Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

A Contrastive Study of the Use of Causal Connectives by Chinese EFL Learners and English Native Speakers in Writing
Junhua Mo

2426

Metaphors and Translation Prisms

Eriko Sato

Department of Asian and Asian American Studies, Stony Brook University, Stony Brook, New York, USA

Abstract—**Metaphors, along with similes, are often viewed as translation problems. Many prescriptive guidelines for how to treat them have been proposed, but there is a paucity of descriptive analysis on the nature of the transformation of metaphors, especially between languages that are linguistically and culturally distinct, for example, between English and Asian languages. Furthermore, the study of multiple translations within one language is even more limited. The present paper descriptively analyzes multiple English translations of the same Japanese literary text published in the past century. It shows that: i) a metaphor's life can be ceased or revived; ii) a metaphor's strength, markedness, linguistic state, pragmatic domain, and sociocultural base may change; iii) explicit metaphors and implicit metaphors interact; iv) a metaphor may be deleted or newly created, through translation. These findings empirically show that metaphors are open expressions with some room to be filled, left open, eliminated, or altered through translation, and thus they can serve as venues for varied translation approaches.**

Index Terms—**translation studies, pragmatics, domestication, metaphor, Japanese**

I. INTRODUCTION

Metaphors, along with similes, are frequently viewed as translation problems especially when the source language (SL) and the target language (TL) are linguistically and culturally distinct. Prescriptive guidelines on how metaphors should be translated (Newmark 1981, 1988) and logical predictions on their behaviors in translation contexts (van den Broeck, 1981; Toury, 1995) have been proposed in the field of translation studies. However, the descriptive analyses of metaphors in translation are quite limited,[1] and there is a paucity of such analyses in Asian texts, which are expected to cast more challenges than those of European languages when translated into English. Furthermore, the study of multiple English translations of the same Asian text in authentic contexts is even more limited, although such a study would be promising for revealing a range of patterns of metaphor and similes and gain insight into their roles for translation.

This paper explores the paradigm of the transformations of metaphors and similes through the analysis of multiple published English translations of the same Japanese literary text. The difficulties of translating Japanese into English have been frequently discussed (Riordan and Takayanagi, 1896; Henitiuk, 2010; Makino, 2011; Hasegawa, 2012 among others). This paper attempts to describe, explain, and characterize not only explicit metaphors, but also implicit metaphors in translation contexts in terms of cognitive, linguistic, pragmatic, sociocultural, communicative, and functional point of view following the framework of descriptive translation studies advocated by Holmes (1988), van den Broeck (1981), Toury (1995), Schäffner (2004), Pym et al. (2008), and Chesterman (2012) among others.

The organization of the paper is as follows: Section II outlines the development of translation studies and varied translation approaches. Section III provides an overview of explicit metaphors and implicit metaphors. Section IV summarizes relevant concepts of metaphor translation discussed in recent literature. Section V presents in-depth descriptive analyses of excerpts of modern Japanese literary works by Kōtarō Takamura (1883-1956), Sōseki Natsume (1888-1916), and Yasunari Kawabata (1899-1972) as well as their published English translations. Section VI is the conclusion.

II. OVERVIEW OF TRANSLATION APPROACHES AND TRANSLATION STUDIES

The scholars of translation studies[2] in the 1950s and 1960s were in the transition of shifting their focus from the equivalence between code units to the equivalence between texts because the former is arguably unattainable (Jakobson,1959). However, the pursuit of textual equivalence has also faced difficulties. Catford's level shifts and category shifts are meant to cross syntactic boundaries and reach a text-level equivalence (Catford, 1965, p.73), but his empirical illustrations are limited to sentence-internal elements (Munday, 2012, p.94). In addition, the pursuit of textual equivalence tends to face two opposite directions, faithfulness and naturalness, creating a faithfulness-naturalness paradox: maximizing faithfulness to the source language text (ST) often requires compromising naturalness in the target language text (TT); maximizing the naturalness in the TT often requires compromising faithfulness to the ST. Expectedly, this faithfulness-naturalness dichotomy reappears with different labels in many translation approaches. Nida (1964) distinguishes *formal equivalence* and *dynamic equivalence*: the former focuses on the message itself whereas the latter focuses on the effect that the message of the text gives to its receptors. Similarly, Newmark (1981)

---

[1] Schäffner (2004) conducts in-depth descriptive studies of metaphors in authentic political discourse translated between German and English.
[2] The study of translation as an academic discipline only began in the latter half of the 20th century. The term "translation studies" was created by James S. Holmes (1924–1986) in his paper "The name and nature of translation studies" delivered in 1972 (Munday, 2012, p.10).

distinguishes *semantic translation* and *communicative translation*: the former attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original whereas the latter attempts to recreate the effect obtained on the readers of the original (p. 39). Advocates of the functional approach to translation parameterize the faithfulness-naturalness dichotomy depending on the function or the purpose of the text (Reiss, 1989; Nord, 1991; Vermeer, 1996). For example, Reiss (1989) claims that the translation of informative texts should maximally respect the semantic equivalence, the translation of operative texts should maximally respect communicative equivalence, and the translation of expressive texts should maximally respect stylistic equivalence. Neubert and Shreve (1992) bypass the faithfulness-naturalness paradox judged by any surface forms, but consider textual equivalence from a pragmatic point of view. They define communicative equivalence as holding between texts that "yield similar information to similar readers in essentially similar situations" (Neubert and Shreve, 1992, p.143). House's (2006) context-based approach transports the faithfulness-naturalness paradox to the distinction between *overt translation* and *covert translation,* where their choice is made after re-contextualizing the text: in overt translation the original's context is reactivated alongside the target context; in covert translation the original text goes through a cultural filter to take account of the new addressees. On the other hand, for Venuti (1995, 1998), the essence of the faithfulness-naturalness paradox is an ethical issue: the two competing poles are *foreignization,* which brings the TL audience to the SL culture, and *domestication,* which brings the author to the TL audience, the latter of which is dominant in Anglo-America.[3]

Currently, translation studies is highly interdisciplinary, overarching linguistics, pragmatics, semiotics, psychology, history, sociology, religious studies, political science, comparative literature, intercultural communication, and more. Some translation scholars take a prescriptive path, aiming to present the guidelines for translators (Newmark, 1981, 1988), whereas others advocate for a descriptive path, aiming to study translations as they are with different focuses (van den Broeck, 1981; Holmes,1988; Toury, 1995; Schäffner, 2004; Chesterman, 1997, 2012).

III. Explicit Metaphors and Implicit Metaphors

Our cognitive and linguistic activities have been built upon and supported by constant metaphor production and deployment through analogy, association, and categorization. Metaphors actually create similarities (Black, 1962, p.37), shock us with an individual flash of imaginative insight (Dagut, 1976, p. 22), and help us extend word meanings (Lyons, 1968, p. 406). Metaphors possess infinite productivity.

A subset of explicit metaphors, or original metaphors, becomes standard metaphors after overuse, and ultimately lexicalized, creating new words. That is, metaphors travel their life-spans, from fully alive (original), to half-alive (standard) and then to dead (lexicalized). Evidently, our linguistic activities are deeply rooted in metaphorization. It is not an exaggeration to say that every linguistic item was derived from a metaphor, if not from a sound symbolism or purely arbitrary signs that are accidentally created.

By contrast, implicit metaphors surround us and support our linguistic and cognitive behaviors as a part of our unconscious knowledge. Lakoff and Johnson (1980) extend the concept of metaphors to include conceptual metaphors such as orientational metaphors, ontological metaphors, and structural metaphors. They are quite culture-detached and mostly universal, and remain as an unconscious part of our linguistic knowledge. Grammatical metaphors can also be considered as a part of implicit metaphors. Halliday (1989, 1994) introduces the concept of grammatical metaphors on the assumption that metaphoric expressions that convey pragmatic/contextual information arise not only through lexical items but also through the manipulation of grammatical categories and structures such as transitivity, modality, and mood configurations. For example, nominalization is an instance of a grammatical metaphor.[4] Expressing a command by a question is also an instance of a grammatical metaphor.[5]

IV. Descriptive Translation Studies of Metaphors

Scholars of translation studies commonly classify metaphors into three types: i) original (creative, private, decorative), ii) standard (conventional, stock, idiom), and iii) dead (fossilized, lexicalized).[6] Some scholars of translation studies analyze metaphors prescriptively (Newmark, 1981, 1988), but others analyze them descriptively (van den Broeck,1988; Toury,1995; Schäffner, 2004).

Van den Broeck (1981) provides the three logical possibilities for translating metaphors from SL to TL (p.77):[7]

(1) Translation "sensu stricto." A metaphor is translated "sensu stricto" whenever both SL "tenor" and SL "vehicle" are transferred into the TL. For lexicalized metaphors this mode of translating may give rise to two different situations depending on whether or not the SL and the TL use corresponding 'vehicles':

a) If the "vehicles" in SL and TL correspond, the resulting TL metaphor will be idiomatic.

---

[3] See Wakabayashi (2009) for the discussion of translational Japanese and its relationship with Venuti's (1995) foreignization.

[4] See Naganuma (2011) for nominalization as grammatical metaphor in translation contexts between Japanese and English.

[5] See Yang (2013) for interpersonal grammatical metaphor.

[6] Bally (1951) proposes a threefold classification of metaphors: concrete images, affective (or weakened) images, and dead images, as discussed in Vinay and Darbelnet (1995, p.210). Van den Broeck (1981, p.75) assumes three categories of metaphors: private metaphors, conventional metaphors, and lexicalized metaphors. Newmark (1981) also divides metaphors into three types: original (creative), standard (stock), and dead (fossilized) (p.48); however, he later divides them into six types: dead, cliché, stock, adopted, recent and original (Newmark, 1988, p.106).

[7] Van den Broeck (1981) borrows the terms "tenor" and "vehicle" from Richards (1936) (p.77).

b) If the "vehicles" in SL and TL differ, the resulting TL metaphor may be either a semantic anomaly or a daring innovation.

(2) Substitution. This mode applies to those cases where the SL "vehicle" is replaced by a different TL "vehicle" with more or less the same "tenor." Then the SL and TL "vehicles" may be considered translational equivalents in that they share a common 'tenor.'

(3) Paraphrase. An SL metaphor is paraphrased whenever it is rendered by a non-metaphorical expression in the TL. In fact this mode of translating metaphors renders them into "plain speech"; the resulting TL expression comes up to the level of a commentary.

(Van den Broeck, 1981, p.77)

Toury (1995) warns that we should not ignore the cases where metaphors are simply deleted through translation (p. 81-83). In addition, he argues that the unit of metaphor is not always straightforward and that we should also proceed from the TT in addition to proceeding from the ST during descriptive analyses because non-metaphors may become metaphors through translation and metaphors may be created when there is no obvious necessity through translation. However, he does not provide actual empirical studies.

Schäffner (2004) conducts in-depth descriptive studies of metaphors in authentic political discourse translated between German and English from a cognitive and sociocultural perspective and shows that conceptual metaphors (Lakoff and Johnson, 1980) are preserved through translation at the macro-level although they appear not to be at the micro-level.

V. ANALYSIS

This section explores the variations of transformed metaphors through the analysis of multiple English translations of the same Japanese text. Unlike preceding studies of metaphors in translation, the present study will analyze a wider range of metaphors, both explicit and implicit metaphors, and examine them not only from STs, but also from TTs. For the current purposes, the distinction between metaphor and simile is not always clearly made. STs and TTs that were written in modern vernacular were chosen to reduce variables. The excerpts were drawn from five poems "Hito ni" (To a person), "Kogai no hito ni" (To a person in a suburb), "Bansan" (Dinner), "Anata wa dandan kirei ni naru" (You become prettier and prettier), and "Remon aika" (Lemon elegy) included in *Chieko-sho*[8] (Chieko Poems) written by Kōtaō Takamura (1883-1956), and two novels, *Kokoro*[9] (Heart), written by Sōseki Natsume (1886-1916), and *Yukiguni*[10] (Snow Country), written by Yasunari Kawabata (1899-1972). Their translations to be examined are the following:

***Chieko-sho* translated by:**
Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
Hiroaki Sato (Takamura 1980, Takamura and Sato, 1992)
John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)[11]
***Kokoro* translated by:**
Ineko Kondo (Natsume, 1941)
Edwin McClellan (Natsume, 1957)
Meredith McKinney (Natsume and McKinney, 2010)
***Yukiguni* translated by:**
Edward Seidensticker (Kawabata and Seidensticker, 1957)
Giles Murray (Murray, 2007)

A. Hito ni (To a Person)

In the poem, Hito ni (To a person), the author, Kōtarō Takamura, shows his opposition to the offer of an arranged marriage for Chieko.[12] The following is the fourth stanza of this poem and four English translations:

まるでさう

チシアンが描いた絵が

鶴巻町に買い物に出るのです

---

[8] *Chieko-sho* is a collection of poems written by Kōtarō Takamura (1883 - 1956), about his wife, Chieko. It was published in 1941. Takamura was one of the pioneers of modern Japanese poetry written in free verse in the vernacular and is one of the most widely read poets in Japan.

[9] The novel, *Kokoro*, was written by Sōseki Natsume (1886-1916), who is widely acknowledged as Japan's leading modern novelist. It was first published in 1914.

[10] The novel, *Yukiguni*, was written by Yasunari Kawabata (1899-1972), the first Japanese author to receive a Nobel Prize for Literature. It was first published in 1937.

[11] Paul Archer's translations were published to the web whereas the other translations discussed in this paper were published in print. Archer published his English translations of 30 poems from *Chieko-sho* on *paularcher.net* in 2012.

[12] Chieko Naganuma was the daughter of a rice wine brewer in Fukushima. She was a painter and an activist for women's liberation at that time. In the summer of 1912, Chieko received an offer of an arranged marriage in her hometown. The poem Hito ni (To a person) was written by Takamura in 1912 to show his opposition to this arranged marriage. See Hirose (1987) and Oshima (2008) for more details.

<Literal translation>
It is just like
a painting painted by Titian
goes to Tsurumaki Town for shopping
Translation by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
like a Titian
out shopping in Times Square
Translation by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura, 1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
It's like a Titian
set out for shoppers in Tsurumaki-chō.
Translation by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
As if
a titan's painting is[13]
for sale in Tsurumaki Chō.
Translation by Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)
As putting a Titian
For sale in a flea market.

Sato and Cloper (2007) point out that the substitution of *Tsurumaki Town* with *Times Square* found in Furuta's translation above is problematic: Times Square has been a globally known entertainment district whereas Tsurumaki Town is not usually known even by Japanese people. When this poem was written, Tsurumaki Town was a university town newly developed around Waseda University, filled with boarding houses and restaurants for students (Hiwa, 2012). For Takamura, Tsurumaki Town could have been just an ordinary town for commoners or a familiar place in his neighborhood.[14] Thus, the connotative meanings that Tsurumaki Town bears can be "a university town," "an ordinary town for commoners," or "a familiar neighborhood town," which cannot be metaphorically attributed by Times Square. Accordingly, the use of Times Square does not satisfy Nida's (1964) Dynamic Equivalence because the relationship between the TT audience and the message is different from what existed between the ST audience and the message. Similarly, it does not satisfy Newmark's (1988) communicative translation because the effect produced on the TT audience is significantly different from the effect produced on the ST audience. More importantly, it changes the cultural base of the entire poem. It is a case of cultural transplantation (Hervey and Higgins, 1992) and a clear instance of domestication (Venuti 1995, 1998).

By contrast, Paul Archer replaces this proper noun, *Tsurumaki Town*, with a common noun, *a flea market,* as shown above. "A flea market" prevents the TL audience from being puzzled by an unfamiliar geographic name and is contextually consistent with *kaimono* (shopping) in this sentence, but it might render quite a different connotation compared to Tsurumaki Town.

A paradigm of the translations of Tsurumaki Town as a metaphoric expression shows that a metaphor may change its linguistic category, its referent, its cultural base, and its pragmatic meaning.

B. Kogai no Hito ni (To a Person in a Suburb)

Kōtarō Takamura's poem entitled *Kogai no hito ni* (To a person in a suburb) starts with the following stanza:

わがこころはいま大風の如く君にむかへり

愛人よ

いまは青き魚の肌にしみたる寒き夜もふけ渡りたり

されば安らかに郊外の家に眠れかし

<Literal translation>
my heart now, like a big wind, goes toward you
my lover
now, the cold night that seeps into the blue fish's skin deepens
so, sleep peacefully at your suburban house
The following are four translations of this stanza:
Translation by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
my heart now faces you like a gale
my love
piercing the blue fish skin, the cold night now deepens
so sleep peacefully at your suburban home

---

[13] It is not clear why Titian is represented as "titan" in Peters' translation.
[14] According to Hirose (1998), Titian's painting represents Chieko, who can be portrayed in religious paintings and Tsurumaki Town represents just a common town in this poem. According to Oshima (2008:260), Takamura set up his atelier in Hayashi Town in Tokyo in 1912. Tsurumaki Town is only about 30 minute walk from Hayashi Town.

Translation by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura,1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
My heart, now like a great wind, sweeps toward you,
my love.
Now seeping into the blue fish skin the cold night grows late,
sleep peacefully in your house in the suburbs.
Translation by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
My heart is a gale that meets you,
my love.
The cold night deepening
seeps into blue fish skin,
so sleep peacefully in your suburban home.
Translation by Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)
Now like a great wind my heart rushes towards you,
Oh my love,
Now the cold night sinks under the skin of blue fish,
So sleep peacefully in your suburban home.

The translation by Peters has a metaphor "my heart is a gale" whereas the corresponding part in the ST is a simile "my heart is like a big wind" (literal translation). Conversion of a simile to a metaphor is not commonly prescribed although conversion of a metaphor to a simile is (Newmark, 1981, 1988), because the former could create a risk of unintelligibility or a change of the truth value of a sentence. Nonetheless, this shows that a metaphor can be created from a simile through translation and it indeed strengthens its expressive force.

Next, consider the third line of this poem, repeated below:

いまは青き魚の肌にしみたる寒き夜もふけ渡りたり

<Literal translation>
now, the cold night that seeps into the blue fish's skin deepens
Translated by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
piercing the blue fish skin, the cold night now deepens
Translated by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura, 1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
Now seeping into the blue fish skin the cold night grows late,
Translated by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
The cold night deepening seeps into blue fish skin,
Translated by Paul Archer (Archer, 2012)
Now the cold night sinks under the skin of blue fish,

Unlike Furuta and Sato's translations, Peters' translation changes the grammatical structure radically: *to seep* is in an embedded sentence in the ST, but is the main verb in TT. *To seep* in this context is an original metaphor and a lexical metaphor. By promoting *to seep* from an embedded verb to a main verb through translation makes the original metaphoric expression *the night's seeping into blue fish skin* more forefront, sharpened, and strengthened. Similarly, Archer's translation merges the two verbs, *to seep* and *to deepen*, into one verb, *to sink*, and represents it as the main verb and the sole verb, resulting in strengthening the metaphoric force. This can be considered an instance of grammatical metaphor (Halliday1989, 1994) because the change of structures alters the salience of some concept, which happens to be a metaphoric expression, and which happens to be done through translation. It is an interesting case where grammatical metaphorization is applied to a lexical metaphor through translation.

To summarize, metaphoric force can be intensified freely through translation, and lexical metaphors and grammatical metaphors interact. A simile can become a metaphor, and a lexical metaphor can undergo a structural change for no reason except for strengthening their metaphorical force as an instance of Hallidayan grammatical metaphor. The cognitive image of a simile/metaphor perceived by translators can be syntactically reorganized according to the cognitive salience perceived by them.

C. Bansan (Dinner)

In their study of translation assessment, Sato and Cloper (2007) discuss the importance of a standard metaphor, nure nezumi (soaked rat), in Kōtarō Takamura's poem *Bansan* (Dinner) comparing it with its three translations. The poem starts with the following two lines:

暴風をくらつた土砂ぶりの中を

ぬれ鼠になつて

<Literal translation>
In a stormy downpour
become a wet-rat
Translation by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
drenched

in a heavy downpour driven by storm
Translation by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura, 1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
Go out in gust-thrashed downpour
like a drowned rat
Translation by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
Out in a downpour
like a soaked rat

The standard metaphor "nure-nezumu ni naru" literally means *to become a soaked rat/mouse*, but actually means *to get soaked (while dressed)*, as in *I was caught by the rain on the way home and got completely soaked.* The image of a rat/mouse is retained in Sato and Peters' translations, but is omitted in Furuta's translation. At a sentence/semantic level, the image of a rat/mouse is not required. However, Sato and Cloper (2007) convincingly show how it coincides and overlaps with what the entire poem depicts, namely, surviving in a harsh environment, acquiring food within a food chain, devouring, digesting, resting, rejuvenating, satisfying, and reproducing.

Standard metaphors are usually translated into an equivalent standard metaphor or an actual sense in the TL, but their treatment is sometimes controversial. Baker (1992) points out that identifying a standard metaphor (or an idiom) is not always easy (p. 69). Newmark (1988) recognizes that standard metaphors have "a certain warmth" and are "not deadened by overuse" yet (p.108). In natural languages, animals are widely used as metaphors for characterizing humans' state and action. Although there are some idiosyncratic cross-linguistic differences [15], they allow us to understand human characters rooting from the "Great Chain of Being" metaphor system discussed in Lakoff and Tunner (1988). Cross-culturally, rats and mice are usually associated with concepts such as small mammals, ordinary existence (not particularly beautiful, big, strong, etc.), food-stealing (pest), persistent survivors, and strong reproductiveness. If we extend our analyses from a sentence/semantic level to a text/pragmatic level, we can identify several elements that repeatedly appear in this poem as being closely associated with the image or *nezumi*. Thus, for a textual and pragmatic-based translation approach (Neubert and Shreve, 1992), the picture of a rat/mouse is essential for this text.

Archer's translation that appeared in 2012 also utilizes the standard metaphor, *drowned rat*, just like Sato did as shown above:
Translation by Archer (Takamura, 2012)
In the storm lashed rain
Like a drowned rat

Although it is stylistically similar to the original and also retains the rat/mouse image, it also has a side-effect: it adds an unneeded meaning "drown," whose semantics include the causation of death, which is not present in the Japanese counterpart. By contrast, it was translated literally as *soaked rat* in Peters' translation. Peters' translation is literal, and converts a standard metaphor into an original metaphor in a form of simile. Although it takes a status of simile, it most vividly brings the image of a rat/mouse because it is not a standard metaphor.

To summarize, the translations of a standard metaphor, "nure-nezumi" (*soaked rat/mouse*), shows that a metaphorical life can be revived (*soaked rat*), maintained (*drowned rat*), or terminated (*drenched*) through translation, depending on the metaphor's cognitive life and its cognitive level (sentence-level vs. text level).

D. Anata wa dandan kirei ni naru (You Become Prettier and Prettier)

The following are the first seven lines in the poem "Anata wa dandan kirei ni naru" (You become prettier and prettier), written by Kōtarō Takamura in 1927, and its four English translations:

をんなが附属品をだんだん棄てると

どうしてこんなにきれいになるのか。

年で洗はれたあなたのからだは

無辺際を飛ぶ天の金属。

見えも外聞もてんで歯のたたない

中身ばかりの清冽な生きものが

生きて動いてさつさつと意慾する。

<Literal translation>
When women gradually discard attached items
Why do they become this pretty
Your body that was washed by age is
heavenly metal that flies over infinities
neither vanity nor reputation can compete with

---

[15] See Ohnuki-Tierney (1990), Wang, F. (2013), Wang, L. (2013), Liu (2013), Duan, Cui, and Gao (2014) for animal metaphors in Japanese and Chinese.

a pure and cold creature that only has (its own) content
lives, moves, and desires unhesitantly

Translation by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)

when women cast off accessories one by one
why is it they become so beautiful?
your body washed by age
is heavenly metal flying through infinity.
this cool pure animal of sheer substance
untouched by either vanity or repute
lives, moves, and wishes fast.

Translation by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)

As a woman casts off accessories one by one,
why does she become so lovely?
Your body washed by years
is celestial metal flying through infinity.
A living being of wholly clear substance,
beyond vanity and scandal,
lives, moves, and swiftly wills.

Translation by Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)

Why do women get more and more pretty
As they cast off all their affectations?
Your body washed clean by the years
Flies through infinity like heavenly metal
Untouched by vanity or worldly esteem,
Pure, cool, clear essence of being
Living, moving, responding to its desires.

"Fuzokuhin" literally means attached items or physical items added to some product or merchandise, for example, a chair that comes with a piano, or a measuring cup that comes with a rice cooker. Thus, "fuzokuhin" in the above poem is an original metaphor and is quite marked. Translating it as "accessories" as in Furuta and Peters' translations has a side effect: "accessories" can refer to such items like chairs and measuring cups, but can also refer to necklaces and earrings. "Accessories" in the latter sense is still metaphorical, but its markedness is considerably lost. In Archer's translation, "fuzokuhin" (attached items) is substituted by a sense "affectations," presumably based on "mie mo gaibun mo" (vanity and reputation) that appear later in this section. Although substituting this metaphor ("attached item") with a sense eases the TT audiences' interpretive effort, it also eliminates markedness that was present in the ST and ceases its metaphorical life.

Next, consider the metaphoric expression, "your body … is heaven's metal that flies over infinities." This sentence is restructured in Archer's translation although there is no syntactic necessity for it. The verb "to fly" is moved from inside of the relative clause and promoted to a main verb, as in "your body …flies through infinity like heavenly metal." The metaphoric unit is altered and the concept of "flying" is made more salient through structural change, as in the case of Hallidayan grammatical metaphor observed in Section B.

E. Remon Aika (Lemon Elegy)

Kōtarō Takamura's wife, Chieko, dies on October 5th, 1938. He wrote a poem *Remon aika* (Lemon elegy) to describe the moment when he put a drop of lemon juice in her mouth on her deathbed. The following are the sixth to eighth lines of this poem:

その数滴の天のものなるレモンの汁は

ぱっとあなたの意識を正常にした

あなたの青く澄んだ眼がかすかに笑ふ

<Literal Translation>
those few drops of heavenly lemon juice
suddenly made your consciousness normal
your blue and clear eyes slightly smile
The following are four translations of this section:

Translation by Soichi Furuta (Takamura and Furuta, 1978)
a few drops of heavenly lemon juice
suddenly restored lucidity
your blue limpid eyes smiled a little

Translation by Hiroaki Sato (Takamura, 1980; Takamura and Sato, 1992)
Those heavenly drops of juice

flashed you back to sanity.
Your eyes, blue and transparent, slightly smiled.
Translation by John Peters (Takamura and Peters, 2007)
Those few dew drops from heaven
suddenly brought back your mind.
Your blue-bright eyes smiled dimly.*
*Chieko's eyes were brown not blue, but Kōtarō uses blue as a metaphor for their clarity at that moment.
Translation by Paul Archer (Takamura, 2012)
Those few drops of heavenly lemon juice
Suddenly made you normal again.
Your shining lucid eyes smile gently.

Chieko was a Japanese person and her eyes were not blue. Thus, the word "blue" was not intended to depict the color of Chieko's eyes. It is obvious for the SL audience, but may not be for the TT audience. Although Sato and Furuta just use "blue" in their translation, Peters makes it a part of a compound "blue-bright" to tightly connect the meaning of blue with brightness and also adds a footnote, stating that "blue" was used as a metaphor for expressing the clarity of Chieko's eyes. On the other hand, Archer replaces it with "shiny." These two cases show that a metaphor's force can be reduced through restructuring or completely eliminated to overcome cultural presupposition.

F. Kokoro (Heart)

In the novel *Kokoro* written by Sōseki Natsume, a young man (the protagonist) encounters an older man he calls "Sensei"[16] with the expectation of learning about life from him. The young man tries to seek more chances to have a conversation with Sensei although Sensei's attitude toward him is far from warm. The following excerpt shows the scene where Sensei was visiting his friend's grave at a cemetery by himself and suddenly noticed that the young man was approaching him.

「どうして……、どうして……」 先生は同じ言葉を二遍繰り返した。その言葉は森閑とした昼の中に異様な調子をもって繰り返された。私は急に何とも応えられなくなった。「私の後を跟けて来たのですか。どうして……」 先生の態度はむしろ落ち付いていた。声はむしろ沈んでいた。けれどもその表情の中には判然いえないような一種の曇りがあった。

<Literal translation>
"Why…? Why..?” Sensei repeated the same word twice. That word was repeated in a strange tone during the daytime, which was quiet. I suddenly became unable to reply in any way. "Did you follow me? Why…." Sensei's attitude was rather calm. (His) voice was rather sunken. However, in (his) facial expression, there was a kind of cloudiness that was unable to be clearly said.
Translation by Ineko Kondo (Natsume, 1941)
 "Why, why..?” Twice the sensei uttered the same word, which was repeated in a tone that sounded strange in the hushed afternoon, till I became unable to make any reply. "Did you follow me? Why did you do it?” The sensei's attitude was unexpectedly calm; his voice was rather melancholy. But in his expression there was a kind of cloud which I could not make out.
Translation by Edwin McClellan (Natsume, 1957)
 "How in the world …?” he said. Then again, "How in the world…?” His words, repeated, seemed to have a strange echo-like effect in the stillness of the afternoon. I did not know what to say. "Did you follow me? How...?” He seemed quite relaxed as he stood there, and his voice was calm. But there was on his face a strangely clouded expression.
Translation by Meredith McKinney (Natsume and McKinney, 2010)
 "How...? How...?” The repeated word hung strangely in the hushed midday air. I found myself suddenly unable to reply. "Did you follow me here? How...?” He seemed quite calm. His voice was quiet. But a shadow seemed to cloud his face.

First, consider the sentence "That word was repeated with a strange tone in the quiet daytime." Kondo's translation is quite close to the literal translation although sentence breaks are considerably altered. By contrast, McClellan adds a simile, *echo-like*, and McKinney adds a metaphor, *hung ... in the ...air,* after restructuring the sentence. Although the way that the word was repeated is only described as *in a strange tone* in the ST, the contextual information, bright daytime, deep quietness, and unexpectedness of the sensei's utterance render a timeless non-disappearing auditory image. The addition of the simile and metaphor by McClellan and McKinney successfully express such an image, which may be difficult to be perceived by the TT audience otherwise.

Next, consider the last sentence of the same excerpt from *Kokoro* above, "However, in that facial expression, there was a kind of cloudiness that is unable to be clearly said." Kondo and McClellan's translations are close to the literal

---

[16] "Sensei" is a common noun that means *teacher,* but can also be a respectful title used after the name of someone who is a teacher, doctor, lawyer, or some other professionals with a leadership role. It can also be used by itself as an addressing term.

translation. However, McKinney's translation introduces a new metaphoric word, "shadow." This clarifies the nature of cloudiness on his face, which may not be clear to the audience otherwise.

These two cases offer empirical evidence of "zero to metaphor" predicted by Toury (1995).

G. Yukiguni (Snow Country)

Yasunari Kawabata's novel, *Snow Country,* depicts the relationship between a man in Tokyo (the protagonist), and a geisha at a hot-spring town in the northern part of Japan. The novel starts with the following paragraph that consists of three short sentences:

国境の長いとんねるを抜けると雪国であった。夜の底が白くなった。信号所に汽車が止まった。

<**Literal translation**>

Once (we) go through the long border tunnel, outside was a snow country. The bottom of the night became white. The steam locomotive stopped at the signal box.

The first sentence expresses the sudden change of scenery after the train comes out of the long tunnel. The second sentence reiterates the change using a metaphoric expression: the bottom of the night became white.[17] This paragraph is translated by Edward Seidensticker and Giles Murray as follows:

Translation by Edward G. Seidensticker (Kawabata and Seidensticker, 1957)

"The train came out of the long tunnel into the snow country. The earth lay white under the night sky. The train pulled up at a signal stop."

Translation by Giles Murray (Murray, 2007)

They emerged from the long border tunnel into the snow country. The night was carpeted with white. The train halted at a signal box.

The metaphoric expression, "the bottom of the night" is unintelligible for the TL audience because the English word "bottom" implies a container and perceiving "night" as a container or a three-dimensional entity is difficult to accept even as a metaphor for the TL audience. As a result, a new metaphor is born through translation to fill the gap while maintaining the two key words, "night" and "white". In Seidensticker's tranlsation (Kawabata and Seidensticker, 1957), the earth is personified as the performer of the action "to lay." In Murray's translation (Murray 2007), the verb "to carpet" is introduced as a new metaphor. Although a carpet was not a common item in the Japanese context depicted in this novel, this metaphor successfully expresses the meaning of "bottom" without the image of container for the TT audience.

Next consider the fourth paragraph, which consists of only one sentence:

もうそんな寒さかと島村は外を眺めると、鉄道の官舎らしいバラックが山裾に寒々と散らばっているだけ

で、雪の色はそこまでゆかぬうちに闇に呑まれていた。

<Literal translation> Already, it is that cold (he thought and); Shimamura gazed outside (then); the only things that existed were barracks that appeared like the railroad station's workers' housings, which were scattered along the foot of the mountain in a way they appeared cold (and); the color of the snow had been swallowed by the darkness before it reached them.

The metaphor "swallowed" is eliminated in Seidensticker' stranslation (Kawabata and Seidensticker 1957), but retained in Murray's translation (Murray, 2007).

Translation by Edward G. Seidensticker (Kawabata and Seidensticker, 1957)

It's that cold, is it, thought Shimamura. Low, barracklike buildings that might have been railway dormitories were scattered here and there up the frozen slope of the mountain. The white of the snow fell away into the darkness some distance before it reached them.

Translation by Giles Murray (Murray, 2007)

So cold already, thought Shimamura. He gazed out at the sheds--probably housing for railroad workers--that straggled desolately across the lower slopes of the mountain. The white of the snow was swallowed up in darkness before it reached them.

To summarize, metaphors can be newly created or deleted as translation solutions, supporting Toury's (1995) prediction on the behavior of metaphors in translation contexts.

VI. CONCLUSION

The analysis of multiple English translations of the same Japanese literary texts revealed that metaphors and similes, regardless of whether they are implicit or explicit, are open expressions that have room to be filled, left open, or eliminated and that faithfulness/naturalness choices manifest most easily through them, creating translation prisms. Their sociocultural base can be neutralized or altered, facilitating domestication. Their cognitive life, markedness, expressive force, pragmatic domain, and syntactic/semantic status can also change through translation. Metaphors can be deleted, but can also be freely created through translation.

---

[17] The "bottom" is expressed by the Japanese word "soko." It means "bottom" or "lowest area" as in **hako no soko** (the bottom of the box) and **umi no soko** (the bottom of the sea (seabed)).

Interestingly, there is an astonishing similarity between metaphorization and translation: they are both acts of expressing one thing by using another. It is just that "another" is a different item expressed in the same language (metaphorization) or an equivalent or similar item expressed in a different language (translation). With Jacobson's (1959) terms,[18] we can consider that "metaphorization" is "intralinguistic" transfer and "translation" we are considering here is "interlinguistic" transfer. Guldin (2010) argues that "metaphor and translation share a series of structural similarities and their history within the Western tradition has been interlinked from the very beginning" (p.162). Hallidayan grammatical metaphor is an intralinguistic transfer, but it can also manifest itself interlinguistically through translation. The empirical evidence presented in this paper shows that metaphorization, regardless of whether it is, explicit or implicit, takes place as an interwoven combination of intralinguistical and interlinguistical transfer through translation.

REFERENCES

[1]   Baker, M. (1992). In other words. London: Routledge.
[2]   Bally, C. (1951). Traité de stylistique française (3rd edn.). Paris: Klincksieck.
[3]   Black, M. (1962). Models and metaphors. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
[4]   Catford, J. C. (1965). A linguistic theory of translation. London: Oxford University Press.
[5]   Chesterman, A. (1997). Memes of translation. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[6]   Chesterman, A. (2012). The descriptive paradox or how theory can affect practice. *Tijdschrift voor Skandinavistiek* 33.1, 33-44.
[7]   Dagut, M. (1976). Can "metaphor" be translated?. *Babel* 22, 21-23.
[8]   Duan, H., W. Cui, & Y. Gao. (2014). Cultural metaphor and translation strategies in English and Chinese animal idioms. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 5 (6), 1292-1300.
[9]   Guldin, R. (2010). Metaphor as a metaphor for translation. In J. St. André (ed.), *Thinking through translation with metaphors*. Manchester: St. Jerome, 161–191.
[10]   Halliday, M. A. K. (1989). Spoken and written language (2nd edn.). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[11]   Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). An introduction to functional grammar (2nd edn.). London: Edward Arnold.
[12]   Hasegawa, Y. (2012).The Routledge course in Japanese translation. Milton Park, Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.
[13]   Henitiuk, V. (2010). Squeezing the jellyfish: early western attempts to characterize translation from the Japanese. In J. St. André (ed.), *Thinking through translation with metaphors*. Manchester: St. Jerome, 144–160.
[14]   Hervery, S. & I. Higgins (1992). Thinking translation: a course in translation method: French-English. London: Routledge.
[15]   Hirose, T. (1987). N--joshi ni [For N-lady], *Japanese Institutional Repositories Online* 40, 253-267.
[16]   Hiwa, M. (2012). Waseda ni rekishi ari [There is history in Waseda]. Waseda Weekly. http://www.wasedaweekly.jp/detail.php?item=334 (accessed 26/6/2015).
[17]   Holmes, J. (1988). Translated! Papers on literary translation and translation studies. Amsterdam: Rodopi.
[18]   House, J. (2006). Text and context in translation. *Journal of Pragmatics* 38, 338-358.
[19]   Jakobson, R. (1959). On linguistic aspects of translation. In R. Brower (ed.), *On Translation*. Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press, 232-239.
[20]   Kawabata, Y. and E. Seidensticker (1957). Snow country. Tokyo: Tuttle.
[21]   Lakoff, G. & M. Johnson (1980). Metaphors we live by. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[22]   Lakoff, G. & M. Turner. (1989). More than cool reason: A field guide to poetic metaphor. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.
[23]   Liu, J. (2013). A comparative study of English and Chinese animal proverbs—from the perspective of metaphors. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 3 (10), 1844-1849.
[24]   Lyons, J. (1968). Introduction to theoretical linguistics. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[25]   Makino, S. (2011). Hon'yaku de nani ga ushinawareruka [What is lost in translation?], *Journal CAJLE* 12, 23-59.
[26]   Munday, J. (2012). Introducing translation studies (3rd edn.). London: Routledge.
[27]   Murray, G. (2007). Exploring Japanese literature: Read Mishima, Tanizaki and Kawabata in the original. Tokyo: Kodansha International.
[28]   Naganuma, M. (2005). Teaching translation at the undergraduate level: an approach based on translation studies. *Interpretation Studies* 5, 225-237.
[29]   Natsume, S. (1941). Kokoro. Translated by Ineko Kondo. Tokyo: Kenkyusha.
[30]   Natsume, S. (1957). Kokoro. Translated by Edwin MacClellan. Chicago: Henry Regnery.
[31]   Natsume, S. & M. McKinney. (2010). Kokoro. New York: Penguin.
[32]   Neubert, A. & G. Shreve (1992). Translation as text. Kent, Ohio: Kent State University Press.
[33]   Newmark, P. (1981). Approaches to translation. Oxford: Pergamon Press.
[34]   Newmark, P. (1988). A textbook of translation. New York: Prentice Hall International.
[35]   Nida, E. (1964). Toward a science of translating with special reference to principles and procedures involved in bible translating. Leiden: Brill.
[36]   Nord, C. (1997). Translating as a purposeful activity: Functionalist approaches explained. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
[37]   Ohnuki-Tierney, E. (1990). Monky as metaphor? Transformations of a polytropic symbol in Japanese culture. *Man* 25 (1). 89-107.

---

[18] Jacobson (1959, 233) distinguishes three types of translations:
(i) intralingual translation: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of other signs of the same language
(ii) interlingual translation: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of some other language
(iii) intersemiotic translation: an interpretation of verbal signs by means of signs of nonverbal sign systems

[38] Oshima, T. (2008). Chiekoshō no shinken to jisshō (Discoveries and evidence in Chieko poems). Tokyo: Shintensha.

[39] Reiss, K. (1989). Text types, translation types and translation assessment. In A. Chesterman (ed.), *Readings in Translation Theory*. Helsinki: Finn Lectura, 105-115.

[40] Riordan, R. & T. Takayanagi (1896). Sunrise stories: a glance at the literature of Japan. London: Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., Ltd.

[41] Richards, I.A. (1936). The philosophy of rhetoric. New York: Oxford University Press.

[42] Sato, E. & L. Cloper (2007). Constraint-based approach to translation studies. *Lingua et Linguistica* 1.2, 215-235.

[43] Schäffner, C. (2004). Metaphor and translation: some implications of a cognitive approach. *Journal of Pragmatics* 36, 1253-1269.

[44] Pym, A, M. Shlesinger & D. Simeoni (eds) (2008). Beyond descriptive translation studies. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

[45] Takamura, K. (2012). The Chieko poems by Kotaro Takamura. transl. P. Archer. http://www.paularcher.net/. (accessed on 28/6/2015).

[46] Takamura, K. & S. Furuta. (1978). Chieko's sky. Tokyo: Kodansha international.

[47] Takamura, K. (1980). Chieko and other poems of Takamura Kōtarō. Translated by Hiroaki Sato. Honolulu: University Press of Hawaii.

[48] Takamura, K. & J. Peters. (2007). The Chieko poems. København: Green Integer.

[49] Takamura, K. & H. Sato. (1992). A brief history of imbecility: Poetry and prose of Takamura Kōtarō. Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.

[50] Toury, G. (1995). Descriptive translation studies and beyond. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[51] van den Broeck, R. (1981). The limits of translatability exemplified by metaphor translation. *Poetics Today* 2, 73–87.

[52] Venuti, L. (1995). The translator's invisibility. London: Routledge.

[53] Venuti, L. (1998). The scandals of translation. London: Routledge.

[54] Vermeer, H. J. (1996). A skopos theory of translation: (some arguments for and against). Heidelberg: TEXTconTEXT Verlag.

[55] Vinay, J.P. and J. Darbelnet. (1995). Comparative stylistics of French and English: A methodology for translation. Translated by J.C. Sager and M.-J. Hamel. Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[56] Wakabayashi, J. (2009). Translational Japanese: A transformative strangeness within. *Journal of Multidisciplinary International Studies* 6 (1), 1-20.

[57] Wang, F. (2013). Cognitive mechanism for metaphor translation. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 3 (12), 2327-2332.

[58] Wang, L. (2013). Cultural Functions in the Translation of Metaphor. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research* 4 (3), 530-535.

[59] Yang, Y. (2013). A corpus-based study of interpersonal grammatical metaphor in spoken Chinese. *Language Sciences* 38, 1-21.

Eriko Sato is Assistant Professor in the Department of Asian and Asian American Studies at Stony Brook University (State University of New York), where she earned her PhD in Linguistics. Her research interests include Japanese linguistics and pedagogy, Second Language Acquisition, and translation studies.

ELF Teaching in Portuguese Schools: The Not-so-good Old Days Are Back

Maria L. Cabral
Faculty of Human and Social Sciences, University of Algarve, Portugal

Anabela M. Nobre
Faculty of Human and Social Sciences, University of Algarve, Portugal

Abstract—With the aim of contributing to the comprehension of the changes that have recently been observed in Portuguese EFL school curriculum, this paper is a critical analysis of curricular factors that contribute to the challenges today's EFL teachers face in schools. The data analysed comprise the documents published by national educational authorities (EFL learning outcomes) as well as the teachers' examination test required to enter the EFL teaching profession. The educational principles underlying these documents, as well as the teaching practices they support and encourage, are compared to the principles and the methodological recommendations of previous, more progressive, Portuguese EFL syllabi. The methodological trends identified on the current EFL teaching panorama are also contrasted with the principles of the language teachers education programs taught at Portuguese universities.

Index Terms—pedagogical change, EFL teaching, Portuguese EFL syllabi

I. INTRODUCTION

Portuguese state schools have come through a long process of change since the second half of the last century. Although the main trends of change have been usually associated with socio-demographic transformations resulting from the democratization of society and the schooling process, today, the strongest wave of change has a new source: it stems from a neo-liberal political agenda which seems to have been adopted by many European governments.

These days, while the Portuguese celebrate the fortieth anniversary of their 1974 social revolution, which among other significant changes democratized the public access to education, Portuguese schools face a new kind of change, marked by a switch to old views of curriculum and schooling. I would say it seems we are now living an old *déjà vu* version of the 'back to basics' educational movement.

The current change seems to ignore all the major principles of the more progressive and context based education proclaimed in the 90's Portuguese educational reform which only now was starting to reveal expected results: increased number of university graduates, decrease of basic schooling drop out rates, greater investment in foreign language basic education and in technological and artistic degrees, emphasis on professional teacher qualifications, a more reflexive teachers' attitude towards teaching practices and a greater emphasis on a student centred learning process.

In Portugal, it is The Ministry of Education who designs the national curriculum, for the 12 years of mandatory school education. The educational process is organized in 4 different cycles of studies: basic education comprises the first 3 cycles (1st to 9th grades) and secondary education includes 3 school years (10th to 12th grades). Besides natural sciences, social sciences, technology, arts, physical education and first language subjects, students must also choose at least two foreign languages throughout their schooling process. English as a foreign language is offered to first cycle students. Besides English, students may then choose to learn one or two other foreign languages (French, Spanish or German) on the subsequent years of schooling.

Decisions on all aspects of the curriculum for the 12 years of basic and secondary education (nature and number of disciplinary subjects, content, teaching approaches and evaluation) have always been a prerogative of the national government. However, until recently, local schools were able to find some room for specific curriculum adjustments, at least during the first 9 years of schooling: the introduction of a curricular space for the development of projects, and the inclusion of subjects other than the canonical subjects (for example, drama and other arts project experiences, the spread of early English language learning, and a greater range of foreign languages choice). Today, we witness a severe drawback on the initiated path to a more progressive student centred education, which was, until recently, clearly identified in curriculum documents. For the last three years, educational decisions can be characterized as imposed from above and from outside (Dewey, 1938, p. 4), since most of the school curricula (goals, content, and evaluation procedures) are now exclusively decided by the national government. In Dewey's own words, this educational trend characterizes the traditional philosophy in education:

The traditional scheme is, in essence, one of imposition from above and from outside. It imposes adult standards, subject matter, and methods upon those who are only growing slowly toward maturity. The gap is so great that the required subject matter, the methods of learning and of behaving are foreign to the existing capacities of the young.

