they are studied diachronically, it is to be found that all of them are rule-governed and their rules are scientifically definable.

Theoretical Analysis on Analogy in Linguistics (Focusing on Arlotto’s Work)

A. An introduction to analogy

Looking at the structures of languages, one finds that in all languages some structures are not in agreement with other structures which are mostly in the *majority* and they are considered as *regular*. These different structures which are in the minority, are considered *irregular* and unusual. In current English, for instance, which is itself a remnant of Old and Middle English, there might be more than a thousand regular verbs changing from present into past tense or past participle by adding the inflectional suffix *-ed*. However, only about 150 irregular verbs are frequent; see (Azabdaftari, 2002: pp. 416-22)⁽³⁾.

Regarding the information above, regular verbs are in the majority in English. Based on the theory of analogy, the probability that many irregular verbs tend to make themselves similar to the regular ones in order to avoid looking incongruous, is much more than that of a case where the former tend to make themselves similar to the irregular verbs which are in the minority.

According to the fore mentioned issues, in analogy each language tends to make its irregular and unusual forms *regular, uniform and similar*. In figurative terms, each language gets tired of its irregularities, trying to get rid of them. The best and the simplest definition of analogy might be what Arlotto (1994) provides as: *it is a process by which a form in a language becomes similar to another form which is somehow related to it*; linguistic forms can be similar by various degrees, and a number of different relationships might cause such similarities; however, a generalization can be made about the analogical process as it causes the irregular and unusual forms to disappear. Following the definition for analogy, one can say that languages attempts to decrease different distinctions and replace the significant distinctions with the marginal ones.

Most of the structural rules of languages have irregularities or the so-called exceptions. There is no rule applying 100% to all the members of its related set; therefore, because of irregularities, analogy is always at work in all languages. There is the possibility that analogy is not understandable in the short run, but when it produces cumulative effect and reaches a certain point in number, the effect is discernible⁽⁴⁾.

B. Analogical procedure

Regarding the procedure of analogy, Arlotto maintains that the functions of analogy do not establish any new form or category in a language, rather they expand or generalize the existing forms (1994, p. 179). As such, analogy makes no substantial change in linguistic rules, but it tries to reduce the different linguistic forms – some of which possibly deemed irregular – belonging to a certain category and incorporate them as much as possible in a certain inflectional set. In Modern English, for instance, the plural-making rule is applied by adding the inflectional suffix *-s/-es* to most of the nouns. The resulting structure is considered the most regular one for making plural nouns in English. In other words, making plural nouns by adding the suffix *-s/-es* is the exclusive rule of plural-making in English which forces other forms to comply with it. However, there are still nouns which do not obey the rule including *sheep/sheep, child/children, man/men*, etc.; See (Frank, 1993, pp. 12-13) for a number of such nouns. Because the number of such nouns is in the minority compared to the nouns being made plural by adding the suffix *-s/-es*, one can guess that many of them join the major group in the future due to analogical process, adopting the suffix *-s/-es* for their plural forms, while the reverse is improbable, maybe impossible. On the other hand, it is likely that no new noun will be formed in or borrowed into English made plural by analogy with *child>children* using the suffix *-ren* since this structure is in the minority in English compared to the nouns made plural by adding *-s/-es*, and the new and borrowed nouns tend to make themselves similar to the major rather than to the minor group in order to avoid looking incongruous.

In analogy, the given language does not affect all the irregular categories at once to change irregular structures to regular ones, rather it affects those irregular structures which are most suitable to become regular, and then it gradually changes the other less appropriate ones in order of priority. Looking at about 150 New English irregular verbs, for instance, a number of 16 verbs have tended to be regular whose list is provided by Azabdaftari (2002, pp. 416- 20).

New analogically-made forms likely occur in non-standard speech at first, finding their ways gradually into the standard speech and writing after they are accepted by the majority of linguistic community. However, the purists of language react against these analogical forms, not accepting them initially, but they accept the forms later since analogy is an unavoidable natural phenomenon in linguistic change process. For an introduction to analogy, Arlotto finds Yerzy Kurylowicz’s paper the best source in which Kurylowicz tries to formulate ‘*Six Laws of Analogy*’ to establish order and develop criteria necessary in analogical procedures. These six laws are briefly explained with some alterations to clarify the points; See (Arlotto, 1994, pp. 185-194) for more explanation and examples.

Regarding the first law, which somehow covers the sixth one also, Kurylowicz says ‘one cannot be sure when analogy is applied, but if it is applied, it would be in accordance with one of the pre-existing rules of that certain language’.

His second law asserts that ‘the direction of analogic process is from the basic form toward the subordinate form’. For example, the singular forms of nouns and present tense verbs in English are considered *basic* forms and the plural forms of nouns and past and perfect tenses are derived by adding indicators containing further information, and they are considered subordinate forms. In fact, a type of markedness occurs within this rule.

The third law is somehow related to the second one, stating that ‘the two elements changing the basic form to the derivational form, should be related to each other through a productive inflectional process’, for example, *-s* in contemporary English is a productive plural-making suffix, making large number of basic forms plural, while such a suffix as *-ren* makes only a noun such as *child* plural, and affects only one or a few words due to lack of productiveness.

Regarding the fourth law, Kurylowicz argues about the result of analogical process: ‘when a new analogical form is accepted in a language, it takes the main role of the earlier form; and if the irregular old form is preserved, its use is limited to the secondary concepts or functions’. The word *old* in contemporary English, for example, has two comparative adjective forms *elder* and *older*, with the former being the original *old*, and non-analogical form has taken the secondary function in the phrases *elder brother* or *elder sister*, while the latter which is the analogical form, has taken the main role, conveying all the other concepts referring to someone or something possessing more age.

The fifth law is a response to the question of ‘why some analogical processes are at work in a language and some are not when there is need for more than one analogical form?’ His answer is that ‘the language eliminates one or more secondary grammatical distinctions to restore a significant grammatical distinction’. It is a matter of discussion showing which distinction is significant and which one is secondary. For example, in many cases related to the historical evolution of Roman languages from Old Latin, the distinction between singularity and plurality for the subject and object is significant, while the vice versa case is considered secondary.