They are beyond the reach of the experience the young learners already possess. Consequently, they must be imposed. (Dewey, 1938, p. 4)

As was the case in the basic and secondary education curricula, profound reforms were also implemented in Portuguese teachers' education programmes taught at Portuguese universities during the first decade of this century. As result of the awareness of the need to improve the knowledge and the pedagogical skills of teachers, and as a means of answering to the necessary continuous rise of instructional quality, teacher education programmes were redesigned in 2007 and a new paradigm of professional teacher training was implemented. As a consequence, course plans and syllabi were adapted to the demands of the newly adopted master's degree policy which became mandatory for professional teaching of all subjects at all levels of schooling (Decreto-Lei 43/2007, Decreto-Lei 79/2014).

From a traditional perspective that valued a teacher education paradigm based on crafts' imitation, and theory application, the teacher education programmes adopted during the last 8 years by Portuguese universities (e.g., University of Algarve, University of Minho, University of Aveiro) emphasized reflexive and collaborative ways of knowledge and competence construction. Beyond focusing on subject-matter content, these programmes currently consider other domains of the teachers' knowledge, inspired, for example, on the categories proposed by Shulman (1986, 1987): pedagogical content, general pedagogical knowledge and knowledge of learners and their characteristics, knowledge of curriculum and educational contexts and knowledge of educational purposes and values.

After almost a decade of practice in accordance with the principles of this curricular paradigm, the implemented changes in teacher education programmes were starting to operate a switch on the teachers' representations of their own teaching practice. Portuguese studies on teachers' representations and practices show that language teachers were becoming more aware of the need to adopt communicative approaches to language teaching and to implement collaborative work in schools as well as to adopt innovative ways of language teaching and learning (e.g., Araújo e Sá et al., 2007; Vieira, 2009; Cabral, 2010). As a result from years of investment in supported research and more reflexive teacher oriented EFL education programmes, final reports written by master students at the end of their EFL teaching practicum indicate that, for example in the South of Portugal, EFL beginning teachers are now more aware of the advantages of a task-based language learning approach in EFL classrooms:

My experience in the EFL teaching practicum gives me evidence to support the claim that a task-based language learning (TBL) approach and a more cooperative learning context effectively promotes students' EFL learning. My students demonstrated they are now progressively more able to successfully communicate in quasi-authentic language activities designed in accordance with TBL principles (Pereira, 2014, p. 123).

The paradigm that supported my training and (my) teaching practice was the communicative approach, and the work method adopted was task-based teaching which, combined, created a more social and interactive classroom environment, thus aiding the development of the communicative competence and the holistic growth of the student, who became the focus of the learning process (Martins, 2004, p. VI).

At the present moment all these paradigm changes run the risk of being reversed by the governmental reform in the last three years and by the growing number of administrative tasks now required of teachers which make them focus on other dimensions besides the language teaching process. In fact, the complexity of the teaching profession has increased substantially with the growing burden of administrative work required by the new responsibilities associated with the new models of professional assessment, and with the higher number of mandatory reports teachers need to write. The government's decision to increase the number of students per class (as a means of reducing the need for new teacher contracts) and the cuts in the school budgets (which limit the acquisition of innovative classroom materials) are also factors that make today's teachers' professional life more difficult.

II. A New Wave of 'Back to Basics' in English as a Foreign Language Teaching Curriculum in Portuguese Schools

Today's Portuguese educational policies show a clear 'back to basics' tendency, particularly evident in the language teaching syllabi. Instead of valuing the educational paradigm adopted by schools in the last decades which focused on the global growth of the individual student (where arts, sports, educational projects and more canonical subjects had similar weight in evaluation and where learning processes were as important as academic results), present curricula, and particularly first and foreign language curricula, emphasize the teaching of traditional subject-matter content as well as the students' results in final exams.

This focus on language subject matter content, on academic results, on classroom discipline, and on more authoritarian teacher roles seems to gain renewed relevance every time the education system is governed by right wing policies. Unfortunately, this education perspective has been recently defended in other countries as well. Besides being supported by the ideological convictions of the new education government team, the official foundation for these policies is usually said to come from World Bank publications (e.g., Hanushek & Woβmann, 2006; Vegas et al., 2011) which recurrently stress the role of economic factors in education management, as well as from traditional educational philosophies that defend a greater centrality of the teacher in the learning process, with a consequent more passive role for students in the classroom.

In the case of the English as a foreign language (EFL) teaching curriculum, the key points in the official discourse, judging by the frequency of their occurrence in school documents and in published views of educational entities (Crato,

2006), focus on a renewed emphasis given to the teaching of language content, i.e. grammar, as well as on the corresponding greater relevance given to knowledge reproduction in final exams, versus meaning making in language production.

What the official discourse seems to ignore is that, as research has long demonstrated, students do not improve their foreign language competence by solving grammar exercises or by memorizing verb rules. Although focusing on grammar points as a means of improving students' accuracy as well as their target language fluency is certainly something that cannot be ignored by any EFL teacher (e.g. Long, 1991; Foto, 1994; Nassaji, 2000; Savignon, 2002), the point is that the grammar focus in foreign language classrooms only contributes to the improvement of the students' communicative competence if the language contents that they have to master function as a tool to facilitate their communicative purposes in the classroom activities and tasks (Long, 1991).

The EFL curriculum was profoundly changed in the last decade of the 20th century in order to accommodate an intercultural communicative language teaching perspective which was supported by research results and theoretical approaches that clearly defended a student centred focus, as well as an emphasis on TBL approaches and students' autonomous learning (e.g., Nunan, 1987; Legutke & Thomas, 1991). This syllabi, designed for all the EFL teaching cycle (7th to 12th grades), suggested a balanced focus on fluency and accuracy, on language and culture awareness, on process approaches to reading and writing, and on collaborative evaluation practices (Programas de Inglês, 1997, 2001-2003).

Based on a wider conception of language which emphasizes its social function and its instrumental role in the students' growing awareness of the relationship between the self and the other, the language definition underlying the EFL syllabi conception stressed the importance of communicative competence on the development of the students' language abilities, as well as of their attitudes and values. The EFL syllabi was structured in three dimensions: the pedagogical principles (which valued language acquisition and development, and the conception of the classroom as a context that promotes interaction and knowledge growth), the thematic framing of the processes (focusing on the 'I', the 'Other', and the 'We' dimensions of the learning process), and the specification of these same processes (stating process objectives for all the language skills–speaking, listening, reading and writing). Content in that syllabi not only included the English language system categories and rules, but also text interpretation and production, socio-cultural topics and cultural values. A highly relevant feature of the EFL syllabi was that language and culture were presented as inseparable teaching content, leading the teacher to plan learning sequences in which the students' contact with language materials focused on language as code and on language as social practice (Programas de Inglês, 1997, pp. 10-12).

As a means of contributing to a more collaborative working approach by the EFL teachers, the syllabi designed for the basic schooling years (7th to 9th grades), also included a question guide (Nunan, 1987) to be used by the teachers in pre-action reflection which called their attention to several dimensions of the lesson planning process in accordance with the TBL approach: "task relevance and complexity, amount of context provided prior to the task, processability of language of the task, amount of help available to the learner, degree of grammatical accuracy/contextual appropriacy and time available to the learner" (Programas de Inglês, 1997, pp. 143-144).

The 1997-2003 EFL syllabi have been recently relegated to a second place with the new Portuguese policies for EFL teaching and learning. The whole architecture of the EFL curriculum has been replaced by a simple list of learning outcomes (designated as *standards*) that the teachers have to use as guidance for EFL teaching (Cravo, *et al.*, 2013, 2015). The new learning outcomes are not even called objectives, since educational terminology has been publicly dismissed by the Minister of Education, who has personally classified it as mere romantic jargon (Crato, 2006). English language teachers, like most other language teachers, now have a single clear goal: teach students grammar content and prepare them for mastery in the final tests.

The *Caderno de Apoio* (Cravo, *et al.,* 2014), a support booklet which aims at helping teachers to plan lessons that will lead EFL students to the achieve the established standards, is organized in 5 sections, corresponding to the domains of reference of these standards: listening, reading, spoken production, spoken interaction and writing. The socio-cultural and the lexis and grammar domains are not dealt with in specific sections since they are thought to be underlying the work done by the students in the five sections dedicated to language skills. The terms that have long been established to refer to the process approaches on the 4 language skills (pre, while and post communicative activities) are substituted in the document by terms associated with PPP (presentation, practice and production) approaches –'preparation', 'procedure' and 'follow up activity'– in the section dedicated to provide examples of classroom activities (Cravo, *et al.,* 2014, p. 5). An analysis of the samples provided for the planning of writing activities in EFL classes shows that the authors of the document decided to ignore the advantages of encouraging teachers to follow a process writing approach, and simply recommend the prevalence of writing as a product activity. This effort to banish established educational terminology from official documents is further evidence of the rebirth of the traditional educational philosophy in Portugal.

Prior to the new educational policy, EFL teachers were strongly advised to plan their language lessons accordingly to the TBL methodological approach, and the development of students' communicative competence in EFL was the stated main learning goal in official documents (Moreira, *et al.*, 2005). Consequently, the EFL teaching sequence plans usually listed the language competence and the process objectives students were expected to accomplish while

exploring the selected language and cultural items as well as described all classroom language activities and assessment procedures planned accordingly to the task. Moreover, EFL teachers were advised to culturally contextualize classroom activities, focusing in the students' learning process as much as in their learning products. Nowadays, EFL teaching sequences tend to privilege the learning outcomes and the language content activities with the aim of improving the students' level of accuracy. For example, when asked about the relevance of the TBL approach and the process writing activities (planning, revising, editing), as a means of improving the students' writing competence, school teachers usually answer they would rather focus on the products students write in class (or at home), because classroom process learning activities take too much time (Cabral, 2014).

What happens is that teachers are simply expected to teach lessons guided by the learning outcomes stated on the EFL *Metas de Aprendizagem* document (Cravo, *et al*., 2013, 2015). Once the concept of competence-based learning is abandoned, teachers are now mainly expected to lead their students to accomplish the behavioural objectives stated on the *Metas de Aprendizagem* (Cravo, *et al.*, 2013, 2015).

A government resolution (Despacho n.º 5306/2012) states that the new learning outcomes are an objective and privileged tool to help the teachers' organization and planning of their teaching action, for they are thought to clearly state the essential knowledge and skills to be acquired by students throughout their schooling cycle. The aim explicitly stated is that these new learning outcomes facilitate internal and external evaluation of the Portuguese students' achievement.

Actually, standardized evaluation has become another relevant issue in Portuguese schools right now. Teachers are encouraged to focus mainly on preparing students for higher achievement in final exams, as a means of increasing national academic success rates. Most language teachers have given up the use of any other form of assessment besides language tests, since students' achievement in final exams is now considered the national most important educational task. It seems that Portuguese school practices are now closer to North American school practices since here and there, as Rovira (2015) argues in the Anazoa project.org web site, "teaching is now designed to help students score well on tests rather than help students develop basic math, reading, and writing skills".

This emphasis in the learning products has considerably challenged the prevalence of other views on the role of evaluation in the learning process. In the official documents released by Portuguese educational authorities there is not any mention of other functions of classroom evaluation besides testing language knowledge. Moreover, the recurrent use of the terms 'summative tests' and 'proficiency standards' is now a means of distracting the teachers' attention from other dimensions of students' assessment.

The emphasis on this terminology has already shown clear negative implications for the educational process of training EFL teachers, when the goal of teaching communicative language and culture is considered. For example, during their EFL school practicum, Portuguese teacher-trainees no longer have time to focus on the practice of the students' learning strategies, neither can they implement the use of portfolios or other kinds of process assessment procedures in the learning-teaching process, since these procedures take the time needed by for language accuracy activities that prepare students for final evaluation (Cabral, 2014). Final exams and rates of achievement are the new agenda labels in Portuguese schools.

III. THE EFL TEACHERS' NATIONAL EXAMINATION TEST TELLS US WHERE WE ARE HEADING

The concern with the evaluation of learning products has also been exported to the field of the teachers' job applications. Since 2012, the Ministry of Education has implemented a policy that requires novice teachers to take a national examination test as further requirement to their application to teach in state schools. The test aims at the assessment of their professional and disciplinary knowledge.

The evaluation of the newly qualified teachers by national or regional educational authorities as a job entry requirement has been adopted by many countries in the world (OECD, 2014) and the evaluation of the knowledge of the teacher candidates has taken several forms throughout the times: from the requirement of an oral presentation or a long essay writing in the U.S.A., in the 19th century (Cochran-Smith & Zeichner, 2005), to a standardised test in some European countries today (OECD, 2014, p. 511).

Portugal used to require teacher candidates to take a formal written exam in the past, however, until now, democratic governments after 1974 have dismissed this practice. After completing required university qualifications, which included four years of curricular attendance and another year of school practicum, candidates could directly apply for the national teaching job placement. The selection of the candidates for the teaching vacancies at schools was performed accordingly to a national rank that ordered applicants by their professional grades.

Following the trend adopted by 30% of the 35 OECD countries, the Portuguese education authorities have decided to change the procedures for teacher's recruitment, and all novice teacher candidates now have to take a standardized assessment test as part of the requirements for a teaching job (OECD, 2014). The test aims at the evaluation of the professional competences and skills for the teaching of the specific subject matters candidates are applying for. The Ministry of Education coordinates the placement of all teachers, and the teachers' results in the tests are used as a prerequisite and discriminatory evaluation criterion in the teachers' application to national teaching job vacancies. In the case of the Portuguese English language teachers' evaluation, the assessment test (PACC, May, 2015) includes 30 multiple-choice questions that candidates have to complete in the maximum time of 90 minutes.

Having in mind the recent changes implemented in the teachers education programmes by Portuguese universities, it was expected that the national exam which aims at the evaluation of the newly qualified teachers' competences and knowledge should comprise, among some other related topics: questions aiming at the assessment of the beginning teachers' abilities to solve pedagogical problems, i.e. their ability to manage language classes, questions aiming at the verification of their knowledge of the main pedagogical theories, language acquisition and learning, and the students as learners, questions aiming at the assessment of their knowledge of the educational contexts they will have to deal with as well as questions assessing their knowledge of the language and culture they will have to teach about.

Furthermore, if the aim was to follow the latest trends in teacher education, one would also expect the national exam to focus on the beginning teachers' computer abilities and their familiarity with the concept of blended learning, on their ability to use social networks as classroom learning tools, on their ability to use dynamic assessment and mediated learning (Lantolf & Poehner, 2004), on their ability to deal with students' needs, parents and other social agents' expectations, or their ability to deal with students' bullying behaviours and their knowledge of ecological or even 'bricolage' topics (Crotty, 2011).

An analysis of the goals of the Portuguese EFL teachers' test (PACC, May 2015) reveals that it aims at: the assessment of the teachers' knowledge of the English language syllabi, the professional context of EFL teaching, the teachers' social and cultural values and the teachers' awareness of the European linguistic and cultural diversity. The content of the 30 question items of the test was also examined in order to identify the knowledge and the teaching skills evaluated. All test questions were classified according to the teachers' knowledge base categories proposed by Shulman (1986) and then were further grouped by the knowledge specificity they require from the teacher candidates. Table I illustrates the characterization of each question item according to the categories of specific knowledge that is required in the Portuguese EFL teachers' exam.

TABLE 1.
CHARACTERIZATION OF THE QUESTION ITEMS OF THE EFL TEACHERS' NATIONAL EXAM

Categories of Knowledge base	Specific Knowledge	N of items	Sample of question items
Content Knowledge	Target language system	8	What are the underlined parts of these utterances called? «Let's go to see Birdman tonight.» and «Why don't we go for a pizza afterwards?» (A) exponents (B) functions (C) notions (D) idioms
Pedagogical Content Knowledge	Linguistic Theory/ error analysis	1	You are analysing the six errors an 8th year learner has made in his written text and categorising them according to what caused them. Look at the underlined items and decide what the most likely cause for each is – a careless slip, a transfer error, or a developmental error. My cousin is 17 years old. He wants to <u>be doctor</u> and he studies a lot at school. He <u>don't plays</u> a lot with his friends. Last week he went to the <u>library</u> and he bought a book about bones. When he came home he <u>spoked</u> a lot to <u>his fathers</u> about it. He said that he wanted to go and study <u>medecine</u> in England but they said it was very expensive to study medicine there. What is the correct analysis of the 6 errors you have found? (A) 0 slips / 3 transfer/3 developmental (B) 1 slip / 2 transfer / 3 developmental (C) 1 slip / 3 transfer / 2 developmental (D) 2 slips / 2 transfer/2 developmental
	Methods & Approaches	1	This is what some students did in their class. Which approach is it an example of? In groups we had to plan a study visit to a museum. Afterwards we discussed what vocabulary we had needed to do this. (A) Lexical approach (B) Task-based learning (C) Situational approach (D) Presentation, practice and production
	Classroom technique	9	-From among the classroom techniques listed below which one best helps learners to develop their skills to understand the meaning of a recorded spoken text? (A) Use a text you know the learners will fully understand at the first listening. (B) Summarise the text orally for the learners before the first listening. (C) Tell the learners to read the tapescript at the same time as they listen. (D) Give them two simple gist questions to answer during the first listening.
General Pedagogical Knowledge	Evaluation: instruments and procedures	3	Which would be the most appropriate type of test to give your students at the very beginning of the 10th year to see what level their language performance is at? (A) an achievement test (B) an aptitude test (C) a progress test (D) a proficiency test
	Psychological Theories	2	You have a very bright student in your 11th year class who wants to go and study aeronautical engineering at an English university. He doesn't particularly like the English classes but knows he needs to take a special English exam to certify his level of English if he is to be accepted. He starts to work much harder in your classes when he learns this. This is an example of what kind of motivation? (A) extrinsic (B) intrinsic (C) academic (D) vocational
Curricular Knowledge	Curricular documents	4	Which descriptor corresponds to level A2 Writing of the «Common Reference Levels: self-assessment grid», in the Common European Framework of Reference? (A) I can write simple connected text on topics which are familiar or of personal interest. I can write personal letters describing experiences and impressions. (B) I can write clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects related to my interests. I can write an essay or report, passing on information or giving reasons in support of or against a particular point of view. I can write letters highlighting the personal significance of events and experiences. (C) I can write short, simple notes and messages relating to matters in areas of immediate need. I can write a very simple personal letter, for example thanking someone for something. (D) I can write a short, simple postcard, for example sending holiday greetings. I can fill in forms with personal details, for example entering my name, nationality and address on a hotel registration form.
	Resources & Materials	2	«Hot Potatoes» is (A) a tool for creating interactive activities on the Internet. (B) a programme to help you plan your lessons. (C) a mobile learning app. (D) a learning podcast to practise your English.

An analysis of the number of test questions related to the knowledge base categories proposed by Shulman (1986, 1987) shows that the highest number of question items aim at the evaluation of the teachers' pedagogical content

knowledge (13 questions) and the teachers' subject-matter content knowledge (8 questions). Six question items measure curricular knowledge and five question items measure general pedagogical knowledge. Although consisting of the larger group of test items, the questions related to the category of pedagogical content knowledge do not cover any of the complex dimensions of that particular category, namely, knowledge of "the ways of representing and formulating the subject that make it comprehensible to others" (Shulman, 1987, p. 9). Furthermore, the test does not include any questions on the teachers' knowledge of the learners' specific social, cognitive and emotional characteristics, on the educational contexts of EFL teaching, or on the knowledge of basic theories of education, or even on the teachers' awareness of the European linguistic and cultural diversity as explicit in its aims.

Instead of evaluating the beginning language teachers' knowledge and competences on most of those topics, an analysis of the content of the questions included in the test shows that the national exam of English language teachers' professional abilities only focuses on the simplest categories of the cognitive domain (Bloom, *et al.,* 1956): Recall of previous learned knowledge.

The 'Knowledge Recall' items require the beginning teachers to identify, label, recognize, select or classify presented data based on previously learned information. When we consider the knowledge subclasses of the cognitive domain required to answer the question items of the test, the major subclasses that emerge from the analysis are: knowledge of terminology, knowledge of conventions, knowledge of classifications and categories and knowledge of specific facts. Although the test aims at the evaluation of the knowledge and competences acquired by newly qualified teachers, only one question requires them to determine the appropriate action to take in a pedagogical situation (knowledge of methods and approaches). Table II shows the number of the test items in each of the Bloom's Knowledge subclasses of the cognitive domain.

TABLE II.
NUMBER OF THE TEST ITEMS IN EACH OF THE BLOOM'S KNOWLEDGE SUBCLASSES

Knowledge subclasses of the cognitive domain	No. of test items	Example
Knowledge of terminology	7 items	What are the underlined parts of these utterances called? «Let's go to see Birdman tonight.» and «Why don't we go for a pizza afterwards?» (A) exponents (B) functions (C) notions (D) idioms
Knowledge of specific facts	5 items	The European Language Portfolio is a _____ tool that was designed to facilitate student mobility, raise intercultural awareness, encourage learner reflection and promote learner autonomy. (A) monolingual (B) bilingual (C) multilingual (D) extra-lingual
Knowledge of conventions	7 items	There are many different activities we can use to develop learners' speaking skills. Which of the following activities aim to develop spoken interaction rather than just spoken production? (A) role-plays (B) reading dialogues aloud (C) oral presentations (D) substitution drills
Knowledge of classifications and categories	7 items	Critical Thinking Skills are considered to be increasingly important to incorporate in the language classroom today. We hear much about Lower Order Thinking Skills (LOTS) and Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS). Which of the following is considered to be one of the Lower Order Thinking Skills? (A) analysing (B) remembering (C) creating (D) evaluating
Knowledge of theories and structures	3 items	You use the following sentences taken from a concordancer and ask your students to analyse the examples to work out how the lexical items «since» and «for» are used. • She hasn't been back home since she got married. • He left in 2009 and since then has been working on his new book. • I've had no news of them since 1999. • She's been working on the Native American literature project for 8 years now. • For three months he survived on nothing but water and some fruits and small animals he managed to catch. • The university decided to extend the scholarship programme for a further 6-month period. This approach to grammar teaching is called _____. (A) linguistic (B) rule-driven (C) deductive (D) inductive
Knowledge of methodologies	1 item	This is what some students did in their class. Which approach is it an example of? In groups we had to plan a study visit to a museum. Afterwards we discussed what vocabulary we had needed to do this. (A) Lexical approach (B) Task-based learning (C) Situational approach (D) Presentation, practice and production

IV. EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE POLICIES

Research on education has long demonstrated that there are many factors that can potentially influence the teachers' work in the classroom and, consequently, affect the students' learning processes. Among these factors, class size is probably the one that has received greater attention by researchers (Arias, & Walker, 2004; Bedard & Kuhn, 2006; Dee & West, 2011; Fleming, *et al.*, 2002) as well as by educational institutions. For example, in 1983 and in 1995, the US National Council of Teachers of English (NTCE) issued resolutions on class size and student overload, stating that "NCTE recognize and support affiliates' efforts to influence the reduction of class size and student load" since these two factors were found to be detrimental of successful language learning. Again, in 2014, a resolution of the NTCE states that:

Overall, research shows that students in smaller classes perform better in all subjects and on all assessments when compared to their peers in larger classes. In smaller classes students tend to be as much as one to two months ahead in content knowledge, and they score higher on standardized assessments (NTC, 2014).

The 2014 NTCE resolution also identifies other negative educational implications of large numbers of students per class, namely on student engagement in classroom activities as well as on students' long-term success.

In Portugal, the Education Ministry tends to ignore the volume of research literature that recommends smaller language classes and issued a policy that allows school administrators to increase the number of students to a maximum of 30 per class in 2012. The justification for this decision was based on the need to reduce financial costs with state schools. In face of the economic crisis that profoundly affected the country's educational budget, this government decision was probably also supported on the OECD (2009, p.1) report on Education Indicators which mentions that "class size, together with students' instruction time, teachers' teaching time and teachers' salaries, is one of the key variables that policy makers can use to control spending on education". However, this decision did not consider other information included in the same OECD document, namely when it reports that "at the lower secondary level (in general programmes), the average class size in OECD countries is 24 students per class" and that in public schools of Denmark, Finland, Iceland, Luxembourg and Switzerland this number drops to fewer than 20 (OECD, 2009, p. 372). Further, this government decision did not take into account the information included in the 2014 OECD report which mentions evidence indicating that smaller classes benefit students with disadvantaged backgrounds (e.g., Krueger, 2002; Piketty & Valdenaire, 2006) and is positively associated with more innovative teaching practices (Hattie, 2009).

Although availability of language material resources and number of students per class are considered among the most influential aspects when teaching quality is considered (e.g., Gonzalez Moncada, 2006; Kitao & Kitao, 1997; Dar, 2012), besides the increase in the number of students per class, Portuguese state school administrations have also seen a reduction of their available budget for the purchase of audio or video language materials for classroom use, recommending instead the extensive use of a single language textbook for each of the different EFL grade levels. These constraints on the purchase of material resources for the foreign language classrooms reduce the diversity of the language input available for teachers' use in the classroom and deprive students of the contact with different samples of authentic language and cultural practices.

The adoption of EFL coursebooks helps teachers in the planning of their EFL lessons by supplying texts, grammar presentations, exercises and ideas for class activities. The selection of the EFL coursebooks is done by the language teachers in each school. The coursebook is often chosen for reasons of attractiveness of its images, simplicity of the activities proposed and inclusion of a teachers' book that provides instructions on how to teach content. Nevertheless, its adoption by the group of teachers who teach the same grade level usually contributes to the occurrence of collaborative work and professional interaction focused on the topic of the language teaching process. However, there is not a coursebook that responds to the cultural needs of all groups of students or to the specific difficulties manifested by all students in the language learning process (Thi Cam Le, 2005). Therefore, unless the teachers are capable of supplying other language materials besides those included in the coursebooks, preferable authentic materials that cover the cultural items that are relevant to their own classes and respond to the learning needs of their specific students, what will happen is that English foreign language classes will simply be a time to read the texts and answer the comprehension questions included in the coursebook, a time to supply the writing answers to questions on topics chosen by the editors of the coursebook, a time to perform (usually repeat) the speaking interactions suggested by the coursebook which are dictated by communication needs and intentions that particular students may not share.

Portuguese EFL teachers seem to have language coursebooks in high regard. Evidence of the high relevance attributed to the use of the coursebook in the South of Portugal comes from the answers of 30 language teachers to a question that required the ordering of the importance attributed to curricular documents in the process of planning language-learning sequences. The question was posed to the participants in a series of 3 workshops dedicated to language teaching a few years ago and included the following answer possibilities besides the term 'coursebooks': ELF syllabus, language department instructions, learning outcomes, students' materials, audio resources, video resources, authentic documents. Twenty-five out of the thirty teachers inquired indicated the term 'coursebook' as their first choice (Cabral, 2007).

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

Language teachers are used to paradigm change. In fact, one thing that is certain in our job is that change will always come again and again. Like Woodward (1996, p. 6) says, language teachers have seen "changes from grammar translation to the direct method, from concern with reading and writing to a focus on listening and speaking, from the use of language labs to the use of jigsaw texts, changes in approach, method and technique."

What the language teacher community is not used to is to change that brings back older views and conceptions of language learning and teaching. In the course of the language teachers education programmes, once we have managed to finally convince schoolteachers that the new paradigm presented to them is research supported, and once they have confirmed that it really works in terms of a better classroom climate, of higher students' motivation and willingness to learn, of students' greater communicative competence and in terms of a higher professional commitment by the teachers

it is difficult to find any theoretical or practical justification to negate evidence and just draw back to traditional language teaching approaches which seems to be what is presently required of them.

All the changes that result from the new Portuguese government policies on English language teaching and learning are in line with traditional methodological approaches: a praise for a disciplinary curriculum that overvalues learning products instead of an interdisciplinary curriculum based on learning processes, a greater focus on language content, that is, in grammar teaching, instead of focusing on language and culture, a narrower range of the teachers' freedom in planning classroom language topics and tasks and in choosing evaluation tools by turning their attention to achievement rates and school rankings, greater teacher responsibility in defining the students' learning goals and activities instead of encouraging students' collaborative work in the classroom as well as students' participation in moments of negotiation of topics to be covered and of task types to be completed, greater emphasis on discipline and on classroom management control, and higher relevance to exams, grades and achievement rates instead of encouraging teachers to centre their attention in the students' learning needs and experiences, their learning process and their global development as citizens and members of communities, who need to learn to value multilingualism and intercultural communication.

In a time when the dominance of accounting and administration threatens the value of an EFL learning and teaching process that has communicative language competence, cultural awareness and students' global language and cultural development as its main goals, EFL teachers have the right to resist turning back to old views of education and language teaching and learning.

We are convinced that, instead of embracing this traditional appeal in EFL teaching, many of us will struggle to maintain our teaching practice in line with the methodological principles that more than 50 years of research studies have demonstrated to be productive in terms of EFL teaching.

REFERENCES

[1] Araújo e Sá, M. H., Ceberio, M. E. & Melo, S. (2007). De la présentation de soi à l'interaction avec l'autre. Le rôle des représentations dans des rencontres interculturelles plurilingues. *LIDIL*, N °36, pp. 119-139.

[2] Arias, J. J., & Walker, D. M. (2004). Additional evidence on the relationship between class size and student performance. *Journal of Economic Education, 35*(4), 311–329.

[3] Bedard, K., & Kuhn, P. J. (2006). Where class size really matters: Class size and student ratings of instructor effectiveness. *Economics of Education Review, 27,* 253–265.

[4] Bloom, B.S., Engelhart, M.D., Furst, E.J., Hill, W.H., & Krathwohl, D.R. (Eds.). (1956). Taxonomy of educational objectives – The classification of educational goals – Handbook 1: Cognitive Domain. London, WI: Longmans, Green & Co. Ltd.

[5] Cabral, M. L. (2007). A abordagem de tarefas no ensino de l íguas estrangeiras. Materiais da apresentação e notas sobre sessões de formação de professores no Algarve. (Unpublished document). Faro, Portugal: FCHS, University of Algarve.

[6] Cabral, M. L. (2010). Temas de Didáctica de Língua Estrangeira: um contributo para a formação de professores. Faro: CELL/FCHS.

[7] Cabral, M. L. (2014). Documentos de apoio e notas de campo: sessões de reflexão pós-acção do Mestrado em Ensino de Línguas (Inglês). (Unpublished document). Faro: FCHS, University of Algarve.

[8] Cochran-Smith, M. & Zeichner, K. (2005). Studying teacher education. Report of the AERA panel on research and teacher education. Washington, D. C.: American Educational Research Association.

[9] Crato, N. (2006). O 'eduquês' em discurso directo. Uma crítica da pedagogia remântica e construtivista. Lisbon: Gradiva.

[10] Cravo, A. Bravo, C & Duarte, E. (2013). Metas curriculares de inglês. Ensino Básico. Lisboa: Ministério da Educação e Ciência.

[11] Cravo, A. Bravo, C & Duarte, E. (2014). Caderno de Apoio. Metas curriculares de inglês. Ensino Básico. Lisboa: Ministério da Educação e Ciência.

[12] Cravo, A. Bravo, C & Duarte, E. (2015). Metas curriculares de inglês. Ensino Básico: 1 °, 2 °e 3 °ciclo. Lisboa: Ministério da Educação e Ciência.

[13] Crotty, J. M. (2011). 5 big trends for education 2012-13. Retrieved January 20, 2014, from Forbes online http://www.forbes.com/.

[14] Dar, F. (2012). Textbook materials and their successful application in classroom: implications for language development. *Journal of Educational and Instructional Studies in the World*, 2(4), 109-114.

[15] Dee, T., & West, M. (2011). The non-cognitive returns to class size. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis 33*(1), 23–46.

[16] Dewey, J. (1938). Experience and education. New York, NY: Kappa Delta Pi.

[17] Decreto-Lei 43/2007 de 22 de Fevereiro. Regime jurídico da habilitação profissional para a docência.

[18] Decreto-Lei 79/2014 de 14 de Maio. Regime jurídico da habilitação profissional para a docência.

[19] Despacho n. °5306/2012, Diário da República N °77, de 18 de Abril de 2012.

[20] Fleming, R., Toutant, T., & Raptis, H. (2002). Class size and effects: A review. Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.

[21] Foto, S. (1994). Integrating grammar instruction and communicative language use through grammar consciousness raising tasks. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 323–351.

[22] Gonzalez Moncada, A. (2006). On materials use training in EFL teacher education: Some reflections. *Profile* [online], n.7, pp. 101-116.

[23] Hattie, J. (2009).Visible Learning: A synthesis of over 800 meta-analyses relating to achievement. New York: Routlgede.

[24] Hanushek, E. & Woβmann, L. (2006). Education quality and economic growth. Washington, D.C.:The World Bank.

[25] Kitao, K., & Kitao, K. (1997). Selecting and developing teaching/learning materials. *The Internet TESL Journal*, IV(4).

[26] Krueger, A.B. (2002). Economic considerations and class size. National Bureau of Economic Research Working. Paper: 8875.

Retrieved March 12, 2015, from http://www.nber.org/papers/w8875.pdf.

[27] Lantolf, J. & Poehner, M. (2004). Dynamic assessment of L2: bringing the past into future. *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, Vol. 1.1:49-72.

[28] Legutke, M. & Thomas, H. (1991). Process and experience in the language classroom. London: Longman.

[29] Long, M. H. (1991). Focus on form: A design feature in language teaching methodology. In K. de Bot, R. Ginsberg & C. Kramsch (Eds.), *Foreign language research in cross-cultural perspective* (pp. 39–52). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.

[30] Martins, I. (2014). Relatório da prática pedagógica supervisionada. Especialização Inglês-Espanhol. (Unpublished masters' thesis). FCHS, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal.

[31] Moreira, G., Howcroft, S., & Almeida, T. (2005). Programas de Inglês – Formação especfica 10º, 11º e 12º anos. Lisbon. DGE. Ministério da Educação.

[32] Nassaji, H. (2000). Towards integrating form-focused instruction and communicative interaction in L2 classroom: Some pedagogical possibilities. *The Modern Language Journal*, 84 (2), 241–250.

[33] National Council of Teachers of English (NTCE). (1983). Resolution on the effect of workload in English classes. NTCE Annual Business Meeting. Denver. Colorado. Retrieved March 12, 2015 from http://www.ncte.org/positions/statements/effectofworkload.

[34] National Council of Teachers of English (NTCE). (1995). Resolution on class size and student load. NTCE Annual Business Meeting. San Diego. California. Retrieved March 12, 2015 from http://www.ncte.org/positions/statements/classsizestudentload.

[35] National Council of Teachers of English (NTCE). (2014). Why class size matters today resolution. Retrieved March 12, 2015, from http://www.ncte.org/positions/statements/why-class-size-matters.

[36] Nunan, D. (1987). Design tasks for the communicative classroom. Cambridge: C. U. P.

[37] OECD. (2009). Education at a Glance 2009: OECD Indicators. Paris: OECD Publishing.

[38] OECD. (2014). Education at a Glance 2014: OECD Indicators. Paris: OECD Publishing.

[39] PACC. (May 2015). Prova de avaliação de conhecimentos e capacidades. Componente especfica de inglês. Lisboa:ME/GAVE. Retrieved May 21, 2015, from http://pacc.gave.min-edu.pt.

[40] Pereira, R. (2014). Relatório da prática pedagógica supervisionada. Especialização Inglês-Espanhol. (Unpublished masters' thesis). FCHS, University of Algarve, Faro, Portugal.

[41] Piketty, T. & Valdenaire, M. (2006). L'impact de la taille des classes sur la réussite scolaire dans les écoles, collèges et lycées français. Les dossiers évaluations et statistiques. PDF Doc. nº173. École des hautes études en sciences sociales. Paris, France. Retrieved May 21, 2015, from http://www.education.gouv.fr/cid3865/l-impact-de-la-taille-des-classes-sur-la-reussite-scolaire-dans-les-ecoles-colleges-et-lycees-francais.html&xtmc=piketty&xtnp=1&xtcr=1.

[42] Programas de Inglês: 10º, 11º e 12º anos (2001-2003). Lisbon: DEB/Ministério da Educação.

[43] Programas de Inglês: 3º ciclo do EB (1997). Lisbon: DEB/Ministério da Educação.

[44] Rovira, J. (2015). Anazoa educational project: Integrative educational models. Retrieved March 17, 2015, from http://anazoaproject.org/2015/05/04/on-standardized-testing/.

[45] Savignon, S. J. (2002). Communicative language teaching: Linguistic theory and classroom practice. In Savignon, S. J. (Ed.), *Interpreting communicative language teaching: Contexts and concerns in teacher education* (pp.1–27). New Haven: Yale University Press.

[46] Shulman, L. S. (1986). Those who understand: Knowledge growth in teaching. *Educational Researcher,* 15(2), 4- 31.

[47] Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard Educational Review*, 57(1), 1-22.

[48] Thi Cam Le, N. (2005). Passive participant to active thinker: A learner-centered approach to materials development. *The English Teaching Forum Online.* 43(3). Retrieved March 24, 2015, from http://exchanges.state.gov/forum/vols/vol43/no3/p2.htm.

[49] Vegas, E., Alderman, A. & Coffin, C. (2011). Saber – School finance objectives and conceptual approach. Paper nº68775. Washington, D.C.: The World Bank.

[50] Vieira, I. F. (Ed.) (2009). Struggling for autonomy in language education – Reflecting, acting, and being. ed. 1. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang.

[51] Woodward, T. (1996). Paradigm shift and the language teaching profession. In Willis, J & D. Willis (Eds.), *Challenge and change in language teaching* (pp. 4-10). Oxford, UK: Heinemann.

Maria Cabral holds a Master of Education from Boston University, U.S.A. (1985), and a Ph.D. in Methodology of Foreign Language Teaching from the University of Azores, Portugal (1994). Her doctoral dissertation, supervised by Professor Paula Menyuk, Boston University, is on the relationship between metalinguistic awareness and reading in the first and foreign languages spoken by Portuguese 7th graders.

She is a Full Professor of Linguistics at the University of Algarve and she has taught EFL teaching at Portuguese universities for the last thirty years. She is the director of two graduate courses and supervises national and international post-graduate students at the University of Algarve, Portugal. Her research focuses on the teaching of EFL reading and writing and she has published four books and several papers on these topics in national and international journals.

Anabela M. Nobre holds a Masters Degree in TEYL from the University of York in England (2009), completed under the supervision of Dr. Annie Hughes, and a Master of Science Degree in in Education from Canisius College in Buffalo, New York (1997). Having acquired an Honours B.A in English and Portuguese language and literature in 1996 from the University of Toronto (Canada), she moved to Portugal to initially teach at Vilamoura International School, and subsequently at the University of the Algarve, since 2000.

She has taught EFL courses in various undergraduate and graduate degree programmes of study. She has lectured on Language Didactics in the university's Master's Degree in Teaching English Language, and been Practicum Supervisor of student teachers completing Master's Degrees in English Language Teaching. She has further been abreast of the implementation of English programmes of study in Portuguese Schools through her work as a Specialist Observer and Pedagogical Consultant in English Teaching Practice, on assignment for APPI (National Association Of English Teachers Of Portugal) and DREALG (Regional Board of Education Office of the Algarve). With the experience she has acquired and her keen interest in language teaching didactics, Anabela Nobre is currently preparing research for her PhD thesis in Language Teaching Didactics at the University of the Algarve.

The Use of Facebook for Educational Purposes in EFL Classrooms

Ligia F. Espinosa

IKIAM Regional University, Tena, Ecuador

Abstract—**The objective of this study is to analyze the possibility of blending conventional instruction with online instruction via a social networking website, Facebook, in EFL classrooms in order to motivate students and improve their English language learning. Thus, this paper seeks to examine specific ways in which EFL teachers can use Facebook as an educational tool, describing the benefits of this technological instrument and analyzing the potential pitfalls and challenges that it could create. Besides, it includes practical strategies that teachers can apply in order to overcome these pitfalls and get the most out of this social network.**

Index Terms—**Facebook, social networking, technology in class, online education, EFL education**

I. INTRODUCTION

"Students are constantly on social media. They don't even pay attention to the classes. They are always chatting, posting pictures, and who knows what else! That network does not let students focus on what really matters!" These expressions show the feelings of many teachers around the world. The use of Facebook is a general concern among educators. However, no matter what adults think, social networking is still a mainstay in the lives of youths. Technology is an essential component of everyday life and "social networking is second nature to our students" (Fewkes & McCabe, 2012, p. 93). However, is there a way to use Facebook as an educational tool? Can it become an ally rather than an enemy? Educators have always found ways to reach their students, although the approach may seem scary and unfamiliar. Will teachers succeed this time?

The widespread use of technology in all areas of life has led to its growing presence in educational settings (Grgurovic, 2010). Nowadays, technology is an important resource used in many classrooms with the purpose of enhancing instruction. Actually, according to Picciano (2009), face-to-face and online activities should be integrated in the classroom in a planned and pedagogically valuable manner in order to support the students' academic development. Kabilan, Ahmad & Abidin (2010) also pointed out that "computer-mediated communication is one of the oldest yet still most valuable tool of network-based language teaching, as it puts learners in direct contact with others for authentic communication, and therefore, has positive outcomes for teaching and learning of English" (p. 181). That is why the objective of this study is to analyze the possibility of blending conventional instruction with online instruction via a social networking website, Facebook in EFL classrooms.

Most students in our society spend a great deal of their time outside school hours on social networking websites (Tan, Ng & Saw, 2010). Therefore, using Facebook to supplement classroom instruction seems to be aligned with the current trend. Additionally, as a result of globalization of digital media, English is now the predominant language of online communication among youngsters although it is not their native language (Crystal 2011; Seedhouse 2004). Thus, it can be beneficial to use this popular social network, Facebook, to support English language instruction in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) contexts. Besides, blending conventional face-to-face instruction with online learning activities can contribute to solve teachers' problem of inadequate class time, and can help teachers to make learning more appealing to the students (Manan, Alias & Pandian, 2012).

Evidently, this sociocultural perspective of learning has also several challenges and dangers that need to be considered. For example, some studies have shown that social networking has some risks such as: loss of privacy, bullying, harming contacts and more (Livingston & Brake, 2010). Therefore, this article will analyze all the pedagogical implications of using Facebook for educational purposes in English classrooms. First, it will describe the benefits of this social network. Then, it will examine the limitations and problems of this instructional perspective; and finally, it will discuss practical strategies that teachers can apply in order to overcome these pitfalls and get the most out of this social network.

II. FACEBOOK: AN EDUCATIONAL TOOL

Facebook is a popular website that allows users to interact and collaborate within a pre-defined virtual community (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). It is a social networking site and online communication tool that allows users to construct a public or private profile in order to connect and interact with people who are part of their extended social network. Facebook is the largest social networking site, with nearly a billion members, that allows people to make connections, share interests, and join groups (Lantz-Andersson, Vigmo & Bowen, 2013). It is so successful that the majority of high

school and university students use this site on a daily basis for both academic and social goals (Kirschner & Karpinski, 2010; Wellens & Hooley, 2009). According to Wise et al. (2011), students spend an average of one hour per day on the site, especially to engage in social interactions. However, Facebook can have not only social applications but also academic uses.

Janice Petosky, an educator and researcher, said once: "Teachers have to find out where the students are, and work from there. Well, the students are on Facebook" (2014, p. 1). This is a reality, and teachers need to take advantage of it. Learning can take place anywhere as long as there are meaningful interactions between learners that lead to construct knowledge. Therefore, if teachers use Facebook effectively, many of the practices and experiences that occur in this social network can contribute to enhance learning. Actually, this can be considered a form of constructivism because it gives students the opportunity to work collaboratively, learn together and from each other, build learning communities, and construct knowledge through the interaction of members of these communities (Kabilan et al., 2010).

Facebook helps teachers to create significant and dynamic educational experiences, especially in language classes, because it allows students to carry out meaningful and authentic interactions with English native speakers (Garrison, & Kanuka, 2004). As a result, learners can improve their language skills, increase their motivation and confidence towards English, and develop cross-cultural understanding (Wenger, 1998). According to Godwin-Jones (2008), "tools and platforms such as Facebook are useful to improve communication, human interaction, and language learning" (p. 7). Actually, Facebook can be a practical tool to involve students in reading, writing, and many other EFL learning activities in a more incidental and informal manner. Research shows that even students prefer to use Facebook for some instructional activities like sharing multimedia or textual educational resources and interacting with other classmates in discussions and debates (Joinson, 2008; Pennington, 2009). That is why many teachers are using this social network for educational purposes in different classes, including English.

III. PRACTICAL USES OF FACEBOOK IN EFL CLASSROOMS

Although most teachers use Facebook for trivial activities like sending information to students who were absent or posting class announcements, this social network can be a practical tool for many other educational activities. For example, Facebook allows EFL teachers to start online discussions, post articles to develop a reading comprehension exercise, start online chats between students and English native speakers, and many other activities (Kabilan et al., 2010). Actually, the TeachThought Corporation published in 2012 an article with one hundred ideas on how to use Facebook for educational purposes. For instance, it mentioned that Facebook can be used to attend remote lectures and presentations from all around the world, play educational games like puzzles and crosswords, and participate in challenges posted by educational outlets. Additionally, this platform provides teachers effective tools to manage class projects and assignments (Kharbach, 2014). For example, it can be used to write reviews and reports of books assigned in class, follow journalists on social networks in order to gather past and current news clips relevant to classroom discussions in English, or host a regular English book club with the students.

Evidently, one of the main advantages of Facebook is that it allows people to share information, knowledge, and resources (Kabilan et al., 2010). In consequence, it can be used to import and share class blogs, post words and definitions for vocabulary review, share resources and materials for class projects, share ideas about class discussions in English, or post students' journals and share them with the class via a classroom page or group (TeachThought, 2012). Facebook can also be used as a space for collaboration and discussion (Kharbach, 2014). For example, it is possible to involve students in writing workshops with peer review and instructor oversight, encourage students to communicate through a Facebook discussion wall during class time, connect the classroom with speakers around the world in order to improve their foreign language skills, bring quiet students out of their shell by asking them to participate in Facebook discussions, create study groups to easily connect with each other within their own Facebook groups, track down old students or professionals that could come to the classroom as guest speakers, connect with classes all around the world, and discuss classroom ideas with other teachers on Facebook. All these ideas can contribute to improve students' English language skills.

Facebook also provides teachers access to valuable educational apps (Kharbach, 2014). For instance, "Booktag" can be used to share books in English and ask students to comment on them; "Knighthood" is a game app on Facebook that promotes reading skills in English; "Language Exchange" is an app that helps students to get connected with foreign language practice; and finally, "Flashcardlet" is an application used to create flash cards that students can study on Facebook to learn vocabulary words in English (TeachThought, 2012). In general, Facebook has many features that teachers can take advantage of. Actually, there are several studies that explain how teachers all around the world are using this network for educational purposes, especially in English language classrooms. For example, Manan, Alias, and Pandian (2012) mention that they successfully used Facebook in an ESL (English as a Second Language) environment to post announcements and give students a place to connect with each other and chat in English. They also reported that students were so engaged with this online resource that they continuously posted educational links they wanted to promote (Manan et al., 2012). Actually, Facebook has many possible uses such as asking and answering questions, posting information, and engaging students in reading and writing activities which are helpful to improve their English skills (Mills, 2009). Evidently, all these results can be transferred to EFL classrooms too. However, these are not the only authors that support the use of Facebook for EFL teaching. According to Northcote and Kendle (2001),

online games on Facebook can motivate learners to practice English. Tan, Ng, and Saw (2010) also use Facebook to blend conventional classroom teaching with online instruction with the participation of English native speakers. For instance, they implemented group chats and discussion groups on Facebook. In consequence, the reason why many educators, especially English instructors, are using Facebook in their classrooms is because it provides many benefits not only for students but also for teachers themselves.

<div align="center">IV. BENEFITS OF FACEBOOK FOR EFL CLASSROOMS</div>

A. Benefits for EFL Teachers

Teachers can obtain many benefits from using Facebook. For example, it can help teachers to engage students outside the classroom (Pilgrim & Bledsoe, 2011). Through this tool, instructors can also learn about trends and issues in EFL education as well as to obtain ideas for classroom practice. In fact, although Facebook is widely known as a digital means of communication, it is also a means for gathering information since it presents powerful professional resources for EFL educators (Kabilan, Ahmad & Abidin, 2010). Nevertheless, these are not the only benefits that Facebook provides teachers.

Many educational organizations like the International Reading Association (IRA), Reading Rockets (RR), and the National Education Association (NEA) create and publish Pages on Facebook to promote their organizations and share useful resources for educators (Kabilan et al., 2010). These pages usually include information about current trends and issues in EFL education, classroom resources, opportunities for professional development, and much more. Moreover, they give teachers the opportunity to collaborate with other EFL educators. Following educational organizations through Facebook is therefore "a way to access valuable information and resources at no expense and through an online medium that is likely being used anyway" (Pilgrim & Bledsoe, 2011, p.28).

Teachers who follow EFL educational pages through Facebook obtain several benefits. For instance, they can get effective classroom resources for free, develop and maintain friendships and collegial or professional relationships for mutual benefit, and receive valuable educational information like notifications of journal publications, tips for teachers, and new books and e-books available for educators (Pilgrim & Bledsoe, 2011). Therefore, Facebook provides many advantages for teachers all around the world, but they are not the only ones who obtain benefits from this platform.

B. Benefits for EFL Students

Facebook provides many advantages for students. For instance, it promotes human interaction and social interchange between participants (Mills, 2009) which "enhances communication and language learning" (Godwin-Jones, 2008, p. 7). In that way, Facebook can promote the development of the communicative competence in English language learners (Blattner and Fiori, 2009). Besides, several studies have demonstrated that using Facebook in EFL classrooms can help learners to improve their oral production as well as their writing and reading skills (Bosch, 2009; Madge et al., 2009; Naidu, 2005; Ophus & Abbitt, 2009). Therefore, this network has positive effects on students since it makes English language teaching and learning more practical, interactive, and holistic. For example, Ducate and Lomicka (2008) conducted a study with several university students from France and Germany. During the research, they observed that using Facebook to promote cooperative learning in EFL classrooms increased students' learning.

Similarly, Blattner and Lomicka (2012) explored 24 American and French university students' reactions to using Facebook in a language course (French and English). The overarching goal for the participating students was to learn English and communicate with other learners of English. Therefore, students were required to write postings and respond to others' postings in English. As a result of this activity, students could improve their communication skills as well as their reading and writing abilities in English (Blattner & Lomicka, 2012). The truth is that online discussion has been found to be less threatening for many students. Stacey and Gerbie (2007) found that struggling learners who were not able to follow the fast-paced class discussion prefer online activities which they perceive are much easier to comprehend. They also found that students were more engaged during online activities as compared to face-to-face class activities, where only the more confident students would participate in the class dialogues (Stacey and Gerbie, 2007). Therefore, using Facebook can truly enhance students' communication and interaction in the target language (Mills, 2009).

Facebook also provides students meaningful learning experiences that give them the opportunity to practice their language skills in a more incidental and informal manner (Grgurovic, 2010). This helps teachers to make connections between instructional and real-life tasks. In that way, students can use the skills learned in the classroom and apply them to real situations outside of class (Godwin-Jones, 2008). Manan et al. (2012) noticed that using Facebook to connect the theories and concepts learned in class to real life contexts is a good way to enhance students' understanding. In their study, conducted with 535 adolescents of different EFL classrooms in Malaysia, they found out that Facebook was a powerful pedagogical tool that helped students to improve their English language skills. Although this study was conducted in an ESL environment, the results are also practical for EFL classrooms.

Students also have positive views and opinions regarding the use of Facebook as an educational tool to facilitate English language learning. For example, learners consider that Facebook provides opportunity for authentic interaction and communication that they have not experienced before. They also think that it increases confidence in language acquisition and sense of connectedness among themselves (Wang & Chen, 2007). Kabilan et al. (2010) also mention

that students enjoy using Facebook because it give them the opportunity to practice English with native speakers in a more natural and friendly environment. In fact, O'Hanion (2007) says that, when students have to talk to English native speakers, they feel forced to improve their language skills because they need to communicate with them in English. Therefore, their language abilities increase simply because they write, read, listen, and speak in English more. For example, Kabilan et al. (2010) points out that students can learn new vocabulary words through friends in Facebook because when their friends post comments using words that they don't understand, they feel motivated to refer to a dictionary and look up the meaning of those words. Similarly, those students who play games on Facebook feel forced to improve their English skills because those games require students to understand instructions in English and to interact with fellow gamers in English. All this demonstrates that people learn better in social settings like Facebook because they expose learners to authentic and relevant social interactions.

However, although Facebook provides many benefits for students and teachers, it also presents several challenges and dangers for those who do not use it wisely and responsibly. Thus, the next section will discuss several challenges implied in the use of Facebook.

V. CHALLENGES OF USING FACEBOOK IN CLASS

Simply adopting a technology and not truly understanding its potential will not suffice. If teachers do not try to learn more about the multiple uses of all these online tools like Facebook, it won't be possible to engage and motivate students because they are ahead of teachers in the use of technology (Fewkes & McCabe, 2012). However, this is not the only challenge that educators face. A second challenge is the distinction between entertainment and truly intellectual engagement. The nature of multimedia can captive students easily, but this visual engagement does not necessarily represent intellectual engagement. In fact, too much multimedia stimulation can interfere with the deeper cognitive processing that is critical to learning (American Psychological Association, 2009). That is why teachers need to make sure that the activities they plan to develop using Facebook really help students to learn.

Another challenge that teachers face is that the preferred language used by most students to interact on Facebook is "Spanglish" (the combination of Spanish and English), or any other combination of languages according to each country. Very few students actually use Standard English to interact with each other. Thus, the quality of English used in the online interactions is very poor (Manan et al., 2012). That is why, in order to control this situation, teachers have to recommend and remind students that they have to revise their work before posting it on Facebook. It is also useful to require students to check their choice of words, spelling and sentence structures during their interactions on Facebook (Fewkes & McCabe, 2012).

On the other hand, there are also concerns that social networking "increases the likelihood of new risks to the self, such as the loss of privacy, bullying, harming contacts and more" (Livingston & Brake, 2010, p. 75). According to Huffman (2013), uninformed students and teachers can put themselves at risk by sharing the most innocent piece of information. Once information is released into cyberspace, it becomes a part of a global network. Persistence and search ability of content, replication and manipulation of content create a framework in which underage children are at risk (Boyd & Ellison, 2007). Online bullying has gone global as well. That is why some schools prohibit the use of Facebook and internet on school. In this case the solution is professional development. Professional development is essential to training classroom teachers and students on both the benefits and risks associated with social networking (Huffman, 2013). Furthermore, collaboration and inclusion of all stakeholders is vital in order to develop appropriate activities and lessons, especially when Facebook will be used as an educational tool (Picciano, 2011).

Another issue that needs to be considered is the influence of having teachers as "friends" on Facebook. Although most students want to have their teachers as their friends on Facebook, some prefer not to do it because, as Jong et al. (2014) mention, some students have been affected by what they wrote on Facebook after adding their teachers as friends. Another problem is that the self-disclosure of instructors on Facebook could affect their credibility and the perception that students have of the teacher. That is why many authors suggest educators to create a different Facebook account just for professional and educational purposes (Huffman, 2013; Jong et al., 2014; Picciano, 2011).

Kirschner and Karpinski (2010) also analyze another challenge of using Facebook in the classroom. Generally, instructors are interested in the use of technology to augment student learning; however, at times, they have difficulty maintaining students' attention on class activities when Facebook activities are initiated. Conflicting evidence exists on the impact of Facebook on dedicated study time since some authors suggest that Facebook users spend less time studying and achieve lower academic results compared to Facebook non-users (Leveritt et al., 2012). For example, in a study conducted by Kirschner and Karpinski (2010), it was possible to observe that Facebook users had lower GPAs and spent fewer hours per week studying than nonusers. According to Fox, Rosen, and Crawford (2008), this usually happens because if a teenager is trying to have a conversation on an e-mail chat line while doing homework, he will suffer a decrease in efficiency, compared to if he just thought about the homework until he was done. Fortunately, this context is a little different in English classrooms because in EFL classrooms, the knowledge is constructed precisely by interaction and communication. Actually, students can practice English as they talk to their friends about topics that are interesting for them. The only thing that teachers need to consider is to give students the opportunity to have access to English native speakers in order to promote productive conversations in English.

Finally, it is also important to consider the learning preferences of students. Those learners who have a more rigid, stronger, traditional view of teaching and learning do not consider that Facebook can be an effective online environment to learn. For example, according to some students, to grasp and enhance the English language, it is necessary to have a more academic and formal structure (Manan et al., 2012). That is why teachers need to be balanced and try to adapt the classes to the needs and preferences of all students. They also have to be careful not to overuse Facebook or consider that this tool will replace face-to-face instruction and practice.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the information presented before, it is possible to conclude that Facebook can help teachers to blend online instruction with conventional face-to-face teaching successfully (Grgurovic, 2010). The advancement of the internet has created a borderless world. Thus, teaching and learning are no longer confined to the four walls of a classroom (Picciano, 2009). Therefore, EFL teachers need to be creative and up-to-date with the current technology in order to keep up with the fast-paced society. Thus, with careful planning, EFL teachers can utilize Facebook as a powerful instructional tool to engage students in meaningful language-based activities and to enhance the development of the communicative competence in language learners (Mills, 2009). Actually, if planned appropriately, Facebook can even facilitate the development of an online community of English language learners where students can practice their language skills through videoconferences and chats with English native speakers (Kabilan et al., 2010).

Nevertheless, educators also need to consider the pitfalls and challenges of this tool like the loss of privacy, bullying, harming contacts, and more (Livingston & Brake, 2010). It is not possible to ignore these dangers. That is why teachers need to address these concerns through planning. When teachers plan appropriately and wisely, they can maximize the benefits and minimize the pitfalls of this tool in order to transform the classroom into a safe, rich, and interactive environment (Huffman, 2013). Additionally, it is necessary to train students on both the benefits and risks associated with social networking in order to successfully incorporate Facebook into their academic lives because regardless of the pitfalls, social networking is still an essential component in the lives of youths (Picciano, 2011). Therefore, teachers have to make the effort to overcome the challenges and take advantage of the benefits that this technological tool provides. Nevertheless, it is still unclear if there are other technological tools that provide the same benefits as Facebook, but with less risk. Continued investigation of online education may provide further insight into these matters.

REFERENCES

[1]   American Psychological Association. (2009). How technology changes everything and nothing in psychology. *American Psychologist, 64*(5), 454-463.
[2]   Blattner, G., & Fiori, M. (2009). Facebook in the language classroom: Promises and possibilities. *Instructional Technology and Distance Learning (ITDL), 6*(1), 17−28.
[3]   Blattner, G., & Lomicka, L. (2012). Facebooking and the social generation: A new era of language learning. *Alsic, 15*(1), 1-36.
[4]   Bosch, T. (2009). Using online social networking for teaching and learning: Facebook use at the University of Cape Town. *South African Journal for Communication Theory and Research, 35*(2), 185-200.
[5]   Boyd D., & Ellison, N. (2007). Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer & Mediated Communication, 13*(1), 210-230.
[6]   Crystal, D. (2011). Internet linguistics: A student guide. Oxon: Routledge.
[7]   Ducate, L., & Lomicka, L. (2008). Adventures in the blogosphere: From blog readers to blog writers. *Computer Assisted Language Learning, 21*(1), 9−28.
[8]   Fewkes, A., & McCabe, M. (2012). Facebook: Learning tool or distraction? *Journal of Digital Learning in Teacher Education, 28*(3), 92-98.
[9]   Fox, A., Rosen, J., & Crawford, M. (2008). Distractions, distractions: Does instant messaging affect college students' performance on a concurrent reading comprehension task? *Cyberpsychology and Behavior, 12*(1), 51−53.
[10] Garrison, R., & Kanuka, H. (2004). Blended learning: Uncovering transformative potential in higher education. *Internet and Higher Education, 7*(2), 95−105.
[11] Godwin-Jones, R. (2008). Mobile computing technologies: Lighter, faster, smarter. *Language Learning & Technology, 12*(3), 3−9.
[12] Grgurovic, M. (2010). Technology-enhanced blended language learning in an ESL class: A description of a model and an application of the diffusion of innovations theory (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ERIC. (ED524949). (accessed 15/07/2014).
[13] Hart, J. (2013). Top 100 tools for learning: Facebook. Retrieved from http://c4lpt.co.uk/top100tools/facebook/ (accessed 13/07/2014).
[14] Huffman, S. (2013). Benefits and pitfalls: Simple guidelines for the use of social networking tools in K-12 education. *Education, 134*(2), 154-160.
[15] Joinson, A. (2008). Looking at, looking up or keeping up with people? Motives and use of Facebook. In M. Czerwinski, A. Lund, & D. Tan (Eds.), *CHI '08 proceedings of the SIGCHI conference on human factors in computing systems* (pp. 1027−1036). New York, NY: ACM Press.
[16] Jong, B., Lai, C., Hsia, Y., Lin, L., & Liao, Y. (2014). An exploration of the potential educational value of Facebook. *Computers in Human Behavior, 32*(1), 201-211.
[17] Kabilan, M., Ahmad, N., & Abidin, M. (2010). Facebook: An online environment for learning of English in institutions of higher education? *The Internet and Higher Education, 13*(4), 179-187.

[18] Kharbach, M. (2014). The ultimate guide to the use of Facebook in education. Retrieved from http://www.educatorstechnology.com/2012/06/ultimate-guide-to-use-of-facebook-in.html (accessed 20/06/2014).
[19] Kirschner, P., & Karpinski, A. (2010). Facebook and academic performance. *Computers in Human Behavior, 26*(6), 1237–1245.
[20] Lantz-Andersson, A., Vigmo, S., & Bowen, R. (2013). Crossing boundaries in Facebook: Students' framing of language learning activities as extended spaces. *International Journal of Computer-Supported Collaborative Learning, 8*(3), 293-312. doi: 10.1007/s11412-013-9177-0.
[21] Leveritt, M., Irwin, I., Ball, L., & Desbrow, B. (2012). Students' perceptions of using Facebook as an interactive learning resource at university. *Australasian Journal of Educational Technology, 28*(7), 1221-1232.
[22] Livingston, S. & Brake, D. (2010). On the rapid rise of social networking sites: New findings and policy implications. *Children & Society, 24*(1), 75-83. doi: 10.1111/j. 1099-0860.2009.00243.X.
[23] Madge, C., Meek, J., Wellens, J. & Hooley, T. (2009). Facebook, social integration and informal learning at university: It is more for socializing and talking to friends about work than for actually doing work. *Learning, Media and Technology, 34*(2), 141-155.
[24] Manan, N., Alias, A., & Pandian, A. (2012). Utilizing a social networking website as an ESL pedagogical tool in a blended learning environment: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Social Sciences & Education*, *2*(1), 1-9.
[25] Mazman, S., & Usluel, Y. (2010). Modeling educational usage of Facebook. *Computers & Education, 55*(2), 444-453.
[26] Mills, N. (2009). Facebook and the use of social networking tools to enhance language learner motivation and engagement. Paper presented at the Northeast Association for Language Learning Technology (NEALLT) Conference. October 30-31. Yale University: New Haven.
[27] Naidu, S. (2005). Learning & teaching with technology: Principles and practices. Oxon: Routledge Falmer.
[28] Northcote, M., & Kendle, A. (2001). Informal online networks for learning: Making use of incidental learning through recreation. Paper presented at the International Education Research Conference. December 2–6. Fremantle: Australia.
[29] O'Hanion, C. (2007). If you can't beat them, join them. *T.H.E. Journal, 34*(8), 39−44.
[30] Ophus, J., & Abbitt, J. (2009). Exploring the potential perceptions of social networking systems in university courses. *Journal of Online Learning and Teaching, 5*(4), 639-648.
[31] Pennington, M. (1989). Teaching languages with computers: The state of the art. La Jolla, CA: Athelstan.
[32] Picciano, A. (2009). Blending with purpose: The multimodal model. *Journal of Asynchronous Learning Networks, 13*(1), 7-18.
[33] Picciano, A. (2011). Educational leadership and planning for technology (5th ed.). New York, NY: Prentice Hall.
[34] Pilgrim, J., & Bledsoe, C. (2011). Learning through Facebook: A potential tool for educators. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 78*(1), 38-42.
[35] Stacey, E. & Gerbie, P. (2007). Teaching for blended learning: Research perspectives from on-campus and distance students. *Education Information Technology, 12*(1), 165–174.
[36] Tan, K., Ng, M., & Saw, K. (2010). Online activities and writing practices of urban Malaysian adolescents. *Science Direct System, 38*(1), 548-559.
[37] TeachThought. (2012). 100 ways to use Facebook in education by categories. Retrieved from http://www.teachthought.com/technology/100-ways-to-use-facebook-in-education-by-category/ (accessed 25/06/2014).
[38] Van-Eijl, P., Pilot, A., & De Voogd, P. (2005). Effects of collaborative and individual learning in a blended learning environment. *Education and Information Technologies, 10*(2), 49–63.
[39] Wang, Y., & Chen, N. (2007). Online synchronous language learning: SLMS over the Internet. *Innovate, 3*(3), 1−7.
[40] Wenger, E. (1998). Communities of practice: Learning, meaning, and identity. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[41] Wise, L., Skues, J., & Williams, B. (2011). Facebook in higher education promotes social but not academic engagement. Retrieved from http://www.ascilite.org.au/conferences/hobart11/downloads/papers/Wise-full.pdf (accessed 28/06/2014).

Ligia F. Espinosa was born in Quito, Ecuador in 1990. In 2012, the author obtained a Bachelor's Degree in Hospitality Management and a Minor in Education in one of the most prestigious universities of Ecuador, San Francisco de Quito University. Then, in 2014, she received her Master's Degree in Curriculum and Instruction with emphasis in ESL from Kansas State University in Manhattan, Kansas, United States. In all these universities, she was awarded as the best overall student.

In 2012 and 2014, she obtained two scholarships sponsored by the Ecuadorian government to study in United States and participate in several international conferences like the International Convention and English Language Expo organized by the TESOL International Association in Portland, Oregon. MSc. Espinosa has worked as an EFL teacher in public and private schools in Ecuador and United States for several years and is currently working at IKIAM Regional University in Tena-Ecuador, where she is involved in several projects related to EFL teaching.

Educational Environment (Coeducation / Segregated) and the Progress of Speaking Ability among Iranian EFL Students

Mohammad Reza Ebrahimi
Chabahar Maritime University, Iran

Nahid Yarahmadzehi
Language Department, Chabahar Maritime University, Iran

Abstract—**Coeducation environment _which in Iran is just enjoyed in universities_ is an unfamiliar educational environment for Iranian students and may influence the total outcome of teaching and learning. The present research focuses on the impact of coeducation on speaking ability. A longitudinal study was undertaken on 20 subjects, chosen from 2 universities in which both coeducation and single-sex education were enjoyed. The probable influence of sex, family income, language proficiency, and extroversion/introversion variables were controlled. Furthermore, the probable impact of attending extra conversation classes was eliminated. Analyzing the results of pre-test and post-test of speaking indicated that single-sex system is better for male students, but no significant difference was observed for female students. This negative influence of coeducation system on the speaking ability of the male students and probably the total gains of teaching and learning do worth revisions on educational system provided that it could be confirmed by meticulous replications.**

Index Terms—**coeducation, single sex education, segregated education**

I. INTRODUCTION

Coeducation in universities started before the Civil War when women first succeeded to enroll in a few colleges on terms similar to men. This access was the result of the efforts of the early women's rights movement. Early feminists were concerned that separate education for women would certainly be low-grade in comparison with that of men since they were disappointed by the education offered in female secondary schools. They maintained that the only way of ensuring equality was to insist that male and female students be educated together (Rosenberg, 1991).

Abandonment of segregated educated was welcomed by the leaders of the early women's movement not only on academic grounds but also on sexual grounds. They maintained that this segregation ends in an preoccupation with sex; whereas they thought that coeducation created a more natural and therefore healthier sexual atmosphere. Stanton (1882, p. 67) argued that "If the sexes were educated together, we should have the healthy, moral and intellectual stimulus of sex ever quickening and refining all the faculties, without the undue excitement of senses that results from novelty in the present system of isolation." Coeducation promised intellectual freedom and sexual health (cited in Rosenberg, 1991).

Women's early success at Oberlin convinced many pioneers of women movement to develop coeducation. Stone summarized their views:

Our demand that Harvard and Yale colleges should admit women, though not yet yielded, only waited for a little more time. And while they were waiting, numerous petty 'female colleges' have sprung into being, indicative of the justice of our claim that a college education should be granted to women. Not one of these female colleges . . . met the demands of the age, and so would eventually perish. (cited in Rosenberg, 1991, pp.148-49)

Ever since scholars and theoreticians have theorized and their theories have been put into practice, in many cases, culture and environment have not had an outstanding influence on adjusting these theories. Yet, it is of utmost importance to consider some factors such as culture that may cause a theory to culminate in quite different results. Sometimes, the reverse of what was aimed at is being acquired. Therefore, even if a theory was accepted and performed, it is not wise to keep up performing without carefully and dynamically reconsidering every aspect of the matter. Coeducation as it is stated is the result of a movement called Feminism. Feminism has been criticized on many grounds. Bork (2003, p. 18) states:

Feminism, the "most fanatical and destructive movement of the 1960s," is an attack on hierarchy, family, religion, and national security. Racial tensions have escalated. Affirmative action "was a serious mistake...Continuing it would be a disaster." Education has become politicized to the point that competency has decreased. Teachers do not teach; students do not learn. Religion, "essential to a civilized culture," has become marginalized. Multiculturalism is a lie

because all cultures are not equal. It has fragmented America. A culture of chaos persists. America heads toward moral decline and spiritual decay.

The important point is uncovering the reason(s) for persistence on implementing a theory which may or may not work in Western countries and then trying to act it out in an oriental country like Iran (a country which has many cultural contradictions with American and European countries). What makes the problem worse is the acceptance of a theory, without any adaptation to the Iranian culture, limitations and differences. In American and European countries, one almost cannot see any limitation in two sexes' relationships anywhere, regarding the place and sort of relationships. So, it will be really different while a theory is acted out in a country where the two sexes are being regarded differently from Western countries. In some parts of the country, there almost exists no relationship between them. The system of segregated education is practiced even in some kindergartens in Iran let alone primary schools, guidance school, and high school, not to mention that some universities in Iran follow this system of single-sex education like the one investigated in the current study.

Regarding all the above-mentioned points, is it right to say think that a Western student who has no limitation regarding the relations with students from the other sex will benefit equally from schooling as an Iranian student (or similar eastern and specifically Moslem countries) with restricted opposite-sex relationships? As in many of the Middle Eastern Countries, most public schools are segregated by sex, whereas most private schools enjoy co-ed. Upon students' entrance in university one can see the preoccupation of Iranian students with the influence of less familiar coeducation environment on their lives and their way of studying. Overcoming the impact, if possible, may take a lot of time; even, sometimes, the whole period of studying in university is being passed by while the impact still exists.

The research here focuses on the impact of coeducational environment on language classes especially on the speaking skill of students. The most important reason for choosing this subject is reflected in the weakness of Iranian EFL students in speaking skill. In general, performing in front of others is a difficulty. It becomes more difficult if one is supposed to perform in front of students from other sex and, in a country like Iran, it becomes the hardest since the relations between the two sexes are restricted in some parts of the country. If students, at the very beginning of their performance, see that there are many factors hindering or at least deferring commencement of their performance, they will not start at all or will use the language occasionally. Therefore, progress of this skill is highly dependant on performance, which is being restricted due to the above-mentioned problems in an Iranian educational environment.

Attendance in coeducational environment could be risky insofar as the crystal clear reality of two sexes' attractions for each other and the danger of relative diverting from learning which students are expected to do. Possible attraction of students to sexual appeals instead of learning may change the learning environment to something different. The problem might not end up in the class and exist outside in the dormitory, the students' houses and so forth. Being occupied with these concerns will reduce the concentration on learning materials.

Analysis of the literature on coeducation and single-sex education effects on academic performance indicates that there exist contradictory research findings. Some findings strongly supported the positive effect of coeducation on educational performance (Lee & Lockheeds, 1990; O'reilly, 2000; Dean C., 1998; Harker & Nash, 1997; Lepore & Warren, 1997; Mc closky, 2001). Some others rejected the positive effect of coeducation on educational performance. For example, in religion schools, according to Riordan (1990), better results were achieved in single sex schools and also in sexual matters (Sadker, 1994). Student's self esteem according to Carins (1990), Brutsaert and Bracke (1994), Langdon (2001) was better. Especially, the rejection was strongly supported through the research done by national foundation for educational research (2002) in which 2950 participants were studied and the results indicated that single sex environment was better for both boys and girls. Also about language learning, a remarkable study was done by Finn (1980) in which 2777 high school students participated. The results indicated the progress in learning vocabulary which was not good in coed schools; the same results was achieved by Henry (2001) and Trickett and Trickett (1982). The reasons usually emphasized for single-sex education are as follows: male-female variances in performance and development and also the achievement gap favoring boys and discriminating against racial poor minorities. Also, notions such as boys will focus better on school tasks if not distracted by girls.

The main research hypotheses addressed in this study could be stated as: there is no significant relationship between coeducation and speaking ability of Iranian EFL students. And also students' gender has no role to play in their success in the progress of speaking ability in coeducational environment.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

Based on the purpose of the present study, which seeks the relationship between speaking skill and coeducation in Iranian universities, the subjects were selected from among English Literature students. Also a university in which coeducation system existed was needed along with a university with single-sex education system. For this purpose Qom University was selected in which the two sexes studied in one university but under two separate roofs, in other words they had separate classes, and the whole educational environment was separate.

There were important factors which might influence speaking, like being extrovert or introvert, gender, socioeconomic factors, and the level of proficiency at the moment of entering university. To control these important variables, the process of subject selection was done precisely. Thus, the following actions were taken: For recognizing

extrovert students from the introvert, a psychological test was a requirement for 10 subject to take, in order to control this important variable through selecting those students who would be more appropriate. To neutralize gender effects, if any, equal number of the two sexes were selected from each environment (single- sex and coeducation environment), that is 5 male students and 5 female students from Qom University and then 5 male and 5 female students from Mashhad University. For the socioeconomic factors to be neutralized, a question was put in a questionnaire asking the subjects about the income of their family, then students belonging to the families with nearly the same amount of income were selected and those who have incomes which greatly differed were eliminated. Another question was asked from students by the questionnaire about their participation in conversational classes before or during their studies in university (English language in Iran is a foreign language). And the last point to consider was students' proficiency which influences the results. First as the base for selecting subjects who were highly likely to have nearly the same level of proficiency, students' scores in the Konkoor Exam (University Entrance Exam) were asked, those with nearly the same scores were selected and obviously those with greatly different scores were eliminated. Since Konkoor Exam does not measure oral proficiency which was needed for the purpose of this study, measuring the speaking proficiency must be done over time. One semester was the time allocated to the interval between the two turns of test taking for every student.

B. Instruments

Two tests were utilized for the purpose of this research. One was a psychological test, which distinguished the extrovert students from the introverts. Among various psychological tests measuring the degree of extroversion and introversion, "Izong Test" proved to be the most appropriate one. It was administered and the results of the administered test were interpreted, afterwards extrovert students were selected. The second one was a reliable and valid IELTS test of speaking to measure the speaking ability of the students.

1. Assessment Criteria for the IELTS Speaking Test

There are numerous criteria for evaluating a speaking test, like the ability to open, maintain and end a conversation, and many others. But the IELTS test used in the current research needs short answers in a way that the compilers of the test (Ramezanee and Hakimi, 2004) suggest the following criteria for scoring the test, all were used in scoring the present test. Turn taking, Feedback, Intelligibility, Ability to communicate effectively, Ability to use appropriate range of vocabulary, General fluency, Structural accuracy, Speaker's purpose, Speed, Relevance were the criteria for scoring speaking.

C. Data Collection

Izong test was administered and the results of it were interpreted and showed the extrovert and the introvert students. To neutralize the highly likely influence of this variable, all the subjects were chosen among the extrovert. Equal number of male and female extrovert students, with nearly the same score in Konkoor Exam, who belonged to the families with nearly the same amount of income, with no experience of attending the language institutes were selected as the subjects of the study.

Izong Test along with IELTS Speaking Test was administered at the beginning of the semester in Qom University. The subjects of the study were instructed how to take the test and it was explained for them why this test was being done. A time was set for 10 male students to come and take Izong Test; in the second place, IELTS test was taken by each student individually; finally, the students were paired off to have a discussion on some specified subjects, sometimes groups were composed of more students. The interview was recorded completely. The same process was conducted for the female students in Qom University to go. After finishing this part, all the above-mentioned stages were exactly done in Mashhad University. Since this research could be best done by a longitudinal method, at the end of the semester again the same IELTS Speaking Test was taken by the same students.

D. Data Analysis

After explaining to the raters what was the research about and the way the test was supposed to be scored based on the mentioned criteria, IELTS Speaking Test was scored by three different raters in order to increase the reliability of scoring to increase inter-rater reliability. At the end of the process of scoring, there were two sets of scores for every student, and each set was composed of three scores obtained through 3 turns of scoring by three raters. The average of each set of scores was calculated. Then the progress of first average score obtained by every student was compared with his/her own second obtained average score. Finally, the progress of students in the university in which single-sex education existed was compared to the progress of students in university with coeducation system.

III. RESULTS

Then IELTS Test of Speaking was administered two times (at the beginning of the semester as a pre-test and at the end of the semester as a post-test). Two sets of means acquired thorough scoring the test by three raters were calculated; the means for each of four groups of students (two groups of male students along with two groups of female students from the two different systems of education) were compared together. To compare the results of the test, that is

comparing two means for every subject in each group, matched t-test was applied (P>0.05). The results of the calculations are shown at the following tables:

TABLE 1.
FEMALE STUDENTS' SCORES AT THE SINGLE-SEX UNIVERSITY

X1	X2	D	D²	
60.6	71.3	10.7	114.49	Student1
78.6	92.3	13.7	187.69	Student 2
71.6	81	9.4	88.36	Student 3
50.6	48.3	-2.3	5.29	Student 4
62	64.3	2.3	5.29	Student 5

TABLE 2.
MATCHED T-TEST ON THE SCORES OF FEMALE STUDENTS AT THE SINGLE-SEX UNIVERSITY

T-critical	One-tailed Hypothesis	d.f	T-Observed	P>0.05
2.132	0.05	4	-1.03	

The observed "t" acquired from the group of male students who studied in a single-sex university (see table 2), was significant (P> 0.05); Comparing this figure with the observed "t" value for male students who studied under coeducation system for whom the observed "t" was not significant (see table 4), the first hypothesis was rejected. Then it could be said that coeducation played a negative role in developing speaking ability of Iranian EFL students.

TABLE 3.
MALE STUDENTS' SCORES AT THE SINGLE-SEX UNIVERSITY

X1	X2	D	D²	
54.6	57.3	2.7	7.29	Student 6
97.3	102.6	5.3	28.09	Student7
71.6	78	6.4	40.96	Student 8
45.6	49	3.4	11.56	Student 9
56.3	62	5.7	32.49	Student 10

The progress made in developing speaking ability for female students was not significant (see table 1 & 3).

TABLE 4.
MATCHED T-TEST ON THE SCORES OF MALE STUDENTS AT THE SINGLE-SEX UNIVERSITY

T-critical	One-tailed Hypothesis	d.f	T-Observed	P>0.05
2.132	0.05	4	-2.42	

TABLE 5.
FEMALE STUDENTS' SCORES AT THE CO-ED UNIVERSITY

X1	X2	D	D²	
55.3	55	-0.3	0.09	Student 11
61	70	9	81	Student 12
37.3	34.6	-2.7	7.29	Student 13
51	53.6	2.6	6.74	Student 14
37.3	36	-1.3	1.69	Student 15

TABLE 6.
MATCHED T-TEST ON THE SCORES OF MALE STUDENTS AT THE CO-ED UNIVERSITY

T-critical	One-tailed Hypothesis	d.f	T-Observed	P>0.05
2.132	0.05	4	-0.23	

TABLE 7.
MALE STUDENTS' SCORES AT THE CO-ED UNIVERSITY

X1	X2	D	D²	
40.6	38	-2.6	6.74	Student 16
49	49.3	0.3	0.09	Student 17
54.3	62	7.7	59.29	Student 18
59.3	63	3.7	13.69	Student 19
34.6	39.3	4.7	22.09	Student 20

TABLE 8.
MALE STUDENTS' SCORES AT THE CO-ED UNIVERSITY

T-critical	One-tailed Hypothesis	d.f	T-Observed	P>0.05
2.132	0.05	4	-0.69	

Also the second hypothesis which posited that gender plays no role in developing speaking ability of students was rejected, since for male Iranian student, coeducation proved to have a negative influence on speaking ability.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In the current study it is revealed that single sex education works better for male students in Iran, a country in which coeducation is somehow unfamiliar to the students. The findings of the current study are somehow in line with one of the first great studies on segregated education which was done by Dale (1969, 1971, 1974) in the UK. His research revealed that coed offered the most favorable readiness for adult life. Regarding academic performance, he found that girls' educational advancement was not disadvantaged by coeducation; yet, the results indicated some disadvantages for girls, particularly in mathematics. A line of parallel researches done in the UK in the 1970s and 1980s also, showed that female students tended to have higher progress in segregated schools (Ormerod, 1975; Deem, 1984).

The results of the current study confirmed what Riordan (1994) had found who argued an advantage to single-sex education among African American and Hispanic schools. Yet the results disconfirmed the findings of Garcia (1998) who argues no significant variation in success between the two sectors for African American and Asian girls was observed.

In the current study it is proved that male students benefit more from a single sex environment of education. It is in line with some studies which have indicated that boys contribute more to classroom interaction and dominate in "hands-on" activities, like computer sessions and laboratory work (Askew & Ross, 1988; Howe, 1997; Francis, 2004).

It was concluded that, for male students regarding the progress in speaking ability, segregated system of education is better; coeducation hinders their progress. For female students, no considerable results were acquired. Therefore, the first hypothesis positing that there was no relationship between coeducation and students speaking ability was rejected. Furthermore, the second hypothesis positing that students' gender played no role in their progress in speaking ability was rejected, since female students studying under the two different systems of education, less or more progress the same, but, for male student, this sameness was not observed.

In case further and wider studies can prove the negative influence of coeducation on speaking ability of students or even on the total outcome of teaching and learning in Iran and similar countries, reconsidering the system of education, seems to be of vital importance.

This research was limited on several ways. Due to lack of universities which enjoyed single-sex education system in Iran, the research was limited to only two universities; students might have chosen a religious city like Qom for religious beliefs which can be influential on the quality and quantity of studies. The number of the subjects who were examined might not be high enough to administer a proficiency test. These two factors, along with maybe other unknown factors to the researcher, jeopardize the genralizability of the results of the research. But regarding the vast and various researches done on the relationship between coeducation and academic performance, the results of which mostly showed the negative effects of this system, more research and investigations into the results of practicing this system of education, seems to be necessary. Considering the increasing value of learning English language, the importance of developing speaking ability increases, hence the necessity for more research. Recent years have seen a rebirth of segregated education (Datnow & Hubbard, 2002; Younger & Warrington, 2005). That is the reason for a number of countries, including New Zealand, Australia and Ireland that continue to have a noticeable number of segregated schools. In other countries, such as USA and the UK, there has been an increase in single-sex schools, or more usually in single-sex classes, as a reaction to perceived underachievement by boys. All in all, the results show a probability of the need for reconsidering educational environments.

REFERENCES

[1]   ACERWebsite: Retrieved May 2, 2005 from http://www.acer.edu.au/mediacentre/MR_singlesexschool. 04.00. html.
[2]   Askew, S., and C. Ross. (1988). Boys Don't Cry: Boys and Sexism in Education. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
[3]   Brutsaert, H., & Bracke, P. (1994). Gender context of the elementary school: Sex differences in affecting outcomes. *Educational Studies*, 20(1), 3-11. EJ 492 031.
[4]   Cairns, E. (1990). The relationship between adolescent perceived self-competence and attendance at single-sex secondary school. *British Journal of Educational Psychology*, Jun; 60 (Pt 2):210-11.
[5]   Clare Dean. (1998). "Inspectors say girls' schools are the best," Times Educational Supplement, October 9, 1998.
[6]   Cornelius Riordan. (1990). Girls and Boys in School: together or separate? New York: Teachers College Press.
[7]   Dale, R. (1969). A Research Study in Pupil-Teacher Relationships. Vol. 1 of Mixed or Single-sex Schooling? London: Routledge / Kegan Paul.
[8]   Dale, R. (1971). Some Social Aspects. Vol. 2 of Mixed or Single-sex Schooling? London: Routledge / Kegan Paul.
[9]   Dale, R. (1974). Attainment, Attitudes and Overview. Vol. 3 of Mixed or Single-sex Schooling? London: Routledge/Kegan Paul.
[10] Datnow, A., and L. Hubbard. (2008). What is the place for single sex schooling in public education? Teachers College Record, October 13.
[11] Deem, R. ed. (1984). Coeducation Reconsidered. Milton Keynes: Open University Press.
[12] Edison Trickett, Penelope Trickett. (1982). The independent school experience: Aspects of the normative environment of single-sex and coed secondary schools. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 74(3), 374-381.
[13] Finn, J. D. (1980). Sex differences in educational outcomes: A cross-national study. *Sex Roles*, 6, 9-25.
[14] Francis, B. (2000). Boys, Girls and Achievement. London: Routledge Falmer.
[15] Francis, B. (2004). Classroom interaction and access: Whose space is it? In *Gender in Education* 3-19: A Fresh Approach, ed. H. Claire, 42-49. London: Association of Teachers and Lecturers.

[16] Harker, R., & Nash, R. (1997). School type and education of girls: Co-ed or girls only? Paper presented at the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago. ED 410 633.

[17] Howe, C. (1997). Gender and Classroom Interaction: A Research Review. Edinburgh: SCRE.

[18] John O'Leary. (2000). "Exam should be taken a year early," The Times (London), September 1, 2001. For scores for the year 2000, see John O'Leary, "Single-sex schools top exam league," The Times (London), September 2.

[19] Judith O'Reilly. (2000). "Mixed school hits new heights with single-sex classes." Sunday Times (London), August 20.

[20] Julie Henry. (2001). "Help for the boys helps the girls," Times Educational Supplement (London, UK), June 1.

[21] Langdon, Emily. (2001). "Women's Colleges Then and Now: Access Then, Equity Now." ` 76(1), 5-26.

[22] Lee, V. E., & Lockheed, M. M. (1990). The effects of single-sex schooling on achievement and attitudes in Nigeria. *Comparative Educational Review, 34*(2), 209-231. EJ 412 239.

[23] LePore, P. C., & Warren, J. R. (1997). A comparison of single-sex and coeducational Catholic secondary schooling: Evidence from the National Educational Longitudinal Study of 1988. *American Educational Research Journal, 34*(3), 485-511. EJ 551 431.

[24] Marlene Hamilton. (1985). Performance levels in science and other subjects for Jamaican adolescents attending single-sex and coeducational high schools, *International Science Education*, 69(4): 535-547.

[25] McCloskey, John. (2001). Coeducation Revisited for the 21st Century. First presented at the First Panamerican Congress on Family and Education in Monterrey, Mexico, on May 23-26, l994.

[26] ORMEROD, M. B. (1975). Subject preference and choice in coeducational and single-sex secondary schools. *British Journal of Educational Psychology* 45:257-267.

[27] Ramezanee, A. and Hakimi, K. (2004) The Speaking Test of IELTS (p: 3). Rahnama Publication, Iran.

[28] Richards, J. C., & Schmidt, R. (2002). Dictionary of Language Teaching & Applied Linguistics. Pearson Education Limited (Third Edition) Pearson Education Limited.

[29] Riordan Cornelius. (1990). Girls and Boys in School: together or separate? New York: Teachers College Press.

[30] Riordan, C. (1994). Single-gender schools: Outcomes for Africans and Hispanic Americans. *Research in Sociology of Education and Socialization* 10:177-206.

[31] Robert H. Bork. (2003). Slouching Towards Gomorrah: Modern Liberalism and American Decline. HarperCollins Publishers (p. 18).

[32] Rosalind Rosenberg. (1982). Beyond Separate Spheres: Intellectual Roots of Modem Feminism (New Haven: Yale University Press): 30-31; Elizabeth Lee Ihle, "The Development of Coeducation in Major Southern State Universities" (Ph.D. thesis, University of Tennessee, Knoxville, 1976): 101-178; Patricia A. Stringer and Irene Thompson, eds., Stepping Off the Pedestal: Academic Women in the South (New York Modem Language Association, (1982): 148-49.

[33] Rozalind Rosenberg. (1982). Women and Higher Education. Essayes from the Mount Holyoke College Sesquicenntenial Symposia, Edited by John Mack Faragher and Florence Howe, Barnard College, New York.

[34] Schmitt, Norbert. (2002). An Introduction to Applied Linguistics. Co-published in United States of America by Oxford University Press, New York.

[35] V. E. Lee and A. Bryk. (1986). Effects of single-sex secondary schools on student achievement and attitudes. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 78,381-395.

[36] V. E. Lee and H. M. Marks. (1990). Sustained effects of the single-sex secondary school experience on attitudes, behaviors, and values in college. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 82:578-592.

[37] YO UNG, D. J., AND B. J. FRASER. (1990). Science achievement of girls in single-sex and coeducational schools. *Research in Science and Technology Education* 8:5-20.

Mohammad Reza Ebrahimi was born in Iran, in 1979. He did his B.A. in teaching English in Vali-e Asr University of Rafsanjan, Kerman, Iran in 2002. He did his M.A. in the same field (teaching English) in Ferdowsi University of Mashhad (Iran) in 2006. Now he is a PhD candidate in teaching English in Chabahar Maritime University, Sistan and Balouchestan, Iran.

He is a UNIVERSITY INSTRUCTOR in Islamic Azad University, Bam Branch, Iran. His area of interest is psycholinguistics and also teacher Education. He has published some textbooks and academic papers in journals and conferences like: Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research (3(1), (Jan., 2015)) Urmia, Iran.

Nahid Yarahmadzehi was born in Iran, in 1977. She completed her BA in English Language Pedagogy at Sistan & Baluchestan University, Zahedan, Iran in 1999. For her MA (finished in 2002) and PhD (finished in 2009) in General Linguistics, she studied at Tehran University, Iran.

Dr. Yarahmadzehi is currently teaching in Chabahar Maritime University, Chabahar, Iran. She is interested in Syntactic Analysis & Argumentation, Sociolinguistics, Psycholinguistics, Dialectology, Learners' language analysis, discourse Analysis, and General Linguistics. She has published a number of articles in different journals including English Language & Literature Studies, International Journal of English Linguistics, Journal of Language Researches, SiSAl Journal, and Iranian Journal of Linguistics.

Promoting Foreign Language Learners' Writing: Comparing the Impact of Oral Conferencing and Collaborative Writing

Mania Nosratinia
Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Iran

Niousha Nikpanjeh
Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This study was an attempt to compare the effect of oral conferencing alongside collaborative writing on writing ability of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners. For this purpose, a piloted sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) was administered to 90 intermediate female EFL learners, between 20 and 32 years old ($M_{age} = 26$). The results of this test enabled the researchers to select 60 homogenous individuals who were then randomly assigned into two experimental groups of 30 named "oral conferencing group" and "collaborative writing group". To ensure the homogeneity among the participants in terms of their writing ability before the treatment, their scores on the writing section of the PET test were analyzed in isolation and it was considered as the pretest of the study. Oral conferencing included the discussions and negotiations among the participants and the teacher before and after writing activities followed by live teacher-student as well as student-student feedbacks. In the collaborative writing group, the participants wrote compositions in groups based on the same topics introduced in the oral conferencing group. At the end, both experimental groups were given another piloted writing section of the PET test as the posttest. The analysis of the test scores using an independent samples *t*-test and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) revealed that there is a significant difference between the effect of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability. It was concluded that the ability of EFL learners' writing was more affected by applying oral conferencing rather than collaborative writing.