Analogy is much more common compared to stems in the expansion of grammatical morphemes, i.e. a morpheme having a certain grammatical function expands its scope of performance to other morphemes which had the same function in the past. In other words, a morpheme which had been more common and more irregular compared to others, has probably occupied the place of other morphemes of its own category, and has eliminated all of them such as the plural-making morpheme *-s* which has made many other plural-making morphemes similar to itself through the historical development of the English language. In fact, a speaker gets a sense of that dominant rule by which s/he makes generalization, considering the dominant rule as the exclusive (significant) rule of the category, and the other rules as marginal versions of that exclusive rule.

IV. ANALOGICAL RESULTS (ADVANTAGES & DISADVANTAGES)

A. Advantages

As analogy is a universal occurring phenomenon in all languages of the world, and by which many linguistic changes can be understood and justified, it has been found to have three benefits: linguistic reconstruction, etymology, and forming new words (neologism).

Contributing to the lost form reconstruction of the languages of the past – proto languages and non-poroto languages – is a major benefit of analogy. For example, many non-existing eightfold inflected forms of Avestan nouns have been reconstructed using analogy; see (Abolghasemi, 1998, pp. 8-9). There are documents for the old basic forms of some Iranian languages whose need for restructuring is not so great, while Balochi language with a history of 2-3 thousand years which lacks sources from its ancient past, is in urgent need of restructuring, and reconstruction is implemented only through analogy.

The second benefit looks at the etymology of words. The researchers studying etymology need to be aware of etymological processes to scholarly do their tasks.

The third benefit which considers the formation of new words (neologism), is exemplified in the rules approved by Iran’s Persian Language Academy to do neologism (about 16 rules). Tajvidi (2005, pp. 34-41), for instance, has assigned the fifth out of the 16 cases of word formations through analogy.

B. Disadvantages

Analogy might confuse researchers in reconstructing or etymological studies making them go astray since it is not based on linguistic rules. In this regard, Arlotto observes that in morpheme reconstructing, analogy might cause the researchers make mistakes since the basic forms which have somehow been irregular no longer exist, substituted for the analogically-made forms. This problem is solved if the basic (irregular) forms survive in some daughter languages. In the comparison of daughter languages, Arlotto states that the apparently-irregular forms which cannot be the results of analogical processes are paid special attention to restructure the mother language (1994, pp.194-195. Antoine Meillet approves this stating that “the irregular, unconventional forms observed in two languages are likely the most reliable reasons to prove the two languages are related (ibid, p. 195).

V. DISCUSSIONS: EXAMPLES (12 CASES)

Here, some analogical examples are studied based on the theoretical discussion above in the five inflectional categories of 1. Case, 2. Number, 3. Gender, 4. Tense, and 5. Grade. These categories can be briefly referred to as CNGTG; See (Ziahosseini, 1999, pp. 31-32) for more information on the functions of these inflectional categories.

What is meant by Case are the eight inflectional cases including nominative, genitive, vocative, accusative, dative, instrumental, ablative, and locative; Number includes singular, dual, and plural; Gender includes masculine, feminine, and neuter; Tense includes 1st person, 2nd person, and 3rd person singular and plural in different tenses; and Grade includes comparative and superlative.

V.1. Abolghasemi states that in ancient Iranian language, noun had eight inflectional cases including nominative, accusative, dative, genitive, ablative, locative, instrumental, and vocative which included Old Persian as well as Avestan (2005, p. 23). In Western Middle Iranian, noun is not inflected. It seems that in the period between the Old and Middle periods, noun was inflected in Western Middle Iranian having two cases: direct and oblique. Prepositions were used in Western Middle Iranian to show the oblique case, except genitive and vocative cases (ibid, p. 158) & (Amuzegar and Tafazzoli, 1994, pp. 56-57). The fact that the eight different inflectional forms changed into two inflectional forms in Western Middle Iranian, and into one form – in cases with preposition – in New Iranian, especially in Persian, indicates analogical process since a number of similar categories developed from multiplicity into unity and sameness. As a matter of fact, no new grammatical or semantic category has been created, rather some categories are eliminated and some are assimilated into one category. Apparently, the surviving form which has led the other forms making them identical to it, has enjoyed a more primary role compared to others. Therefore, this phenomenon is in agreement with Kurylowicz's fifth law stating that 'the language eliminates one or more secondary grammatical distinctions to restore a significant grammatical distinction'.

V.2. Some verb inflections which are markers of inflectional morphemes have undergone analogical process from Old through New Persian. For example verb inflections for 1st person singular in Old Persian have been at least in four forms based on being transitive or intransitive, and primary or secondary inflection: *-iy*, *-aiy*, *-m*, and *-miy*; see (Mowlayi, 2008, pp. 75-77). As Amuzegar and Tafazzoli state, the same inflection is realized with a slight difference as *-hom*, *-hēm*, *-am*, *-om*, and *-ēm* which are also 1st person plural inflections in Middle Persian (1994, pp. 64- 66). In New Persian, these four different forms have changed into only one form of *-am* for all tenses in standard Persian, such as *mirawam/raftam/berawam/rafteam*. If one is to know that the current survived forms are the equivalents of which past forms, s/he needs to understand the historical development of deletion and assimilation as regards this Persian suffix. Apparently, this inflection, in the consonant form of *-m*, had been combined with a form of the verb *ah-* (= to be) in Middle Persian, changed into one of the fivefold Middle Persian cases, and then a form realized as *-am*, made other forms identical to itself. The fact that four different forms of Old Persian inflections changed into only one form in New Persian indicates analogical process at work since a number of forms of the same function have been reduced and identical to one form. As a matter of fact, no grammatical or semantic category has been formed through this process but some older categories are eliminated and some others are reduced into one category. It seems that the surviving form which has led the other forms making them identical to it, has been more frequent compared to others; therefore, this phenomenon is in line with Kurylowicz's third law stating that 'the two elements changing the basic form to the derivational form should be related to each other through a productive inflectional process'. Here, the form *-m* must have been more productive, more frequent than the others capable of leading them.

V.3. Grammatical number had been threefold in Old Persian: singular, dual and plural. Adjectives, pronouns and numbers agreed with their referents or nouns regarding the grammatical number. In Middle and new Persian dual nouns no longer exist. It seems that Persian has retained the categories 'one' (singular) and 'more than one' (plural) which were basic (central) categories, assimilating the dual number which meant 'more than one' (two) into the plural category by analogy, practically eliminating a linguistic rule due to marginality and using a plural verb for dual category to agree with the verb. Here, again, no new grammatical or semantic rule has been established, rather a category is eliminated or has combined into another. This is in line with Kurylowicz's fifth law asserting that 'the language eliminates one or more secondary grammatical distinctions to restore a significant grammatical distinction'. According to the above law, language never abandons singular and plural categories in favor of dual category because singular and plural categories are considered basic compared to the dual category which is deemed to be marginal compared to the two first⁽⁵⁾.

V.4. Three grammatical genders masculine, feminine and neuter were assigned to noun in ancient Iranian languages, including Old Persian. Adjectives and pronouns, except personal pronouns, and numbers agreed with their referents or nouns in gender. In Middle and New Persian, gender inflection no longer exists but the gender traces are observable in male and female names. Today, because gender is not important in names, some names and even personal proper nouns, by analogy with many other feminine names, are used as feminine which were historically masculine, and vice versa. For example, 'Yasnā' is considered feminine today by analogy with such feminine names as 'Faribā', 'Hosnā', 'Zibā', 'Royā', 'Nakīsā', etc. (modern feminine names ending in *-ā*) although the name is adapted from 'yasna-', an important section of *Avesta*, being masculine in Avestan language. As another example, today among the names enlisted in the *Dictionary of Iranian Names*, the Iranian name 'Peymān' is considered masculine. It has been observed that the name 'Peymāne' is enlisted as the feminine counterpart for Peyman by analogy with the Arabic names which acquire the feminine-making '-e' marker in such personal names as Hamīd > Hamīde, Farīd > Farīde, Amīn > Amīne, etc. If one

diachronically studies a name such as ‘Yasnā’ in gender terms, it is not correct to consider it feminine, but s/he accepts synchronically that analogical process is applied and the name is currently used as feminine. Because this name is frequently used as feminine and most of the speakers consider it a feminine name, the majority (frequency) principle is applied to it, facing no linguistic prohibition since all linguistic layers gradually change; hence the word is changed in its gender.

V.5. In Old Persian, verb roots were appeared in a wide variety, allowed different suffixes depending on whether they ended in the vowel *-a* or a consonant; whether they were transitive, intransitive or contributed in passive structure formation; based on present, past continuous, past simple, and present perfect tenses; according to declarative, subjunctive, optative, injunctive and interrogative sentence structures; and finally depending on person and number; see (Mowlayi, 2008, pp. 65-85). Verb inflections abandoned many of these categories, moving toward the sameness in Middle Persian Period, such that inflections are only relevant for person and number, and do not reflect the effect of things such as the vowel *-a*, sentence structure, etc. In other words, many of these marginal categories are combined together, incorporating in themselves their more basic categories of person and number. With the reducing number of inflections, no new grammatical and semantic rule has been established; rather some categories are only eliminated or combined together, with the direction being from majority to minority. This is in line with Kurylowicz’s fifth law stating ‘the language eliminates one or more secondary grammatical distinctions to restore a significant grammatical distinction’. Here, person and number categories are basic (central) and such categories as root and sentence structure have been considered marginal and eliminated.

V.6. Mowlayi states that in Old Persian, the stem-making category of verb included the followings: 1) *a*-containing present tense stems and *a*-less present tense stems; 2) *s*-containing past tense stems and *s*-less past tense stems; 3) perfect stems; 4) passive stems (2008, pp. 68-69). These stem makers have been structurally more variant compared to later periods but in Middle Persian all these forms have been changed into two stem-maker forms of past and present tenses, as Amuzegar and Tafazzoli observe “verbs were made of two stems in the Pahlavi language: present and past tense stems. Present tense stem is used to make present and imperative verbs, and past tense verbs are made out of past stem which is equivalent to past participle; present stem is derived from ancient Iranian present stem and past stem is derived from ancient Iranian past participle” (1994, p. 64). In New Persian, these two stem makers have been remained unchanged. In this case, where at least four root making forms in Old Persian as well as the past participle form (a total of five forms) have changed into the two forms of present and past stems, no new grammatical or semantic rule is created; rather some categories are eliminated and some others have been combined into one category which again proves the application of Kurylowicz’s fifth law which states that ‘the language eliminates one or more secondary grammatical distinctions to restore a significant grammatical distinction’. Here, present and past tense stem making categories have been considered basic (= central) and preserved without considering *a*-containing and *a*-less and *s*-containing and *s*-less forms while such categories as perfect and passive stems have been considered marginal and have been eliminated.

V.7. In New Persian, the verbs whose past tense stems are formed by the addition of *-īd*, *-t*, and *-d* to their present stems are considered *regular* while those not following this rule are deemed *irregular*. Regarding regularity and irregularity of a linguistic element, Sadeghi states “a word is considered regular when the question of majority and analogy is brought up. A rule of majority is a norm and an origin, otherwise it is abnormal and irregular. Not only do the frequencies of these verbs indicate this, but the analogical changes in the past tense forms of some irregular verbs proves that” (2001, p. 134). In a study on irregular verbs in some texts belonging to the 4th and 5th centuries AH, Sadeghi mentions 32 verbs deriving their past stems by analogically adding *-īd* the dominant suffix used by the majority, including *sāzīdan* instead of *sāxtan*: to make, *oftīdan* instead of *oftādan*: to fall, *sūzīdan* instead of *sūxtan*: to burn *šokofīdan* instead of *šekoftan*: to flourish, etc. He provides examples of the analogical change in Middle Persian (ibid. pp. 134-135) as well as those of the analogical process regarding the use of this suffix in today’s Persian (ibid. pp. 136-137). In addition, in a paper as regards fake verbs, the effect of analogy has been clearly visible (ibid. pp. 143-152). Here, Kurylowicz’s third law is somehow applied which claims ‘the two elements changing the basic form to the derivational form should be related to each other through a productive inflectional process’. In this process, in fact, no new rule is presented; rather some categories led others since they were more productive, a role played by the suffix *-īd*.