Index Terms—collaborative writing, oral conferencing, writing ability

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is regarded as an instrument through which people communicate with one another in time and space, transmitting their culture from one generation to another. Writing as one of the main and productive language skills, which was once considered as the domain of well-educated people, is becoming an essential tool for everyone in today's community (Cushing Weigle, 2002).

In this perspective writing as a significant requirement for EFL learners is regarded as one of the most important communicative skills in English language learning (Biria & Jafari, 2013; Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989; Hayes & Flower, 1986). Researchers have found that foreign language learners find it painstaking to write in the target language, producing less fluent sentences and encountering difficulties in the revisions of their written work (Fatemi, 2008; Hyland, 2003; McCoy, 2003; Tan, 2007). However, these difficulties are not only attributed to their linguistic abilities but they mostly lay in the nature of writing process itself (Chih, 2008).

Rooted in the ideas introduced in the process approach to writing, the provision of second party feedback, usually by the teacher, on learners' drafts is now given a higher level of attention (Williams, 2002). Accordingly, the provision of written corrective feedback on second/foreign language writing has been regarded as an integral component of writing programs (Mirzaii, 2012).

Oral conferencing is considered one type of corrective feedback (Mirzaii, 2012). According to Bayraktar (2009), oral conferencing is identified and "referred to as response sessions, assisted performance, face-to-face interaction, one-to-one teaching, conversation about the student's paper, and meaningful contact" (p. 11). Oral conferencing is advantageous in a way that teachers can foster learners' reflection on their own learning process; elicit language performances on particular tasks, skills, or other language points as well as helping them to develop a better self-image (Brown & Hudson, 1998).

Besides, oral conferencing is believed to assist teachers in creating a collaborative atmosphere, encouraging learners to actively engage in practicing writing (Ewert, 2009). Collaboration in writing has been drawing an increasing attention in language teaching and assessment (DiCamilla & Anton, 1997; Storch, 2005; Swain & Lapkin, 1998). According to Reither (1989) "thinking of writing as a collaborative process presents more precise ways to consider what writers do when they write, not just with their texts, but also with their language, their personae, and their readers" (p.

624). Collaborative writing requires learners to utilize a range of social skills that can help foster a sense of accountability, cooperation, and community (Murray, 1992; Savova & Donato, 1991; Villamil & De Guerrero, 1996). Moreover, collaborative writing, like any other collaborative activity, provides learners with the opportunity to give and receive immediate feedback on language, an opportunity which, as claimed by Vanderburg (2006) is "missing when learners write individually" (p. 378). Learners' working in groups, particularly in collaborative groups, constructs new ways of understanding and develops greater skills (Web, 1989).

However, writing is generally considered as an individual activity through which ideas are transferred from the writer's mind to the reader's. Therefore, quite few researches have been conducted to examine the impact of corrective feedback on productive English skills, particularly writing. As a result, this study aimed to investigate the comparative effect of oral conferencing, as a type of corrective feedback, and collaborative writing on EFL learner's writing ability.

To fulfill this objective, the research question, stated below, was formulated:

Q: *Is there any significant difference between the impact of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability?*

Accordingly, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

H0: There is no significant difference between the impact of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability.

II. METHOD

Participants

The 60 participants of this study were chosen from Hermes Institute in Tehran. They were female EFL learners at the intermediate level whose mother tongues was Persian and their age was between 20 to 32 years old ($M_{age = 26}$). They had been exposed to English courses for about 5 years in average. These participants were selected conveniently and homogenized through a piloted PET test among 90 learners. They were randomly assigned into two experimental groups of 30 named "oral conferencing group" and "collaborative writing group". To ensure the homogeneity among the participants of the two groups in terms of their writing ability before the treatment, their scores on the writing section of the PET test were analyzed in isolation. Before administrating the PET test, a group of 30 students with almost similar characteristics -age, gender and proficiency level- to the target sample were used for the piloting of this test and the writing posttest. In addition to one of the researchers, as a teacher and rater, another trained rater participated in the assessment of writing section of PET test.

Instrumentation

In order to accomplish the purpose of the study, the following instruments were utilized:

The Preliminary English Test

The Preliminary English Test (PET) is now internationally recognized as a reliable test calibrated for the elementary level of English language proficiency. Being created by the University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations in England, the exam intends to be unbiased regarding test takers' linguistic backgrounds and nationalities. In addition to the knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, the PET test deals with all of the four skills of language, namely Reading, Writing, Listening, and Speaking. The PET test contains 125 items, and it takes 125 minutes to take the whole test. In the present study, however, the speaking section of the PET test was not used due to the limitations imposed by the institute officials.

The Writing Scale of PET

The employed rating scale for rating the PET test's writing section in the present study was created by Cambridge, called *The General Mark Schemes for Writing*. Using the criterion stated in this rating scale, the writing scores ranged from 0 to 5.

Writing Pretest

In order to make sure that the participants in the two groups belonged to the same population in terms of writing ability, the participants' scores of the writing section of the PET test were analyzed in isolation and used as the writing pretest. This section consisted of three parts followed by 7 questions. The participants were required to fulfill the tasks of the test by using their lexical and syntactic abilities, such as writing letters, stories, and short messages.

Touchstone 3

Touchstone, by Michael McCarthy, Jeanne McCarten, and Helen Sandiford (2005) has been published by the press syndicate of the University of Cambridge. This textbook is argued to offer an innovative and novel approach to EFL learning and teaching. Focusing on the North American English, this textbook has employed the *Cambridge International Corpus* which is composed of a huge amount of conversations and written texts. This book contains all language skills and sub-skills, and offers exciting ideas for personalized, learner-centered interaction. In this study, the students dealt with three units of the textbook, units 6, 7, and 8.

Compositions

The participants were asked to write six compositions during the treatment sessions. They had 40 minutes to write about each predetermined argumentative topics. The topics of the compositions were the same across two experimental groups. The compositions consisted of 150 to 250 words and had to be written in descriptive voice. The compositions should have three parts -introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.

In oral conferencing group each student should write her composition at home. In each session four or five students read their compositions in classroom. Contrary to oral conferencing group, the students in collaborative writing group were asked to write their compositions collaboratively in classroom.

Oral Conferencing Checklist

This checklist is designed by Moradan and Hedayati (2011). It contains a set of questions to be asked from all participants in oral conferencing group regarding pre and post writing activities during the treatment period. It is the result of discussions between the aforementioned researchers and their five coworkers in their study. It starts with some general questions regarding the participants' opinions about their writing abilities prior to the writing activity, and it ends with some questions about participants' ideas regarding their weaknesses and strengths in writing activity.

Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfiel, and Hughey's (1981) ESL Composition Profile

This instrument is an analytic scoring scale and consists of five subcategories of content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Each subcategory is in detail and the scoring system is clearly defined. The total score is calculated from 100 and the proportions of scoring are predetermined in the scale according to participants' performance in each part.

Writing Posttest

The posttest which was administered at the end of the study was the writing section of another version of PET. It was piloted in advance. This test was given to the participants for comparing the participants' writing ability in terms of the effect of both oral conferencing and collaborative writing.

III. PROCEDURE

Prior to the experiment, the PET test and writing post-test were standardized by piloting among a group of 30 female students from Hermes Institute in Tehran. These EFL learners had almost similar characteristics of the main participants. The writing section of the PET test was scored, using the rating scale stated earlier, by the one of the researchers and another qualified rater. The researchers observed a consistency between the scores provided by the raters on the writings. This inter-rater reliability index acknowledged the existence of an acceptable consistency between the raters.

The piloted PET test was given to 90 intermediate level female students who were selected conveniently. Among them, 60 students were chosen whose score fall between one standard deviation above and below the mean. The 60 subjects were divided randomly into two experimental groups of 30 named "oral conferencing group" and "collaborative writing group".

To ensure that the two groups were homogeneous in terms of their writing ability, the scores of the writing section of the PET test were analyzed in isolation and were used as the pretest scores of the participants. Both groups received the same amount of instruction. The course consisted of 10 sessions of 90 minutes spanning over a period of five weeks.

One of the researchers (functioning as the teacher) tried to teach the relevant grammatical points as well as the essential vocabularies alongside of language skills with special focus on the writing skill. Participants were also given the same topics for their compositions and they were taught how to write a composition including introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion. Compositions were rated according to the Jacobs et al.'s (1981) ESL Composition Profile by the one of the researchers (the teacher) and the other rater.

Oral Conferencing Group

Oral conferencing in this study included the discussions and negotiations among the participants and the teacher before and after writing activities followed by live teacher-student as well as student-student feedbacks. To do this, the Anderson Model (2000) and Oral Conferencing Checklist designed by Moradan and Hedayati (2011) were used.

Anderson (2000, as cited in Bayraktar, 2009) states that teacher-student writing conferences generally fall into the following four types:

1) Rehearsal conferences which help students find idea to write about;

2) Drafting conferencing which assists students develop their ideas and determine which genre and style they want to write in;

3) Revision conferences which help student improve their initial drafts; and

4) Editing conferences whose main focus lies in helping students become better editors.

In this group students should write their compositions at home. Based on the feedback they had already received regarding the conferences in the class they would revise their writings. After completing the writing tasks, the students were asked to conference regarding their ideas, weaknesses, and strengths during the writing task.

The students in oral conferencing group were concentrated on the overall meaning and organization of their writing, and also on the vocabularies, language use, and the mechanics of writing. All the conferences conducted orally. Oral Conferencing Checklist designed by Moradan and Hedayati (2011) were used for this purpose. The teacher asked questions and gave students enough time to speak about their problems and to provide students with appropriate feedback.

Collaborative Writing Group

Whether to have students choose their own partners or they should be assigned at random into groups is the first major consideration in applying collaborative writing method (Mulligan & Garofalo, 2011). Although instructors may present a better idea for matching students in groups, if the students choose their own partners themselves it would be

more effective for cooperative learning as a basic goal of collaborative writing (Cote, 2006). Based on this, the students were divided into 5 groups of 6 in order to write the assigned compositions and provide each other with feedback regarding their weaknesses and strengths.

Contrary to oral conferencing group, the students in collaborative writing group were asked to write their compositions collaboratively in classroom. In other words, all members of a group were responsible for making a final piece of writing. The same procedure which was used for familiarizing students in oral conferencing group with how to write a composition was also used for students in collaborative writing group. The teacher had to provide them with topic then they should go through the process of writing collaboratively which was based on the proposed steps of Mulligan and Garofalo (2011). Based on the requirements of this study and limitations which were imposed on the researchers by the institute officials, some modifications on the Mulligan and Garofalo's model (2011) was done as follows:

(1) Students chose their partners themselves;

(2) All the members of a group brainstormed ideas about the target topic and organized the information into coherent groupings;

(3) All the members of a group did outlining, planning, and crafting.

(4) The whole writing (composition) was read in the classroom by one of the members of the group.

(5) The teacher checked the compositions based on Jacobs et al.'s (1981) ESL Composition Profile, and pointing out structural and organization errors, and providing the related group with comments and suggestions.

At the end of the treatment phase, the participants of both groups sat for the posttest that was the piloted writing section of the PET test which took about 55 minutes. The result of the test was evaluated by the two raters based on the PET rating scale.

IV. RESULTS

This study set out to compare the effect of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability. The design of this study is quasi experimental. The independent variable has two modalities, oral conferencing and collaborative writing. The dependent variable is writing ability. The two control variables are the language proficiency and gender of the participants. In order to answer the research question of this study both descriptive and inferential statistics were taken in the piloting phase and administration, respectively.

Following the piloting of the PET test, the mean scores, the standard deviation of scores, and the reliability indices were calculated. This calculation demonstrated that the mean score was 53.24 and the standard deviation was 8.74. The item analysis revealed that there were two malfunctioning items in the test. After the deletion of the 2 malfunctioning items, the reliability of the test using Cronbach alpha was .94. The inter-rater reliability was calculated using the Pearson correlation coefficient, showing the existence of a significant correlation. Accordingly, the same raters could be used for rating the following administrations of the test.

After the procedure of piloting the PET test, it became an instrument to homogenize the students for this study. 90 EFL learners took part in the test administration. Following the administration, the descriptive statistics were calculated. This showed that the mean was 55. 24 and the standard deviation was 9.20. The reliability of the PET test in this actual administration was .89. In the next phase, the scores of the participants on the PET writing section were analyzed in isolation in order to inspect the homogeneity of the participants in the two groups before the treatment. The two groups' mean scores were almost the same (Oral conferencing = 10.6000, Collaborative writing = 10.0033). Thus, one can conclude that there was no noticeable difference between the means of the two groups at the outset of the study. Also, according to the results of a t-test, there was not a significant difference between the two experimental groups regarding their writing ability (t (58) = .77, $p > 0.05$) which confirms their homogeneity (Table 1).

TABLE 1:
T-TEST RESULTS OF EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS ON WRITING PRE-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Pretest	Equal variances assumed	2.85	.096	.779	58	.439	.56667	.72727	-.88913	2.02246
	Equal variances notassumed			.779	55.296	.439	.56667	.72727	-.89065	2.02398

The results of the Pearson correlations indicated that there were significant agreements between the two raters who rated the subjects' writings on the posttest (r (58) = .94, $p < .05$ representing a large effect size) for the writing part 2 and posttest of writing (r (58) = .96, $p < .05$ representing a large effect size) for the writing part 3.

Testing Assumptions

In this study the data were analyzed through an independent t-test and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) which have two common assumptions; normality and homogeneity of variances. The latter will be discussed below when reporting

the main results. As reported in Table 2, the skewness and kurtosis ratios were within the ranges of +/- 1.96, confirming the normality of the data.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PET OF THE TWO EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

Group		N	Skewness			Kurtosis		
		Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio	Statistic	Std. Error	Ratio
Conferencing	Reading	30	.177	.427	0.41	-.560	.833	-0.67
	PreWR	30	-.234	.427	-0.55	-.140	.833	-0.17
	LC	30	.005	.427	0.01	-1.153	.833	-1.38
	PostWR	30	-.559	.427	-1.31	.380	.833	0.46
	Proficiency	30	.148	.427	0.35	-.733	.833	-0.88
Collaborative	Reading	30	.479	.427	1.12	-.558	.833	-0.67
	PreWR	30	.098	.427	0.23	-1.149	.833	-1.38
	LC	30	-.188	.427	-0.44	-.317	.833	-0.38
	PostWR	30	-.080	.427	-0.19	-1.405	.833	-1.69
	Proficiency	30	.069	.427	0.16	-.470	.833	-0.56

The results of the independent *t*-test (t (58) = .16 *p* > .05, r = .021 representing a weak effect size) showed that there was not any significant difference between two groups' mean score on the PET test (Table 3). As a result, it was concluded that the two groups were homogeneous regarding their general language proficiency prior to the treatment.

TABLE 3:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST, PET BY GROUPS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	2.151	.148	.15858	.875	.267	1.689		-3.11	3.64
Equal variances not assumed			.15855.826.875	.267	1.689			-3.11	3.65

As reported in Table 3, it should be pointed out that:

a) The assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's F = 2.15, P > .05). Therefore, the first row was reported; and

b) The negative lower bound value of 95% confidence interval, i.e. -3.11 indicated that the difference between the two groups' means on the PET can be zero.

The Research Question

In order to compare the effect of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability, the following research question was formulated:

Q. Is there any significant difference between the effect of collaborative writing and oral conferencing on EFL learners' writing ability?

To address this research question, an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was run to compare the oral conferencing and collaborative writing groups' mean scores on the writing posttest while controlling for the potential effects of participants' initial writing ability (the pretest). The ANCOVA has two main assumptions; homogeneity of regression slopes and linear relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate.

The assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes assumes that the relationship between the dependent variable (posttest of writing) and covariate (pretest of writing) shows the same regression slopes across the two groups. The regression line for collaborative writing group and oral conferencing group did not show any interaction, i.e. they did not cross each other Figure 1. Based on these results it can be concluded that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met.
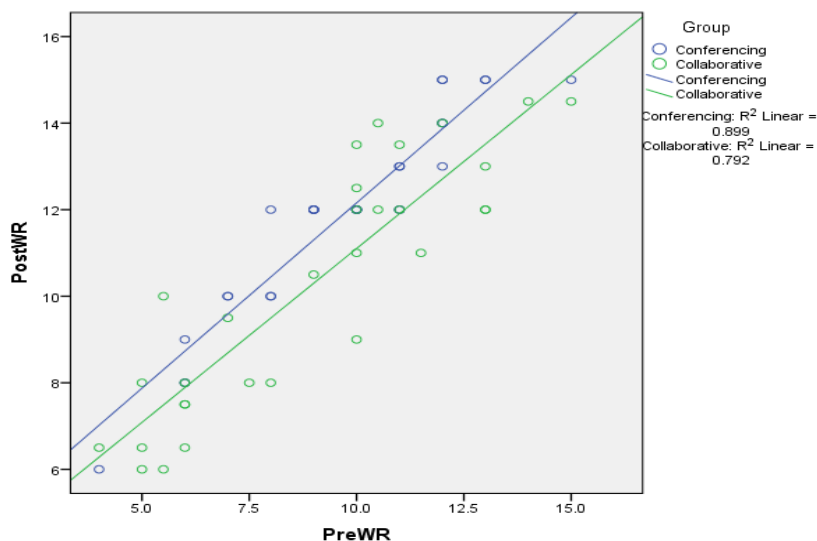
Figure 1: Homogeneity of Regression Slopes; Posttest of Writing by Groups Controlling for Pretest

The linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate can be tested by examining the spread of dots around the diagonals. If the dots spread around the diagonal, it can be concluded that the second assumption is also met. The spread of dots for both groups were close to the diagonals (Figure 2).
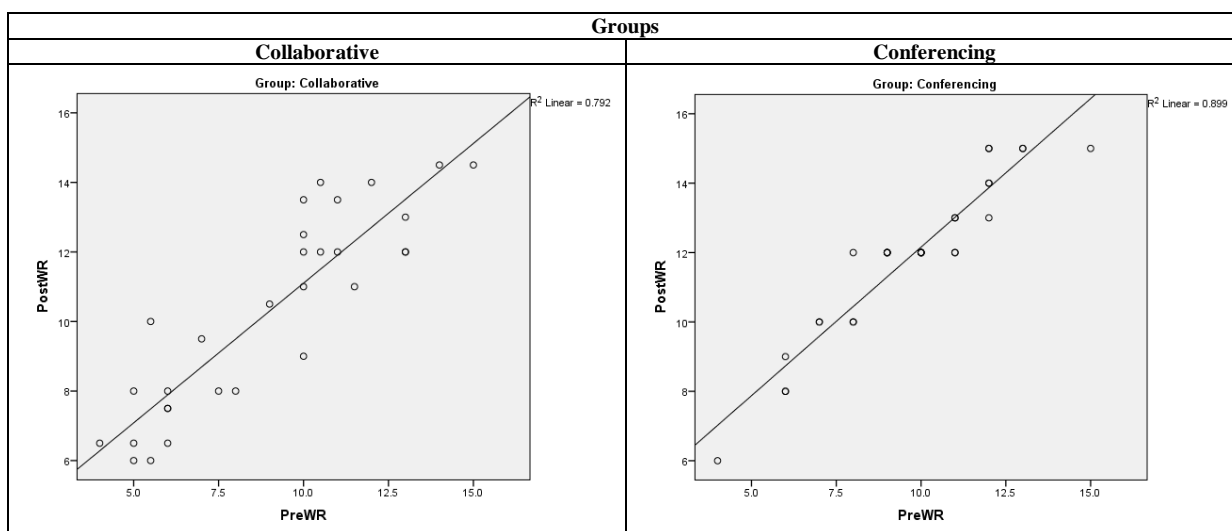
Figure 2: Assumption of Linear Relationship between Dependent Variable and Covariate

Before discussing the results of the ANCOVA, it should be stated that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was not met (Levene's F = 8.93, P < .05). As noted by Bachman (2005), Filed (2013) and Pallant (2011) in case the sample size is equal, there is no need to worry about the violation of this assumption.

As displayed in Table 4 the oral conferencing group (M = 11.61, SE = .19) had a higher mean than the collaborative writing group (M = 10.58, SE = .19) on the posttest of writing after removing the effect of pretest.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS, POSTTEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS CONTROLLING FOR PRETEST

Group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Conferencing	11.612a	.193	11.225	11.998
Collaborative	10.588a	.193	10.202	10.975

a. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: PreWR = 9.35.

The results of ANCOVA (F (1, 57) = 13.93, P < .05, Partial η^2 = .19 representing a large effect size) confirmed the existence of a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups on the posttest (Table 5 and Figure 3). Thus, the null-hypothesis which stated that -*There is no significant difference between the effect of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability,* was rejected.

TABLE 5:
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; POSTTEST OF WRITING BY GROUPS CONTROLLING FOR PRETEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pretest	315.761	1	315.761	284.608	.000	.833
Group	15.455	1	15.455	13.930	.000	.196
Error	63.239	57	1.109			
Total	7810.000	60				

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
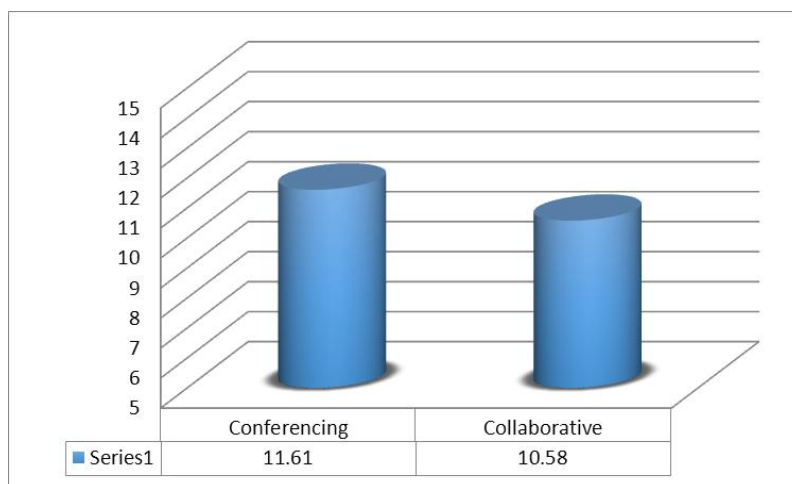
Figure 3: Posttest of writing by Groups Controlling for Pretest

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Regarding the question posed in the present study and based on the statistical analysis of the data, there is a significant difference between the effect of oral conferencing and collaborative writing on EFL learners' writing ability. The results of an independent samples *t*-test and analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) revealed that the ability of EFL learners' writing was more affected by applying oral conferencing rather than collaborative writing tasks.

This finding supports previous researches. Goldstein and Conrad (1990), for example, examined learner input and negotiation of meaning through oral conferences between one teacher and three learners of an advanced level writing class. They came to the conclusion that learners who negotiated the meaning in the conferences could make better revisions in their drafts, which in turn improved their writing. On the contrary, those learners who were not encouraged to negotiate meaning were inclined towards not making revisions or making very perfunctory revisions that did not result in improved drafts.

This finding, also, is in line with the results of Bitchener (2005) and Wallis (2010) which revealed that a better achievement in writing can be gained through oral conferencing effective feedbacks between the teacher and the student.

Furthermore, Pathey-Chavez and Ferries (1997) found that the quality of the writing can be enhanced by oral conferencing sessions which support the outcome of this study. This outcome, too, is in line with the findings of Mirzaii (2012) who conducted a study to inspect the impact of providing written corrective feedback through oral conferencing on the writing performance of Iranian intermediate-level EFL learners.

In spite of the significant improvement of participants in the oral conferencing group, the learners who received collaborative writing, also had a better performance in their writing in the posttest (As shown in Table 4), albeit insignificantly. Therefore, this result suggests that collaborative writing can also be useful in teaching writing in some contexts. This result is in line with the finding of a study by Storch (1999), indicating that collaborative tasks are more accurate compared to the tasks carried out individually. In addition, Kuiken and Vedder (2002) investigated the role of group interaction in L2 writing in a cross-sectional study. The result showed that, collaborative writing had an overall significant effect on students' L2 writing.

Pedagogical Implications

It should be noted that the aforementioned advantages identified for the use of oral conferencing can only be realized when the teacher can effectively carry out the task, i.e. offering encouragement, making specific suggestions, establishing a positive rapport, and having abilities and strategies such as appropriate interaction, effective monitoring, and supportive evaluation.

Considering the provision of feedback through oral conferencing, the students can be capable of recognizing their own errors and erroneous areas, planning their learning, and finally evaluating what they have acquired. Also, being engaged in the conferences, students needed to maintain the conversations in order to reflect on the points made by the teacher and the peers; consequently, the speaking ability of the students can be enhanced as well.

Further studies can be carried out to investigate the longer effects of instruction types on writing enhancement. In other words, future studies can adopt a longitudinal design rather than a cross-sectional one. In future research, there is a need to have a larger subject sample size. The more subjects, the greater reliability and validity will result. Also, the effect of oral conferencing can be investigated on other language skill and sub-skill performance. Apart from corrective feedback some other feedbacks i.e. electronic feedback's effect can be investigated on writing ability. Learners' individual differences such as learning styles, creativity, critical thinking, learning strategies, learning aptitude, age, gender, cultural background, background knowledge, and the affective domain are believed to play an important role in learning and using foreign or second language (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013, 2014, 2015; Zaker, 2015). Due to some restrictions, these variables have not been taken into account in the present study. Further studies are suggested to investigate these different variables.

APPENDIXES

General Mark Schemes for Writing

Mark	Criteria
5	All content elements covered appropriately. Message clearly communicated to the reader.
4	All content elements adequately dealt with. Message communicated successfully, on the whole.
3	All content elements attempted. Message requires some effort by the reader. Or One content element omitted but others clearly communicated.
2	Two content elements omitted, or successfully dealt with. Message only partly communicated to reader. Or Script may be slightly short (20-25words).
1	Little relevant content and/or message requires excessive effort by the reader, or short (10-19 words).
0	Totally irrelevant or totally incomprehensible or too short (under 10 words).

ESL COMPOSITION PROFILE

STUDENT   DATE   TOPIC

SCORE	LEVEL	CRITERIA	COMMENTS
CONTENT	30-27	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: knowledgeable • substantive • thorough development of thesis • relevant to assigned topic	
	26-22	GOOD TO AVERAGE: some knowledge of subject • adequate range • limited development of thesis • mostly relevant to topic, but lacks detail	
	21-17	FAIR TO POOR: limited knowledge of subject • little substance • inadequate development of topic	
	16-13	VERY POOR: does not show knowledge of subject • non-substantive • not pertinent • OR not enough to evaluate	
ORGANIZATION	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive	
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing	
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development	
	9-7	VERY POOR: does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	
VOCABULARY	20-18	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register	
	17-14	GOOD TO AVERAGE: adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured*	
	13-10	FAIR TO POOR: limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • *meaning confused or obscured*	
	9-7	VERY POOR: essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	
LANGUAGE USE	25-22	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • *few* errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions	
	21-18	GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions *but meaning seldom obscured*	
	17-11	FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • *meaning confused or obscured*	
	10-5	VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate	
MECHANICS	5	EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing	
	4	GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*	
	3	FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • *meaning confused or obscured*	
	2	VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate	

TOTAL SCORE   READER   COMMENTS

Oral Conferencing Checklist
Directions:
   Ask the following questions in a comfortable, face to face setting. The teacher should assure students that he/she is only interested in their thoughts strengths and weaknesses in order to help them on writing. The teacher can ask students to elaborate their answers by asking questions such as:
   - Can you tell me more about it?

- What else do you suggest?

Ask following questions at the very first conference:
- What do you think about your writing ability?
- Do you think you are a successful writer?
- Who is a successful writer?
- What do you do if you have problem in writing?
- What strategies do you use to improve your writing?

Ask the following question when each paragraph is written:
- What is your strength?
- What is your weakness?
- Do you think you have been a successful writer?
- What will you do to improve your paragraph?

Topic sentence
- What is the main idea you want to talk about?
- Is your main idea mentioned in the topic sentence?

Support
- Do you think you have been successful in convincing the reader?
- Are your supports convincing enough?

Coherence
- Are your supports related to the topic sentence (main idea)?

For the Purpose of This Study the Checklist Is Categorized as Follows:

A) Ask the following questions at the very first conference:
- What do you think about your writing ability?
- Do you think you are a successful writer?
- Who is a successful writer?
- What do you do if you have problem in writing?
- What strategies do you use to improve your writing?

B) Ask the following questions when each paragraph is written:
- What is your strength?
- What is your weakness?
- Do you think you have been a successful writer?
- What will you do to improve your paragraph?
- Can you tell me more about it?
- What else do you suggest?

C) Topic sentence
- What is the main idea you want to talk about?
- Is your main idea mentioned in the topic sentence?

D) Support
- Do you think you have been successful in convincing the reader?
- Are your supports convincing enough?

E) Coherence
- Are your supports related to the topic sentence (main idea)?

Oral Conference Sample

a) Some examples of the questions and answers between the teacher and learners in first conference:
Instructor: What do you think about your writing ability?
Learner 1: It is awful, I don't like writing.
Learner 2: I have even have problem with writing a paragraph in my mother tongue.
Instructor: Do you think you are a successful writer?
Learner: I think I can be a successful writer if I try.
Instructor: Who is a successful writer?
Learner1: A good writer is a person who reads a lot.
Learner 2: A successful writer has self-confidence.

b) Example of the questions and answers between the instructor and learners in conferences after writing each paragraph:
Instructor: What is the main idea you want to talk about?
Learner1: Um, m... I want to talk about both sides of the topic. I both agree and disagree.
Instructor: do you believe it is a good idea to write about both of them in one paragraph?
Learner2: we can write about each one of them in a separate paragraph.
Learner3: for each of them one paragraph.
Instructor: Do you think you have been successful in convincing the reader?

Learner1 reads his paragraph and hesitates.

Learner2: as a reader I am not convinced.

Learner to Learner1: What will you do to improve your paragraph?

Learner1: I can give an example. Something has happened to me.

Instructor: What is your weakness?

Learner1: I always had problem with different tenses?

Instructor: it is great that you check your writing, try to do some grammar exercises. You can ask someone else to read it and check.

Instructor: It is great that you check your writing, try to do some grammar exercises. You can ask someone else to read it and check your grammar. It is a good idea to buy newspaper, read articles and underline verbs and determine their specific tenses.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

[1]   Bayraktar, Ş. (2009). Pre-service primary teachers' ideas about Lunar Phases. *Turkish Science Education, 6*(2), 12–23.
[2]   Biria, R., Jafari, S., (2013). The impact of collaborative writing on the writing fluency of Iranian EFL learners. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *4*(1), 164-175.
[3]   Bitchener, J., Young, S., & Cameron, D. (2005). The effect of different types of corrective feedback on ESL students. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 12*(3), 191-205.
[4]   Brown, J., & Hudson, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 653-675.
[5]   Bruffee, K. A. (1995). Peer tutoring and the conversation of mankind. *Landmark Essays: Writing Centers, 9*, 87-98.
[6]   Chih, H. K. (2008). Designing an online writing system: Learning with support. *ELC Journal, 39*(3), 285-299.
[7]   Cote, R. (2006). Peer collaboration in the ESL writing classroom: A literature synthesis. Retrieved on May, 2015 from www.u.arizona.edu/~rcote/ SLAT596O/Term%20Paper.pdf.
[8]   Cushing Weigle, S. (2002). *Assessing writing*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[9]   DiCamilla, F. J., & Anton, M. (1997). Repetition in the collaborative discourse of L2 learners: A Vygotskian perspective. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 53*(4), 609-633.
[10] Ewert, D. E. (2009). L2 writing conferences: Investigating teacher talk. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 18*(4), 251-269.
[11] Ferris, D. (2003). Response to student writing: Implications for second language students. New York: Lawrence Erlbaum.
[12] Ferris, D. R. (2004). The grammar correction debate in L2 writing: Where are we and where do we go from here? and what do we do in the meantime….?. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 13*, 49-62.
[13] Field, A. (2013). Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics. London: Sage Publication.
[14] Freedman, S., & Sperling, M. (1983). Teacher student interaction in the writing conference: Response and teaching. *Annual Meeting of the Conference on College Composition and Communication 33rd*, San Francisco, CA.
[15] Goldstein, L. M., & Conrad, S. M. (1990). Student input and negotiation of meaning in ESL writing conferences. *TESOL Quarterly, 21*, 443-460.
[16] Hayes, J., & Flower, L. (1980). Identifying the organization of writing processes. In L. Gregg & E. Steinberg (Eds.), *Cognitive Processes in Writing* (pp. 45-57). Hillsdale N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.
[17] Hyland, K. (2003). Second language writing. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[18] Hyland, K., & Hyland, F. (2006). State of the art article: Feedback on second language students' writing. *Language Teaching, 39*(2) 83-101.
[19] Keh, C. L. (1990). Feedback in the writing process: A model and methods for implementation. *EFL Journal, 44(4), 294-304.*
[20] Kuntz, P. S. (1996). Beliefs about language learning: The Horwitz model. (Eric Document Reproduction Service NO. ED397649).
[21] Kuriloff, P. C. (1992). The writing consultant: Collaboration and team teaching. In S. H. McLeod & M. Soven (Eds.), *Writing Across the Curriculum: A Guide to Developing Programs* (pp. 134-153). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
[22] Madigan, C. (1988). Simulating the RFP/Proposal/Final Report cycle through software documentation. *The Computer-Assisted Composition Journal, 2*, 58-65.
[23] McCoy, M. K. (2003). Language, math, social studies, and … worms? Integrating the early childhood curriculum. *Dimensions of Early Childhood, 31*(2), 3-8.

[24] Mirzaii, M. (2012). Implicit vs. explicit vocabulary learning: Which approach serves long-term recall better? *The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies, 18*(2), 1-12.

[25] Miyazoe, T., & Anderson, T. (2010). Learning outcomes and students' perceptions of online writing: Simultaneous implementation of a forum, blog, and wiki in an EFL blended learning setting. *System, 38*, 185-199.

[26] Murray, D. M. (1985). A writer teaches writing. Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin Company.

[27] Murray, D. E. (1992). Collaborative learning as literacy event: Implications for ESL instruction. In D. Nunan (Ed.), *Collaborative language learning and teaching* (pp. 100-117). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[28] Nosratinia, M., & Zaker, A. (2013, August). Autonomous learning and critical thinking: Inspecting the association among EFL learners. Paper presented at the First National Conference on Teaching English, Literature, and Translation, Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran. Retrieved from http://www.civilica.com/Paper-TELT01-TELT01_226.html.

[29] Nosratinia, M., & Zaker, A. (2014). Metacognitive attributes and liberated progress: The association among second language learners' critical thinking, creativity, and autonomy. *SAGE Open, 4*(3), 1-10. doi: 10.1177/2158244014547178.

[30] Nosratinia, M., & Zaker, A. (2015). Boosting autonomous foreign language learning: Scrutinizing the role of creativity, critical thinking, and vocabulary learning strategies. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 4*(4), 86-97. doi: 10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.4p.86.

[31] Oh, M. T. (1996). Beliefs about language learning and foreign language anxiety: A study of American university students learning Japanese. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 57*(9), 38-58.

[32] Patthey-Chavez, G. G., & Ferris, D. R. (1997). Writing conferences and the weaving of multi-voiced texts in college composition. *Research in the Teaching of English, 31*(1), 51–90.

[33] Reither, J. A., & Vipond, D. (1989). Writing as Collaboration. *College English*, *47*, 620-628.

[34] Storch, N. (2005). Collaborative writing: Product, process, and students' reflections. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 14*(3), 153–173.

[35] Storch, N. (2011). Collaborative writing in L2 contexts: Processes, outcomes, and future directions. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*(1), 275-288.

[36] Swain, M., & Lapkin, S. (1998). Interaction and second language learning: Two adolescent French immersion students working together. *Modern Language Journal, 82*(3), 320-337.

[37] Vanderburg, R. M. (2006). Reviewing research on teaching writing based on Vygotsky's theories: What we can learn. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, *22,* 375-393.

[38] Williams, J. (2002). Undergraduate second language writers in the writing center. *Journal of Basic Writing, 21*(2), 73-91.

[39] Zaker, A. (2015). EFL learners' language learning strategies and autonomous learning: Which one is a better predictor of L2 skills? *Journal of Applied Linguistics-Dubai, 1*(1), 27-39.

Mania Nosratinia is Assistant Professor in TEFL, Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran Branch. She has been teaching at undergraduate and graduate levels in the areas of English language teaching methodology, language testing, and research methodology in language studies. She has published in national and international academic journals and presented in several national and international ELT conferences. She has been elected as the "Honor Researcher" in The 9th Festival in Honor of Islamic Azad University, at Central Tehran, Elites

Niousha Nikpanjeh holds an MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran and is an English teacher at a number of language schools. Her main areas of research interest include using innovative techniques in ELT and psycholinguistics.

Number, Gender and Tense in Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language in Saudi Arabia

Mohsen Hebah Almakrami

Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract—This research aims to investigate three linguistic aspects (Number-Gender-Tense) of Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language in Saudi Arabia which is considered as an endangered language belongs to the Semitic languages. Actually, the starting point is a personal experience toward Mehri language in Saudi Arabia. Then, the sample of study is ten old men whom are divided into two equal groups. I use quantitative and qualitative methods to observe and analyze data. In fact, I suggest many significant results for each linguistic aspect but the most ones are the following: Number, Aljudhi dialect must use the dual marker "Yathroh" for masculine and the dual marker "Yathrain" for feminine. Surprisingly, there are new four sounds in Mehri language which do not exist in Arabic phonological system- Gender, most of the verbs begin with the prefix [Di] and the suffix [-ət] is used to indicate for feminine-Tense, most of the verbs follow specific pattern such as (Past, the suffix [-ək]-Present, [CVCVC=C(O)CVC]-Future, the suffix [-onæ]. Ultimately, I hope this study has increased the knowledge about one of the endangered dialects occurred in Saudi Arabia. Further researches must be published in order to have a well-written system for Mehri language, particularly Aljudhi dialect.

Index Terms—endangered language, Mehri language, linguistic aspects (number-gender-tense), created sounds, dual, pluralization, grammatical patterns

I. INTRODUCTION

For a long time, it was known that Arabic language was the only language which was used by people who lived in the Arabian Peninsula. Later on, there was a distinctive discovery in linguistics when a new language was found in the Arabian Peninsula, particularly in Yemen, Oman and southern region of Saudi Arabia. In fact, that language which is called Mehri language is an old language with a four thousand year of existence. This development caused many linguists to study the history of this spoken language. Actually, Mehri language is considered that it is "one of the Semitic language family" (Castagna, 2012). Alrowsa (2014) reports "100 thousand people speak Mehri in Southeast Yemen, the western part of Dhofar in Oman and the southern part of Saudi Arabia". In fact, the informant reported that "there are about 20 thousand of Mehri people who live in the southern region of Saudi Arabia such as Alkharkhir and Sharoorah". Most of them live in Alkharkhir province which is 900 kilometers away from Najran city and is considered as the capital city of Mehri tribe in Saudi Arabia. For different reasons, most of them are poor and uneducated. They prefer working rather than attending public schools.

A. My First Exposure with Mehri Language

The first exposure of Mehri language was in 2009, when I was an English teacher in Ibn Taimyah intermediate school in the night program for students who couldn't be regular students in the morning program. There were two students who were isolated and didn't interact with others. Actually, I observed that they spoke another language. Frankly speaking, I was surprised and then I asked them to talk about their language which was called "Mehri Language". Personally, what they said was considered as a victory and a great success which made me proud of the interesting experience I had. In fact, what happened was the starting point of questions and research about Mehri language. Actually, table (3.1) was the first paper on Mehri language I asked the two Mehri students to present and discuss it in 2009.

TABLE (3.1):
THE FIRST WORK IN MEHRI LANGUAGE IN 2009

اللغة الإنجليزية	اللغة المهرية - مؤنث	اللغة المهرية-مذكر	اللغة العربية	الرقم
0	شي لا	شي لا	صفر	0
1	طيت	طاط	واحد	1
2	ثريت	تروه	اثنين	2
3	شهليت	تشاتيت	ثلاثة	3
4	أربا	ربوت	أربعة	4
5	خيمه	خموه	خمسة	5
6	هت	يتيت	ستة	6
7	هوبا	يبيت	سبعة	7
8	ثموني	تمنيت	ثمانية	8
9	سبا	سبت	تسعة	9
10	أوشر	أشريت	عشرة	10

B. *The Existence of Mehri People in Saudi Arabia*

In 1985, it was mentioned that Mehri people were given the permission to settle down in Saudi Arabia. During that time, there was a political negotiation between the kingdom of Saudi Arabia and the government of Yemen. Before that time, Mehri people used to travel without restrictions across the three countries Saudi Arabia, Oman and Yemen. After that date, because of political and sovereignty issues, Mehri people were geographically divided into three groups belonging to three different countries. In Saudi Arabia, Mehri people live in the southern region of Saudi Arabia that is in the northern border of Yemen.

The Geographic Locations of MSA (Simeone-Senelle, 1997)
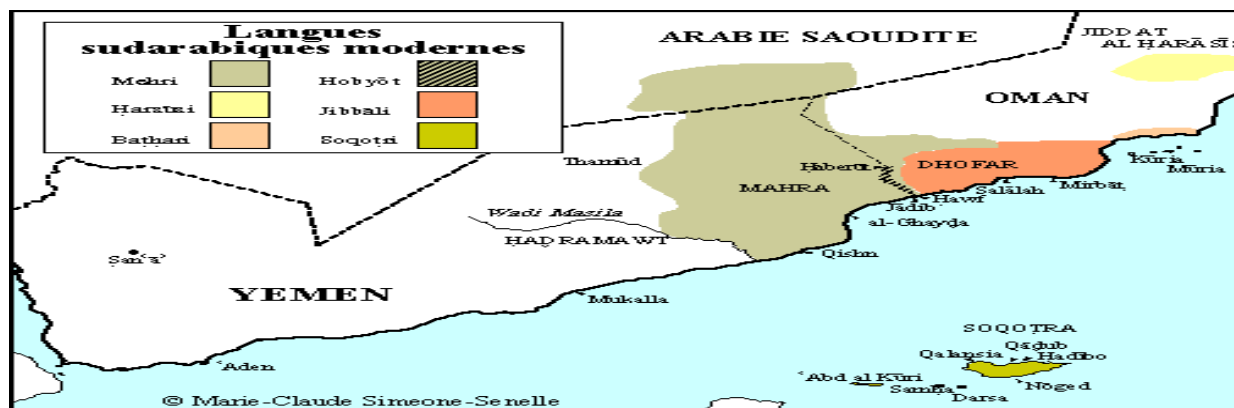
Actually, Alkharkher is the capital city of Mehri tribe. It is about 500 kilometers away from Sharoorah and 400 kilometers is the distance from Sharoorah to Najran. Personally, I was in Alkharkhir city in 2011. Fortunately, this trip was the inspiring motivation for searching of information about this tribe. From that time, I started creating relationship with some members of Mehri tribe. Moreover, I contacted one of Mehri people whom became my informant. Both of us met in Alokhdood Hotel in Najran city. Both of us were optimistic and enthusiastic to do a study paper about Mehri tribe in Saudi Arabia particularly on Aljudhi people for many reasons which will be presented in the next sections.

C. *The People of Mehri Tribe, Aljudhi in Particular*

Although Mehri people were cautious and worried from strangers, they were very kind and generous. However, if they knew you, they would behave as Bedouins and be very cooperative. In fact, the main Mehri tribe is divided into more than ten major tribes scattered between Oman, Yemen and Saudi Arabia. One of these tribes was Aljudhi tribe which my informant, Saleh Mohammed Aljudhi Almehri, is one of its well-known members. Moreover, he works as a channel connection between me and people of his own tribe. The second visit for this tribe was about seven months ago where fortunately I traveled to Sharoorah and many of Mehri people were there for governmental official procedures. Frankly speaking, it was my opportunity to observe and record some notices about Mehri people. For examples, they are thin with healthy bodies because they have to work hard to get money.

Most of Mehri people are monolingual except few educated persons who are bilingual. That is they speak Mehri and Arabic languages. Multilingual might be available with young Mehri who attend intermediate schools which enable them to use Mehri, Arabic and English. Recently, females of Mehri people cover their faces and wear "Abaya and Gatwa; the uniform of Saudi women". Speaking to females is forbidden and a non-Mehri visitor will be investigated. Incredibly, most of them sleep at nine or maximum ten o'clock in the evening.

In this project, choosing Aljudhi tribe was decided for many reasons. First, as the informant states "Aljudhi dialect is spoken by around thirty thousands of people, most of them traveled to Saudi Arabia and settled in Alkharkhir city", he adds " I know some old men who still remember the purest Mehri language". In addition, I choose this tribe because most of the studies have been published about the tribes of Mehri in Yemen and Oman. Also, the existence of the tribe in Saudi Arabia will help me to save more time, effort and costs. As a result, Mr. Saleh Mohammed Aljudhi Almehri, both the informant and the translator, and I discussed a lot in order to draw the main headlines to accomplish this task effectively. Obviously, my supervisor, Dr. Abdulwahid Alzomer: an English professor in the Faculty of Languages and Translation in King Khalid University, is familiar with the procedures I follow in order to do my paper worth. In fact, his support and instructions are significant for this work. This work will search for clarification on the three linguistic aspects of Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language: Number - Gender - Tense

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As it is known, Mehri language is spoken by people living in the boarders of three countries that is Oman, Yemen and recently Saudi Arabia. Actually, what I reported above depends on personal and practical experience. In other words, I assumed that Mehri tribe was ignored by social and linguistic scholars and researchers. Fortunately, when I started searching about Mehri people on internet, hundreds of articles and researches are available either free or not.