V.8. The adjectives *meh*, *keh*, *beh*, *bīš*, *pīš*, and *afzūn* without comparative inflectional marker are the equivalents for the comparative adjectives with comparative inflectional marker *meh-tar:older*, *keh-tar:younger*, *beh-tar:better*, *bīš-tar:more*, *pīš-tar:earlier* and *afzūn-tar :more* respectively. These words are not considered *regular* since they are not made comparative by the main rule of adding *-tar* inflectional suffix. Obtaining the inflectional suffix *-tar*, these adjectives have, once again, been made comparative by analogy with other regular comparative structures which are in the majority. The *irregularity* is rooted in the history of these words. Abolghasemi states that there were two methods to make comparative adjectives in ancient Iranian language: a) the suffix *-yah* was added to the absolute form of the adjective; b) the suffix *-tara* was added to the absolute form of the adjective (2005, p. 24). In western Middle Iranian, the suffixes *-istar*, *-(ā)dar*, *-dar*, and *-tar* were used, all of which somehow being a remnant of the ancient *-tara*. In Middle Persian, the first type of these adjectives are realized in the forms of *mih*, *kih*, *wih*, *wēš*, *pēš* and *afzōn*, to which some suffixes used to make comparatives out of absolute form of adjectives were sometimes added for emphasis (ibid. pp. 160-161).

Looking at the historical change process of the theses adjectives, one can find that the analogical process has been applied on them since Middle Period, is reaching its maturity now. However, we need to know that not all these adjectives acquired the suffix *-tar* at once. One can infer that each of them being most suitable changed by analogy, leading gradually all the rest to change.

Kurylowicz's fourth law maintains that 'when a new analogical form is accepted in a language, it takes the main role of the word, and if the irregular old form is preserved, its use is limited to secondary concepts or functions'. Theses adjectives are two variants in New Persian language use. The new forms have the primary roles while the preserved forms of the past have the secondary function found only in literature, having no use in the normal standard speech; for example the words *keh* and *meh* are used in the following verse by Sa'di: "ze qaumī gar yekkī bīdānešt kard // na *keh* rā manzelat mānad na *meh* rā : If one man of a tribe shows folly of himself // maintain dignity neither of minors nor for majors".

V.9. If we want to trace analogy in Old Iranian Languages, we had better refer to Avestan language since more resources are available from that language. As was said earlier, nouns, adjectives, pronouns and numbers had eight inflectional cases, three genders and three number types in the Old Iranian languages. The final phoneme of their stems has been important for this feature. One of the most frequently-used phonemes in stem endings has been *-a*. Since this is one of the most-frequently used and regular final stem phonemes in ancient Iranian languages, many of other final phonemes of stems tend to change into *-a*. In other words, many nouns and adjectives whose stems did not end in *-a*, were inflected like the ones ending in *-a*. Some noun stems which ended in *-a* in the Avestan language are *daēva-*, *vira-*, *ahura-*, *yima-*, *haoma-*, and *yasna-*, but some others which ended in phonemes other than *-a*, were inflected in certain cases like those ending in *-a*. For instance, the word *baēvar-* (the number 10000) was inflected in dative singular masculine case as *baēvarāi*, i.e. like those words ending in *-a*; (Jackson, 1892, p. 108). On the other hand, it is known that many numbers such as *aēva-*, *dva-*, *panča-*, *hapta-*, *ašta-*, *nava-*, *dasa-*, and *sata-* (1, 2, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, and 100, respectively) were themselves ended in *-a*. It is likely that *baēvar-* tended to be inflected by analogy with such numbers.

One of the most common markers of present-tense-making stems in Avestan verb inflection, also, is the *-a*-ended stem. The importance of this stem ending is reflected in the fact that present tense roots are divided into two groups of *-a*-containing and *-a*-less, with the former group being called *-a*-thematic. In verb inflection in non-present tense (for example in past tense) also many verbs tend to be inflected the same as those ended in *-a*. For instance, the present tense stem in the 3rd person singular transitive past tense verb *janat* (hit, killed) is *jan-* with the weak form *ja-*. The components inside the word are: *jan+a+t* whose *-a* component is the factor making the word have *-a*-inflection tendency; See Rashed Mohassel (1985, p. 145) for more information on the case).

V.10. Abolghasemi states that the equivalent for the word '*pesar:son*' in New Persian is *puça-* in Old Persian which has changed to *pūs* in Middle Persian. However, in Middle Persian the word *pūsar* is also observed in which *-ar* is added to *pūs* by analogy with the words '*duxt* and *duxtar:daughter*' (2005, p.71). The form changed in the word is in accordance with Kurylowicz's third law stating that 'the two elements changing the basic form to the derivational form should be in relation to each other through a productive inflectional process'. Here, the form *-ar* has changed *pūs* to *pūsar* and *pesar* in Middle and New Persian, respectively, through a productive inflectional process.

V.11. Mowlayi (2008) states that 1st person singular personal pronoun in Old Persian had bound and free forms in different inflections as follows: *adam*, *mām*, *manā*, *-mā*, *-mai*, and *-ma* (p.56). Those six forms have changed to the four forms *an*, *az*, *man*, and *-m* in Middle Persian according to Amuzegar and Tafazzoli (1994, p.58). In today's Persian, i.e. New Persian, only the form *man* which is a survived Old Persian genitive case, and *-am* are used in free and bound forms, respectively, in exchange of all Old and Middle forms. Regarding such a case, one can guess that the genitive case was basic (central) compared to the other cases which were marginal. This is in accordance with Kurylowicz's fifth law.