Although I was surprised that many researches and studies have been conducted on Mehri tribe, this research aims at highlighting some linguistic aspects on Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language in Saudi Arabia which have never been investigated by other researchers

In fact, there are hundreds of publications about Mehri language conducted in Oman and Yemen for many reasons which won't be stated in this research. It is reported that Mehri language is considered as "an endangered language" which is spoken by minority of population on the South Arabian Peninsula. In fact, It is a spoken language and there are many attempts to draw a well-constructed morphological and phonological system of this language. Moreover, this language is one of other five languages, Alrowsa (2014) stated "'Eastern' branch. This includes Bathari, harsusi, Hobyot, Jibbali, Mehri, and Soqotri.", found in the Arabian Peninsula and unfortunately these languages are endangered. Mehri language is considered as "one of the Semitic language family" (Castagna, 2012). He adds "Mehri language is spoken by about 100.000 people in Oman, Yemen and Saudi Arabia, which is part of the Modern South Arabian (MSA) branch of the Semitic language family." In addition, Claude & Senelle (2013) supported Sima's (2001) view's which states that Mehri language is endangered. That is Claude & Senelle (2013) concludes" All the Modern South Arabian Languages are endangered to variable degree which make urgent a more extensive investigation" and Sima (2001) reports" a considerable amount of changes regarding the social status endangered the Mehri language". Moreover, Alrowsa (2014) indicates that "All of these languages continue to be spoken, though all are under threat and several are endangered". Also, in Sima's (2001) article, although it is an experimental trip to Mehri areas, he considers T.V as a threat factor of Mehri language which needs to be reexamined. There was a comparative study between Mehri and Hobyot languages which draws some valuable findings. Although the writers, Claude & Senelle(2013), ignore Mehri people in Saudi Arabia, it highlights the similarities and differences between Mehri variety spoken in Oman and that spoken in Yemen. Although Alrowsa (2014) has an interesting informative research, there are few points which might be suggested to be re-examined. For example, Alrowsa (2014) says that he couldn't travel to Mehri region because of political tension between Yemen and Saudi Arabia while peace and positive relationship was stable at that period of time.   Moreover, I think the sample of study is not enough because of number of interviewees (10 people only) and their ages (more than 20 years while it is expected to meet more people who are elder in age). Also, he uses technology in collecting data such as skype but it is not clear if Mehri language is considered as the purest and original language of Mehri people. These points can't be inconsistent with the value and significance of this study.

III. OBJECTIVES AND SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This paper is supposed to clarify three significant aspects. Actually, it is an attempt to answer the following questions:
1- How does Aljudhi dialect inflect number? (Number)
2- How does Aljudhi dialect inflect masculine and feminine? (Gender)
3- How does Aljudhi dialect inflect the tense? (Tense)
The significance of this work is obviously known through previous paragraphs which can be summarized as follows. First, Mehri language is considered as one of the endangered languages of Semitic languages in the Modern South Arabian (MSA). Apparently, this research is mostly the first and only paper on Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language in Saudi Arabia for many reasons, see "Introduction" section. Also, the source of information is reliable and independent. Moreover, there is an attempt to investigate Mehri language and tribe for the benefit of both government and Mehri citizens. Hopefully, this paper may motivate other linguists to conduct further research and studies of Mehri language in Saudi Arabia.

IV. METHOD AND DESIGN

In this study, there will be an organized plan to get reliable findings as follows:

A. Participants

The data was collected with a help of an informant whose name was Saleh Mohammed Aljudhi Almehri. The informant was a connection channel between the researcher and people of Mehri because they did not cooperate or respond to non-Mehri people. Actually, the sample of population involved 10 male people who were above 45 years old and lived in Saudi Arabia, particularly in the southern region, particularly in Sharoorah and Alkharkhir provinces. The participants were divided into two equal groups. Each group had many separate meetings but under the same circumstances as possible.

B. Measures

Saleh Mohammed Aljudhi Almehri, the informant, helped me to do semi-structure interviews and to ask people to fill in a list of words in a well-organized form. The form consisted of around seventy singular nouns written in Arabic language for the first aspect of study, number. The second point of this study, gender, had a well-organized form of seventy different verbs to be addressed to masculine and feminine. Moreover, the tense was investigated by asking Aljudhi people to change 10 different meaningful sentences from past to present and future tenses. Although the informant had a great effort to convince Aljudhi people who were involved to record the interviews, the interviewees did not accept their voices to be recorded for personal reasons. The informant and I had many meetings before starting

data collection to develop the questionnaire, choose the target sample of population for this study with special restrictions, make a plan which was expected to deal with changes during the study and be very close to the stages of this study.

In fact, data collection took more time and effort which was caused by the absence of the informant who was in Oman for a month and because of the number of nouns and verbs to be investigated. As a result, about seven weeks of continuous work was spent to collect data from Aljudhi people of Mehri language. In fact, both the qualitative and the quantitative methods were used in this study. The quantitative method was used to count majority of responses. On the other hand, qualitative method was applied to observe other responses and is used to collect and register data.

C. Procedures

In order to accomplish this work, I started my task following specific procedures with the assistance and guidance of my supervisor, Dr. Abdulwahid Alzumer. First, the topic of this study was chosen as a result of evaluating my interest, significance of study, source of information, availability of data, background of study, findings to be concluded, uniqueness of the study etc. Second, my informant and I had many hard and continuous meetings to prepare the forms and study items, choose the sample, agree on the suitable time and place to do this task effectively. Actually, preparation stage took time and hard effort enhanced by enthusiasm. Third, the informant and I contacted the participants and arranged time and place as planned before. Then the meetings were planned to done in the same circumstances as possible as we could. Later on, both Mr. Saleh Mohammed and I decided to do the interviews in Najran city in his small office because the participants were already in Najran to get their Identification Cards. Full-time duty and the lack of financial support were considered as major obstacles. In the interview stage, while I explained for the participants the goal of this study and how it would benefit Mehri people in general, the informant translated my speech literally to their native language. The participants were divided into two equal groups that is five persons in each group. Precisely, I said a word in Arabic, the informant translated it to their native language, responses from each one was registered, I emphasized the pronunciation for many times of each seventy words. Moreover, about thirty percent of words and verbs were changed in order to draw rules which caused time and effort consuming for the informant, participants and myself. In addition, the interviews were conducted during my free time and when they were available. Many meetings had occurred and data was recorded as they pronounced them, using vowels in Arabic to confirm the correct and accurate utterances of words, verbs and sentences, and were observed through physical and facial expressions. Enough time was given for each person to think, say and repeat what he was required to say. In fact, the data, which was collected, was saved on a laptop of Lenovo company, core i3. The analysis of data was processed by counting the accurate and accurate translated words to Mehri language presented by majority of participants. Moreover, this data was analyzed in order to draw a relationship between the dialects of Mehri language or to highlight new views in this field to be investigated in the future by linguists in three aspects of Mehri language: (Number-Gender-Tense)

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. Number in Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language

As it is mentioned above, more than seventy words were listed then the participants were asked to pronounce these words for singular, dual and plural patterns in order to draw a connection between singular, dual and plural words. The table (7.1.2) had seventy words to be changed into Dual and Plural of Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language.

TABLE (7.1.2):
SINGULAR-DUAL-PLURAL IN ALJUDHI DIALECT OF MEHRI LANGUAGE

No	Mehri Word	English Word	Mehri Dual	English Dual	Mehri Plural	English Plural
1	غِيج	Man	غِيج يَثْرُوه	Two men	غْيُوج	Men
2	أَجُوز	Old woman	أَجُوز يَثْرين	Two old women	أَجُوريز	old women
3	غِيجين	Boy	غِيجين يَثْرين	Two boys	قَلْيِين	Boys
4	مُوتَّر	Car	مُوتَّر يَثْرُوه	Two cars	مُوتَرْت	Cars
5	بِيت	House	بِيت يَثْرين	Two houses	بِيُوت	Houses
6	ذَهِيب	Stream	ذَهِيب يَثْرُوه	Two streams	ذَهَوْبَت	Streams
7	دَكُون	Groceries	دَكُون يَثْرُوه	Two groceries	دَكوكَن	Groceries
8	سِيكَل	Bicycle	سِيكَل يَثْرُوه	Two bicycles	سِيكَلت	Bicycles
9	حُوز	Goat	حُوز يَثْرين	Two goats	هَارُون	Goats
10	ثِيوِيثْ	Sheep	ثِيوِيت يَثْرين	Two sheep	ثِيوِي	Sheep
11	بَقَريت	Cow	بَقَريت يَثْرين	Two cows	بَقَّار	Cows
12	جِنِيت	Bag	جِنِيت يَثْرين	Two bags	جُونِي	Bags
13	مَكتَب	Office	مَكتَب يَثْرُوه	Two offices	مَكوتِب	Offices
14	قَلِيم	Pen	قَلِيم يَثْرُوه	Two pens	قَلومِت	Pens
15	خِيمِيت	Tent	خِيمِيت يَثْرين	Two tents	خِيم	Tents
16	غَرْفِيت	Room	غَرْفِيت يَثْرين	Two rooms	غَريف	Rooms
17	كَرَات	Ball	كَرَات يَثْرين	Two balls	كَرير	Balls
18	نَخْلِيت	Palm	نَخْلِيت يَثْرين	Two palms	نِيخَل	Palms
19	بِير	Well	بِير يَثْرين	Two wells	هَابْيُور	Wells
31	قُوبَر	Grave	قَبْرَ يَثْرُوه	Two graves	قْبُور	Graves
32	أَقَبِيت	Bird	أَقَبِيت يَثْرين	Two birds	أَقَاب	Birds
33	مَسْيُول	Riverbed	مَسْيُول يَثْرُوه	Two riverbeds	مْسِيلِيت	Riverbeds
34	حُودِي	Valley	حُودِي يَثْرين	Two valleys	هَاوْدِي	Valleys
35	أَجْلِيت	Tire	أَجْلِيت يَثْرين	Two tires	أَجِيل	Tires
36	سَات	Watch	سَات يَثْرين	Two watches	سَوتَّن	Watches
37	دَشْدِيش	Thobe	دَشْدِيش يَثْرين	Two thobes	دْشُودِش	Thobes
38	وَرْقَات	Leaf	وَرْقَات يَثْرين	Two leaves	وْريق	Leaves
39	مَجْلِيس	Sitting room	مَجْلِيس يَثْرين	Two sitting rooms	مْجَوْلِس	Sitting rooms
40	مَقْهُويت	Tea-room	مَقْهُويت يَثْرين	Two tearooms	مْقُوهِي	Tea-rooms
41	لَبْذ	Liver	لَبْذ يَثْرُوه	Two livers	هَالْبُوذْ	Livers
42	شبدِيت	Finger	شبدِيت يَثْرين	Two fingers	شِيبِيد	Fingers
43	قَلف	Container	قَلف يَثْرُوه	Two containers	قَلانات	Containers
44	صَاجِن *	Dish	صَاجِن يَثْرُوه	Two dishes	صْجِين	Dishes
45	صِفَريت *	Pot	صَفَريت يَثْرُوه	Two pots	صَفَورِي	Pots
46	يَصْفِير *	Snake	يِصَفِير يَثْرُوه	Two snakes	يْصَوْفِر	Snakes
47	صَار *	Deer	صَار يَثْرُوه	Two deer	صَابُور	Deer
48	ثَيووط	Fire	ثَيووط يَثْرين	Two fires	ثَوطِين	Fires
49	ثَجريت *	Tree	ثَجريت يَثْرين	Two trees	ثَجِير	Trees
50	رِيثَيت *	Serpent	رِيثَيت يَثْرين	Two serpents	رِيثَّ	Serpents

* Words (44-50) are considered as odd letters in Arabic language, that is there are about four spoken letters in Mehri can't be written in Arabic language.   As a result, both the informant and I suggest the written forms of two Mehri letters:

1- [ص] might be a new Arabic created letter acts as a representative for Mehri letter of:

Close to ʐ

ص+ز =

2- [ث] might be a new Arabic created letter acts as a representative for Mehri letter of :

ش+ث = very close to ʧ

Summary and Discussion

In Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language, we listed more than seventy words in order to conclude a clear connection between words. Although we changed about thirty percent of the words under investigation, a direct and general rule might not be inferred for non-Mehri speakers. However, comparing Aljudhi dialect with Ben Zabinut dialect of Mehri language might be useful to focus on similarities and differences which then increased the knowledge of how various dialects of Mehri language were spoken or written. According to Alrowsa (2014) study which was titled as "Question Formation in Mehri", I attempted to investigate the differences between the two dialects in specific aspects "Number-Gender". In fact, according to both table (7.1.2) and Ben Zabinut study, I thought it was important to examine each aspect briefly.

1.1 Word Formation" Number"

Surprisingly, first of all, it was believed that Arabic language was the only language in the Arabian Peninsula which was not true and researchers a long time discovered more than five endangered languages belong to the Semitic family. Moreover, people thought that Mehri language had a particular dialect which was denied by many researchers who supported that Mehri language had many varieties and might be classified by the tribe which used this variety. Actually, I noticed that there were some differences in using words to indicate one meaning for both Ben Zabinut and Aljudhi

dialects. After recording more than seventy nouns, it was assumed that some different nouns had the same meaning, table (7.1.3).

TABLE (7.1.3):
WORDS DIFFERENCES IN ALJUDHI AND BEN ZABINUT DIALECTS OF MEHRI LANGUAGE

No	English	Aljudhi Dialect	Ben Zabinut Dialect
1	Boy	Gaij	Humbrim
2	Goat	Hoose	Hawter
3	Pot	*ʐufrait	Qadr
4	Coal	Khah	Jumrate
5	Snake	*yaʐfair	Rechit
6	Deer	ʐar	Wail
*Look at table (7.1.2): suggested that ʐ=ﺟﺶ			

Moreover, I observed that there were many nouns in Aljudhi dialect which were either the same or very close to Arabic nouns, see table (7.1.4). In fact, I thought that researchers had to investigate this issue. That is they were supposed to clarify the origin of these nouns Arabic or Mehri languages.

TABLE (7.1.4):
SIMILARITIES OF NOUNS BETWEEN MEHRI AND ARABIC LANGUAGES

No	English	Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language	Arabic language
1	Old woman	أجوز	عجوز
2	House	بيت	بيت
3	Cow	بقريت	بقر
4	Pen	قيلم	قلم
5	Room	غرفيت	غرفة
6	Tent	خيميت	خيمة
7	Palm	نخليت	نخلة
8	Mosque	مسجيد	مسجد
9	Sitting room	مجليس	مجلس
10	Tire	أجليت	عجلة
11	Leaf	ورقات	ورقة
12	Grave	قوبر	قبر
13	Sail-boat	مركب	مركب
14	Eye	أين	عين
15	Lock	قافل	قفل

1.2 Dual

How did Aljudhi dialect change singular to dual? To answer this question, it was useful to take a look at table (7.1.2). Actually, the findings for the both studies-this study and the study done by Alrowsa (2014)-had different conclusions as follows:

TABLE (7.1.5):
DUAL NOUN: DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ALJUDHI AND BEN ZABINUT DIALECTS

No	English Dual	Aljudhi Dialect	Ben Zabinut Dialect
1	Two+ masculine noun+ s (except irregular nouns)	Yathroh + masculine noun	Masculine noun + suffix /i/; ktawbi..
2	Two + feminine noun + s (except irregular nouns)	Yathrain + feminine noun	Feminine noun + suffix /i/; mesmuri..
3	Dual marker "Two" is compulsory	Dual marker "Yathroh" or "Yathrain" is compulsory.	Dual marker "Yathroh" or "Yathrain" is optional.
4	No changes on noun	No changes on noun	Changes occurred on noun

In fact, the difference of dual between the two dialects could be observed. Alrowsa (2014) concluded that "Dual marking on nouns is straightforward, adding an /-i/ suffix to the noun, regardless of the noun's gender", he stated "Dual marking on nouns is optional, however. It is fine for the noun to appear in the plural following by "two" and still trigger the dual marking on the verb. In fact, this is more common than marking dual on the noun itself." On the other hand, in Aljudhi dialect, gender of noun had a great significance in choosing dual marker "Yathroh" for masculine and dual marker "Yathrain" for feminine. Moreover, these dual markers were necessary. In addition, the main word had no changes and was followed by the dual marker either "Yathroh" or "Yathrain". Thus, table (7.1.3) shows the differences between Aljudhi dialect and Ben Zabinut dialect of Mehri language.

1.3 Plural

Pluralization of both Aljudhi and Ben Zabinut dialects in particular, and pluralization of Mehri language in general were the most difficult aspect in grammatical system. Although I tried to change so many words in order to find out a rule for changing words from singular to plural, words could be classified into many groups and each group had its own grammatical rule. Thus, in Alrowsa's (2014) study of Ben Zabinut dialect, he inferred many grammatical rules in the formation of plural words. In other words, there were about at least eighteen grammatical rules in Alrowsa's research.

For example, he classified the change of plural patterns into two forms. The first form was called "the internal plurals which have no affix and instead the base is modified to form the plural" stated by Alrowsa (2014). It was called *"Broken Plural"* which commonly used in Mehri language, particularly Aljudhi dialect. Actually, it was not possible to review every kind of "Broken Plural" because it was unexpected process and did not follow specific morphological rules. Thus, it was a complicated duty to investigate "Broken Plural". The second form was known as "the internal plurals where the base is modified by having an affix. Internal plurals are more common than external plurals especially with masculine nouns. Some nouns have qualities of both, employing a suffix as well as internal change." (Alrowsa, 2014).

On the other hand, I believed that Aljudhi dialect had to share the obstacle of increasing numbers of grammatical groups. In other words, it was mentioned that Ben Zabinut dialect had about eighteen classified group to form plural words which might occur in Aljudhi dialect. Actually, according to the observation of the table (7.1.2), it was clearly assumed that the plural words could be categorized into many groups, even more than eighteen groups found in that study. As a result, it was useful to list the internal changes of words which had been concluded in the study of Alrowsa (2014). For example, the changes took place in the following suffixes: [-in, -on, -ət, -eit, -tən, -tVn, -otən, -o:C, CCo:Ci, -awC, -məCowCəC, -CCajC, -æC, -etc.], and the prefix [hæ-]. Similarly, Aljudhi dialect might have these suffixes involved, or it might have more other suffixes which can be deduced from the table (7.1.2). Finally, it was complicated task for non-Mehri speakers to have specific rules for changing words into plural forms.

B. Gender in Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language

One of the distinctive features of Mehri language in general and Aljudhi dialect in particular was how Mehri people address masculine and feminine using verbs. Generally, Alrowsa (2014) and I had to accept the available classification for verb stem which was suggested by Rubin (2010) and Watson (2012). Actually, Alrowsa (2014) reported that "both Rubin (2010) and Watson (2012) have pointed out, there are up to five different forms of the verb for any particular root." He added "The majority of roots have three consonants and I will stick to the patterns for these roots". As a fact, the five forms of the verbs were to be: Basic stems, D/L-stem, H-stem, ʃ-stem, T-stem. Definitely, Aljudhi dialect had the same classification for many reasons. For instance, the following table (7.2.6) consisted of seventy verbs to be used for masculine and feminine in order to deduce specific features of gender effects in the formulation of verbs.

TABLE (7.2.6):
GENDER IN ALJUDHI DIALECT OF MEHRI LANGUAGE

No	Mehri Verb	English Verb	Masculine in Mehri	Masculine in English	Feminine in Mehri	Feminine in English
1	دِيتِيوْ	Eat	تووه	He eats	تروت	She eats
2	دِيقَوْفد	Come down	قَوْفد	He comes down	تَقُوفد	She comes down
3	ديوَيح	Run	دْحوه	He runs	تُويح	She runs
4	دِيخِيز	Refuse	خُزْوه	He refuses	تْخيز	She refuses
5	دِيقَهوب	Come in a.m.	قَهيب	He comes in a.m.	تَقُهوب	She comes in a.m.
6	دِيجهوم	Travel	جْهِيم	He travels	جُهْمُون	She travels
7	دِيشْداني	Pray against you	شْدوه	He prays against you	شْدَوت	She prays against you
8	دُوَلْمِه	Bicycle	ولَمِيه	He bicycles	وَلْمَتْه	She bicycles
9	دِينوحَج	Play	نْحاج	He plays	نَحْجوب	She plays
10	دِيزور	Visit	زار	He visits	تْزور	She visits
11	دِينْغوم	Feel unhappy	نَغام	He feels unhappy	نَغموت	She feels unhappy
12	دِيبِيك	Lying	بْدوه	He lies	بْدوت	She lies
13	يَشَلْبُود	Needle hits	شْلْبُود	He has a needle hits	شْلْبُدُوت	She has a needle hits
14	دِيخُوطب	Address (people)	خْطُوب	He addresses (people)	خَطْبُوت	She addresses (people)
15	دِبْتُور	Hunt	بِيتَر	He hunts	بَتْرُوت	She hunts
16	دِيقَروز	Go in a.m.	قرور	He goes in a.m.	قَرُوت	She goes in a.m.
17	دِيوَمَر	Say	أمُور	He says	أمْرُوت	She says
18	دَلِيقَف	Hold	لِيقَف	He holds	لقْفوت	She holds
19	دِيزْهُود	Feel not greedy	زَهد	He feels not greedy	زَهْدُوت	She feels not greedy
20	دِيسْلُوم	Become a Muslim	أسْلم	He becomes a Muslim	سَلَمُوت	She becomes a Muslim
21	دِيشْدوِيَن	Take medication	شْدِيدِي	He takes medication	شْدِيدُوت	She takes medication
22	دِيدْوِيمن	Attend work	دْوِيم	He attends work	دُومُوت	She attends work
23	دِيخُوبِز	Make bread	خْبوز	He makes bread	خَبْزُوت	She takes bread
24	دِيسوق	Drive	سْوق	He drives	سَوْقَت	She drives
25	دِيسوبِق	Race	سْبوق	He races	سَبْقَوت	She races
26	دِيسِيم	Search	سْمُوه	He searches	سْمُوت	She searches
27	دَهْبُود	Hide	هْبُود	He hides	هَبْدُوت	She hides
28	دلْتِيغ	Kill	لْتِيغ	He kills	مْتُوت	She kills
29	دِيوزْمَه	Give	وزمْكَه	He gives	وزمْكس	She gives
30	دِيشَقْرور	Admit	شَقْرور	He admits	شَقْرُوت	She admits
31	دِيمَرْقَن	Make broth	مُورق	He makes broth	مرْقُوت	She takes broth
32	دِيسُوبْط	Hit	سْبُوط	He hits	سِبْطُوت	She hits
33	دِيفِيتّ *	Have lunch	فْتُوه	He has lunch	فَتُّوت	She has lunch
34	دِيتّلول*	Carry	تّل	He carries	تّلُوت	She carries
35	دِينَفتّ*	Go in p.m.	نْفوتّ	He goes in p.m.	نَفّتّوت	She goes in p.m.
36	دِيظَحُوك*	Laugh	ظْحَاك	He laughs	ظْحَكوت	She laughs
37	دِيظَطّوب*	Blame	ظْطّب	He blames	ظَطّبُوت	She blames
38	دِيبَغوظّا*	Hate	بْغاظ	He hates	بَغْظّته	She hates
39	دِيصُوق*	Call	صَاق	He calls	صَاقُوت	She calls
40	دِيقُوصِد*	Tell poetry	قَصَوْد	He tells poetry	قَصَدُوت	She tells poetry
41	دِصَوْر *	Stop	صَوْر	He stops	صَرْوت	She stops
42	دِيصَلِين*	Pray	صُولِي	He prays	صَلْيَت	She prays
43	دِيصورَف*	Exchange	صرُّوف	He exchanges	صَرْفُوت	She exchanges
44	دِيُوصُول*	Arrive	ويصَّل	He arrives	وَصّلوت	She arrives
45	دِيخُوص*	Feel pain	بْخَاص	He feels pain	بَخْصُوت	She feels pain
46	دِيحْدُوذْ	Pull	حَدّ	He pulls	حَدُّوثّ	She pulls
47	دِيغوصِب*	Impose	غْصُوب	He imposes	غْصُبُوت	He imposes
48	دِينْهُور	Help	بْهِيرْ	He helps	بَهْروتّ	She helps
49	دِيقَيمُوص*	Cut	قَيِّن	He cuts	قَيِّمُوتّ	She cuts
50	دِينَتّوكّ*	Bite	نِتّكّ	He bites	نِتّكوت	She bites

* See table (8.1.2)

* ظ = non-Arabic letter, very close to ط + ض

Summary and Discussion

Although the seventy selected verbs were to be substituted with other thirty different verbs in order to conclude practical rules, these rules might not be clear enough for non-Mehri native speakers. On the other hand, table (7.2.6) indicated specific characteristics in addressing masculine and feminine. In other words, there were obvious marks for both genders. For example, most of the main verbs of Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language begin with the prefix [Di-] which could not be found in Ben Zabinut dialect according to ALrowsa (2014). Moreover, the suffix [-ət] of most of spoken verbs indicated that the addressee should be feminine. In addition, most of the verbs in Aljudhi dialect included three main consonants. Also, it might be possible to assume that many verbs had different forms in both Aljudhi and Ben Zabinut dialects in which table (7.2.7) introduces some examples.

TABLE (7.2.7):
DIFFERENT FORMS OF THE SAME VERB IN THE TWO DIALECTS

No	English Verb	Aljudhi Dialect	Ben Zabinut Dialect
1	Pick	Dinasf	Autgut
2	Come	Digofed	Qhob
3	Say	Diyawmer	Tmir
4	Buy	*yeshtome	Dshun
5	Stop	*diẓore	Netkef
* It is recommended to revise table (7.1.2)			

C. Tense in Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language

In this section, the tense of Aljudhi dialect was to be discussed briefly. That is how people of Aljudhi tribe of Mehri language changed meaningful sentences from past to present and to future tense. In order to achieve this objective, my informant and I suggested more than ten sentences. Next, the participants were asked to change the sentence from past tense to present tense and then to the future tense. Necessarily, we intended to make the sentences in past, present and future tenses in Arabic language then they were required to translate these sentences accurately. Moreover, the same components of the sentences were presented in all tenses except verbs. In other words, we used the same words in each sentence but we changed only the verbs for each sentence. As a result, each verb had to have three sentences, one was in the past tense, the second was in the present tense and the last was in the future tense. In fact, we insisted to have the same components of the sentences in order to focus on the changes that took place on verbs. However, a great attention was paid for the main verbs and the participants were asked to repeat the verbs many times in order to record the accurate pronunciation. Of course, the following table (7.3.8) may clarify this point.

TABLE (7.3.8):
TENSE – PAST, PRESENT, FUTURE - IN ALJUDHI DIALECT OF MEHRI LANGUAGE

No	English Verb	Tense	Sentence in English Language	Sentence in Mehri Language
1	Go	Past	I <u>went</u> to school last week.	Huh <u>kunhik</u> mudresait usbou hawli. هُوه كَنْحِكْ مَدْرسِيتْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>go</u> to school every day.	Huh <u>konah</u> mudresait kul nhoor. هُوَهْ كُونِحْ مَدْرسِيتْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>go</u> to school next month.	Huh <u>kunhona</u> mudresait warkh mgobel. هُوه كَنْحُونا مَدْرسِيتْ وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
2	Play	Past	I <u>played</u> football last week.	Huh <u>nhajk</u> kurrat usbou hawli. هُوَهْ نْحَجْكْ كَرَّاتْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>play</u> football every day.	Huh <u>nohej</u> kurrat kul nhoor. هُوَهْ نُوحِجْ كَرَّاتْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>play</u> football next month.	Huh <u>nuhjona</u> kurrat warkh mgobel. هُوَهْ نَحْجُونَا كَرَّاتْ وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
3	Write	Past	I <u>wrote</u> the lesson last week.	Huh <u>kutabk</u> dars usbou hawli. . هُوَهْ كَتْبَكْ دَارْسْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>write</u> the lesson every day.	Huh <u>koteb</u> dars kul nhoor. هوه كِوتِب دَارْسْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>write</u> the lesson next month.	Huh <u>ktobona</u> dars warkh mgobel. هُوَهْ كَتْبُونَا دَارْسْ وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
4	Watch	Past	I <u>watched</u> football last week.	Huh <u>galagk</u> mobarah usbou hawli. هُوه غَلْقَكْ مُبَارَاةْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>watch</u> football every day.	Huh <u>goleg</u> mobarah kul nhoor. هُوَهْ غُولِقْ مُبَارَاة كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>watch</u> football next month.	Huh <u>goleg</u> mobarah warkh mgobel. هُوه غَلْقُونَا مُبَارَاة وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
5	Use	Past	I <u>used</u> internet last week.	Huh <u>amlak</u> internet usbou hawli. هُوَهْ أَمْلَكْ إِنْتَرْنِتْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>use</u> internet every day.	Huh <u>amool</u> internet kul nhoor. هُوَهْ أَمُولْ إِنْتَرْنِتْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>use</u> internet next month.	Huh <u>amlona</u> internet warkh mgobel. هُوه أَمْلُونَا إِنْتَرْنِتْ وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
6	Swim	Past	I <u>swam</u> last week.	Huh <u>sabahk</u> usbou hawli. هُوه سَبَحْكْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>swim</u> every day.	Huh <u>soobih</u> kul nhoor. هُوَهْ سْوِيح كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>swim</u> next month.	Huh <u>sobhona</u> warkh mgobel. هُوه سَبْحُونَا وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
7	Jump	Past	I <u>jumped</u> last week.	Huh <u>dalfak</u> usbou hawli. هُوه دَلْفَكْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>jump</u> every day.	Huh <u>dolif</u> kul nhoor. هُوَهْ دُولِفْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>jump</u> next month.	Huh <u>dalafona</u> warkh mgobel. هُوه دَلْفُونَا وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.
8	say poems	Past	I <u>said</u> poems last week.	Huh <u>gasadk</u> usbou hawli. هُوَهْ قَصَدْكْ أَسْبو هَاوْلِي.
		Present	I <u>say</u> poem every day.	Huh <u>gosed</u> kul nhoor. هُوَهْ قُوصِدْ كُلْ نْحُورْ.
		Future	I will <u>say</u> poem next month.	Huh <u>gasadona</u> warkh mgobel. هُوه قَصَدُونَا وَرْخْ مَقُوبِل.

Summary and Discussion

To investigate the tenses in Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language, we intended to use first person singular "I" with different verbs. Each verb had to be changed into past, present and future tenses with making necessary changes. Actually, Alrowsa (2014) highlighted the future tense when he stated that "In Mehri future. First, the first common singular. are characterized by the suffix –onæ." On the other hand, according to Aljudhi dialect, some verbs had particular forms to be applied. For example, according to table (7.3.8), some of the main verbs had to have the suffix [-ək] in the past tense such as kunhi<u>k</u>, nhaj<u>k</u>, galag<u>k</u>, amla<u>k</u>, sabah<u>k</u>, dalfa<u>k</u> etc. While in the present tense, the main verbs which were presented in the table (7.3.8) indicated that these verbs followed a particular order in the formation of present tense [CVCVC= C(O)CVC] such as k<u>o</u>neh, k<u>o</u>teb, s<u>o</u>beh, g<u>o</u>sed, l<u>o</u>bed etc. Apparently from the table (7.3.8), we had to support Alrowsa's (2014) conclusion which claimed that some of the verbs in the future tense were" characterized by the suffix –onæ." Such as gasad<u>ona</u>, dalaf<u>ona</u>, sobh<u>ona</u>, aml<u>ona</u>, ktob<u>ona</u> etc. In fact, other verbs should be examined intensively because these particular forms might not be acceptable for other verbs.

VI. CONCLUSION

Fortunately, a researcher had done his best to explore Mehri language which was unique in its topic, aspects, location etc. In this study, I had tried to investigate the morphology of Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language which was considered as an endangered language. However, many articles and research had been revised which caused to increase the

knowledge of this distinctive language with its particular varieties. Moreover, this work could be considered as a field study. Actually, to refer to ALrowsa (2014) because it was a relevant study and recently published. In fact, it was noticed that the findings of this work, which was about Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language in Najran province, might have three different views.

As a result, the first view indicated that the argues of the two papers were very close and they had an agreement on some items such as eighteen groups for the pluralization of nouns, see table (7.1.2), the suffix [-ət] of verbs for addressing feminine in table (7.2.6), the suffix [-onæ] of some verbs in future tense as in table (7.2.8) etc. The second view implied controversial issues which required more investigation and focus. Actually, I would like to summarize some findings of each linguistic aspect as followed:

A-Number:

1- A word might have two different forms among various dialects of Mehri language, see table (7.1.3)

2- It was observed that Arabic and Mehri languages used similar or very close words but unfortunately the origin of them weren't investigated, see table (7.1.4)

3- The usage of dual marker was compulsory. The dual marker "Yathroh" was used for masculine while the dual marker "Yathrain" was used for feminine, see table (7.1.5)

4- Unlike other studies, it was reported that in Aljudi dialect the suffix [i] was not found in dual form, see table (7.1.2)

5- I suggested new Arabic letters to represent the four new sounds in Mehri language which did not exist in Arabic phonological system, see table (7.1.2)

B-Gender:

1- The prefix [Di-] began most of the verbs in Aljudhi dialect of Mehri language, see table (7.2.6)

2- The suffix[-ət] of verbs was used for feminine, see table (7.2.6)

3- A verb might have two different forms among various dialects of Mehri language, see table (7.2.7)

C-Tense:*It is suggested that many verbs in Aljudhi dialect should follow specific grammatical patterns:

1-Past Tense: Some of the main verbs had to have the suffix [-ək] such as kunhik, nhajk, galagk, amlak, sabahk, dalfak , see table (7.3.8)

2-Present Tense: Some of the main verbs in Aljudhi dialect should apply this pattern: [CVCVC= C(O)CVC] such as koneh, koteb, sobeh, gosed, lobed, see table (7.3.8)

3-Future Tense: Some of the main verbs were characterized by the suffix [–onæ] such as gasadona, dalafona, sobhona, amlona, ktobona, see table (7.3.8)

Although I had faced many challenges which restrict this work such as time, financial support etc., I assumed that this research had contributed to different significant issues which required serious investigation on the endangered Semitic languages, particularly Mehri language such as: the three aspects (Number, Gender, Tense), the similarities of the usage of nouns between Arabic and Mehri languages and the four new sounds which did not exist in Arabic phonological system. I concluded that linguists were to be the ones who should preserve these ancient languages and try to inseminate the knowledge related to them. Ultimately, the writer aspired to live with Aljudhi tribe for many months in order to study their language, lifestyles, culture.

VII. LIMITATION

This work had many restrictions which might decrease the ability to accomplish the task perfectly. For example, the main obstacle was the time availability because the participants were far away from my resident about 300 to 700 kilometers, I had other two courses in King Khalid University which required hard work and lastly it was suggested that this kind of studies required more time. Moreover, the lack of financial support had affected my achieved goal of discovering the desired knowledge about this language. For example, traveling costs for more than nine times and staying with Mehri people for days demanded special budget. Another restriction could be the dialect of the female of Mehri people was not investigated for social restrictions. Although there were many studies and researches about Mehri language, it was believed that a clear unified written system of various dialects of spoken Mehri language was not available in both English and Arabic languages. In addition, modernization affected their pronunciation and led them to distort the purity and originality of Mehri language. As it was experienced, the negative attitude of Mehri people toward strangers had reduced the exposure of people to this under-research variety of language.

APPENDICES

The Participants' Names:

1-Mubarak Ahmed Saeed Aljudhi Almehri.

2-Muhammed Mubarak Ali Aljudhi Almehri.

3-Salem Sa'd Ali Aljudhi Almehri.

4-Saleem Salem Muhdi Aljudhi Almehri.

5-Abdullah Mohammed Solem Aljudhi Almehri.

6-Mohammed Sa'd Ali Aljudhi Almehri.

7-Ahmed Salem Bakhait Aljudhi Almehri.

8-Ali Saeed Abdullah Aljudhi Almehri.
9-Ali Salem Abdullah Aljudhi Almehri.
10-Mohammed Saeed Bakhait Aljudhi Almehri.

REFERENCES

[1] Alrowsa, W. (2014). Question Formation in Mehri. A Dissertation Presented to University of Florida.
[2] Castagna, G. (2012). Towards a Systematization of the Broken Plural Patterns in the Mehri Language of Oman and Yemen – Draft. A Fieldwork and Corpus Based Analysis. Available online: http://www.academia.edu/9637804/Towards_a_Systematisation_of_the_Broken_Plural_Patterns_in_the_Mehri_Language_of_ Oman_and_Yemen_-_Draft / (accessed 20/01/2015).
[3] Claude, M & Senelle, S. (2013). Marie-Claude Simeone-Senelle. Mehri and Hobyot spoken in Oman and in Yemen. La communication en elle-mˆeme a ´et´e pr´esent´ee sur support power-point lors du Symposium Oman-Yeme.. 2010. Available online: https://halshs.archives-ouvertes.fr/halshs-00907743/document / (accessed 13/02/2015).
[4] Sima, A. (2001). Report on my first journey to the province of Mahra/Yemen. Fieldwork in Yemen.
[5] Watson, JCE. (2012). The structure of Mehri. Wiesbaden: Harrassowitz.

Mohsen Hebah Almakrami was born in Saudi Arabia in 1980. He received a BA in English Language from King Faisal University-Alahsa, Saudi Arabia- in 2003. Recently, he graduated from King Khalid University-Abha, Saudi Arabia- with MA in Applied Linguistic in 2015.

He was an English Teacher from 2004 to 2013. He taught in public schools and private institutions in the eastern and southern region of the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. He was interested in linguistic issues, particularly in the kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Three months ago, he had a research about an endangered language in Saudi Arabia "Number, Gender and Tense in Aljudhi Dialect of Mehri Language in Saudi Arabia". He attended more than seven hundred hours of training courses. He received more than thirty certificate of thanks and appreciation.

Attitudes toward Writing English in Facebook: The Case of Prestige for Iranian Users

Mohsen Jannejad
Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran

Bita Asadi
Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran

Mehran Memari
Farhangian University (Teacher Education University), Iran

Abstract—**Facebook (FB) is a social networking service with more than 1.23 billionmonthly active users all over the world. Millions of Iranians use this website and although it is possible for them to write in Persian, many of them prefer to write in English even when they communicate with their Iranian friends. Also, majority of them use the English interface of the FB rather than the Persian interface. This study investigates cultural and psychologicalmotives behind Persian speakers' preference of English over Persian. For this aim, 180 Iranian FB users answered to a questionnaire asking about different aspects of use of English in FB. Then, 12 of them participated in a semi-structured interview.After coding and analysis, findings of the interview were used to add to the findings of the survey. Results indicated that Iranian users are willing to post dialogues from famous movies and scientific content in English rather than Persian, but prefer to discuss their feelings in Persian. In addition, it was found that majority of Iranians believe that writing English in FB can be interpreted as an indication of higher social class, education, and prestige of the users.**

Index Terms—**prestige, attitude, Facebook, writing**

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of attitudes has been the focus of interest for scholars in the fields related to social sciences. During the twentieth century, attitude has been probably among the most dominantissues in the field of social psychology (Louw & Edwards, 1997). Language attitudes, also, have been studied by many researchers in the subjects related to both language learning and sociolinguistics. Many studies have been conducted over attitudes of speakers of different languages toward English (Sonda, 2011; McKenzie, 2010; Uzum, 2007; El-Dash & Busnardo, 2001), but they have investigated attitude from a mostly pedagogical perspective and less attention has been paid to it from a sociolinguistic view.

Also, the matter of prestige is often related to dialects or varieties of the same language in which the standard variety is believed to be able to give prestige to speakers (Wardhaugh, 2006). It is possible that some speakers, due to prestige motive, borrow an element from a culturally or politically dominant language even when there are proper equivalents in their own language (Shukla & Connor-Linton, 2006).

What we look for, is to study how sociocultural and psychological parameters can affect speakers' attitudes toward the use and preference of English over Persian. We will try to investigate Persian speakers' attitudes toward English and the prestige they attribute to English. In addition, Persian speakers' attitudes toward English in an online internet-based social network will be investigated.

English and the Internet

As computers were first developed in US, English became the mother tongue of computers. Similarly, Internet was originally an English medium which was originally developed in US (Crystal, 2003). Therefore, it is not a surprise that English has become the most dominant language of the Internet. In 1997, a survey conducted by Babel (1997, alis.isoc.org), the first comprehensive study for the distribution of languages on the web, showed that about 82% of the web pages were in English. Similarly, Thomas (1996) quantified that 75% of the world's mail, 80% of computer data and 85% of all information are stored in English.

By the development of computer networks in non-English countries, the presence of other languages on the internet has increased gradually. At the present time, Internet users from different nationalities and language backgrounds are increasingly using web as an important part of their modern life. Internet World Stats estimated that by the year 2013, English, Chinese, Spanish and Japanese languages have 565, 509, 164 and 99 millions of users respectively. Even in many less developed countries and among minority language speakers, internet is now an indispensible medium for communication and education. Despite the fact that increasing number of internet users are publishing documents and web contents in different languages, English is still the dominant language of the web.

Why Facebook?

In recent years, as people are becoming more mobile, trends for using social networks have been increased drastically. Among most popular platforms for social networking, Facebook (FB) was launched in February 2004 with the mission of giving people "the power to share and make the world more open and connected" (facebook.com). In recent few years, the number of FB users extended from the limited number of Harvard students to millions of people all over the world. By the end of December 2013, FB announced that it reaches over 1.23 billion monthly active users (facebook.com). Also, until 2011, FB offered its services in 40 language including less popular languages such as Persian.

New trends to use virtual social networks such as FB, Twitter, MySpace, and Google+ indicate that people want more than bare information exchange.The web is being changed to a place "where the subject-matter comprises – apart from the occasional aberration – real things in the real world" (Crystal, 2006, p. 178). In addition, some believe that it is possible for online social networks to make new forms of social capital by bridging the offline social capital to an online one (Ellison, Steinfield & Lampe, 2007). Presence of shared networks and the real world has made it possible for researchers to study social and psychological parameters such as identity, relationships, affection and motivation (Stutzman, 2006; Hewitt *& Forte,* 2006; Mazer, Murphy & Simonds, 2007; Grasmuck, Martin & Zhao, 2009).

As it became popular in Iran, FB released the beta Persian version of its website in which all the menus, buttons and main features were translated into Persian. Although the Persian interface of FB is offered, many Iranians are still using the English version. Moreover, although it is possible for the users to write their posts in Persian, many Persian users prefer to write in English even when their friends are all native speakers of Persian. There are also other users who prefer to write in English only occasionally.

Current Status of English in Iran

Historical, political and social variables in Iran have resulted in the dominance of English as the first foreign language. English is being taught in Iranian educational system from the beginning of guidance school and it continues to post-graduate university levels. In addition, many private language institutes teach English as the most popular language in their programs. Even in small cities, numerous Language institutes are busy teaching English. Besides, many parents tend to put their children in such English classes even before sending them to primary schools (Vazeii, 2009).

In higher education, English proficiency has become a key for students' success. Post-graduate university students are usually asked to read English journals and books and to publish their works in English. Having an acceptable English proficiency is also a pre-requisite for doctoral programs. In addition, many prestigious conferences are held in English and scholars should be able to present their articles in English. People who wish to immigrate need to have good command of English for passing international examinations such as IELTS and TOEFL. Also, as the English has become the language of science, most experts and scientists use English jargons as an indication of their deep knowledge in their field. To sum up, it can be stated that English knowledge in Iran is associated with high degree of education and higher social and economic status. Therefore, in Iranian context, learning and knowing English has progressively become more prestigious and more popular (Chalak & Kassaian, 2010).

II. Methods

Procedure

For achieving a more in-depth understanding of Iranians' attitudes toward English in online environments, the research was conducted in three phases. In the first phase of the study, public posts and comments of 180 volunteer FB users were analyzed to estimate the use of English. For this aim, publicly shared content of the 180 Iranian FB users, including their posts and comments, which exceeded 13,100 words, were collected and analyzed to estimate their use of English. In order to estimate the percentages of different languages used in the participants' writings on FB, the authors first read all the writings and classified them into different languages. After the categorization was finished, through word count feature of the MS Word, the number of words for each language was calculated and the percentages were calculated.

In the second stage, the participants completed a questionnaire with questions related to their bio-data, FB membership experience, and their attitudes toward use of English in FB. In the last phase, following completion of the questionnaires, interview sessions were conducted with 12 volunteer participants to elicit more in-depth information regarding the participants' attitudes.

Participants

More than 500 surveys were emailed to Iranian FB users around the world. In doing so, around 100 FB users were identified as the core list. Attempts were made to keep the group representative of all FB users regarding their gender, age, and education. Furthermore, snowball sampling was employed to add up to the number of recipients. After two weeks, a reminder e-mail was sent to those who didn't reply the first e-mail. Finally, a total of 180 people responded to the survey, with a return rate of 48%. Fifty five percent of the respondents were male, and 45% were female with an average age of 24.09. Table 1 summarizes demographics of the participants.

TABLE1:
PARTICIPIANTS' DEMOGRAPHICS (N=180)

	Mean or %
Gender:	
Male	55% (99)
Female	45% (81)
Age	24.09
Academic degree:	
PhD	10% (18)
Master's degree	35% (63)
Bachelor	48% (87)
School/college	7% (12)
Perceived English proficiency[*]	3.2
Residence in foreign country:	
Yes	26% (47)
No	74% (133)

[*] represents English proficiency of the users as perceived by themselves,
1= very poor, 2= poor, 3= fair, 4= very good, 5= excellent;

Instruments

Questionnaire

In order to develop the questionnaire, after panel discussions between the authors, three focus groups were identified: a) teenagers, b) university students and youngsters below the age of thirty, c) people above the age thirty. The people in the focus groups included colleagues, friends, relatives and volunteer participants selected by convenience sampling. After conducting discussion sessions in the three focus groups, several ideas and recurring themes were identified. Then, using the themes identified in the group discussions, the first draft of the questionnaire was developed. Later, the draft was reviewed by two research experts resulting in several modifications in the format, and wording of the items. The final version of the questionnaire was used to collect participants' perceptions. The file format of the questionnaire was .doc in order to be compatible with older versions of MS Word and Open Office. Respondents answered the questionnaire by typing in the document and highlighting the choices.

The questionnaire included three sections: Section 1 dealt with age, gender, educational background, and English learning experience. In the second section, participants were asked to report their membership experience; how long they have been using the FB, how much time they spend on it, and how frequently do they use it. They also answered questions about their friends in FB and whether they are from different language backgrounds. The third section contained items regarding attitudes of the participants toward the use of English in FB. In this section, fifteen items were categorized into three sets; genre preference, the effect of initiating language on the language choice, and attitudes toward others who write in English. The items were in the form of five-point Likert items with answers ranging from *Strongly agree* to *Strongly disagree*.

Interview

Among 180 FB users who completed the questionnaire, 12 volunteered to participate in the interview session. Upon completion of the questionnaires, a request for interview was sent to all the 180 respondents. Finally, after considering variables such as age, gender, and perceived English proficiency, 12 participants took part in the interview. The interview sessions were conducted over voice call using Yahoo voice chat, Skype, and telephone calls. This was unavoidable because most of the participants were living in different cities and distant locations. All the interviews were digitally recorded by a computer software. The participants were asked to make their places calm and relax beforehand so the possibility of interruption was decreased. The participants were informed about the conversation being recorded and were ensured that the information will be kept anonymous.

The interview started with a welcome and a short greeting. Participants were told that the interview has academic purposes and it deals with language and Internet. However, the particular subject of the study was kept untold to prevent participants' possible prejudice and biases such as social desirability bias and acquiescence bias (McKenzie, 2010). To deal with the ethical issues, participants were debriefed at the end of the interview session about the subject of the study (Smith & Mackie, 2000).

Although the interviewer followed an interview guide consisting pre-prepared questions and prompts, the format of the interview was open-ended. Due to the purposes of our study, the interviewer tried to be less interrupting in order to elicit a vast range of ideas from the participants. The interviewer, who was a general linguist, tried to be very specific in his wordings. The initial interviews were reviewed several times by the researcher and the interviewer to make up for drawbacks. This helped the interviewer not seem biased to a specific answer. The interview session lasted for 24 minutes on the average, ranging from 20 to 40 minutes.

The interview was consisted of three general parts. The first part started with greetings and asked about basic information and information related to their English proficiency level, exposure to English, FB membership experience and daily use of FB. In the second part, questions were asked related to their language use in FB including Persian and English. Also, participants' opinions, attitudes and beliefs toward different aspects of using Persian and English were elicited. Finally, in the concluding part, interviewees were asked to comment on any important, not-mentioned, issues related to the topic.

III. FINDINGS

Content analysis

In most cases (83%), the participants used only one language in a single piece of writing. However, there were posts or comments in which the participants have used a mixture of two languages (Persian as the pivot, and one other language, mostly English). Table 2 shows summary information regarding their language choice in FB. As indicated, most content of the sample (86%) is in Persian (written in Persian script and Romanized script), but about 13% of the communication is conveyed in English and less than one percent is in other languages.

TABLE2:
SUMMARY INFORMATION OF PARTICIPANTS' LANGUAGE CHOICE IN FB

Language	Number of Words	Percent%
Persian	8,489	65
Romanized Persian	2,817	21
English	1,709	13
Others	141	<1

Questionnaire

In order to further investigate the effects of different patterns of FB use on the social variables, four questions were developed to elicit necessary information. For example, we collected information related to user's length of membership in FB. We also asked them whether they use FB with Persian interface or English one, the time they spend on FB and if they have English speaking friends in their circles. The summary of the information is presented in Table 3.

TABLE3:
SUMMARY OF INFORMATION RELATED TO PARTICIPANTS' FB ACCOUNT

	Mean or %
Length of membership in Facebook	3.01 (years)
Language interface in Use:	
Persian	19% (34)
English	81% (146)
Facebook usage time	40 (minutes per day)
English speaking friends in Facebook:	
Yes	14% (25)
No	86% (155)

Set A: genre preference

Set A included four items asking participants about the genre of English contents they post in FB. A summary of information about genre preference is shown in Table 4.

TABLE4:
SUMMARY OF INFORMATION FOR SET B

Individual items [1]	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
I prefer to write my feelings in English	2(1%)	4(2%)	48(27%)	71(39%)	55(30%)
I prefer to write news in English	7(4%)	12(7%)	52(29%)	57(32%)	52(29%)
I prefer to write scientific contents in English	26(14%)	65(36%)	42(23%)	29(16%)	18(10%)
I prefer to write lyrics and dialogues from famous songs and movies in English	62(34%)	66(37%)	20(11%)	19(10%)	13(7%)

As indicated, majority of the participants (69%) showed a negative attitude toward writing their feelings in English. In addition, regarding writing news in English, majority of them (61%) indicated a negative attitude. For the third item in the set, about half of the participants were positive about writing scientific contents in English, while a minority (26%) disagreed and the others were neutral. The most extreme preference is shown toward writing lyrics and dialogues in English. While seventy-one percent of the respondents agreed on their preference to write such topics in English, only seventeen percent of them disagreed.

Set B: the effect of initiating language on the language choice

Based on the interviews with the focus groups, we hypothesized that when a discussion is initiated in a specific language, friends will be more likely to continue it in the same language. Four questions asked participants whether they continue the discussions in the same language or not. The summary of findings is presented in Table 5.

TABLE5:
SUMMARY OF INFORMATION FOR SET B

Individual items	Strongly agree	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly disagree
When my friends write in English, I comment on them in English	34(19%)	49(27%)	59(33%)	20(11%)	18(10%)
When I write In English, my friends comment on it in English	38(21%)	54(30%)	52(29%)	17(9%)	19(10%)
When my friends write in Persian, I comment on them in English	2(1%)	9(5%)	43(24%)	65(36%)	61(34%)
When I write in Persian, my friends comment on it in English	3(2%)	7(4%)	44(24%)	62(34%)	64(35%)

As shown in the table, the results for items 1 and 2, and for items 3 and 4 are identical.For items 1 and 2, about half of the respondents agreed that initiating a post in English, may lead either their friends or themselves to continue the discussion in the same language.On the other hand, a minority of them (about 20%) did not agree and about 30% of them were neutral. For the third and fourth items, the results were different. A majority of participants (about 70%) disagreed to continue a discussion in English when it is initiated in Persian either by themselves or by their friends. This leaves only about 6% of the respondents to agree, and 24% to be neutral.

SetC: Attitudes toward others writing English

SetC dealt with participants' attitudes toward others who write English in FB.The participants were asked what they think about their friends when they write in English. In Table 6 a summary of the findings is shown.

As shown in the table, a majority of respondents (57%) agree that those who write in English in their FB are educated. However, regarding the second item, the answers are not considerably different. While 40% of the respondents disagree, 29% of them agree on the statement that those who write in English seem more prestigious. For the third item, about 26% of the respondents agree and 27% of them disagree with the account that those who write in English share contents that are more interesting. Finally, a majority of the participants (55%) agreed that those who use Persian interface of Facebook may be less educated than those who use the English interface.

TABLE6:
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR SET C

Individual items	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
Those who write in English are educated	36 (20%)	68(37%)	37(20%)	28(15%)	11(6%)
Those who write in English seem more prestigious	16 (9%)	37(20%)	55(30%)	50(28%)	22(12%)
Those who write in English share more interesting contents	24(13%)	24(13%)	83(46%)	26(14%)	23(13%)
Those who use Persian interface of Facebook may be less educated than those who use English interface	39(22%)	59(33%)	34(19%)	17(9%)	31(17%)

Set D: purpose of writing English

Understanding the purpose of writing English is inherent to our study. Four items were developed to ask participants why they choose English to write in FB. Findings are summarized in Table 7.

TABLE7
SUMMARY OF FINDINGS FOR SET D

Individual items [1]	Strongly agree	agree	Neutral	disagree	Strongly disagree
I write English to show my abilities in using it	2(1%)	7(4%)	97(54%)	54(30%)	20(11%)
I write English to improve my English proficiency	17(9%)	29(16%)	48(27%)	55(30%)	31(17%)
I write English because it seems more cool on the net	23(13%)	66(37%)	45(25%)	31(17%)	15(8%)
I write English because it seems more prestigious	16(8%)	36(20%)	68(38%)	39(22%)	21(12%)

The findings indicate that while only minority of the participants (5%) agreed on writing in English to show their abilities in using it, about 31% of them disagreed with such a purpose, and majority of them (54%) neither agreed nor disagreed with it. Improving English proficiency was not considered as a reason of writing in English for 74% of the respondents. Half of the respondents agreed that looking *more cool* is a reason for their writing in English. Being aware of the ambiguity the term *cool* conveys, we decided to include it in our survey due to its repetition in our interviews with the focus groups. Later, in the interview sessions, respondents were asked to clarify on their interpretation of the term. Results for the last item were not conclusive. While 28% of the respondents agreed on the prestige of writing in English, 34% of them disagreed and 38% were neutral.

Interview

In the interview sessions, attempts were made to elaborate on the results found from the survey. In what follows, the most significant findings are presented. While more than 15 head questions plus numerous follow up questions were asked in the interview session, only four head questions will be offered here. The first question asked whether the participants use English or Persian interface and why do they prefer one over another. Majority of our respondents (n=10) used English interface while only two of them used Persian interface.

1) Why do you use FB with English interface?

There was an agreement on the answers to this question. All the interviewees answered that they use English interface because they are used to do this. For example, interviewee 1 who is using FB for more than three years states that:

The English one is better… Firstly, I'm *adapted* [the respondent uses the loan word]. Also it takes time to be comfortable with the words that are used as substitutes in Persian such as using "ميپسندم" instead of "Like". If from the beginning it was"ميپسندم", then I wouldn't get used to use "Like".

Interviewee 7 who is an FB user for about two years, holds the same view and adds:

"ميپسندم"does not seem cool to me… once I decided to make it Persian and I tried it in my friend's page which was Persian… I didn't like it… I became confused…

An interesting finding was that the two respondents who stated to prefer Persian over English interface was both recently signed up in FB, and, therefore, had the chance to get used to Persian interface from the beginning. However, the other respondents had signed up in FB before Persian interface was developed.

2) When do you write English in FB? What do you write in English?

We could not come to any categorization based on the answers to this question. Most respondents told they could not think of any specific reason for their use of English in FB. Other respondents, however, had opposing ideas. For example, Interviewee 5 believes that:

It depends on the previous comments. If they are English then [I write] English… if it is Persian I will continue in Persian…

Then the interview goes like this:

Q: What about when you initiate?

A: Persian

Q: What is the reason?

A: There is no specific reason.

Q: Do you see any advantage?

A: No, no…

In a different way, Interviewee 7 says:

I prefer some special expressions in English which are common … such as:*Wow*, *my God*… things like this… or things that are easy to say and the Persian equivalent is difficult… for example *nice pic*….these things are common in FB…. but other things, I can express my feelings in Persian better I think…

Interviewee 1, who is in an opposite view toward using English expressions in FB, criticizes those who prefer English over Persian expressions and discusses:

... we use English expressions which have very good equivalents in Persian… For example, for *it's ok*, "حله" is shorter and smoother than "it's ok".

3) Why do you think some Persian speakers in FB write in English?

The answers to this question were also from different perspectives. For example, Interviewee 6 mentions that English media has had effects on our use of language and states that:

For example, for me, when I read something in English, Idon't translate it into Persian. Or, when you watch a movie, and there is a dialogue in English, you just repeat it… sometimes when somebody writes his/her status in English, you try to comment on it in English, this is the common way… just like some Iranian guys who live abroad…

However, Interviewee 4 insists that:

Some people want to show prestige… they want to show they know English and they can use it…

Also, Interviewee 1 admits that:

Maybe some wants to show prestige, or he/sheis so used to use English.

On a different perspective, Interviewee 5 believes that FB is a good context to practice English for learners and explains:

Everybody is going toward English… They are trying to learn it, they have to use it somehow… they are at the pick of learning English, they come with this mood and write in English…

4) Far from other things you mentioned, do you agree that some people use English to show their prestige or higher social class? Do you think English can be used to show prestige?

Interviewee 4 who lives in Malaysia for her study, believes that:

Yes, why not? When you know English, it shows that you have tried hard… Just like a person who works hard and buys a new Mercedes Benz. Of course it is prestigious… why not? He/she has tried hard. Many Iranians come here [Malaysia] and stay for long, but they do not manage to learn English because they do not study… when you study, why not to be proud of it?

Interviewee 5 has a different opinion:

If you have asked this question some years ago I would think like that, but now I don't think so. Today it is so common, most people know English pretty well, now everybody have understood that except their mother tongue, they have to learn another language, and that's English which will work for them… maybe because I myself have studied English and this is my major I say this… maybe somebody else would not say that…but it has become ordinary for me.

Interviewee 7 thinks that using English can be associated with prestige, but unlike Interviewee 4, has a negative opinion toward this prestige:

For me, when I see somebody has expressed his/her feelings very good in Persian, I love it…on the contrary when somebody says it in English I feel he/she is showing off!

Although the answers to this question differed extensively, Interviewee 1's opinion looks like a conclusion to this discussion:

It depends… for those who know English, it is not prestigious… it is common for them… but for those who are trying to learn it, it can be...

IV. DISCUSSION

The participants of this study used English less than Persian, though majority of them used FB with English interface. Findings from the survey yielded interesting insights into Iranian FB users' perceptions and attitudes toward the use of English. Results showed an inclination of the respondents toward using English to share famous movie dialogues, lyrics, as well as scientific content. However, most of the respondents were not positive about using English to talk about their feeling or share interesting news. It seems that the effect of English media on the world and the popularity of English movies and TV series are key factors leading to this phenomenon. Also, with English as the language of science (see, e.g., Tardy, 2004), it is not surprising that sharing scientific findings in English may be preferable to Iranian FB usersespeciallyfor those with higher academic degrees. Later interviews revealed that the inclination to share scientific topics in English is quite normal for university studentsbecause, as one of the interviewees put forward, "it is somehow a standard for university students to study scientific articles mostly in English".

When it comes to expressing feelings, participants mostly preferred to use Persian rather than English. This does not seem surprising as it is widely discussed that feelings are best conveyed through the native language and speakers experience reduced emotions when using their second language (see e.g., Caldwell-Harris & Ayǵ çegi-Dinn, 2009). In addition, for sharing news, findings indicated that respondents prefer to use Persian. Nevertheless, interview sessions indicated that the respondents might prefer to use Persian to talk about domestic news while they show more inclination to use English for talking about international news.

By considering the answers found in interview, it can be concluded that English seems more convenient for FB users because they are accustomed to it. This is not surprising asmost of the students use English operating systems and applications in their PCs or smartphones. In addition, not all the web-services provide Persian interface. For example, Yahoo Mail, which has been used by many Persian speakers for mailing and instant messaging for years, does not provide Persian versions for its services. This has made Iranian Internet users independent of Persian translations and inclined to the use of English.

Another significant finding was that the initiating language of a post has an important effect on the choice of language that is going to continue it. Therefore, when somebody writes a post in English, friends are more likely to continue it in English. Close to this finding, we asked our participant in the interview what they would think if a friend switches from English to Persian. Three of them answered they will find this inappropriate, two of them have no ideas and four of them stated that it does not matter to them. It seems that being worried about others' judgment and respecting to others' choice of language can be potential reasons for this preference of FB users.Also, friends who want to participate in the discussion may intend to show their group membership by following the same code their friends use.

An interesting finding was related to the purpose of writing in English. First of all, participants showed a disagreement toward all the items related to their purpose of writing English. Interestingly, they showed a disagreement toward the claim that they write English to improve their English proficiencies. Also, they disagreed the statement "I write English to make a better status of myself among my friends" more strongly. It can be concluded that none of the provided statements are good reasons for their choice of English in FB. However, it can be related to the social desirability bias which has led the participants in the way that will be more desirable socially (Schuman & Presser, 1996).

The most important finding in this study is based on the attitudes of participants toward others who write English in FB. Although participants stated that they don't use English to show their prestige to their friends, they believed that those who use English are more educated. Also they partially agreed that those who write in English want to show themselves more prestigious. Also they agreed that those who use English FB are more educated than those who use the Persian FB. In this paradoxical situation, as a conclusion, we found that sample's FB users with higher educational levels and higher English proficiency levels believed that English cannot be considered as the language of prestige in FB environment. In addition, some participants stated they have negative attitudes toward people who write English when there is no reason for writing in English. They believed that these people want to show themselves classy and prestigious. On the other hand, participants with lower education and lower English proficiency levels showed an agreement toward the prestigious status of people who write English. To conclude our discussion, we believe that this pilot study showed variables that can be investigated deeply in our further research.

V. Conclusion

This study provided insights into our understanding of Iranian FB users' attitude toward using English. Additionally, it explored reasons behind participants' preferences of English over Persianin some cases in FB. It was found that although many Iranian FB users do not associate prestigewith the use of English in their writings, for many users, there is still a positive value attached to it.

As with any study, there were limitations for the present work. First, the sampling method employed in this study was based on snowball sampling and may have led to sample bias. That is, the participants may include those who use FB more than an average FB user. Therefore, their perceptions may not necessarily be representative of the community of Iranian FB users. Second, due to administrative limitations imposed by geographical distances between the authors and the participants, conducting an in-depth interview sessions was challenging. Therefore, it was not possible for the authors to include a larger number of participants with more follow-up questions.

This study did not give any information about the relationship between the age, gender, and educational background of the participants with their attitudes toward the use of English and the amount of prestige they attach to its use. Therefore, further investigations may explore the possible relationships between these variables. Additionally, the study relied only on descriptive studies and interview findings to draw conclusions on the participants' attitudes. Consequently, the information within this workcan be served as a foundation for developing and validating new questionnaires and research instruments that can enlarge the scope of our understanding about internet users' attitude toward the use of English as their second or foreign language.

REFERENCES

[1] Babel. (1997). Babel's project on internationalizing the Internet Alis.isoc.org/palmares.en.html. (accessed 24/12/2015).
[2] Caldwell-Harris, C.L., & Ayǫ̌egi-Dinn, A. (2009).Emotion and lying in a non-native language, *International Journal of Psychophysiology,* 71, 193–204.
[3] Chalak, A., & Kassaian, Z. (2010). Motivation And Attitudes Of Iranian Undergraduate EFL Students. *GEMA Online™ Journal of Language Studies ,* 10 (2), 37-56.
[4] Crystal, D. (2003). A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics (5th edn). Oxford: Blackwell.
[5] Crystal, D. (2006). Language and the Internet. 2nd edn. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[6] El-Dash, L. G., & Busnardo, J. (2001).Brazilian attitudes toward English: Dimensions of status and solidarity. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 11(1), 57-74.
[7] Ellison, N., Steinfield, C., & Lampe, C. (2007). The Benefits of Facebook ''Friends:'' Social Capital and College Students' Use of Online Social Network Sites. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication,* 12*(4),* 1143–1168.
[8] Gardner, R. C. (1985). Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation.London: Edward Arnold Publishers.
[9] Grasmuck, S., Martin, J., & Zhao, S. (2009). Ethno-Racial Identity Displays on Facebook, *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication*, 15(1), 158–188.
[10] Hewitt, A., & Forte, A. (2006). Crossing boundaries: Identity management and student/faculty relationships on the Facebook. Paper presented at CSCW, Banff, Alberta, Canada.
[11] Jenkins, J. (2009). World Englishes, 2nd ed. London: Routledge.
[12] Kloss, Heinz (1966). "Types of Multilingual Communities: A Discussion of Ten Variables". *Sociological Inquiry,* 36(2), 135–145.
[13] Louw, D.A., & Edwards D.J.A. (1997). Psychology: An Introduction For Students in Southern Africa. 2nd Ed. Sandton: Heinemann Higher & FurtherEducation (Pty) Ltd.
[14] Mazer, J. P., Murphy, R. E., &Simonds, C. J. (2007). I'll see you on "Facebook:" The effects of computer-mediated teacher self-disclosure on student motivation, affective learning, and classroom climate. *Communication Education,* 56(1), 1–17.
[15] McKenzie, R.M. (2010). The Social Psychology of English as a Global Language: Attitudes, awareness and identity in the Japanese context.Dordrecht, Netherlands: Springer.
[16] Munat, J. (2005). "English as a Vehicular Language: a Case of Globalization or Linguistic Imperialism?" In: A. K. Isaacs (ed.). *Languages and Identities inHistorical Perspective*. Pisa: University of Pisa: 143-154.
[17] Schuman, H. & Presser, S. (1996). Questions & Answers in Attitude Surveys.Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
[18] Seliger, H. W., &Shohamy, E. (1989).Second Language Research Methods. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[19] Shukla, S., & Connor-Linton, J. (2006). Language Change. In Fasold, R. W., & Connor-Linton, J. (Eds.) *An introduction to language and linguistics* (pp. 275-310) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[20] Smith, E., & Mackie, D. (2000). Social psychology. New York: Worth.
[21] Sonda, N. (2011). Japanese college students' attitudes towards English as an international language: A structural equation modeling analysis.In A. Stewart (Ed.), *JALT 2010 Conference Proceedings*.Tokyo: JALT.
[22] Stutzman, F. (2006).An evaluation of identity-sharing behavior in social network communities.Paper presented at the iDMAa and IMS Code Conference, Oxford, Ohio.
[23] Tardy, C. (2004) "The role of English in scientific communication: lingua franca or Tyrannosaurus rex?". *Journal of English for academic purposes*, 3, 247-69.
[24] Thomas, L. (1996). Language as power: A linguistic critique of US English. *The Modern Language Journal*, *80*, 129-140.
[25] Uzum, B. (2007). An Investigation of Turkish Learners' Attitudes towards English and English-speaking Societies.Unpublished Master's thesis, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
[26] Vazeii, Z. (2009). Language Learning Motivation among Iranian Undergraduate Students. *International Journal of Language Studies* , 79-104.
[27] Wardhaugh, R. (2006). An Introduction to Sociolinguistics. New York: Blackwell Publishing.

Mohsen Jannejad was born in Khoramshahr in Khuzestan province of Iran in 1960 and finished his primary and secondary schools in 1979. In 1987, he got his B.A. in Teaching English Language and Literature from Shiraz university of Iran. In 1991 he got his M.A. in Teaching English Language and Literature from Tarbiat Modaress university of Tehran, Iran. After that he got his PhD in 2001 in Applied Linguistics from Tehran University.

He started teaching at Shahid Chamran university of Ahvaz officially in 1991 as the lecturer. He is now the Assistant Professor at Shahid Chamran university of Ahvaz, Iran. He has written three books and also more than twenty articles. Three of his publications are "Writing Letters in English with a View on basic of e-mail, Shahid Chamran university publication, Ahvaz, Iran, 2005.", "English For Students of Theology, Tehran,

Samt publication, Iran, 2004.", and "Phonetics and Phonology Dictionary, Shahid Chamran university publication, Ahvaz, Iran, 2003,". He is interested in research, studying and jogging.

Dr. Jannejad the faculty member of Shahid Chamran University, and one of the TELLSI and KELTA members. He is awarded for his research and publication in 2012 by KELTA.

Bita Asadi was born in Urmia a city in the west of Iran in 1980 and finished his primary and secondary schools in 1998. She got her B.A. in English Language teaching from Maraghe Islamic Azad University in 2002. In 2009 she graduated with M.A degree from Islamic Azad university of Maraghe. Currently she is a PhD candidate in Teaching English Language and Literature field in Shahid Chamran university of Ahvaz.

She has been teaching English in various language schools and institutions, as well as universities since 2002. She has published many research articles in ISI and ISC journals like AULA ORIENTATION. She has also published a book entitled "Incidental Focus on Form in Free Discussion EFL Classes, Limbert Academic Publication, 2012."

Ms Asadi participated at "Language, Discourse, and Pragmatics International an conference as executive committee member. She also received a certificate of appreciation for her active cooperation in organizing Urmia International conference in 2013. He is interested in research in discourse analysis.

Mehran Memari was born in Behbahan in Khuzestan province of Iran in 1965. Mehran was graduated from secondary school in 1983 in Experimental sciences field. Getting his B.A. in TEFL in 1992 from Shahid Chamran University, He continued his study and earned his M.A in General Linguistics from Isfahan Governmental University in 1996. Now he is a PhD candidate of TEFL in Shahid Chamran University.

He started his work as the teacher in Ministry of Education in 1986, and because of being a teacher he was not forced for civil military service. He continued his study at university while he was a teacher. In 1996 he continued his teaching at university as a lecturer after being graduated in M.A. He is now Assistant Professor at Teacher Education University. He has written 19 books and also 8 articles in ISI and ISC journals. He has participated in many international conferences with presenting his articles. "Spotlight on Idioms, Kerdegar publication, 2013.", "Letters and Corresponding Translation, Shahid Chamran University, 2012", and "A Reference Book for Pre-University Teachers, Kerdegar Publication, 2005." are as some of his books published.

Mr. Memari is the founder and head of Khuzestan English Language Teachers Association. He is one of the active members of TELLSI in Iran. He has been selected as the best researcher in 2010 and the best university teacher in 2008. In LDP international conferences in 2015, 2013 and 2010 he has been the Executive manager. He is interested in research on Discourse and Grammatical Metaphor.

An Exploration of the Effect of Time Pressure and Peer Feedback on the Iranian EFL Students' Writing Performance

Nasim Ghanbari
English Department, Persian Gulf University, Bushehr, Iran

Azade Karampourchangi
Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch of Bushehr, Iran

Mohammad Reza Shamsaddini
English Department, Persian Gulf University, Bushehr, Iran

Abstract—**Writing is one of the most important skills in second language teaching, learning and assessment. Consequently, it is crucial to enhance writing ability. According to several studies, one beneficial way is using peer feedback. Furthermore, time pressure is one of those non-linguistic factors which may affect the students' writings. This study was an attempt to investigate the effect of time pressure and peer feedback on Iranian EFL students' writing performance. To conduct this study, 69 female and male students received an Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT) and 60 homogeneous participants whose scores ranged from 150 to 169 (advanced level) were selected. They were divided into three groups of twenty and asked to write about the same topic under three different conditions. In the first group the participants had timed exam without peer feedback for 40 minutes, the second group had timed exam with peer feedback for 40 minutes, and the last group had untimed exam with peer feedback. Finally, results of a two-way ANOVA test indicated that the best performance is related to the group who received peer feedback under time pressure; next, the group who received peer feedback without any time pressure, and the last group who wrote without peer feedback under time pressure. To recap, the results illustrated that peer feedback had a significant effect, while time pressure did not have any effect on writing performance. Furthermore, it was revealed that there was no interaction between peer feedback and time pressure.**

Index Terms—**Jacob's et al, analytic rating scale, peer feedback, time pressure**

I. INTRODUCTION

Transferring information is one of the most fundamental issues in this era since we need to share our new knowledge and receive new discoveries from others. To improve our knowledge and be up to date, writing enhancement is crucial. As it can be clearly seen, most publications and website materials use an international language, namely English, as their means of communication. Thus, to keep the connection, other nationalities and countries need to improve their English language especially in written form. In traditional education methodologies, teachers directed the learning process and students were assumed to have a receptive role in their education. Armstrong (2012) claimed that traditional education ignores or prevents the growth of the responsibility of the learner. Theorists like John Dewey, Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky are primarily responsible for the move to learner-centered learning. They focused on how students learn. Communicative language learning is based on student-centered features which make the learners responsible, independent, and autonomous (Omaggio-Hadley, 2001).

One of the most fundamental concepts in learner-centered classes is peer feedback. However, an abridged introduction to feedback is necessary to facilitate the comprehension of peer feedback concept. Indeed, according to Richards and Schmidt (2002), feedback is vividly defined in language dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics as follows: "any information on the result of behavior" (p.234). In language teaching field, feedback refers to comments, explanations and helpful data which learners receive either from the teacher or other people (Richards and Schmidt, 2002). Feedback is a crucial issue in the writing process and plays a central role since without any feedback the aim of writing class will not be fulfilled. According to Williams (2003), one goal of feedback is to assist students to become "cognizant of what is expected of them as writers and are able to produce it with minimal errors and maximum clarity" (p. 1). Peer review or feedback is defined as "an activity in the revising stage of writing in which students receive feedback about their writing from other students, their peers" (Richard and Schmidt, 2002, p. 390). Furthermore, Coit (2004) explained that "Based on theories in collaborative learning and social cognitive development, peer review has assumed an important role in both L1 and L2 writing classrooms." (p. 902). Some of the studies (Lee, 2011; Noora, 2006) highlighted the importance of feedback. Furthermore, researchers are interested in scrutinizing the methods for

providing and receiving feedback as well as the effect of feedback on students' writing in language learning scope. However, considerable recent studies have been conducted about the preferences and attitudes of both learners and teachers towards error correction and feedback (Katayama, 2007).

Putting the term peer feedback aside, another important non-linguistic factor and variable in the current study is time pressure which influences the result of exam. It may artificially decrease the candidates' grade. For this reason, candidates have always complained about unfair score and they believed that their scores cannot be adequate to show their real competence! However, they cannot plan and manage their time in order to be successful in their examination. Some researchers criticized the testing method in which students are under the pressure of time and as Kenworthy (2006) (restated the words of Sanders & Littlefield, 1975; Horowitz, 1986; Kroll, 1990), both students and instructors agreed that texts which are produced in such an artificial environment with time limitations cannot be reliable criteria of students' true ability. Moreover, timed-test situations are against process approaches since they follow the product approach in which students produce final draft. Whereas, in contemporary writing instructions which support process approach students write their essays during different processes like planning, drafting, revising and editing to achieve the appropriate final draft (Seow, 2002). As it is clear from some studies concerning time pressure some researchers (Caudery, 1990; Livingston, 1987) discussed that time restriction did not affect participants' writing performance and some others (Crone, Wright, and Baron, 1993; Powers and Fowles, 1996) opposed the previous idea.

As the current study concerns, applying whole potential competence and achieving the best satisfying scores in writing exam are of utmost importance for Iranian EFL students. However, students do not seem to be able to get use of their whole potential competence during their writing exam. Transferring genuine knowledge is one of the students' dreams. Hence, all the time, they complain about their scores. They excuse for stress and lack of time. They believe that if they had more time and less stress, they would surely perform better! Moreover, they presume that peer feedback has beneficial effect and by the use of that candidates will achieve better scores. The reason is that they feel stress-free and they can use their peers' ideas to activate their schemata and be more creative by receiving different hints.

According to the mentioned problems, an exploration of the simultaneous effect of time pressure and peer feedback on Iranian EFL learners' writing quality in their exams seems to be imperative to discover ways to help them prevailing in their endeavors. Consequently, as poor evidences is available on demonstrating the influence of those factors in the exam setting, the current study seems to be appropriate to shed light on the topic especially in the Iranian context. Not only in Iran but also in other countries, researchers have not highlighted the significant role of time pressure especially during timed exams. Most of them have illustrated the importance of time pressure just in classroom activities or during a long period of time in which the students have to manage their time for their examination period (e.g. one month for several tests). Analogously, peer feedback has been studied in teaching and learning scopes. Since there are negligible proofs of this matter in testing scope under time pressure, it seems that it is necessary to focus on this issue in this field.

Moreover, there is no evidence to show the interaction between two factors, i.e. time pressure and peer feedback, especially in Iran; and even it seems that there are really poor witnesses to demonstrate this interaction around the world. Although they have been probed separately, there is no study investigating the simultaneous effects of peer feedback and time pressure. Thus, there is a vital need to make a thorough investigation. Hereupon, the current study strives to fill this gap and the researcher hopes for the novelty of the present study.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Ahangari (2014) explored the effect of self, peer and teacher correction on the pronunciation improvement of Iranian EFL learners. To do this, she decided to select 45 participants from among 60 English language learning students by assigning a PET test. Then, they were divided into three groups. One of the instrumentations of the study was some picture series. The participants received those series to make and then tell a story based on the scripts. In the self-correction group every participant had to correct her pronunciation errors individually, in the peer correction group the participants in pairs corrected each other's pronunciation errors and for the third group their errors were corrected by the teacher. This process period continued for 15 sessions. A pre-test and post-test were administered. The results showed that the pronunciation of the self-correction group improved more than the other two groups and peer correction group outperformed the teacher correction group.

Baleghizade and Rahimi (2012) discussed the importance of cooperation in their article and they explored the effectiveness of cooperative on the learning strategies. They aimed to investigate the effect of cooperative learning strategies on the composition writing performance. To achieve their goal, they decided to examine 60 upper intermediate Iranian EFL students. There were divided into experimental and control group. Data were collected using compositions written by students. The subjects in the experimental group wrote their compositions cooperatively, while the participants in the control group were asked to write individually on their final product. The results of posttest score demonstrated the significant superiority of experimental group over the control group (p < 0.05). Consequently, they concluded that teaching writing through team work, i.e. cooperative learning, improved students' writing performance. Furthermore, they could evaluate their own and peers' writing and this fact affected the atmosphere and made it friendlier. One reason was that many students felt more comfortable with their friends than with their teachers.

In another study Jafari and Ansari (2012) considered the effect of group work and gender difference on the writing accuracy of Iranian EFL learners. Their treatment lasted over a month and their participants were sixty Iranian EFL

learners. As same as previous study, they were divided into two groups. The experimental group wrote collaboratively while the control group was required to write individually. Four essay writing sessions were designed in order to fulfill the aim of their study and both groups participated in that program. Both males and females wrote on the same topic and genre. The results showed that the participants in collaborative writing group outperformed the students in the control group. On the other hand, it was concluded that gender difference played a significant role in Iranian EFL collaborative writing context since females outperformed males in the same group.

Another study which emphasized the complementary halo of different kinds of feedback was conducted by Birjandi and Hadidi Tamjid (2012). They investigated the effect of self-, peer and teacher assessment on the writing performance and promotion of Iranian EFL learners. To conduct this study, 157 intermediate TEFL (Teaching English as Foreign Language) students were selected. They were divided into five groups with five different treatments: four experimental groups and one control group. The treatments were as following: the researchers decided to ask experimental group to write journal writing and then self-assessed their own papers. Similarly, the second group self-assessed their own writings. On the other hand, the third group applied peer assessment, and finally the fourth group had both self- and peer assessment (simultaneously). Moreover, the important point in this study was that teacher assessed the performance of all experimental groups, except the fourth one. In the control group, there was only teacher assessment. It should be noted that they used quasi-experimental as the design of their study. Eventually, the results reported the greatest progress in the second and third groups' writing performance, i.e. the group in which the students employed self-assessment and peer assessment, respectively.

In order to represent the important and complementary role in enhancing the acquisition of writing among ESL students, Maarof, Yamat and Li Li (2011) conducted a research. They investigated the ESL students' perception of the effect of teacher feedback, peer feedback and their combination, namely teacher-peer feedback, in their writing. The participants of their study were 150 students from five secondary schools in Malaysia. They were asked to respond to a questionnaire. The mentioned questionnaire made up of 32 items on a 4-point Likert scale, two multiple-choice items and three open-ended items. The Results indicated that most of the participants agreed that the combination of teacher and peer feedback is more beneficial for their ESL writing. On the contrary, just a small number of them (10 students) preferred teacher feedback. However, most of the students welcomed the combined use of teacher and peer feedback since teacher feedback helped learners to learn a target structure, and peer feedback could also reconfirm what teacher commented and provided additional input via the learners' input. Therefore, they believed that the complementary role of teacher and peer feedback is essential to enhance their ESL writing.

Grami (2010) conducted a full-fledged research as his thesis. The project was implemented in one of the universities in Saudi Arabia. It is significant to point that teacher-centered method was predominant in that context. He investigated the effects of instructing peer feedback to a group of university-level students. The data for this study was collected via various data collection methods and lasted for three months. First, students' initial perceptions of peer feedback were explored. Then, after the long treatment, those perceptions were compared to their perceptions after the experiment using semi-structured questionnaires and individual interviews. The study included three different phases. The results of the first stage showed that students preferred teacher-written feedback, but were anxious about peer feedback at the same time. The reason was that the linguistic level of the fellow students was lower than that of the teachers and they felt more secure after receiving teacher-written feedback. In the second phase of the project ESL students were divided into two groups; the experimental group, which jointly used teacher-written and peer feedback as a multiple source; and the control group, which received only teacher-written feedback. The last part of the study was devoted to a comparison between pre- and post-tests scores to measure the progress of students' writing. Texts were evaluated applying a holistic assessment approach. As a whole, concerning all three phases, the results showed that (a) in the first stage teacher feedback was welcomed. (b) In the second phase the results suggest that peer feedback helped students gained new skills and improved existing ones. (c) Finally, students in both groups had improvement. Although all of the students had better performance, members of the peer feedback group outperformed the other group in every aspect of writing after feedback instruction and application. The study concludes that despite linguistic concerns, the overall perception of peer feedback positively changed and students accepted this technique as part of their ESL writing curriculum. Grami (2010) proposed that if students were properly trained and learned how to use peer feedback, the benefits could be very significant.

Kenworthy (2006) probed the effects of different media and additional time on the quality of English written assessment exams of sixteen intermediate-level students. They enrolled at a satellite campus and their first language was Cantonese. They took part in a 45-minute timed placement manual test. Several weeks later they were asked to complete a computer-generated essay in a period of one week. Statistical analyses (t-tests) demonstrated insignificant differences between the frequencies of selected lexical traits found within both categories of writings. By contrast, unlike those studies that offered the ineffectiveness of extra time, additional time played an important role in grammatical enhancement of participants and they produced fewer grammatical errors within higher quality writings. Finally, meticulously compared with the timed writings, the untimed home-written essays had fewer grammatical errors and greater holistic scores which supported the idea that additional time affects overall writing quality.

III. CURRENT STUDY

The focal objective of the present study is to ascertain the simultaneous effect of peer feedback and time pressure on Iranian EFL students' writing performance in exam. This study strives to prove whether peer feedback affects Iranian EFL learners' performance in their writing test or not. Another important issue is the effect of time pressure to illustrate that in which condition, namely timed or untimed examination, students perform better. Consequently, both positive and negative effects of those two non-linguistic factors will be probed separately and together.

Finally, the researcher decides to inquire the probable interaction between peer feedback and time pressure in this current study.

The researcher aims to examine students' writings based on the five criteria (Content; Organization; Vocabulary; Language use; Mechanics) adapted from Jacob's et al. (1981).

To fulfill the aim of this study, the following questions were put forward:

1. Does peer feedback have any effect on students' writing performance?
2. Does time pressure have any effect on students' writing performance?
3. Is there any interaction between peer feedback and time pressure?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to conduct this research project, the researcher selected sixty nine adult students (21 males and 48 females). These students were all Persian speakers who were studying English as a foreign language (EFL).

The participants were selected randomly, and in order to have homogeneous groups, Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered. After OPT administration, from among 69 participants, 60 adult advanced students (15 males and 45 females) whose scores were between one standard deviation above and below the mean of the test had been qualified to take the examination. Hence, in order to homogenize the participants, nine students were disqualified and they were reported as the research dropouts.

The distribution and grouping of gender are summarized in Table 4.1.

TABLE 4.1.
DISTRIBUTION AND GROUPINGS OF PARTICIPANTS

Gender	Number	Percent
Female	45	75 %
Male	15	25 %
Total	60	100 %

The participants were randomly divided into three groups of 20, since the project entailed a same writing test in three different exam settings.

B. Instrumentation

In order to check the level of English language proficiency and the homogeneity of the three groups, the researcher asked the participants to take the Oxford Placement Test.

The OPT (Allen, 2004) edition entails 200 questions: 100 listening and 100 English grammar questions. Indeed, the first section is a test of reading and listening skills. OPT took one hour and first part was listening which lasted in about 10 minutes. Then, students had approximately 50 minutes for grammar part. In both listening and grammar parts, students should simply choose one correct box out of two boxes. This international test is efficient, reliable and accurate in grading.

After assuring about the homogeneity of students' proficiency level, a writing test was implemented to evaluate the participants' ability in writing. The researcher of this study paid particular attention to the topic selection. It was very essential to choose an authentic topic to let Iranian EFL students of this study develop their writing paragraphs easily. Therefore, this process facilitated their writing performance since the authentic topic activated their schemata and background knowledge. Accordingly, it saved their time in those two situations under time pressure.

The participants of all three groups were required to write about a same topic which was chosen from the book series "Cambridge IELTS: Examination papers from University of Cambridge ESOL examination English for speakers of other languages".

According to the source of topic selection, the students were asked to finish their writing (in timed exams) within a 40 minutes time period.

As mentioned before, there are different ways to score students' writing performance. In this study, the researcher decided to use Jacob's scoring scale which is an analytical rating scale.

Jacob's et al. (1981) scale considers content, organization, vocabulary, language use, and mechanics. Moreover, each component has four rating levels of (a) very poor, (b) poor to fair, (c) average to good, and (d) very good to excellent. Each level and component has been obviously described for that particular level as well as a numerical scale. For example, regarding the first component content, very good to excellent content has a minimum rating of 27 and a maximum of 30. For this range of score students' writing content should be ''knowledgeable, substantive, thorough development of thesis, relevant to assigned topic''; on the other hand, very poor content ranges from 13 to 16

illustrating that the content does not show knowledge of subject (Jacobs et al., 1981). The total range for each of the writing skills in this scale which are content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics are 13–30, 7–20, 7–20, 5–25 and 2–5, respectively.

C. Procedure

Under testing conditions, the subjects were asked to take the OPT consisting of 100 listening and 100 English grammar items in the very first session; the evaluation of the OPT was objective because each item had only one correct response; 200 marks were assigned to the 200 items of the test which the participants had to perform on. After data collection procedure, scoring procedure was implemented to obtain the results. Firstly, the researcher of this study evaluated the students' proficiency level scores. It was objective since each question had one correct answer (in both listening part and grammar part).

Then, based on proficiency test results, the researcher limited the participants to 60 (out of 69) and they were divided into three homogeneous groups. All three groups were given a same topic to write. The most significant issue was that their examination settings were completely distinct from each other as follows:

1. Timed condition without peer feedback (40 minutes)
2. Timed condition with peer feedback (40 minutes)
3. Untimed condition with peer feedback (one week)

In this study, the students did not know their work would be analyzed as this information could jeopardize the validity of this study.

Introductory speech on the dos and don'ts of the test were given by the researcher in all three conditions; for instance, the researcher decided to train the participants how to give feedback to the peers during their semester. In all three groups, the students were instructed how to give feedback. Therefore, they knew the meaning of peer feedback and learned how to perform it in the related context.

As they studied three units during one term, each unit had one writing session. The students studied three units each semester. Consequently, they had three writing sessions with peer feedback training concept, theoretically and practically. The researcher of this study believed that this training was necessary to fulfill the aim of the study. Their semester lasted in 16 sessions (forty-five days) and the writing tests were implemented in the fifteenth session.

To score the writings, the following steps, based on a pre-planned procedure, was conducted.

1) Each composition was read and scored by the researcher for five times. In each reading, the examiner focused on one aspect or criterion (out of the five criteria detailed in the Jacob's rating scale).

2) Having finished the first rating, to establish the inter-reliability of the scores, a fellow teacher who was familiar and experienced with grading policy and Jacob's scoring scale was asked to follow the same procedure with the papers.

Consequently, to fulfill the aim of scoring reliability, the researcher decided to estimate inter-reliability of scores.

V. RESULTS

A. Results of the Two-way ANOVA

Firstly, in order to determine the significant difference of two independent variables in this study, namely peer feedback and time pressure on the dependent variable, i.e. writing performance, a two-way ANOVA was run. As it could be obviously seen in the following Table, descriptive statistics related with each of the independent variables was shown (Table 5.1).

TABLE 5.1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WRITING SCORE

Peer feedback	Time pressure	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
with peer feedback	with time pressure	77.00	4.425	20
	no time pressure	76.80	4.432	20
	Total	76.90	4.372	40
no peer feedback	with time pressure	73.75	4.993	20
	Total	73.75	4.993	20
Total	with time pressure	75.37	4.939	40
	no time pressure	76.80	4.432	20
	Total	75.85	4.786	60

As could be inferred from the above Table, some differences in the mean performance of the learners in each group could be identified. In order to significantly test the differences, results of ANOVA test were presented in Table 5.2 below.

TABLE 5.2.
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: WRITING SCORE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	132.700ª	2	66.350	3.103	.053	.098
Intercept	317688.022	1	317688.022	14855.587	.000	.996
Peer feedback	105.625	1	105.625	4.939	**.030**	.080
Time pressure	.400	1	.400	.019	**.892**	.000
Peer fdbck * time pressure	.000	0	.	.	.	.000
Error	1218.950	57	21.385			
Total	346545.000	60				
Corrected Total	1351.650	59				

a. R Squared = .098 (Adjusted R Squared = .067)

As the result (p= 0.030) showed the significant difference, addressing the first research question in this study which explored the effect of peer feedback on writing performance, it was clearly seen that peer feedback had a significant effect on writing. It was revealed that at p= 0.05 level of significance, there existed enough evidence to conclude that peer feedback at p= 0.030 level of significance was effective.

On the other hand, addressing the second research question focusing on the effect of time pressure on writing performance, the above table and result (p = 0.892) demonstrated that time pressure did not have any significant effect on writing performance.
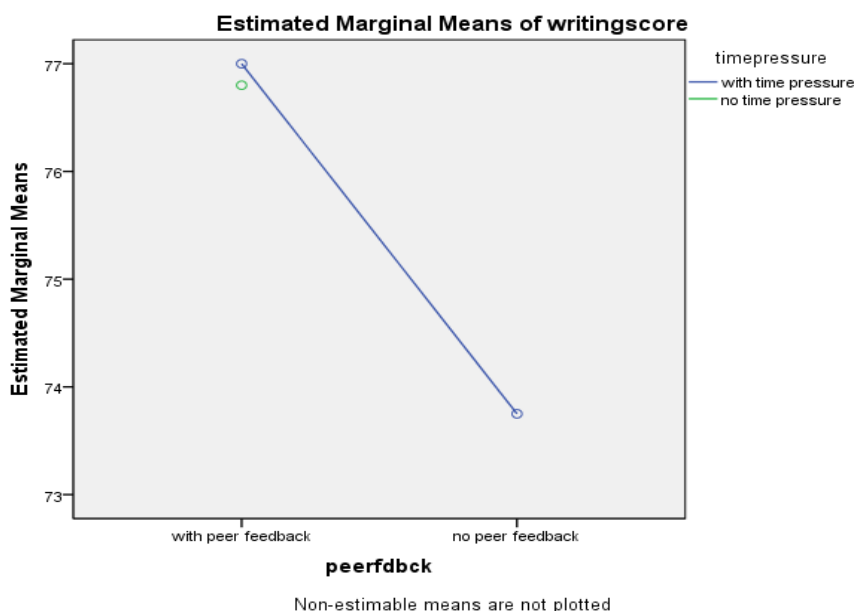
Figure 5.1: Interaction plot regarding peer feedback and time pressure

Furthermore, to address the third research question from the above table, it was deduced that there was no interaction between the two independent variables, i.e. peer feedback and time pressure, in this study. Figure 8.1 above graphically depicted lack of any interaction between peer feedback and time pressure in this study.