V.12. Languages do not always apply analogy intralingually, but they do it interlingually as well. An analogical case is the use a language makes of derivational and inflectional affixes belonging to another language through borrowing process. For example, the adjective-making suffix *-ī* which is originally a suffix in Iranian Languages, can be added to a wealth of Arabic nouns borrowed into Persian making adjectives out of those Arabic nouns by the Persian adjective-making manner in words such as: *hesāb-ī*, *ketāb-ī*, *enšā-ī*, *ešteqāq-ī*, *rezā-ī*, etc. The addition of this suffix to Arabic words is not related to the characteristics these words have in Arabic, i.e. whether they are masculine or feminine, simple or derived, singular, dual or plural, etc.; rather, they have changed from nouns to adjectives by analogy with Iranian words – here Persian words – by obtaining the derivational suffix *-ī* although they are Arabic words. Some more examples of this phenomenon are provided in *The History of the Persian Language*, a work by Abolghasemi (2005). He has also mentioned a number of Persian words changed into Arabic by the Arabic adverb-making suffix called 'tanween' with the Arabic marker *-an*, including *nāčār-an*, *dowom-an*, and *gāh-an*. these words are originally Persian but they are made identical to their Arabic counterpart adverbs by analogy with such borrowed Arabic words such as *sarī-an*, *hatm-an*, *nesbat-an*, *mowaqqat-an*, etc; See (Abolghasemi, 2005: 268-72) for more examples on Arabic and Persian nouns plural-making, and making Persian and Arabic adjectives comparative and superlative by analogical process.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions have been obtained from the issues discussed in the paper:

- Analogy is a universal historical change among the world languages. There is an urgent need for paying attention to analogical processes in the historical study of Iranian languages since they are among the prominent ancient languages of the world.
- The main principles of analogy stress on the factors including regularity and irregularity, majority and minority, productivity and sterility, centrality and marginality, and generalization.
- Kurylowicz's sixfold laws are in accordance with the examples provided in the paper. The effect and accordance are observed in each of the 12 cases.
- The analogical direction from Old to New Period in Iranian languages has been from analytical to combined types; in other words, the language has combined some irregular nonstandard forms making them less in number.
- More examples can be analyzed by analogy with those provided and on the basis of the five inflectional characteristics including case, number, gender, tense and degree (comparative & superlative).
- Analogy can contribute to such processes as linguistic reconstruction, etymology, and linguistic predictions.
- Analogy is not always applied intralingually; it occurs interlingually as well.

NOTES:

- (1) The complete study of this chapter is recommended for those who want to learn more about *analogy*.
- (2) Scholars such as Hermann Grassmann, George Curtius, Berthold Delbrück, Karl Brugmann, and Hermann Osthoff are among the founders of this school (Hassandoust, 2004, pp. 14-15).
- (3) The English language is traced back to the great Proto-Indo-European language family through Germanic branch. It seems that the current English irregular verb forms are the remnants of the past Middle and Old English or even Germanic.
- (4) According to *linguistic dialectics*, if all rules were the same, language would be tired of regularity and homogeneity once more, and gradually makes changes and produces diversity due to its variable nature, distancing itself from homogeneity, uniformity and regularity.
- (5) Arabic still has dual and present and absent (3rd person) categories. Based on what happened to other languages, one can predict that if analogy is applied someday, dual and absent will be eliminated while singular, plural, and present will survive, since these are among the significant distinctions.

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Teaching Strategies of Enhancing Motivation among Ethnic Minority Students*

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Abstract—Motivation is one of the non-intellectual factors that affect language learners' learning abilities. Motivation plays a very important role in language learners' learning activities and their performance. The paper mainly studies the motivation of ethnic minority students and the effective teaching strategies it brings about. Firstly, the author gives a brief introduction about the teaching object and learning situation of ethnic minority students. Secondly, the author introduces the definition and types of motivation. Then a research is done to study the motivation of students and its relevant influencing factors. In addition, an inquiry about the type of teacher that is popular among students is conducted. After that, a discussion of the teaching strategies is made so as to cultivate and stimulate students' learning motivation and thus improve the teaching effect.

Index Terms—motivation, ethnic minority students, teaching strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

A. *The Teaching Object of Ethnic Minority Preparatory Education in English*

Ethnic minority preparatory education of English teaching is an integral part of higher education. It is a transitional education level between high school education and university education. It is an important stage of cultivating talents of ethnic minorities, and developing the economy of minority areas. English course is a basic course of ethnic minority preparatory education. Ethnic minority preparatory English education is instructed by foreign language teaching theory, and its main content is composed of English language knowledge and application skills, cross-cultural communication and learning strategy. The teaching system is an integration of a variety of teaching mode and teaching means.

B. *The Learning Situation of Ethnic Minority Students*

The ethnic minority students in Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities are mainly from the mountain areas in Inner Mongolia and its surrounding regions. Students differ from each other due to their different customs, national cultures, traditional ideas, religious beliefs, etc. Some students take a positive role in class activities and some students participate in the classroom activities passively. Some students hold a wrong motivation of learning English that they think it is useless to learn English. Some students like to study English because they want to get high scores and win scholarship. Other students enjoy learning English because they are willing to communicate with foreigners and a good command of English can help them get a better understanding of English cultures. The above-mentioned phenomena are obviously concerned with nonintellectual factors of students and above all, motivation is responsible for achievement in the second language. The next part is going to discuss the important role motivation plays in the second language learning.

II. THE DEFINITION OF MOTIVATION

Motivation is probably the most frequently used catch-all term for explaining the success or failure of virtually any complex task (<http://www.docin.com/p-55564485.html>). Motivation is commonly thought of as an inner drive, impulse, emotion or desire that moves one to a particular action (www.springerlink.com). Motivation refers to "the magnitude and direction of behavior and the choices people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and to the degree of effort they will exert in that respect" (Keller, 1993). Gardner (1985) defines motivation to learn a second language as "the extent to which an individual works or strives to learn the language because of a desire to do so and the satisfaction experience in this activity."

Motivation refers to goal-directed behavior (cf. Heckhausen, 1991), and when one is attempting to measure motivation, attention can be directed toward a number of features of the individual. The motivated individual spends effort, is persistent and attentive to the task at hand, has goals, desires, and aspirations, enjoys the activity, experiences reinforcement from success and disappointment from failure, makes attributions from success concerning success and/or failure, is aroused, and makes use of strategies to aid in achieving goals. That is, the motivated individual exhibits many behaviors, feelings, cognitions, etc., that the individual who is unmotivated does not. (A.-M. Masgoret &

* Supported by the Teaching Project of Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities "An Empirical Research on Ethnic Minority Students of Preparatory Education Under The Influence of Nonintellectual Factors and Some Innovative Teaching Suggestions" (MDZD201303).

R.C.Gardner, 2003)

III. THE CATEGORIES OF MOTIVATION

Motivation can be divided into the following types: integrative motivation, instrumental motivation, intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, assimilative motivation.

A. *Intrinsic Motivation* (<http://www.en.wikipedia.org>)

Intrinsic motivation has been studied since the early 1970s. Intrinsic motivation is the self-desire to seek out new things and new challenges, to analyze one's capacity, to observe and to gain knowledge. It is driven by an interest or enjoyment in the task itself, and exists within the individual rather than relying on external pressures or a desire for reward. Intrinsic motivation is a natural motivational tendency and is a critical element in cognitive, social, and physical development. Students who are intrinsically motivated are more likely to engage in the task willingly as well as work to improve their skills, which will increase their capabilities. Students are likely to be intrinsically motivated if they:

- attribute their educational results to factors under their own control, also known as autonomy or locus of control
- believe they have the skills to be effective agents in reaching their desired goals, also known as self-efficacy beliefs
- are interested in mastering a topic, not just in achieving good grades

B. *Extrinsic Motivation*

Extrinsic motivation refers to the performance of an activity in order to attain a desired outcome and it is the opposite of intrinsic motivation. Extrinsic motivation comes from influences outside of the individual. In extrinsic motivation, the harder question to answer is where do people get the motivation to carry out and continue to push with persistence. Usually extrinsic motivation is used to attain outcomes that a person wouldn't get from intrinsic motivation. Common extrinsic motivations are rewards (for example money or grades) for showing the desired behavior, and the threat of punishment following misbehavior. Competition is an extrinsic motivator because it encourages the performer to win and to beat others, not simply to enjoy the intrinsic rewards of the activity. A cheering crowd and the desire to win a trophy are also extrinsic incentives. (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Motivation#Business>)

C. *Instrumental Motivation*

Lambert has identified two main types of positive motivation that learners may have for learning a second language. The first is commonly called Instrumental Motivation. This is most typical of foreign rather than second language learning contexts. Instrumentally motivated learners are, usually, learning the second language, mostly within their own first language community, for some business, government or academic related purpose. People learning for instrumental purposes therefore have some specific, personal, identifiable reason for learning the second language. They have clear goals, whose achievement requires them to learn the second language.

D. *Integrative Motivation*

The other type is known as Integrative Motivation. This is more common when learning the second language in the second environment. The learner with this kind of motivation is held to be learning the language to become more like, or more accepted as, a member of the second language speech community. The motivation is based on the desire to fit in, to become less obviously an outsider. (Wedell, M, 1995)

E. *Assimilative Motivation*

Assimilative motivation is the drive to become an indistinguishable member of a speech community, and it usually requires prolonged contact with the second language culture. (<http://www.docin.com/>)

IV. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

A. *Achievement Goal Theory*

The study of goals within the field of motivation has a long history (Anderman & Wolters, 2006). Achievement goals are widely recognized as important constructs in understanding behavior in educational settings (Dweck, 1986; Nicholls, 1984). According to achievement goal theory, learners' motivation has been conceptualized as goal-directed behaviors that are used to accomplish an authentic learning task, whereas goals as "the purpose or cognitive-dynamic focus of task involvement" (Elliot et al., 1999). Traditionally, achievement goal theorists have identified two distinct achievement goal orientation, that is, mastery vs. performance goals, depending on whether learning is conceived and valued as an end in itself or as a means to external purposes (Meece et al., 1988). Mastery and performance goals represent different success criteria and different reasons for engaging in achievement activity (www.zoltandornyei.co.uk). Mastery-oriented learners would tend to set up their learning purposes as mastering skills and increasing competence, whereas learners with a performance goal would typically consider the aims of learning as demonstrating their exceptional competence over peers.

B. *Gardner's Socio-educational Model*

Gardner's socio-educational model was influenced by Mowrer. He proposed that the children's success of the first language learning contribute to the interest of gaining identity within the family or wider community. On the basis of Mowrer's theory, Gardner carried on the investigation of motivation which is a very important factor for L2 acquisition. Different from other motivation research, Gardner (1985)'s research expanded socio-psychological model to the socio-educational, and his research focuses on the foreign language classroom. In Gardner's model, he paid attention to four elements, including the antecedent factors (the social and cultural milieu), individual differences variables, language acquisition setting or context and linguistic outcomes.

Gardner's socio-educational model for foreign language learning was summarized by Au (1988) in terms of five hypotheses (Schmidt et al., 1996,p.130):

- The integrative motive hypothesis:
Integrative motivation is positively associated with second language achievement.
- The cultural belief hypothesis: Cultural beliefs influence the development of the integrative motive and the degree to which integrativeness and achievement are related.
- The active learner hypothesis:
Integratively motivated learners are successful because they are active learners.
- The causality hypothesis: Integrative motivation is a cause; second language achievement, the effort.
- The two process hypothesis: Aptitude and integrative motivation are independent factors in second language learning. (<http://wenku.baidu.com/>)

V. AN INVESTIGATION OF MOTIVATION AMONG ETHNIC MINORITY STUDENTS

The ethnic minority students in Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities are mainly from the mountain areas in Inner Mongolia and its surrounding regions. Students differ from each other due to their different customs, national cultures, traditional ideas, religious beliefs, etc. Some students take a positive role in class activities and some students participate in the classroom activities passively. A few students show a nervous and anxious mood when they answer the teachers' questions. Some students hold a wrong motivation of learning English that they think it is useless to learn English. Some students like to study English because they want to get high scores and win scholarship. Other students enjoy learning English because they are willing to communicate with foreigners and a good command of English can help them get a better understanding of English cultures. The above-mentioned phenomena are obviously concerned with motivation factors of students.