As mentioned before, the exam settings entailed three different conditions. The best performance was related to the group who received peer feedback under time pressure by the mean score of 77.00 and it had the highest position in the above plot. Secondly, the group who received peer feedback and wrote their writings without any time pressure achieved the second position by the mean score of 76.80 which was approximately close to that of first group. Finally, the last group who wrote under time pressure and did not receive any peer feedback by the mean score of 73.75 had the lowest position in the above plot.

B. Results on Reliability Analysis

1. Inter-Rater Reliability

Since writing performance was the dependent variable in this study, in order to establish the reliability of the scorings, a colleague of researcher who was an expert in writing assessment double scored the writing tests in each of three experimental groups. In the tables that came below, results of Pearson correlations were presented for each of the groups respectively.

As it could be seen in the following tables, the range of scorings was demonstrated to account inter-rater reliability of scores. Since there were three groups of participants in this study, three separate tables were required to show the results

of correlation analyses. By looking at the tables below, it was easily seen that both examiners, namely the researcher and second examiner, had similar ratings.

TABLE 5.3.
CORRELATIONS OF GROUP 1 CORRELATIONS

		Group1	Group1Coll
Group1	Pearson Correlation	1	.986**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Group1Coll	Pearson Correlation	.986**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

According to Table 5.3., a significant correlation was obtained to show the inter-reliability of the two raters in the first group.

TABLE 5.4.
CORRELATIONS OF GROUP 2 CORRELATIONS

		Group2	Group2coll
Group2	Pearson Correlation	1	.975**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Group2coll	Pearson Correlation	.975**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Analogously, a significant correlation, as shown in Table 5.4., reported the inter-reliability of second group's scores.

TABLE 5.5.
CORRELATIONS OF GROUP 3 CORRELATIONS

		Group3	Group3coll
Group3	Pearson Correlation	1	.941**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	20	20
Group3coll	Pearson Correlation	.941**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	20	20

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Likewise, to show inter-rater reliability for the third group, the same result was presented in Table 5.5.

To recap, all the Tables concerning the inter-rater reliability results demonstrated significant correlation as shown above. Consequently, it could be interpreted that ratings of both researcher and second examiner had approximately same quality. Thus, having determined the high inter-relations between different ratings in this study, the averaged ratings of the researcher were added to the rating of the second examiner, and they were averaged to obtain the final rating of all the sixty papers in the present study. All the computations and analyses in this study were based on these obtained scores, which were the final reliable scores.

VI. DISCUSSION

This section provides a specific discussion for each of the research hypotheses and makes attempt to relate the findings to the existing literature. Addressing the first research hypothesis it was revealed that peer feedback has a significant effect on writing performance and improved it. As the researcher reviewed the literature, she found some relevant studies. Soleimani and Jamzivar (2014) conducted a quasi-experimental study which was designed to investigate the impact of providing written corrective feedback by peers on writing performance. The researchers homogenized 46 pre-intermediate learners in a private English institute in Tehran, Iran, and assigned them into two groups of 23: the peer feedback group, which were required to provide peer feedback, and the teacher feedback group, which received teacher feedback. In a 20-session course, participants handed in 16 paragraphs, and the feedbacks were given based on a checklist designed by the researchers. The t-test analysis of the post-test results revealed a meaningful statistical difference between the two groups, and the comparison of means reported a higher rate of performance improvement on peer-feedback group.

Wakabayashi (2013) compared the effect of reviewing peer texts and one's own text on writing improvement. To conduct this study, the researcher selected Fifty one students who participated in two writing classes with two different

proficiency levels in a Japanese university. The lower and higher proficiency students reviewed peer texts and their own texts, respectively. There were more materials like multiple task sheets for students of both classes to give accurate feedback on texts. To examine the participants' achievements, their writing samples were collected at the beginning and the end of the semester and were compared to each other. In line with comparative analysis, a questionnaire was also distributed among the participants to inquire their perceptions towards the tasks. The results showed that in comparison with those who reviewed their peers' texts, the students who reviewed their own texts scored better. Moreover, a significant correlation was reported between score increase and perceived effectiveness of the task with the students who focused on reviewing peer texts.

In the same vein, Al-Jamal (2009) investigated the impact of peer response on the Jordanian EFL students' writing skill. The findings showed that the participants preferred training on peer feedback. Moreover, Lin and Chien (2009) conducted a study associated with peer correction. The study lasted eight weeks with writing training and peer feedback activities. The results revealed that most participants believed in the positive impact of the peer feedback on their English writing.

Harmer (2004) was another enthusiastic researcher in this field. He observed that the number of peer-triggered revisions made 90% of the whole revisions, and the number of revisions with enhanced quality increased compared with that before peer review training. He concluded that extra peer review feedback training inside and outside of classroom can enormously affect EFL students. Berg (1999) investigated how trained peer response shapes ESL students' revisions and revision quality and finalized that trained peer response boosted positive impact on ESL students' revision types and quality.

In addition to our study, all above mentioned studies and other studies (Caulk, 1994; Mendon ça & Johnson, 1994) have reported the positive effects of peer review on one's writing improvement.

Addressing the second research hypothesis the results revealed that time pressure did not have any effect on writing performance of the participants. Caudery (1990) run a study in which 24 participants were divided into two 12 member groups to show the effect of time restriction on their essay writings. Students wrote two argumentative assays, in each case with a choice of two topics. So there were two different conditions, i.e. one essay was written in class in 40 minutes and another was started in class. In the second situation, students were given one hour of classroom time and their task was commenced in the class but it was continued and finished at home during two days. The essay topics were reversed for the two groups, i.e. the topics on which one group wrote in 40 minutes were the topics on which another group wrote without any time pressure. Finally, the results indicated that there was no evidence to support the hypothesis that students will write better without a time restriction. In other words correlation between the groups' timed and untimed essay scores proposed no reason to prove the relationship between the variation in individual students' scores and time factor.

Livingston (1987) conducted a study that examined differences in essay scores completed under three separate timing conditions: (a) 20 minutes, (b) 30 minutes, and (c) 30 minutes with separately timed sections of 10 minutes for planning and 20 minutes for writing. Two different essay topics were employed in the study. Results showed that the two essays differed in difficulty — one essay was clearly easier for the majority of students irrespective of ability level, timing, or order of presentation. Several conclusions from that study were made concerning essay timing: a) the effect of an extra 10 minutes (allowing 30 minutes instead of 20 minutes) was "very small in relation to the other sources of variation," and the effect of students' ability on the difference between a 20- and 30-minute essay was far short of significant, b) providing students with 30 minutes, but requiring a 10-minute planning period (condition c above) appeared to lower scores if this essay came first, and appeared to have a slight increase in scores if it was the second essay, c) for students with low ability, neither the extra time nor topic made a difference in their score.

Crone, et al., (1993) also examined the effects of essay length in a study conducted to determine the final essay timing for the SAT II: Writing Test. Approximately 7,100 high school juniors and seniors completed several test sections from the SAT I verbal, SAT II: Writing Test (multiple- choice), the Test of Standard Written English, and two essays of 30 minutes or 15 minutes in length. Results clearly showed that examinees received lower essay scores in the 15-minute condition than in the 30-minute condition although they were able to write reasonable essays in 15 minutes and with lower quality than 30 minutes. Furthermore, the study examined if the time difference had any impact on ethnic/racial minorities or language minorities. The study confirmed that English Second Language (ESL) students scored lower than English First Language (EFL) students irrespective of essay length and that all groups scored lower on the 15-minute essay.

Powers and Fowles (1996) examined the difference in examinee performance on a 40-minute and 60-minute proposed GRE writing test. Three hundred prospective graduate students completed two different essays under each of the time limits. On a questionnaire completed after writing the essays, 75 percent of respondents said a 40-minute time allocation was adequate, and 88 percent felt 60 minutes was adequate. The differences in the perception of time provided were statistically significant, especially for students who said they were slow or average test-takers. Additional time was equally beneficial to test-takers, who judged themselves as faster, average, or slower writers. Mean scores increased slightly with additional time (mean increases were .06 and 1.0 for different prompts on a 1–6 scale with two readers). However, the relative performance of fast, average, and slow test-takers and the meaning of test scores did not change noticeably when more time was allocated.

As it is clear from the mentioned studies some of them (Caudery, 1990; Livingston, 1987) confirmed the result of present study and showed that time restriction did not affect participants' writing performance and some others (Crone, et al., 1993; Powers & Fowles, 1996) opposed our results.

Addressing the third null hypothesis the results of our study indicated that there was no interaction between peer feedback and time pressure. As mentioned in the procedure of the study the researcher has three groups: A) no peer feedback but with time pressure, B) with peer feedback but no time pressure, and C) with peer feedback and with time pressure. As mentioned above the results of the study showed that peer feedback improved writing performance of the participants but time pressure did not have any effect on their writing performance. The results of the second and third groups were compared to each other in order to find out about any possible interaction between time and peer feedback. The marginal means of the writing scores were estimated and they showed that there was no interaction between the two independent variables in this study.

As far as the researcher concerned, although there were many studies concerning the effects of those two components of the interaction separately, there was no strong evidence exploring the effect of time pressure and peer feedback on writing performance in exam setting simultaneously. Thus, she could not find any literature related to any possible interactions between peer feedback and time pressure in writing but she could find some other studies concerning with other independent variables. One of these studies was run by Crone, Wright, and Baron (1993) who examined if the time difference had any impact on ethnic/racial minorities or language minorities. The study confirmed that English Second Language (ESL) students scored lower than English First Language (EFL) students irrespective of essay length and that all groups scored lower on the 15-minute essay. However, to determine whether any group was differentially disadvantaged by shorter essays, their standardized differences were computed. They hypothesized that If ESL students were disadvantaged on the shorter essay, then the standardized differences between the ESL and non-ESL examinees would have been larger for the 15- minute essay than for the 30-minute essay. Interestingly, it was revealed that there were no substantial or significant differences between the 15-minute and 30-minute essays for ESL and EFL students within any ethnic/race subgroup. It was shown that the standardized differences between ESL and EFL students were actually smaller with the 15-minute essay for three of the four groups.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this peer feedback research project, the participants not only created and wrote individually but also gave feedback on their peers' contents. Peers had the opportunity to assist each other by swapping ideas about the same topic. As Topping (2000) believed, constructive nature of elaborations in peer correction (instead of peer-competitions) highlights the role of peer feedback, improves verbal communications, facilitates the process of giving and accepting criticism, authenticates and empowers peers' positions. Furthermore, another side effect of peer correction is to train peers to be objective assessors. (Topping, 2000).

As a conclusion, the current study focused on the null hypotheses which were based on the assumption that peer feedback and time pressure would not affect learners' writing performances, there was no interaction between peer feedback and time pressure as well. As the results showed, peer feedback had a significant effect on learners' writing performance and improved it, time pressure did not have any effect on learners' writing performance, and finally there was no interaction between two independent variables in this study, namely peer feedback and time pressure. Thus, the results of the study rejected the first hypothesis and confirmed the second and third hypotheses.

Similar to our study, lots of previous studies confirmed the positive effect of peer feedback on the writings of the learners. Similarly, some of the studies confirmed that time pressure did not affect the writing performance of the learners and some others rejected this result and proved the positive effects of no time restriction on the writing performance of their participants. According to the reviewed literature, it is obvious that the novelty of the present study was related to the second and third hypotheses which were concerned with the effect of time pressure on learners' writing performance, and the interaction between peer feedback and time pressure. It can be claimed that the current study is one of the very few studies which involved time pressure and peer feedback simultaneously.

It was observed that the participants enjoyed the process and their writing skill changed positively. It was also observed that the process of peer review involved the participants in frequent reading and writing, sharpened their reflection, writing knowledge and skills, expanded their motivation and joy of writing, and even improved their vocabulary and punctuation knowledge. Furthermore, their social interaction and involvement were boosted. Moreover, the results indicated that the participants tried to write more accurately. It can be concluded that peer feedback on writing encouraged the participants to expand their knowledge through facing situations which provide them with opportunities to rely on themselves to think critically and improve their autonomy. Furthermore, it was concluded that time pressure did not affect learners' writing performance. In summary, limited previous studies on different writing tests under different timing conditions inferred that giving participants extra time to complete their task did not have any remarkable effect on the nature of their results, scores or even their rank ordering. There is no strong evidence suggesting that there are advantages or disadvantages in giving the participants less or more time to complete their writings. Interestingly, the interaction between peer feedback and time pressure was rejected perhaps because they are two different and separate phenomena.

Based on the results of the current study, there are several theoretical, pedagogical and practical implications. Peer feedback can be recommended based on the concepts of Vygotsky (2000) who emphasized that learning should be accompanied with social interaction processes. Moreover, Krashen (1985) argued that teacher's feedback and correction can cause affective filter which would annihilate students' confidence. Peer feedback can be integrated into all EFL\ESL writing classes from as early stage as possible since it can influence EFL learners' writing ability and accuracy. The nature of feedback and peer feedback should be taught to EFL learners in order to prepare them to use their knowledge appropriately and accurately in their writing production and comprehension skills. Generally, peer feedback- as a worthwhile endeavor to undertake in educational settings- is recommended in designing curriculum. Spending time on reviewing peer texts can be beneficial for the peers' knowledge and time saving for the instructors. Moreover, this idea can increase the interaction among peers and even reduce the affective filter effects. Writing quality can be increased among Iranian EFL learners through receiving peer feedback. Participants are suffering more from lack of knowledge than time restriction. Possibly, by solving Iranian EFL learners' linguistic difficulties and increasing their self-confidence, writing quality can be maximized. Writing quality can gradually improve by using peer feedback. Thus it is recommended that peer feedback should be considered as a task, not only a type of feedback.

Inevitably, there are some limitations in this study that need to be mentioned. Almost every research project is influenced by time limitation and this one also is not an exception. Moreover, the limited number of participants made it difficult to globalize the findings for the wider context.

Eventually, there are some extra suggestions which are supposed to be novel and interesting for further research:

❖ Further investigation is appropriate to confirm the effectiveness of standard peer feedback as an effective means of improving L2 writing.

❖ Time, anxiety, social and cognitive interactions with peer feedback are worth considering more.

❖ Gender differentiation can be studied in other research.

❖ Finally, it seems suitable to explore the effect of peer feedback concerning intercultural dimension and students' age simultaneously.

REFERENCES

[1]   Ahangari, S. (2014). The Effect of Self, Peer and Teacher Correction on the Pronunciation Improvement of Iranian EFL Learners. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 5(1), 81-88.

[2]   Al-Jamal, D. (2009). The impact of peer response in enhancing ninth grader's writing skill. *Journal of Educational & Psychological Sciences,* 1(1), 13-40. Retrieved on April, 8, 2014 from libback.uqu.edu.sa/hipres/MAGZ/3200020-8.pdf.

[3]   Allan, D. (2004). Oxford Placement Test 2: Test Pack. Oxford. Oxford University Press.

[4]   Armstrong, J. S. (2012). Natural Learning in Higher Education. Encyclopedia of the Sciences of Learning. Heidelberg: Springer.

[5]   Baleghizadeh, S., & Hossein Rahimi, A. (2012). The Effectiveness of Cooperative on the Learning Strategies. *LEARN Journal: Language Education and Acquisition Research Network*, 1(1), 19-34.

[6]   Birjandi, P., & Hadidi Tamjid, N. (2012). The role of self-, peer and teacher assessment in promoting Iranian EFL learners' writing performance. *Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education*, 37(5), 513-533.

[7]   Caulk, N. (1994). Using peer feedback in the writing class. ELT Journal, 59(1), 23-30.

[8]   Caudery, T. (1990). The validity of timed essay tests in the assessment of writing skills. *ELT Journal, 44*, 122-131.

[9]   Coit, C. (2004, August). Peer review in an online college writing course. In *Advanced Learning Technologies, 2004. Proceedings.* IEEE International Conference on (pp. 902-903). IEEE.

[10]   Crone, C., Wright, D., & Baron, P. (1993). Performance of examinees for whom English is their second language on the spring 1992 SAT II: Writing Test (Unpublished manuscript). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

[11]   Grami, G. M. A. (2010). The Effects of Integrating Peer Feedback into University-Level ESL Writing Curriculum: A Comparative Study in a Saudi Context. Doctoral dissertation submitted to Newcastle University, School of Education, Communication and Language Sciences. Retrieved on September, 10, 2014, from https://theses.ncl.ac.uk/dspace/bitstream/10443/933/1/grami_.

[12]   Harmer, J. (2004). Research on peer review Journal of Second Language Writing. UK: Harlow, Essex.

[13]   Horowitz, D. M. (1986). What professors actually require: Academic tasks for the ESL classroom. *TESOL quarterly*, 20(3), 445-462.

[14]   Jafari, N., & Ansari, D. N. (2012). The effect of collaboration on Iranian EFL learners' writing accuracy. *International Education Studies*, 5(2), 125-131.

[15]   Jacobs, H.L., Zinkgarf, S.A., Wormuth, D.R., Hartfiel, V.F., & Hughey, J.B. (1981). Testing ESL composition: A practical approach. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

[16]   Katayama, A. (2007). Japanese EFL Students' Preferences toward Correction of Classroom Oral Errors. Volume 9. Issue 4 Article 19. Retrieved December 25, 2014, from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/Dec_2007_ak.php.

[17]   Kenworthy, R. (2006). Timed versus At-home Assessment Tests: Does Time Affect the Quality of Second Language Learners' Written Compositions?. *TESL-EJ*, 10(1), 1-10.

[18]   Krashen, S. (1985). The input hypothesis: Issues and implications. New York: Longman.

[19]   Kroll, B. (1990). What does time buy? ESL student performance on home versus class compositions. In B. Kroll (Ed.), *Second language writing: Research insights from the classroom* (pp. 140-154). New York: Cambridge University Press.

[20]   Lee, I. (2011). Feedback revolution: what gets in the way? *ELT journal*, 65(1), 1-12.

[21]   Lin, G. H. C. & Chien, P. S. C. (2009). "An Investigation into Effectiveness of Peer Feedback". *Journal of Applied Foreign Languages Fortune Institute of Technology, Taiwan, 3*, 79-87.

[22] Livingston, S.A. (1987). The effects of time limits on the quality of student-written essays. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, NY.

[23] Maarof, N., Yamat, H., & Li, K. L. (2011). Role of teacher, peer and teacher-peer feedback in enhancing ESL students' writing. *World Applied Sciences Journal*, *15*, 29-35.

[24] Mendonça, C. O., & Johnson, K.E. (1994). Peer review negotiations: Revision activities in ESL writing instruction. *TESOL Quarterly 28,* 745–769.

[25] Noora, A. Iranian Non-English Majors' Language Learning preferences: The Role of Language Institutes. Retrieved August 14, 2014, from http://www.asian-efl-journal.com/site_map.php.

[26] Omaggio-Hadley, A. (2001). Teaching language in context (3rded.). Boston: Heinle & Heinle.

[27] Powers, D.E., & Fowles, M.E. (1996). Effects of applying different time limits to a proposed GRE writing test. *Journal of Educational Measurement,* 33 (4), 433-452.

[28] Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. (2002). Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. Malaysia: KUP.

[29] Sanders, S.E., & Littlefield, J.H. (1975). Perhaps test essays can reflect significant improvement in freshman composition: Report on a successful attempt. *Research in the Teaching of English*, 9(2), 145-153.

[30] Seow, A. (2002). The writing process and process writing. In J.C. Richards & W.A. Renandya (Eds.), *Methodology in language teaching: An anthology of current practice* (pp. 315 - 320). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[31] Soleimani, H. and Jamzivar, A.S. (2014). The Impact of Written Peer Corrective Feedback on Pre-Intermediate Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Performance. *IJLLALW* 5(4), 1-10.

[32] Topping, K. J. (2000). Peer assisted learning: A practical guide for teachers. Cambridge, MA: Bookline Books.

[33] Vygotsky, L. S. (2000). Thought and language. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press.

[34] Wakabayashi, R. (2013). The Effects of the Peer Feedback Process on Reviewers' Own Writing. *Canadian Center of Science and Education* 6(9), 117-192.

[35] Williams, J. C. (2003). Providing feedback on ESL students' written assignments. *The Internet TESL Journal*, 9(10). Retrieved October 5, 2014, from http://iteslj.org/Techniques/Williams-Feedback.html.

Nasim Ghanbari holds a PhD in Applied Linguistics. She is an assistant professor at English Department of Persian Gulf University in Bushehr, Iran. Her areas of interest include language assessment, academic writing and writing assessment. Currently, she teaches courses in language testing & assessment, essay writing and research methodology.

Azade Karampourchangi holds an M.A. in TEFL. Her teaching career has begun since 2010. She defended her thesis in February, 2015 in Islamic Azad University, Science and Research Branch of Bushehr, Iran. The present paper was written based on her thesis. She found herself intrigued by the novel strategies to facilitate language learning. Her areas of interest are "writing assessment" and "teaching methodology".

Mohammad Reza Shamsaddini was born in Kazeroun, Fars province in 1961. He got his B.A. degree in English Literature from Shiraz University, Shiraz, Iran in 1989. Then he pursued his studies for M.A degree in TEFL from Tarbiat Modarres University, Tehran, Iran in 1994. He got his PhD degree in TEFL from Jawaharlal Nehru University, New Delhi, India in 2002.

He has been working as an ASSISTANT PROFESSOR in the Department of English in Persian Gulf University, Bushehr, Iran. He has been teaching different courses to B.A and M.A. students in different universities. He has published many articles among which the following can be named:

Indian Journal of Fundamental and Applied Life Sciences, Jaipour, India. Vol.4 (2), April-June 2014 pp. 106-113

International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World, Vol. 7 (3), Nov. 2014, pp. 277- 288.

International Journal of Current Life Sciences, Vol. 4, issue 12, Dec. 2014, pp. 13182-13192

His main research interests are: Teaching English as a Foreign/Second Language (EFL/ESL), discourse analysis, syllabus design, English for Specific Purposes (ESP).

Low Academic Achievement: Causes and Results

Samer M. Al-Zoubi

Department of English Language and Literature, Faculty of Arts and Educational Sciences, Ajloun National University, Jordan

Mohammad A. Bani Younes

Department of Computer Science, Faculty of Information Technology, Ajloun National University, Jordan

Abstract—**This research aimed to identify the causes and results of low academic achievement from teachers, parents and students perspective as well as providing possible solutions to this problem. With reference to the researchers' experiences as teachers at schools and later at universities and after seeing the academic results of students on various courses, they found that there are weaknesses in the students' academic achievement. In fact, academic achievement is considered very necessary for students to transfer from one studying level to another, so the researchers found that it is crucial to investigate this topic. In fact, this research presents some factors that affecting students' low academic achievement for instance, using traditional methods instead of using modern teaching methods in teaching, as well as the poor relationships between the teachers and the students that create a teaching environment lacking of respect which leads to the lack of students' acceptance of the learning process on the whole. Finally, the researchers proposed some solutions for dealing with low academic achievement such as, looking for the real reasons for failure, developing clear plans and rules to achieve success and not to ignore the learner's potentials. The researchers recommended that the parents should be aware of their children's problems and pursue their academic achievement step by step, increasing interest in the physical, mental and health of the student, providing a relaxing school environment and using attractive techniques and educational activities to motivate students for leaning.**

Index Terms—**Academic achievement, failure, success, exam's anxiety, learning difficulties**

I. INTRODUCTION

To experience the real excitement of success, one must experience bitterness of failure for once, and from our errors we can learn more than learning from our success, and this does not mean that human deliberately fail to succeed, no one accepts that. On the contrary, we should look at failed experiences   positively after going through them, to draw the required experiences for success then to invest failure in order to succeed and changing it from a painful memory to a situation providing us with the benefits and experiences throughout our lives. Human beings are eager to success and achievement in their scientific and practical lives at all levels, but lasting success cannot be achieved constantly because human rely on trying in their lives, and the consequences of this attempt is failing sometimes. Failure does not mean giving up as long as it would not be the last objective in a person's life, but it becomes a motivation for success and a ladder to climb and moving towards the best to achieve the goals and objectives. In fact, failure is always associated with frustration and fear because of its relation to punishment from others which takes a form of disrespect, rebuke and punishment either physical or moral like, beatings and neglecting. Though, the fear of failure, committing mistakes, permanent feeling of guilt and not trying to succeed are the failure itself.

II. RESEARCH PROBLEM

The problem of low academic achievement of students in the examinations is one of the most challenging problems that faces students as well as teachers. This problem has many causes and it has educational, social, cultural and psychological dimensions. However, the students' low academic achievement on the exam can be defined as: Low or weakness of the student's mark under the normal average in a study subject level as a result of a variety of reasons, including those related to the student himself, or those related to family, social and academic environment. Consequently, this may lead to frequent repetition of failure, despite their abilities that qualify them to get the best marks.

Individual differences play an important role in academic achievement of students. There have been many attempts to address the problem of low academic achievement and some factors have been identified in explaining academic achievement. Among the numerous variables researched, demographic status, intelligence, behavioral characteristics and psychological factors, namely, attitudes, self esteem, self efficacy and self concept, have been used to explain academic achievement. Besides differences in ability, which are not easy to control, students have specific learning styles that may influence their academic achievement. Sternberg (1997) proposed that learning styles are at least in part socialized, suggesting that they can, to some extent, be modified. Thus, being aware of learning styles and their roles in academic achievement is of a great importance for educational psychologists, teachers and researchers.

This research focuses on addressing the real causes of this weakness and attempt to understand and analyze these causes to find suitable solutions to reduce the phenomenon of weakness of students' achievement on exams.

III. RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

Generally, failure has many disadvantages in various fields, since learning and teaching are the very important and considered a necessity for life at the present time. The problem of low achievement at examinations is a big problem causing a lot of negative and dangerous effects on the family and the community together. As for the family that facing this problem, its individuals are suffering from instability and the emergence of cases of violence and escaping from the house and other things that sometimes destroy the family which will reflect negatively on the community as a whole. Accordingly, this can lead to imbalance and inharmonic among the community members. Because of the distraction of the social structure where it causes the irregularity in the tasks performed by its members, the emergence of social classes, and a failed and unsuccessful class in its life considered as a burden on community that lead to wide gaps among the members of the community.

The problem of low academic achievement is one of the biggest problems that facing the modern educational institutions, which hindered them from the implementation of their educational mission appropriately. Still, this problem may lead to the presence of a group of students who are unable to pursue their courses with their colleagues because of their weak potentials, becoming a source of annoyance, chaos and inconvenience to the teacher and the rest of the students and this in turn leads to disruption of the educational process in the classroom and in the whole school.

Though, many parents complain of low academic achievement experienced by their children, unaware of the real reasons behind this weakness and ways to solve it. Some parents might use non educational and useless methods such as physical punishment to urge their children to be hardworking in their studying. Unfortunately, these coercive methods cannot lead to improved conditions of their children, on the contrary, they can provide undesirable consequences.

IV. RESEARCH OBJECTIVES

This research attempts to discuss the following topics in details:
- Definition of academic failure.
- Causes of academic failure and its aspects.
- Suggested solutions for academic failure.
- The way to success.

V. DEFINITION OF ACADEMIC FAILURE

The concept of academic failure can be defined as a stop of attempting because of the fear of committing errors, however, trying to achieve a goal can be considered a success even if it was less than expected. Aremu (2003) identifies poor academic performance as a performance that is adjudged by the examiner and some other significant as falling below an expected standard. He also stresses that academic failure is not only frustrating to the pupils and the parents, its effects are equally crucial on the society in terms of lack of manpower in all fields of the economy and politics.

This provides the learner with experience he/ she learns to find what is suitable and fit in his/ her life, and this is the same as what people protested when Edison - the inventor of the light bulb -They knew that he failed hundred times to achieve his goal to invent the light bulb. They asked: "Why are you keeping on trying all of these attempts?" He replied: "It is enough for me to dedicate this number of unsuccessful attempts to people to try other methods!" Edison, of course, believes in the saying," Practice makes perfect." So he was seen as a target of the subject that cannot prevent him from success and finally he achieved his goals.

If we want to know what is failure, we first have to know what success means because they are contradictory and their definitions present inverse images from one to other. Failure is the opposite to success, success is in our daily lives and we live it every day, as success achievement, failure is considered underachievement and we cannot measure the standards of success and failure although success is like smoke shines in the darkness.

Basically, success has a traditional interpretation which is considered a means to satisfy a specific need or desire to achieve the indicated goal, and if it is not achieved the result will be the failure. Hence, success is the result of the equation: achievement with hard work equals success, but failure is the result of our shortcoming and blaming the luck and the circumstances so as to cover our defaults and lack of loyalty to the success achieved.

VI. THE CAUSES OF ACADEMIC FAILURE AND ITS FEATURES

There are many reasons for the academic failure:
1) Lack of a Clear Plan:
Success does not happen suddenly or by chance, however, if it happened by chance to some people, it would be an exception. Basically, before starting any work, there should be developed plans like plans for success and plans to achieve the indicated goals in a given period, and what is the best strategy that will be followed to implement these

plans. Actually, planning is not a difficult task; it just needs time and commitment. Someone says," I do not want to put plan for a task because I might change my mind at any stage of implementation it". This could be ridiculous because you can change and develop your plan at any time because the basic principle of any plan that it should be adjustable and elastic at any stage in its implementation. Whether the goal is big or a small but without a plan you will not reach a complete success of the task. Thus, ideas will remain ideas and unimplemented if the map of the work (the plan) does not exist. Some people tend to do the same work without a plan so they always get the negative results. But with a flexible plan, they can develop their ideas to guarantee their success and be away from failure.

2) Medical and Psychological Reasons:

With reference to academic failure there are many causes related to medical and psychological reasons such as:

a. Major Depression Disorder: It is common that depression as a disease caused by failing in exams but it is more frequent that depression often precedes the exams' period. Depression can cause inability and weakness in concentration of the patient. The result of the equation becomes inverted, any depression can lead to failure.

b. Generalized anxiety disorder that can cause a situation of forgetting and weakness in concentration.

c. Exam Phobia: It is a case of a sever fear of the exam and the expectation of failure, which weakens the educational achievement and preparation and is accompanied with less attentive and not fully prepared for the exam.

d. Obsessive Compulsive Disorder: It is the frequent predominant ideas in mind of the students that prevent them from thinking of anything else. However, they can't overcome them and cause severe distress and affect their academic performance.

e. Attention Disorder: It is the lack of the ability to focus attention on one thing for a suitable time. It may be associated with hyperactivity disorder.

f. Learning Disabilities and Slow Learning: It is a functional deficit in the brain leading to a lack of capacity to acquire new knowledge, as cases in low IQ or or difficulty in reading (Dyslexia) or difficulty in writing (Dysgraphia) or difficulty in mathematics (Dyscalculia) and they are investigated by special psychological measurements.

3) Reasons Related to the Learner:

The weakness of enthusiasm, lack of experience and hasty in getting the results are considered causes that often lead to academic failure, along with lack of abilities, fear of failure and lack of self-confidence. Therefore, academic failure occurs when someone convinces himself/herself that he/she is unable to succeed because of the weakness of his/her abilities and lack of experience. The goals should also be clear, specific and realistic to the learner. Failure to do so will result in missing these goals.

4) Parental and Educational Reasons:

The excess pressure on the student in order to get higher marks in the exams may create a feeling of fear if he is unable to get high marks as required by parents, and this frequently leading to the academic failure. Moreover, the unstable families situations make students live in a state of tension, confusion and lack of concentrating during the exam which will reflect negatively the on academic performance.

5) Exam's Anxiety:

It is a state of feeling or an emotional condition that student faces during the exam, and arise from the fear of failing in the exam or the fear of not getting satisfactory result for himself and for others. However, this emotional state may affect mental processes such as paying attention, concentrating, thinking and remembering, as a result of the fact that any examination or test may decide the fate of its taker and it will affect a particular aspect of his life, such as success in the study, admission to a particular job and others, causing him fear and not achieving the requested level.

6) Lack of Motivation for Success:

Although most of people may fail at some point or at some stages in their lives, they have to consider failure is one chain for success and to learn from failure and know how to deal with it. Still, if anyone was able to know why he /she failed; definitely this would lead to success. Thus, anyone who suffers from failure he will also enjoy the sweetness of success, and learn from his mistakes and saying "Good bye to failure." To sum up, these factors attributed to teachers, students, parents and the school environment were primarily responsible for the low academic performance of the students. It must be emphasized that these factors generally do not operate in isolation. Teacher absenteeism and lateness for example would result in incompletion of the syllabus and would also affect student's motivation, enthusiasm, zeal and commitment to learn.

VII. Previous Studies

1. Masten and Coatsworth (1998), indicated that success in school demands three clusters of skills; cognitive and meta cognitive skills, social skills and self-management skills. The cognitive and meta cognitive skills include skills related to goal setting, progress monitoring, and memory skills, whereas social skills refer to interpersonal skills, social problem solving, listening, and teamwork skills. In addition, the self-management skills such as managing attention, motivation, and anger are also essential in ensuring success. These three skill sets were the most powerful predictors of long-term school success and seemed to separate high achievers from low achievers.

2. Nile (2006) pointed out that there is a weakness among the students of the main stages in language skills, and confirms the reality of this weakness of students in key stages of the delay in the mastery of reading and writing skills, as well as weaknesses in the skills of writing the alphabet and calligraphy.

3. Naimi (2010) carried out a study about the poor academic achievement at the United Arab Emirates schools. The results showed that the percentage of students in academic achievement is weak; ranged from 15 to 30%. Thus, this can be attributed to the educational and economical levels of the students at these areas.

4. Barakat & Harz Allah (2010) study addressed the reasons for the low level of academic achievement in mathematics at Tulkarem schools and these reasons are:

a. Health problems affect student achievement in Math

b. Behavioral problems affect the achievement of students in mathematics performance.

c. Lack of self desire to study may lead to students' low academic achievement in mathematics level.

d. Lack of a sense of belonging to the school can cause a sense of unconcerned to the study.

e. Teachers' lack the required knowledge of modern educational and psychological theories can lead to students' poor academic performance.

The study recommended to give more attention to students' health so that they can focus on their studying and to provide a relaxing school environment in order to increase the motivation of students and increase the level of belonging to the school. As well as, that the teachers have to use attractive techniques and educational activities to motivate students for leaning. Moreover, parents should be responsive to their children's problems and pursue their academic achievement step by step. Also it is necessary to arrange training courses and workshops for teachers, who are teaching mathematics, especially those teachers who teach mathematics from different subjects, to develop their skills in teaching mathematics.

5. Tamimi (2012) conducted a study about weakness in students' academic performance. In this study, he pointed out this problem has become a global problem. He found that the number of pupils at Al Salmiat Primary School suffer from this problem; therefore he searched for solutions to this problem. The researcher also explained the factors that lead to poor academic achievement, such as social factors, economic factors and political conditions. The study recommended staying away from violence and inappropriate words with students who suffer from academic weakness and encourage these students by offering them some gifts and paying them more attention.

6. Ahmed & Wias (2012) did a study to examine the reasons for the low level of academic achievement among high school students from teachers and students perspective; the study showed these reasons, including the large number of distractions around the student like the spread of mobile phone, means fun, low motivation of students towards learning and the weakness of the attention of parents to follow up the level of their children. The study recommended minimizing the distractions of attention, to concentrate on motivation, to strengthen the work of students in science subjects by giving them more courses and to provide them with modern teaching methods that are in line with the tremendous scientific advances.

7. Eldridge (2012) study concentrated on the reasons for educational failure and the pedagogical support techniques to face this phenomenon. The study showed that there are six key elements in the definition of academic failure these are: **First**, schools' Exams. It is known that the school years in all levels of education, either end with final exams, or divide a year into several semesters, each of which ends with a periodic exam (quarterly), and sometimes applying the two methods for evaluating students together. However, the educational system usually ends with General Education Examinations (standardized tests) covering all formal and informal educational institutions in all regions. **Second**, failure. It means not achieving the required mark in that exam. That failure may be partially or completely without affecting the student's average, which usually indicated whether the student has succeeded or not. According to the planned programs, teachers should respect the quality of education and its objectives, fitting to the age of the students and their abilities in general. **Third**, psychological feelings. The repetition of academic failure may be accompanied with psychological feelings as well as negative social attitudes. The feelings of sadness and anxiety that accompany the student failure make failure as psychosocial special case. Then, failure is often followed by social situations like sarcastic or moral punishment that may be followed by physical punishment and ignoring for the careless student. Accordingly, the consequences of academic failure have bad effects on both psychological and social aspects. **Fourth**, academic failure and learning difficulties. The distinction should be made between academic failure and learning difficulties. Basically, the learning difficulties are a temporary situation that almost happened to most of the normal students. Therefore, learning difficulties can be categorized into three levels: simple, medium and strong according to the educational support, or what it calls therapeutic program that is dealing with members of this class, according to their level of difficulty. This study recommended the need to focus attention on the educational support activities by adopting the modern means and techniques, using the most appropriate educational procedure that are common within the scope of deepening the understanding and skills development. However, the reinforcement of students' achievement among groups at all levels of education enable them to realize the weak points, highlight their true potential, reduce the gap between them and face the difficulties and obstacles to solve them. Finally, attention should be paid much to the diagnosis because it is essential scientific practice that will set the reasons of academic failure and its quality.

8. Almuammria (2015) performed a study about the impact of the environment in enhancing the academic achievement of the students. The researcher tried to focus on the secondary level because it is in the middle of studying years and consider the age of adolescence, associated with behaviors that some teachers may overlook; consequently, this requires the presence of a specialist or social worker. The researcher showed that there are a range of factors

affecting academic achievement such as: learner factors, family factors and school factors. The study recommended the need for direct contact between the parents and the school and the participation of parents in providing feedback and support for the school. On the other hand, the role of the school is to inform the parents about their children's behavior within the school as well as the participation of parents of students in religious, national and cultural events. The study also recommended the need to consider the family and the school as one unit that is a complement for each other and this integration and cooperation help to achieve the educational and the scientific goals.

VIII. ACADEMIC FAILURE SOLUTIONS

This section proposed solutions for dealing with academic failure. The following are some of these:

1. Try to find out how to set goals, plan well and manage time wisely. Nowadays, these are greatly available through specialized books, the Internet and television programs. Moreover, the learner can make use of the holiday before the exams to do so.

2. Before starting to study, there must be a developed and a clear plan because success does not happen suddenly or by chance. As a result, planning is necessary for success and does not need much time but it needs accuracy. Besides, the plan should be flexible and easy so the learner can modify it any time.

3. Look for the real reason for failure in studying and try to take advantage of it to develop clear rules to achieve success in the coming times.

4. Provide the basic needs to the student by paying attention to diet through the provision of food that contains nutrients that provide student with the required energy.

5. Make sure to take appropriate periods of comfort to be active because memory needs incentives to continue studying with enthusiasm and desire.

6. Choose good friends or good role models that help in preventing the student from frequent absences.

7. Do not ignore your potentials after failure but start to identify the reasons of failing and do not blame yourself for not preparing well for the exams since self-blame is sometimes more rational than blaming the teachers or the difficulty of the exams' questions.

8. Make sure to sleep early at the night of the exam, to preserve the purity of mind and the power of memory so as to be able to focus also it is useful to have a simple review before the exams.

9. Get rid of distractions while learning- There are many distractions for students such distractions include TV, computer, music, video games, and peers. By eliminating these distractions students can learn quicker and more efficiently.

10. Provide an appropriate learning environment through providing the means for heating in winter and cooling in summer and stay away as possible from the noise, as well as the need to use the teacher of the of modern teaching methods to raise the motivation and interest in the learning process.

IX. WAYS TO SUCCESS

It should be remembered that the one who does not seek success, does not have an ambition, thus it is the ambition that is the endless treasure. However, it should be emphasized that success needs hardworking, sacrifice and patience... Therefore, learners should work hard and do their best to achieve success, ambitions and fulfilling their goals. There is a well known saying that summarizes this fact, "As you plant you will reap". Then learners should believe in their potentials to achieve their goals, not only in the academic field but also in all life fields. Successful learners have great skills and abilities as well as having a strong need to remove the negligence and laziness from themselves. Consequently, they are better, talented, stronger, smarter than one can think. They should remove all the negative words about themselves, such as: I cannot -I'm not smart on the other hand they should constantly repeat these expressions: I deserve the best, I'm creative, I'm Excellent and I have the abilities to be successful in all life aspects. Good learners have to think and love success then start their journey towards accomplishment of their goals and remember that success starts in the psychological state of the individual.

Successful people do not achieve success while they are sitting and wasting their times in useless things waiting for success, they do not think that the chance of luck, but that they have to work seriously, to take advantage of opportunities and to rely on what they are achieving. Failure is just an incidental experience in people's lives to take lessons from it that will lead to success. In fact, it should be recognized that no one can succeed without learning from his mistakes and the one who doesn't fail doesn't work. Successful people are not afraid of failure because failure provides them with opportunities and experiences. Furthermore, do not leave failure causing temporary frustration and defeat but to create chances for permanent success. Actually, successful people always have confidence in their abilities to succeed and anyone who does not have self-confidence begins the battle of failure and defeat.

X. RESEARCH RESULTS

With reference to the above mentioned, it should be stated out that the problem of poor academic achievement is one of the most important problems that hinder the work of the modern schools and prevent them from fulfilling their goals and mission in appropriate way. However, anyone who practices teaching admits that poor academic achievement exists

in almost every classroom, where there is a group of students who are unable to keep in pace with the rest of their colleagues in achievement and comprehending the curriculum and often this group is turned into a source of trouble and inconvenience, which may cause disruption in the educational process in the classroom or disorder within the school.

In general, when talking about the problem of poor academic achievement and weak scientific level, it may come to mind, that this problem is confined to a particular country. One of the attributes of the educational system outputs in the Arab countries is poor academic achievement, and so this problem is a major problem that most of the educational systems in the Arab countries suffered from as it stated in the statistical report of the UNICEF, where it pointed out that the number of failed students in their classes is about (1,036,110) in ten Arab countries in 1995. Actually, it is not a secret that this result can indicate a waste of human energies and resources, also point out that after students fail in their classes, they do not achieve a good academic level.

Jazmawi (2008) suggested that the problem of poor academic achievement is a global problem that any community is hardly devoid of it, that twenty students of every hundred have weakness in the academic achievement, he make sure of this ratio by taking random samples from different communities.

XI. RECOMMENDATIONS

This research yielded the following major recommendations:

1. To increase interest in the physical, mental and health of the student so that he can concentrate on his learning.

2. To provide a relaxing school environment in order to increase the motivation of students and increase the level of belonging to the school and community.

3. To use attractive techniques and educational activities by the teachers to motivate students for leaning.

4. To train teachers on the application and implementation of educational skills to work and continuously follow-up performance processes of the students.

5. To organize training courses and workshops for teachers who are teaching different subjects to develop their teaching skills.

6. To coordinate between higher educational leadership, whether in the Ministry of Education or universities, to develop the learning process in a way to keep pace with changes and new developments in the field of education all over the world.

7. The parents should be aware of their children's problems and pursue their academic achievement step by step.

8. To take advantages of previous international experiences in all the countries, that success is proven largely on the economic, educational and social growth.

REFERENCES

[1] Ahmed, H & Wais, S. (2012). The Low Level of Academic Achievement among High School Students from Teachers and Students Perspective. *Journal: Surra Man Raa*, Vol.8, issue 28 pages 1-38. University of Samarra.

[2] Almuammria, M. (2015). The impact of the environment in enhancing the academic achievement of students. Scientific Library, Beirut p13.

[3] Aremu, A &. Sokan, B. (2003). A multi-causal Evaluation of Academic Performance of Nigerian Learners: Issues and Implications for National Development. Department of Guidance and Counseling, University of Ibadan.

[4] Barakat, Z & Harz Allah, H. (2010). The Reasons for the Low Level of Academic Achievement in Mathematics at Elementary Level at Tulkarem schools. Al Queds Open University.

[5] Casanova, P., Garc á-Linares, M. (2005). Influence of Family and Socio-Demographic Variables on Students with Low Academic Achievement. *Educational Psychology* , 25(4), 2005 423–435.

[6] Deary, I., Strand, S., Smith, P., & Fernandes, C. (2007). Intelligence and Educational Achievement. *Intelligence*, 35:1, pp. 13-21.

[7] Eldridge, M. (2012). Academic Failure and Educational Support Methods. Mohammed V University - Rabat - Morocco,

[8] Ferla, J., Valcke, M., & Cai, Y. (2009). Academic Self-Efficacy and Academic Self-Concept: Reconsidering Structural Relationships. *Learning and Individual Differences*, 19: 499–505.

[9] Holliday, A. (2009). Understanding the Implications Self - Concept and Academic Self - Concept Has on African Americans and Latino's. Version 2. Knol. [Online] Available: http://knol.google.com/k/alon-holliday/understanding-the-implications-self/37qlgwid1fl4z/7.(November 2011).

[10] Jazmawi, A. (2008). Underachievement and Low Success Rate of Jordanian Students in Secondary Schools, Home Economics. Arab Open University, Jordan.

[11] Lane, K. & Wehby, J. (2008). Academic Performance of Students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders Served in a Self-Contained Setting, *Journal of Behavioral Education*, 17(1):43–62.

[12] Masten, A. & Coatsworth, J. (1998). The Development of Competence in Favorable and Unfavorable Environments: Lessons from research on successful children. *American Psychologist*, 53, 205-220.

[13] Naimi, A. (2010). Low Academic Achiever Students in the Schools of the United Arab Emirates Emirates. Al Ittihad Newspaper, March, 2010.

[14] Nile, A. (2006). linguistic Weakness, Diagnosis and Treatment, Cairo, Dar Alwafa.P 90-93.

[15] Olatunde, P. (2009). Students Attitude Towards Mathematics and Academic Achievement in Some Selected Secondary Schools in Southwestern Nigeria. *European Journal of Scientific Research*, 36 (3): 336-341

[16] Onyeizugbo, E. (2010). Self-Efficacy and Test Anxiety as Correlates of Academic Performance. *Educational Research*, 1(10): 477-480. [Online] Available: http://www.interesjournals.org/ER (November 2011).