In order to explore the influences that motivation factors bring about, the author conducts a self-administered questionnaire survey among 106 students from two classes in an attempt to find out how much non-intellectual factors affect students learning process. The survey contains two figures. The first figure is an investigation of students' motivation of learning a foreign language. The second figure is an inquiry about the image of a popular teacher that most students prefer. Through the survey, one hundred valid replies are received. The students surveyed are all Mongolian students in the University of Inner Mongolia for the Nationalities. And they have different English levels. Some have a good command of English while others can not master English very well. Through this study, the author aims to get an overall knowledge of the students' learning status. (Zhao, 2015)

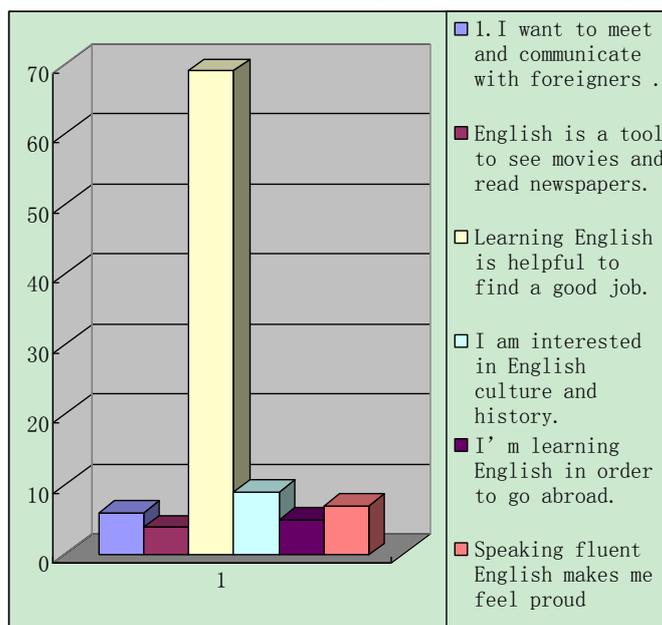
The survey is made in the following steps.

(1) In the first chart, the teacher collects some typical questionnaires that investigate students' learning motives when learning English. A major purpose of the investigation is to estimate the magnitude of the contributions that motivation makes to achievement in the second language learning.

In the second form, the teacher designs a self-administered survey containing seven aspects of a teacher, and they are the character, language style, teacher-student relationship, speaking speed, intonation, after class talk and attitudes towards underachievers. In this way, the teacher tries to find out what kind of teacher is more popular and welcome among students.

(2)The teacher asks students to fill in the two investigation forms with regard to the motivation factors affecting students' learning abilities and some important qualities that a teacher ought to have. Afterwards, the teacher collects the data and count out the percentage of each item. And then the teacher makes an analysis of the data and gets the conclusion. Look at the figure below.

TABLE I
WHAT ARE YOUR MOTIVATION AND PURPOSE OF LEARNING A FOREIGN LANGUAGE?



On table 1, item 1,4,6 can be concluded into integrative motivation and item 2,3,5 can be classified into instrumental motivation. Some researches show that learners with integrative motivation have much stronger desire to learn than those with instrumental motivation. However, things are not always the case. Learners with instrumental motivation may become more likely to study hard. From table one, we can find out that most of the students have instrumental motivation which is concerned with future careers. Among them, over half of the students learn English in order to get a good job. 4% of the students want to see movies or read newspapers in English. 5% of the students learn English because they want to go abroad. While students with integrative motivation only take 22% of the total number of the students. 9% of them learn English in order to know English culture and history. 6% of the students want to get involved in the second language community activities and make friends with foreigners so they begin to learn English. Besides, Students who are able to speak fluent English may possess a strong sense of pride.

TABLE II
WHAT KIND OF ENGLISH TEACHER DO YOU LIKE?

Items	options	AA(%)	BB(%)	CC(%)	CD(%)
character	A. mature B. lively C. gentle and humble D. I don't care	27%	59%	12%	2%
Language style	A. vivid B. humorous C. plain D. I don't care	17%	78%	3%	2%
Teacher-student relationship	A. intimate B. friendly C. strict D. distant	52%	33%	10%	5%
Speaking speed	A. fast B. slow C. moderate D. I don't care	9%	11%	76%	4%
intonation	A. appropriate B. sonorous C. plain D. I don't care	59%	32%	7%	2%
After class talk	A. everything B. language learning C. hobbies D. nothing	60%	25%	13%	2%
Attitudes towards underachievers	A. intimate and don't care about their scores B. respect them without scorn C. pay attention to them D. neglect them	18%	34%	43%	5%

From table 2, we can get the conclusion that most of the students like lively teachers, because lively teachers are easy to get along with students and are popular among them. Some students like mature teachers because they leave students an image of being experienced. 12% of the students like gentle and humble teachers and only 2% of the students don't care what their English teacher is like. As for the aspect of language style, a large majority of students tend to expect their teacher to be humorous. A small number of students hope that their teacher should give them a vivid picture of what he is going to teach. Teacher with plain language style can attract few students. Over half of the students hope to get an intimate relationship with their teachers and 33% of the students expect to have a friendly relationship with their teachers. From the survey, we know that sometimes a strict teacher is not so popular among students. As for the speaking speed, being moderate is chosen by most of the students. Neither too fast nor too slow is a speaking speed suitable for students. Students would like to choose appropriate or sonorous intonation instead of plain intonation. After class, more than half of the students are willing to talk everything with their teacher in order to get acquainted with their teacher, While 25% of the students want to talk with their teacher their study. A small number of students like to talk with teacher something except their study, for example, their hobbies. In every class, there are some underachievers and the teacher's attitude toward them plays a vital role in their language learning. Nearly half of the students hope their teacher can pay attention to them and give them more help. 34% of the students expect their teacher's respect rather than their scorn. 18% of the students want to maintain an intimate relationship with their teachers though their scores are not so satisfactory. Only a few students don't care about the teacher's attitude.

VI. THE TEACHING STRATEGIES OF ENHANCING STUDENTS' MOTIVATION

(1) The usual meaning of motivation for the teacher is probably the interest that something generates in the students. A particular exercise, a particular topic, a particular song, may make the students appear involved in the class, to the teacher's delight. (Vivian Cook, 2000) Teachers should arrange a good and harmonious learning environment and improve students' learning interest. Interest is a lasting factor to motivate students' learning abilities. In view of students' different personalities, characteristics background and learning style, the teaching methods vary from person to person. A close and pleasant atmosphere may make students feel at ease and students are more likely to take an active part in classroom activities. A variety of activities such as pair work, team work or class presentation are encouraged to carry out among students so as to cultivate their learning initiative and creativity. In the form of interaction between teachers and students, the combination of language practice, knowledge acquisition and the training of language skills is carried out by the students, which is a good way to stimulate their interest in language learning.

(2) Teachers should change their traditional teaching methods and make a careful design according to the teaching content. Teachers should create suitable teaching context to satisfy student's needs. According to the investigation of table one above, most of the students' motivation is instrumental, and only a small part of students' motivation is integrative. Learners hope to benefit from their knowledge of foreign language in terms of later career. However, it is often the case that students with neither instrumental motivation nor integrative motivation will find it hard to learn English well. Therefore, teachers may have to go along with the students' motivation, or at least be sufficiently aware of the students' motivation so that any problems can be smoothed over. It is of essential importance for teachers to cultivate both types of motivation in their students, by emphasizing the career benefits that knowledge of second language learning brings, or by building up interest in the foreign culture and history through comparison of the culture differences between Chinese and foreign countries. Teachers should design a lesson relevant to students' professional knowledge according to students' practical needs. Besides, it is helpful for teachers to introduce some interesting background information or foreign culture to increase their knowledge and broaden their views.

(3) The emotional communication between teachers and students is an important factor to create a relaxed classroom atmosphere. A bad teacher-student relationship is harmful to the second language learning. Students will feel depressed and nervous in class and they will not get interested in English learning because they don't like the teacher. In order to create a harmonious classroom environment, first of all, teachers should respect and trust their students. Teachers ought to realize that each student is unique and has their own characteristic. Every student has both advantages and disadvantages. Teachers should treat every student equally. They should neither look down upon underachievers nor favor towards top students. Teachers should give students moderate encouragement and praise in order to mobilize students' learning enthusiasm. When students make mistakes or give wrong answers, teachers should be patient and carefully listen to students' thoughts. When teachers give students more encouragement instead of criticism, students will not feel hurt and will be more confident to participate in the classroom activities. A research shows that praise and encouragement is a good way to arouse students' learning motivation and help them make rapid progress. Appropriate praise and encouragement is helpful to spur students' enthusiasm and is a kind of affirmation to students. Teachers' sincere help and encouragement to students can enhance their confidence to learn a foreign language well.

(4) In an ideal teachers' world, students would enter the classroom admiring the target culture and language, wanting to get something out of the L2 learning for themselves, and thirsting for knowledge. In practice teachers have to be aware of the reservations and preconceptions of their students. What they think of the teacher, and what they think of the course, heavily affect their success. This is what teachers can influence rather than the learners' more deep-seated motivations. (Vivian Cook, 2000). Therefore, teachers should become critically reflective to improve their teaching practice. According to the research of table 2, we may find out that a lively, humorous, easygoing and affectionate

teacher is more popular with the students. Therefore, teachers should rethink their teaching behaviors and develop their teaching abilities. Zeichner and Liston propose that "A reflective teacher is defined in this literature as one assesses the origins, purposes and consequences of his or her work at all level." Becoming critical means that as teachers we have to transcend the technicalities of teaching and think beyond the need to improve our instructional techniques. Becoming a critically reflective teacher within this orientation therefore involves the realization that as second language teachers, we are both the procedures and creators of our own history.(Jack C. Richards & David Nunan, 2000) Therefore, teachers should engage in constant and systematic inquiry of the origin and results of teaching so that they can find out the factors that hinder their development and thus improve their teaching effect.

VII. CONCLUSION

Motivation is a complex concept and many studies have shown that motivation is essential for successful language learning. Brown (2001) gives an interpretation of motivation is that motivation is "the extent to which you make choices about goals to pursue and the effort you will devote to that pursuit". Learning motivation is an important factor, which has significant impact on students' English learning. A strong learning motivation can facilitate students to learn English well. Based on the previous literature review and theories of motivation, the research concerning learning motivation is carried out among ethnic minority students and the findings of the research are to some extent worthwhile. It helps the teacher to get a clear clue about the present learning situation of the students, and rethink their teaching procedures. The research offers teachers effective ways to stimulate students' learning motivation and obtain better learning outcomes. However, there are some other variables that affect students' motivation and a further study is needed to investigate the aspects that relate with motivation.

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Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

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- Name, contact, position, affiliation, and biography of the Guest Editor(s)
- List of potential reviewers if available
- Potential authors to the issue if available
- Estimated number of papers to accept to the special issue
- Tentative time-table for the call for papers and reviews, including
 - Submission of extended version
 - Notification of acceptance
 - Final submission due
 - Time to deliver final package to the publisher

If the proposal is for selected papers of a conference/workshop, the following information should be included as part of the proposal as well:

- The name of the conference/workshop, and the URL of the event.
- A brief description of the technical issues that the conference/workshop addresses, highlighting the relevance for the journal.
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A Complementary Perspective of Conceptual Blending Theory and Relevance Theory on Metaphor Interpretation <i>Junhong Ren and Yan Li</i>	2091
Mixed Approach in Syntax: Evidence from Persian <i>Hengameh Vaezi</i>	2097
Quantitative Analysis of the Speech of the Teachers and Students in High School English Classroom—Based on Information Technology-based Interaction Analysis System <i>Wei Wang and Meizhu Han</i>	2107
The Interference of First Language and Second Language Acquisition <i>Ali Derakhshan and Elham Karimi</i>	2112
Comparative Study on the Appraisal Resources of <i>China Daily's</i> Disaster News <i>Xiaolin Zhang</i>	2118
An Investigation into Rohani's Meeting Coverage in Two English Daily Newspapers with a Critical Discourse Analysis Perspective: Tehran Times vs. Los Angeles Times <i>Zohre Sivandi Nasab and Hamid Reza Dowlatabadi</i>	2131
Impacts of Chunks Input on Chinese English Major Students' Oral Production <i>Lihua Shen</i>	2138
Kiarostami's <i>Through the Olive Tree</i> : A Postmodern Analysis <i>Esmail Zohdi and Mohammad Hussein Oroskhan</i>	2144
Cultivation of Foreign Language Talents Viewed from the Perspective of Educational Ecology <i>Yanmei Liu</i>	2150
Essay Writing Errors of Iranian EFL Learners at Under-graduate Level: A Case Study of Medical Learners <i>Marzieh Marzoughi and Batool Ghanbari</i>	2157
A Brief Study on the Symbolic Meaning of the Main Characters' Name in <i>The Scarlet Letter</i> <i>Nan Lei</i>	2164
Analogy and Some Case Studies in the Historical Study of Iranian Languages: With Emphasis on Persian <i>Mousa Mahmoudzahi</i>	2169
Teaching Strategies of Enhancing Motivation among Ethnic Minority Students <i>Lili Zhao</i>	2176