[17] O'Sullivan, E. (2009). The Demographic and Academic Profile of Irish Dental School Faculty Members. *Journal of the Irish Dental Association*, 55 (6): 296-301

[18] Ray, B. (2010). Academic Achievement and Demographic Traits of Homeschooled Students: A Nationwide Study, *Academic Leadership*, 8 (1), 1-44

[19] Reasoner, R. (2012).The True Meaning of Self-Esteem. *Indian Journal of Applied Research*, 1 (12), 83-84

[20] Sternberg, R. (1997). Thinking Styles. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.

[21] Tamimi, A. (2012).The weakness in the Academic Performance of Students. Baghdad University, College of Education, Ibn Rushd.

Samer M. Al-Zoubi, was born in 1967 in Irbid, Jordan received Bachelor degree in English Language and Literature from Yarmouk University, Jordan, 1990, Masters degree in English Language: Curricula and Instructions (TEFL) from Al Fasher University, Sudan,2005, PhD in Applied Linguistics, Red Sea University, Sudan,2013.

He worked in the ministry of Education as an English language teacher and supervisor for 22 years in Jordan, Sultanate of Oman and the United Arab Emirates. Currently, Dr. Al Zoubi works as an Assistant Professor at Ajloun National University, Jordan, teaching English Language at the Department of English language and Literature. He is interested in applied linguistics research and teaching English as a foreign language.

Mohammad A. Bani Younes, was born in 1962 in Irbid where he grew up and had his education. He got a Bachelor degree from Yarmouk University from the Computer Science Dept. in 1986, masters degree in Computer Science from Sudan University of Science and Technology in 2003, and the PhD in Computer Science from University Science Malaysia, Penang in 2009.

He worked as Assistant Professor in the Computer Science Dept at Irbid National University from 2010 until 2013 .Currently, Dr. Bani Younes works as an Assistant Professor at Ajloun National University at the Department of Computer Science, Jordan. He is interested in teaching computer science.

In Search of Equality: A Dream Deferred for African Americans in *A Raisin in the Sun*

Tayebeh Nowrouzi

Department of English, Vali-Asr University of Rafsanjan, Kerman, Iran

Sohila Faghfori

Department of English Language and Literature, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran

Esmaeil Zohdi

Department of English Language and Literature, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran

Abstract—The present study scrutinizes the inner as well as the outer truth of African Americans life under the impact of racism in the prize winning and American classical play, *A Raisin in the Sun*, by Lorraine Hansberry. This study argues that racism makes African Americans end up in unequal economic and social conditions. Therefore, not being first hand citizens, African Americans' effort, services and race are disdained. Integrating Dubois' ideas of racism into Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun*, this study reveals the belief that Blacks must severely demand their rights and firmly struggle against racial oppressions in order to transcend and eliminate racism. Blacks' insistence on full civil right in their homeland America is what Hansberry masterfully supported to defend the ideas of Dubois. Following Dubois strategy, Hansberry presented that African Americans economic and social conditions will not uplifted unless they get educated and with a wide knowledge insist on their American citizens' rights.

Index Terms—racism, Dubois, Hansberry, *A Raisin in the Sun*

I. INTRODUCTION

Racism not a new born issue has haunted civilization early in the history of human beings. There have been always some groups and races that for their benefit disdained and disvalued others. America, the most claimed civilized state suffers from racism and discriminations on a great scale. The minority groups and races in America are neither favored by the same opportunity nor accepted as the first hand citizens. Americans implanted the idea of their superiority over the others so that they could exploit them for their economical uplifts and progress. The most ethnic minority group in America which has been in constant suffering of racism and exploitations is African American. Their ancestors were forcedly sailed to America as enslaved workers and were treated violently and unfairly. They were perceived to be uncivilized and non human so the superior whites can force them to serve them. Many African American leaders and scholars emerged to fight against this illusion and prove their equality with their white counterparts. Dubois is the most eminent African American scholar addressing the prevalent issue of racism and commenting on African Americans situations and conditions in the racist American society. Presenting racism as the profound problem of the twentieth century, he did her best to eliminate it.

As an American sociologist, and historian, his extensive efforts were all toward a common goal, the equality of colored people with white people. As he recorded in *Souls of Black Folk*, his early childhood experience of racial prejudice has been shocking, because as a student , he was refused to be accepted in the play of greeting cards simply because of his blackness (2007, p.2). This made him determined to fight against racism. Afterwards, he put racism as the main target of his attack and long life fighting so he strongly protested against lynching, Jim Crow laws, and discrimination in education and employment and demanded equal civil rights for African Americans. Dubois' policy of demanding and insisting on full civil and political rights for African Americans was differentiated from many other black leaders who guided and advised African Americans. However, following the ideas and policies of certain African America scholars and leaders almost all African American artists represented the struggles and the problems that Africans Americans tackle with. Lorraine Hansberry is an artist that pictured racism under the shadow of Dubois'. Bringing up in a politically and socially active family, Hansberry was in contact with eminent African American intellectuals. One of Luminaries of the day who frequented her home was Dubois. He sparked her young creative imagination and exerted profound influence on her that later he became the artistic and philosophical reference points for her works. Dubois' contact and influence was not confined to Hansberry's childhood interactions with him. She studied African history in Dubois' classes where her awareness of social injustices was heightened subsequently. Furthermore, in New York, her activities as a journalist on the black paper Freedom made her more familiar with Dubois, one of the greatest black literary and political figures of her time. She was so fascinated by Dubois that her "opinions leaned in the direction of Dubois' ideals" (Liu, 2003, p. 142). Dubois' influence was imbedded in the opinion

of Hansberry so that it revealed itself in her literary works. The attribution of Dubois to Hansberry is explicitly and implicitly detectable in her works. However, Hansberry's masterpiece and first play, *A Raisin in the Sun*, is a solid evidence in proving the impact of Dubois as Ashton Liu stated:"Many situations and quests in Raisin make Hansberry pro Dubois opinion evident "(2003, p. 142).Being influenced by Dubois' ideas on racism, she approached to this issue the same as her master did.

II. DUBOIS CRITICISM OF RACISM AND RACIAL DISCRIMINATION

Dubois in "Of the Training of Black Men" referred to the belief of whites that the Negroes were created to serve them. According to Dubois, they believed that Blacks were subhuman because God created a Negro as a simple and "clownish" creature to serve whites. In fact, to the benefit of themselves, whites made the belief that "human races were not just different from one another, but that some were superior to others" (Moor, 2008, p. XI) to exploit and dominate the other groups. Therefore, the ideology of racism is invented to refer to the "unequal power relations that grow from sociopolitical domination of one race by another and that result in systematic discriminatory practices (for example, segregation, domination and persecution "(Tyson, 2006, p. 360). Dubois acknowledged that human beings are divided into races but he refuted the superiority of one over the other.

He was a critical figure in the debate and intellectual discussions about racism and oppression from the late nineteenth century until his death due to his first hand experiences of racial prejudice. He, as a black person, had been the victim of racism and had been familiar with the pain it inflicted on his race. Thus, he endeavored all along his life to fight against racism. He desired an America where Blacks could live freely and enjoy equality. For achieving this dream he perceived that ignorance, the root of racial prejudice, must be eliminated by collecting and spreading knowledge about black life in order to obtain full citizenship and equal rights for African Americans. Over time, Dubois came to believe that knowledge alone would not eliminate racial injustice: "not science alone could settle this matter, but force must come to its aid. The black world must fight for freedom. It must fight with the weapons of truth, with the sword of the intrepid, uncompromising spirit, with organization in boycott, propaganda and mob frenzy" (2011, p. 6).

Dubois resented whites' racial prejudice, and he directed significant parts of his writings to race and racism to criticize whiteness and white supremacy. In *Philadelphia Negro*, he noted the economic and housing discriminations of Blacks. He said that Blacks receive lower wage than usual for less desirable work and because of that work and wage, they are forced to live in less pleasant places than others and pay higher rent for the better ones. He mentioned that through segregation and political and social oppression, white society keeps all African Americans behind a wall of social injustice and presents their development. It is racism that "makes it more difficult for black men to earn a living or spend their earnings as they will; it gives them poorer school facilities and restricted contact with cultured classes; and it becomes, throughout the land, a cause and excuse for discontent, lawlessness, laziness, and injustice" (qtd. in Katz , 2011, p.205).

Dubois other work, *The Souls of Black Folk*, contains more of his powerful statements concerning the state of race relationship in United Nations and his perspective on effects of racism. In this work, he addresses the problem of institutionalized racism which is racist policies and practices incorporating it in the institutions of a society. He referred to the institutionalized racism as a veil that made Blacks almost invisible to whites and kept Blacks from attaining a clear view of their circumstances. There are many examples of this type of racism as housing patterns, segregated schools, discriminatory employment, and inequalities in health care, segregated churches, and educational curricula that ignored or distorted the history of minorities that Dubois referred to them. Dubois mentioned that after the abolition of slavery in the mid-Nineteenth century, the conditions of black people rarely changed because whites emancipated Blacks by passing segregation, or Jim Crow laws. These laws severely limited the interactions between Blacks and whites, as well as limiting the opportunities for the progress of Blacks. Though it was supposed by law that Blacks be provided with separate but equal facilities, in reality, it was a blatant lie that considered Blacks only as second-class citizens; it deprived them not only from taking part in political process but also from the same protection under the law as white citizens.

He described the lack of educational facility as well as the poor conditions of living for Blacks as a reason of segregation and discrimination in the "Of the Meaning of Progress". In the other chapter, "Of the Sons of Master and Man", he referred to segregation that affected all aspects of Blacks' life:

They go to separate churches, they live in separate sections, they are strictly separated in all public gatherings, they travel separately, and they are beginning to read different papers and books. To most libraries, lectures, concerts, and museums, Negroes are either not admitted at all, or on terms peculiarly galling to the pride of the very classes who might otherwise be attracted (2007, p. 124).

Furthermore, he mentioned that Blacks and whites are housing in distinct districts that can draw a "physical color line" in the map to show their separation. Dubois declaimed that in the decimated American society in which African Americans dwell in a complete disastrous social condition; improvement seems not close at hands. Dubois believed that the black race should have demanded equal civil rights before the law until elimination and provision of equal education for Blacks are made possible to promote its social conditions.

III. RACISM IN *A RAISIN IN THE SUN*

Dubois, resentful of racial prejudice, devoted his whole works to scrutinize the causes and effects of racism in America. He was so obsessed with racism that introduced it as the most problematic issue of the 20th century. Dubois defined race prejudice as:

Nothing but the friction between different groups of people; it is the difference in aim, in feeling, in ideals of two different races; if, now, this difference exists touching territory, laws, language, or even religion, it is manifest that these people cannot live in the same territory without fatal collision; but if, on the other hand, there is substantial agreement in laws, language and religion; if there is a satisfactory adjustment of economic life, then there is no reason (for it) (2007b,p. 184).

He stated that there is no logical reason behind white prejudice toward African Americans due to the fact that they are Americans, by birth and by citizenship as well as their political ideals, their language, their religion. He believed that the discrimination based on color in America is sheer nonsense and should be dealt with. The Negroes are American citizens. Thus, they deserve to enjoy equal civil rights. *A Raisin in the Sun* validates this belief. Hansberry endeavored to encourage African Americans to defend their rights. This is an integral part of the civil rights movement as Amiri Baraka asserted. Dubois was such a prominent figure in the discussion of racism that his seminal work, *The Souls of Black Folk*, has gained the position of the political Bible for the Negro race. And all creative Afro-American literature has been inspired by it in some degrees (Edwards, 2007, p. Vii).

In "of The Black Belt", Dubois portrayed Black Belt, a black district surrounded by the Negro problem. He depicted in "of the Black Belt" Negros's poor economic conditions along with bad circumstances of living as the result of discriminations. Although they were suffering from this prejudice, the government was doing no action for this laborer. Hansberry's work *A Raisin in the Sun* is approximately inspired with this masterpiece. In the same vein, *A Raisin in the Sun* represented the calamities that African-American workers confronted with in Chicago during the years of 1920s to the 1950s. Although the time of the *Souls of Black Folk* is some decades earlier than *A Raisin in the Sun*, the nature of their problem is the same. They were suffering the same discrimination on different scale.

In 1950's society, Blacks and Whites were still separated; there usually existed no interaction between them apart from work. Lena and Ruth are maids who work for white women and, Walter is the chauffeur of a white man. There are no mentioned contact between younger family, a black family, and white members of society except for their work and a visit from Mr. Lindner. Mr. Lindner, representative of white community, arrives to the Youngers' apartment to demand them not to move. He only cares about the feeling and comfort of whites without any sympathy for and thought of black people. Hansberry's depiction of the confined contacts of two races attests Dubois statement that in spite of physical contact and daily intermingling "there is almost no community of intellectual life or point of transference where the thoughts and feelings of one race can come into direct contact and sympathy with the thoughts and feelings of the other" (2007, p.123).

For discussing the impact of labor and housing discrimination on black community, *A Raisin in the Sun* puts forward the experiences of two generations of Younger family. At first, the impact of job discrimination on the life of old generations of the family, Big Walter Lee, who is the deceased father of the family, is depicted. Then, the play reveals the frustrations to be accepted into the mainstream of American society of 1950s as well as labor and housing discrimination in life of members of the family.

In the turn of the century many Blacks like the younger family in search of a better life and work migrated to the north to escape from discrimination and the economic oppression. Mama tells this experience to Walter; she mentions that at the time of immigration they were worried about not being lynched and getting to the north and if they succeed how to stay alive and keep a little dignity (Hansberry, 2011, p.74). However, Many Blacks suffered from and faced house discrimination. As Leonard Dinnerstein notes, "The worst housing in the cities was reserved for the black migrants coming from the South. Owners preferred to rent to white immigrants rather than to Blacks, and the black families sometimes encountered violence when they tried to move outside their growing ghettos" (qtd.in M'Bay, 2009, p. 173). Discrimination and segregation's polices resulted in the emergence of several segregated districts in different cities especially Chicago. These districts, Brandon Coles stated were "overprized, overcrowded, and poorly-maintained apartments and homes" (qtd. in Khalief Ghani, 2011, p.608).

The Youngers live in a segregated neighborhood in a city that has been remained as one of the most segregated areas in the United States. They like most Blacks who dwelled in Chicago live in the south of Chicago, in a ghetto. Their conditions of living are representative of most Blacks' in the Chicago ghettos. The Younger family lives in a "cramped", "tired," run-down apartment, a place in which the furnishings "clearly had to accommodate the living of too many people for too many years—and they are tired." Saturday morning cleaning task of "spraying insecticide into the cracks in the walls"(Hansberry, 2011, p.19) reveals that their house is roach-infested and in a terrible condition. Like the roach-infested poor living condition of Youngers, living conditions for Blacks in the ghetto were poor, too. The poverty of the neighborhood is revealed when Travis chases and kills a rat "as big as a cat," with his friends. In fact , Hansberry's presentations of the state of living: the rats, roaches, worn furniture, over-crowded conditions, and anti-integration bombs Gordon stated is an evidence of Chicago's political and economic infrastructures of deliberate segregation as well as a help to set the stage for the dramatic action in A Raisin (qtd. in Khalief Ghan, 2011, p. 611). Rats and cockroaches are considered by some black writer as the representative of the urban segregation. For instance Wright in the opening scene of Native Son depicted the action of killing a black rat "over a foot long" in his family's South Side

kitchenette apartment as well as Hansberry's depiction of bloody killing of "rat Big as a cat, honest!" to portray the reality of black life (Gordon, 2008, p. 127). Youngers are forced to tolerate this condition of living, and Travis must be brought up in this poorly conditioned neighborhood. In spite of abundance of rats and cockroaches, there is little or no municipal sanitation service or landlord upkeep. There is no mention of help or any sort of aid from the government to improve the poverty stricken condition of Negroes. Thus, the rat stands for the negligence of the government and white society to ghettoized communities. Discrimination on housing is also apparent from Ruth observation:"We've put enough [money] in this rat trap to pay for four houses by now" (Hansberry, 2011, p.31). Her statement is representative of the unreasonably high costs of ghetto housing.

Furthermore, mama's response to the question why she bought a home in a white neighborhood reveals discriminations and economic exploitations. She decides to buy a house outside of the black neighborhoods due to the high cost of the houses; houses seem to cost twice as much as other houses in the white neighborhood so she believes buying a house in white neighborhood in which facilities are more, living conditions are better, and the costs are lower is the best choice (Hansberry, 2011, p. 61). In 1950, black people had to pay more for less appropriate places than whites: "While a white family could rent a five-room apartment for $60 a month in Cicero, for example, a black South Side family of four could pay $56 per month to live in one half of a two-room flat, infested with rats and roaches, and even well into the 1960s, without electricity or hot water" (qtd. In Gordon, 2008, p. 125). Discriminations trapped Blacks in ghettoes and provided no opportunity for them to escape from them. And whenever one tried to run to a white neighborhood, they were attacked by whites and even law.

Hansberry herself had a firsthand experience of this discrimination. At the age of eight, his family moved to a white neighborhood and they faced violence. Every Negro who moved to white neighborhood was treated violently by whites:

On Wednesday, July 27, 1949 rioting broke out in the 7200 block of South St. Lawrence Avenue. Arthur Jordan, a Ph.D. candidate had moved into the block, the first negro to venture south of Seventy-first street in the quiet respectable neighborhood of Park manor. For days the rioting went on. Women cursed, children jeered, teen-agers hurled bricks and bottles, and men snarled angrily, "Burn the b- b- out" (qtd.in M'Bay, 2009, p. 184).

The younger family similar to all other black families faces the segregations that discouraged them from buying a house in the white neighborhood of the clybourne Park. Soon after buying the house, Mr. Karl Lindner, the white spokesperson of the clybourne Park improvement Association comes to visit and negotiate with Younger family. Lindner tries to persuade Youngers not to move to clybourne Park: "it is a matter of the people of clybourne Park believing, rightly or wrongly, as I say, that for the happiness of all concerned that our negro families are happier when they live in their *own* communities" (Hansberry, 2011, p.75). He presumes that a black person moving into a white neighborhood cannot be happy because he knows that they are not only unwelcomed there but also will be treated violently. Furthermore, his statement that "But you've got to admit that a man, right or wrong, has the right to want to have the neighborhood he lives in a certain kind of way," (Hansberry, 2011, p.75) is completely racist because he excludes Blacks as humans and considers whites as only human beings who deserve the right of choosing their neighbors. Lindner is so persistent in his racist policy that he even tries to seduce younger family by arranging a financial settlement, and alter the Youngers' determination to move: "Our association is prepared, through the collective effort of our people, to buy the house from you at a financial gain to your family" (Hansberry, 2011, p.76). This offer reveals that for the C.P.i.A. its racist policies are of great importance that it is ready to use its economic power to fulfill them. Such racist behavior was not rare in reality at that time. The act of buying out the houses of Blacks who are likely to reside in white neighborhoods was very common in American society during the 1950s.it was a racist policy not to let Blacks mingle with whites. When Mr. Lindner is not successful, he threatens Youngers that moving to the white neighborhood will defiantly be dangerous for them." LINDNER (*Folding up his materials*) Well—if you are that final about it … there is nothing left for me to say. (*He finishes, almost ignored by the family, who are concentrating on* WALTER LEE. *At the door* LINDNER *halts and looks around*) I sure hope you people know what you're getting into"(Hansberry, 2011, p.94). In fact, Mr. Lindner's ideas represents that whites are too persistent in their racism that they did their best to keep Blacks away from their homes and neighborhood, even if it is possible by violence. It was a common and acceptable way of treating Negroes.

Reading from the newspaper that white folks "set off another bomb yesterday" (Hansberry, 2011, p.20) by Walter Lee Younger, forthwith after the start of drama, implicitly refers to the violence against Blacks who moved to white neighborhood. At the time of 1950s, many Blacks who moved to the white neighborhoods were bombed. Furthermore, Mrs. Johnson also refers to the bombing of Blacks and forecasts the violence towards the younger family: "You mean you ain't read 'bout them colored people that was bombed out their place out there?... "Lord – I bet this time next month ya'll's names will have been in the papers plenty – 'NEGROES INVADE CLYBOURNE PARK – BOMBED!'" (Hansberry, 2011, p. 65-66).

Nevertheless the emphasis on the bombing and violence in denying Blacks the right for choosing where to live suggests that accommodation was yet a crucial issue on which the war of civil rights was to be carried on in the late 1950s/1960s. In fact, buying a house in a white neighborhood is an act of struggle to be accepted in the mainstream of American society, their homeland."The literal home that Mama Younger purchases in Clybourne Park mirrors her family's various psycho-social struggles to attain, secure, and define a sense of place, or "home," in the face of systemic socio-economic racism in Southside Chicago"(Matthews, 2008,p. 557). Hansberry was against segregations because

she believed it refuses to recognize that Blacks are Americans. In addition, she noted that segregations aggravated American racism. Hansberry's portrayal of Mr. Lindner's offer of buying Youngers' house with a fair and tempting price is, in fact, a racist policy in which belittling and depriving the Negroes from their rights as citizens and humans is hidden at the core of it. Thus, the Youngers must be vigilant enough not to be coaxed and duped by money. They must refuse to succumb and must firmly insist on their decision of moving into the white neighborhood so that they could reconfirm their humanity and disclose the color line. Similar to Dubois, Hansberry believed in their right by birth and that all men are created equal so they must demand it and prove that black Americans are appropriate for the benefit of themselves, their nation and their white counterparts. Walter lee says to Mr. Lindner:" we will try to be good neighbors". Dubois also commented in Conservation of Races that Negroes not only are capable of evolving individual men like Toussaint, the Saviour but also they have possibilities of cultures that can bestow it to their nation. The Negro race has many things to offer the civilization and American society like their music which possessed the best place in America.

For resistance against racism Dubois demanded the unity and solidarity among Negroes. He proclaimed the solo solution to racism is the striving of the united Blacks against racism. "as a race we must strive .., by race solidarity, by race unity to the realization of that broader humanity which freely recognizes differences in men, but sternly deprecates inequality in their opportunities of development" (2007b, p. 185).

Nicole King described *Raisin* as one of the black literary representations that "saw and Promoted group solidarity against the diverse manifestations of white racism and discrimination" (qtd. in M'Bay, 2009. p. 175). Thus, *A Raisin* supports the later statement and suggests" that the most effective mode of change is a coalition of unique individuals working together to meet a common goal" (Matthews, 2008, p. 556). Hansberry took her play's title from Hughes's "Harlem". Hughes posed the question, "What happens to a dream deferred" and then puts forwards the possible and diverse responses or effects: "Does it dry up / Like a raisin in the sun? / Or fester like a sore– / And then run? / Does it stink like rotten meat / Or crust and sugar over– / Like a syrupy sweet?" (Lines 2–8). Individually the dream deferred has bad effects on Youngers' family. Ruth is "dried up" for she was weary, tired, disappointed, settled, and "older than her years" and her hope had disappeared. Walter's dream "fester[s] like a sore". He is restless and after Willy steals the money, Walter dreams "runs". Mama's clinging to Christianity in time oppression could be interpreted as "a syrupy sweet" that faith and prayer sugar over present realities. If these people unite with this dream deferred, it would function revolutionarily: "Or does it explode?" (Line 11).When Younger family unites or functions as a community, they gains the ability to explode the mechanisms of their oppression. They move to the white neighborhood in spite of the definite danger (Matthews, 2008, p. 568).

Raisin puts the demand of uniting and joining individuals with other voices and the larger community in the center of changing the discriminative and oppressive social system. Throughout the play it is portrayed how the member of younger family battle against each other. Beneatha denies Walter his personhood and calls him a "rat" (Hansberry, 2011, p.91); Walter dismisses Ruth's expression of her views and calls her small-minded (Hansberry, 2011, p.26); Beneatha mocks Mama and her right to believe as she chooses (Hansberry, 2011, p.35). Eventually, when the members of the family recognize the value in each other and evaluate each other right, they pay respect to each other's dignity. It is then that they unite against outside oppressors (Matthews, 2008, p. 567). At the end of the play, in response to Mr. Lindner's offer, Walter lee reveals their solidarity and agreement: "___We___ are very proud. … And we have all thought about your offer … and we have decided to move into our house… . ___We___ will try to be good neighbors. And that's all we got to say" (Hansberry, 2011, p.93; emphasis added). This "we" refers to Beneatha, Ruth, and Mamas as well as Walter. Dubois stated the importance of confidence in one's ability and worth in fighting against racism and oppression; he was convinced that his race are hated here, despised there, and pitied everywhere. Thus, Blacks must trust themselves and their abilities; they must come to the belief that the only refuge for their race is themselves; if they accept their possible great destiny, then no power on God's heaven can stop the advance of honest, earnest, and inspired black united people (2007b, p. 185).

He believed that for success, Blacks must trust in their abilities and must not disdain their talent. They must get united, and then the success will be at hands. Walter at the end, proudly talks about his family and their achievement before Mr. Lindner. In fact, he trusts his abilities and celebrates their achievements. However, Hansberry aware of housing discrimination and its effect, urged African Americans to get out of ghettoes because she believed the ghettos were killing black people's dream and as Mama says their very bodies.

Hansberry like Dubois was militant in spirit. They both believed their full rights should be firmly demanded and must be fought for. "They must not expect to have things done for them—they must do for themselves" (2007b, p. 186). They must not expect an end to discrimination unless they strive to abolish it. Hansberry stated that "I think it is very simple that the whole idea of debating whether or not (black) should defend themselves is an insult. if any one comes and does ill in your home or community-obviously you try your best to kill (her)him" (Barrios,2008,p. 29). Hansberry established the idea of taking action against discrimination which had done and was doing much harm to the Negro race. This statement demonstrates her affinities with ideology of Dubois.

Dubois all along his life was fighting for an America where black folks and their cultural patterns can exist with no discriminations, equals to others. For pursuing this dream he believed they must react to racism consciously and deliberately; they must accept equality or die. He urged Blacks to persist on their demand until disappearance of color discrimination in American life and the preservation of African history and culture come into being. Dubois was so

determined in his fight against racism that he demanded Blacks to continue their struggle against it till they gain equality. He defined only two possible ways for Blacks: to fight to achieve equality, or to die.

Hansberry also believed that Blacks must take action against racism instead of staying static and silent. They must protest and demand their rights because they will not be given to them with taking no action, they must do something to attain it. She represents this belief through the characters. They also revolt against racism and discrimination to present their dissatisfactions and hatred. Walter in response to Mr. Lindner's racist offer reveals his militant spirit:"And my father—My father almost beat a man to death once because this man called him a bad name or something, you know what I mean?... Yeah. Well—what I mean is that we come from people who had a lot of pride" (Hansberry, 2011, p.93). He like Hansberry believes in racism as an insult that must be answered. He stated that we cannot tolerate racism which denies our dignity and pride so we would fight against it.

Lena's character is certainly militant, stated by Wilkerson: "Lena Younger is not the accommodating Mammy who chooses the passive, safe path, but rather the folk figure, the courageous spirit that lends credence and power to the militant struggle. In her own determined way, she gives birth to revolutionaries and is herself a progressive force" (Wilkerson, 1986, p.450). Mama's dialogue with Mrs. Johnson places her in the militant forefront. Mama's response to Mrs. Johnson's foreseeing of Youngers' danger in white neighborhood reveals her determination to take the risk. Although she is aware of the danger, she wants to defend her rights. The struggle is started by Lena when she decides to move with her family to a white neighborhood. As mama continues her conversations with Mrs. Johnson, her militant aspirations are laid bare. Mrs. Johnson addresses Youngers as "one proud-acting bunch of colored folks". For her, Youngers and their aspirations are too much and complicated so she can not perceived them. She presents the idea against upper education; she advocates Booker T. Washington and quotes from him: "Education has spoiled many a good plow hand". Mama surprised by this quotation expresses her disagreement by calling Washington the fool; Mrs. Johnson in a proud tone considers Washington as "one of the greatest men"; she highly regards him a famous black leader, while mama disgusts of his ideas disdains her by expressing her disagreement in: " who said so?"

In fact, Mama's criticism of Booker T. Washington's ideas places her among Washington's intellectual opponent, W. E. B. Dubois. Although Dubois' name and ideas are not mentioned explicitly, the broad hint in mama's beliefs makes her an equivalent to Dubois. Dubois provided much of the legal bases for protesting segregation through NAACP. Hansberry equates Mama's determination with the militant spirit of Dubois's position (Wilkerson, 1986,p. 449-450). Lena younger surpasses the black mammy's stereotype and plays in the African American home as militants rather than as matriarchs. Gerda Lerner in this regard stated:

[It] was hard for colored children to be proud of fathers who were treated like [boys or called that way or any other name in the South] and it was usually the … mother who had to keep a certain dignity in the family to offset the inferiority the white man inflicted on her husband … When I hear people talking about communists being behind the colored students, I have to laugh. It's no Communists—it's [Black] mothers who believe it's time for their children to fight for their rights and good education (qtd. In Barrios, 2008, P. 117).

This description is parallel to Lena Youngers. Mama is the one who gives courage to her family to live in a white neighborhood, and persuades them that it is their right to choose where to live and enjoy living in a better condition. She brings her children with dignity and proud and urged them to keep it in racist and materialistic American society. It is mama who paves the way for and inspires the future militants of racism. She is the person who provides the opportunity for her daughter to get educated and have a better future in spite of the difficulties and racial prejudice. Mama implants the anti racist belief and pride in her children and makes them prepared for fighting against racism. She backs Walter and cajoles him to keep his dignity by fighting against racial oppression.

Working conditions for Blacks were harsh in Chicago in 1920s through 1950s as the department of Labor reported that "the average black worker made less than 60 percent of his white counterparts. Moreover, Blacks held the worst jobs; jobs which most whites would find demeaning. Fewer than 7 percent of them had professional or managerial positions, about a fourth of the figure for whites, while about half of black men were unskilled workers or laborers"(qtd. in Khalief Ghani,2011, P. 609). Bad conditions of working are represented through the experience of Big Walter Lee, which is told through mama's voice. She states that he worked himself to death (Hansberry, 2011, p.32). Big Walter's life was a constant suffering from his discriminated hostile economic and social world. He was an unskilled worker that in spite of working doggedly he could not escape the despair and poverty that discrimination imposed on African Americans: " i seen … him . . . night after night … come in … and look at that rug … and then look at me … the red showing in his eyes … the veins moving in his head … i seen him grow thin and old before he was forty … working and working and working like somebody's old horse … killing himself" (83). In fact, Big Walter's situation was a direct effect of the educational, economic, and social discrimination (M'Bay, 2009, P. 175-7).

Not only big Walter but also mama, Ruth, and Walter lee all are victims of job discrimination and relegated to the roles of servants, dependents, and unskilled workers. Mama and Ruth are domestics; Walter lee is a chauffeur. It was common in the north that black worker was confined to domestic and personal service. Walter dissatisfied with his job and situation tells her mother that being a chauffeur is not a job; he is so unsatisfied and disgusted of his job that does not consider it worthy of naming a job. He explained his job as opening and closing car doors the whole day, driving his boss around in his expensive car and saying, "Yes, sir; no, sir; very good, sir;" He disgusts his demeaning job that

discrimination and racism imposes on him and provides no other opportunities. His current job is unacceptable for him and dreams of a better one.

Walter cannot find a better job due to his illiteracy and lack of skill. He lacks basic business skills but he is not aware of its importance. He insists to invest in a liquor store without having any knowledge of the business. When mama says that they are not business people and are only plain working folks, she is in fact referring to the lack of knowledge and business experience for them. On the other hand, Walter cannot perceive it; he ignores the necessity of a skill and knowledge in a work and business. He thinks if anyone gets into a business, he will be successful. He mentions that black people never progress unless they start gambling on distinctive kinds of works in the world like investment. At last, Walter defeated in his business plan because of his lack of skill.

Actually, Job and housing discrimination were derived from educational and economic discrimination against African Americans in Chicago. One who was educated or possessed skill would have more opportunities for advancement. Dubois emphasized the importance of Education as the chief means of making better the problems of race. Dubois in *"Of the Training of Black Men"* noted the importance of education:

The one panacea of Education leaps to the lips of all:—such human training as will best use the labor of all men without enslaving or brutalizing; such training as will give us poise to encourage the prejudices that bulwark society, and to stamp out those that in sheer barbarity deafen us to the wail of prisoned souls within the Veil, and the mounting fury of shackled men (2007a, p.65).

He believed in the power of education in creating a better world with less discrimination. Also in article he depicted how lack of skills which is interrelated with prejudice and discrimination in the case of African Americans leaves a detrimental effect on their life and he stated:

Young colored men can seldom get positions above menial grade, and the training of the older men unfits them for competitive business. Then always the uncertain but ever present factor of racial prejudice is present to hinder or at least make more difficult the advance of the colored merchant or businessman (qtd. in M'Bay, 2009, p. 180).

Hansberry, too, emphasized the importance of education in improvement of Blacks. Walter as it is explained cannot find a better job due to her lack of education and skill. Ruth, similar to Walter suffers from somewhat similar problems. Ruth has less chance to find a decent job because she has not been to school. Thus, her work opportunities are not hopeful. She can do nothing but scraping the floor to improve her condition:" I work twenty hours a day in all the kitchens in Chicago…and scrub all the floors in America … if I have to … but we got to MOVE … We got to get out of here" (Hansberry, 2011, p. 89). Unlike Ruth and Walter, Beneatha and George who are educated have a more promising future with more opportunities for working. There is the possibility of finding a good job in a hospital for Beneatha. With acquiring education she is able to flee from the demeaning jobs that racism imposed on Blacks. She is not and will not serve as a servant and it is implied in the play when it is mentioned that Ruth and mama work as servants but nothing is mentioned about Beneatha. She is among those none whites who were able to progress in spite of racism due to their education. She surpasses the limitation that racism defines, and proves the capability of black race as well as black females in reaching a good education and position. The Professor Ray marshal pointed out that:

Significant gains were made by nonwhites in the 1955-1962 period in such professional categories as hospital, medical other health services, welfare and religious institutions, and business and repair services. The relative increase of nonwhites in these occupations was 70 per cent, about twice that of whites. Nonwhites also have gained relatively faster than whites in the educational services field and in government employment (qtd.in M'Bay, 2009, p. 183).

IV. CONCLUSIONS

Lack of mutual respect for rights of others has always leaded to the friction and war between different races. African Americans inhabiting in America, are forced to be divided and build a nation within a nation for themselves. Perceiving that Blacks did not deserve the respect of whites causes the maltreating of blacks a common and conventional behavior. Racism seemed an accepted issue in American society, therefore white let themselves to behave blacks as they desired so. African Americans disgusted and exhausted of the unfair treatment of white and racism took action against it. Dubois is an African American leader urged blacks to stand up against racism till its annihilation come to being. Hansberry, in the same vein as Dubois depicted the devastating effect of racism on African Americans in her works and strongly recommended them to take action against it so that they can build a society in which friction existed no longer and they can live peacefully with their white counterparts.

Lorraine Hansberry's *A Raisin in the Sun* is the story that examines the problems of racism in America through an African-American family and through history. In this work, Hansberry is mainly concerned with the issue of racial discrimination and the responsibility of African Americans to demand equality and to back the civil right movement. Amiri Baraka attested that the play is "the accurate telling and stunning vision of the real struggle" (qtd.in bloom, 2009, p. 13) and is quintessential of supporting civil right movement. Also it was one of the major literary catalysts of the Black Arts movement of the 1960s.

A Raisin in the Sun discusses the impact of labor and housing discrimination on black populations through the experiences of two generations of the Younger family. Mama and Ruth are domestics and Walter and his dead father have been doomed to do demeaning jobs due to the lack of education and economic opportunity that racism provided. It also refers to the housing policies that kept African Americans segregated in ghettoes with the least facilities and

opportunities for progress. Hansberry aware of the damage of ghettoes on the life of Negroes urged them to escape from this district and endeavor to gain their rights:

... We must come out of the ghettos of America, because the ghettos are killing us; not only our dream, as Mama says, but our very bodies. It is not an abstraction to us that the average American Negro has a life expectancy of five to ten years less than the average white (qtd.In Gordo, 2008, p. 1).

REFERENCES

[1]   Barrios, Olga. (2008). The Black Theater Movement in United States and in South Africa. Valencia: PUV,.
[2]   Bloom, Harold. (2009). Bloom's Guides: Lorraine Hansberry's A Raisin in the Sun. New York: Infobase Publishing,.
[3]   Dubois,W. E. B . (2007). Oxford world's classics, The Souls of Black Folks. Ed. Edwards Brent. New York: Oxford UP,.
[4]   Dubois,W. E. B." (2007). The Conservation of Race. "world's classics, The Souls of Black Folks. Ed. Edwards Brent. New York: Oxford UP.
[5]   Dubois,W. E. B.(2011). Dusk of Dawn, An Essay Toward an Autobiography of a Race Concept. New Jersey: Transaction Publishers,.
[6]   Edwards Brent. (2007). Introduction. Oxford world's classics, The Souls of Black Folks. By W. E. B. Dubois. New York: Oxford UP,.
[7]   Gordon, Michelle. (Spring, 2008). ""Somewhat like War": The Aesthetics of Segregation, Black Liberation, and "A Raisin in the Sun"". *African American Review* 42. 1, 121- 133.
[8]   Hansberry, Lorraine. (2011). A Raisin in the Sun. New York: A Division of Random House.
[9]   Hughes, Langston (1990). "Harlem" Selected Poems of Langston Hughes. New York: Random House Inc.
[10] Katz, Michael B. (2001). "the Context of The Philadelphia Negro: The City, the Settlement House Movement, and the Rise of the Social Sciences. Modern Critical Views", W .E .Dubois. Ed Bloom, Harold: Chelsa House,.35-57.
[11] Khalief Ghani, Hana'. (June 2011). "I Have a Dream—Racial Discrimination in Lorraine Hansberry's A Raisin in the Sun." *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* 1. 6: 607-614.
[12] Lawler, Mary. (2005). Black Americans of Achievement, Marcus Garvey, Black Nationalist Leader. Philadelphia: Chelsea House.
[13] Liu, Ashton. (2003). "A Raisin in the Sun and African American Civil Right Movements", *21st Century Voices*. By Eric Burnet. USA: I Universe.142-145.
[14] Matthews, Kristin L. (Winter 2008). "The Politics of "Home" in Lorraine Hansberry's A Raisin in the Sun". *Modern Drama* 51. 4: 556-578.
[15] M'Baye, Babacar. (2009). "Discrimination and the American Dream in Lorraine Hansberry's A Raisin in The Sun". *Bloom's Literary Themes: The American Dream.* Ed. Harold Bloom. New York: Infobase Publishing,. 171-187.
[16] Miller, Paul T. (March 2006). "W. E. B. Dubois: Education, Race and Economics from 1903-1961." *Pan African Studies* 1. 3: 50-61.
[17] Moore,John Hartwell. (2008). Encyclopedia of Race and Racism. Detroit: Thomson Gale,.
[18] Samuels, Wilfred D. (2007). Encyclopedia of African-American Literature. Ed. Woodard, Loretta Gilchrist. New York: Facts on File.
[19] Stafford, Mark. (2005). Black Americans of Achievement, W.E.B. Dubois, Scholar and Activist. Philadelphia: Chelsea House,.
[20] Tyson, lois. (2006). Critical Theory Today: A User Friendly Guide.2ed ed. New York: Routledge,.
[21] Wilkerson, Margaret B. (Dec., 1986). "A Raisin in the Sun: Anniversary of an American Classic." *Theatre Journal* 38. 4, Theatre of Color: 441-452.

Tayebeh Nowrouzi was born in Rafsanjan, Iran in 1987. She majored in English literature at Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Iran. She had M.A in 2013.

Sohila Faghfori got her PhD from Calcutta University in 2000. She is a faculty member of Vali-e-Asr University since 2000. She is an assistant professor of English Literature majoring in social drama. Moreover, she has been a member of Psyart Foundation from 2008 until now. She has translated two books from English to Persian, one related to Psyart Foundation and one related to writing academic papers. She has also published a good number of articles on a variety of subjects such as poetry, novel and comparative literature. She is presently more involved in a number of projects concerning film studies as well as comparative literature.

Esmaeil Zohdi got his PhD from Calcutta University in 2000. He is a faculty member of Vali-e-Asr University since 2000. He is an assistant professor of English Literature majoring in political fiction. Moreover, he has been a member of Psyart Foundation from 2008 until now. He has translated two books from English to Persian, one related to Psyart Foundation and one related to writing academic papers. He has also published a good number of articles on a variety of subjects such as poetry, novel and comparative literature. He is presently more involved in a number of projects concerning film studies as well as comparative literature.

A Survey of the Lecturers' Perception about EFL Azad University Students' Autonomy versus Actual Level of Autonomy

Parvin Arshiyan
Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch, Iran

Kian Pishkar
Islamic Azad University, Jieroft Branch, Iran;
University of Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—The present study primarily investigated the relationship between lecturers' perception about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. This study also tried to shed light on the factors that contribute to learners' autonomy. 50 undergraduate students and 22 professors of English major from Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas served as the participants of the current study. Two questionnaires, one for students, and one for teachers were chosen as the instruments of the current study. After collecting data through instruments, the statistical analysis was done. The results of the study demonstrated that there is a positive relationship between teachers' perception about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. Furthermore, those factors which foster learners' autonomy were identified. The present study has also some theoretical and pedagogical implications for both language learners and language teachers.

Index Terms—autonomy, teachers' perception, language learning, language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

Since 1970, learner autonomy in English language learning has been debated among scholars regarding the ways of promoting learner autonomy and increasing learner independence. According to Esch (1996), learner autonomy is developed if supportive circumstances and contexts are provided to learners. Breen (1984) states that this support can only be given with the process syllabus and learner centered approach. Moreover, Holec's (1979) defined autonomy as ability to take charge of one's own learning. The concept of autonomy is connected with communicative approach according to Nunan (1991). He also added language learning can be affective if learners are allowed to develop and exercise their autonomy.

In today world, one aim of any education program is to enable student to use whatever they learn in their own life student. If they used whatever they learn in real situation, they would participant actively in the process of learning.

On the other hand, according to Kennedy (2002), teacher autonomy is of paramount importance because the relationship between teachers and learners is critical in foreign language acquisition and both teachers and learners need to understand teacher's autonomy and learner's autonomy in order to adapt themselves to classroom learning autonomy. The present study will focus on the relationship between teachers' perception of learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy with the hope to contribute the related research in the second language learning.

There is broad agreement in the theoretical literature that learner autonomy grows out of the individual learner's acceptance of responsibility for his or her own learning (Benson &Voller, 1997; Little, 1991; Dickinson, 1995). This means that autonomy requires the learner to develop control over his or her own learning and his or her own role in that process. According to Benson (2000), this control might take various forms for different individuals and even different forms for the same individual depending on the contexts or times.

Furthermore, different definitions were also offered for teacher autonomy. Little (1995) first defines teacher autonomy as the "teachers' capacity to engage in self-directed teaching." Then, researchers have been endeavoring to define teacher autonomy from different aspects. Aoki's (2000) offers an explicit definition of teacher autonomy, suggesting that this involves the capacity, freedom, and/or responsibility to make choices concerning one's own teaching". According to Smith (2000), teacher autonomy refers to "the ability to develop appropriate skills, knowledge and attitudes for oneself as a teacher, in cooperation with others." Benson (2000) argues that teacher autonomy can be seen as "a right to freedom from control (or an ability to exercise this right) as well as actual freedom from control".

Holec's (1981) pointed out that the term autonomy can be used in at least five different ways:
1. For situations in which learners study entirely on their own
2. For a set of skills which can be learned and applied in self-directed learning -
3. For an inborn capacity which is suppressed by institutional education-

4. For the exercise of learners' responsibility for their own learning

5. For the right of learners to determine the direction of their own learning.

In accordance with the concept of learner autonomy, autonomous learners need to be able to decide on their learning needs and goals, identifying learning resources, choose and carry out proper learning strategies, organize learning tasks and self-evaluate their learning results. All of which will be very hard or even impossible to be accomplished by the learners (Thanh Nga, 2014). Furthermore, Autonomous learners are the ones who take active roles in the learning process, by finding more learning opportunities for themselves, rather than being the complete pursuer of the teacher. A comprehensive review of scholarly articles on learner autonomy in language learning was conducted. A number of studies showed that there is a causal relationship between motivation and autonomy (Benson, 2000; Dickinson, 1995; Littlewood, 1996). There have been a large number of studies focusing on the roles associated with teachers and learners in an autonomous learning environment (Benson, 2000; Dickinson, 1995; Oxford, 1989; Richards &Rogers, 2001). A number of studies conducted on the beliefs and attitudes of learners demonstrated positive effects of learners towards learning and autonomy (Cotterall, 1995; Horwitz, 1999)

The review of literature indicates that autonomous learning is indispensable for effective language learning which will enable language learners to develop more responsibilities for their own learning. Therefore, most of the relevant research studies highlight the importance of promoting learner autonomy in language classroom.The primary purpose of the present study is to investigate the relationship between teachers' perspective regarding autonomy and the students' actual level of autonomy and to identify the factors which contribute to the learners' autonomy. To this end, undergraduate students who study English major at Bandar Abbas University along with their professors were chosen to participate in the current study. They were asked to fill out the related questionnaires. Then, the results of questionnaire were compared in order to find out whether there is any significant relationship between teachers' perception of autonomy and students' actual level of autonomy.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of the present study were about 50 undergraduate students with age range of 20 to 34 who were studying English Translation at semester 5 and 6 at Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas branch. Furthermore, 22professors of who teach at the same university participated in this study. Both teachers and students were given a related questionnaire to fill out in order to provide a researcher with insightful information about teachers' perception of autonomy and students' actual level of autonomy.

B. Design of the Study

The study employed case study to examine the relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy through quantitative data. Moreover, it investigated how autonomous learners can learn to monitor their own learning and rely on themselves and self-correct themselves. Two questionnaires, to examine students' actual level of autonomy and teachers' perception related to the learners' autonomy were used to collect data about teachers' perceptions related to the implementation of autonomous learning and instructional process in the program. On the other hand, the present study can be considered as descriptive because of making descriptive statement about particular group. In this study quantitative data were collected. The data were collected through two kinds of questionnaires, one of which aimed to identify teachers' perception and the other aimed to find out students' actual level of autonomy. Furthermore, the last part of the questionnaire will focus on the demographic information of the students.

C. Instruments

Two questionnaires were selected as instruments for this study. The first questionnaire was assigned to the teachers to demonstrate their perception of learners' autonomy. This questionnaire was funded by the British Council and was conducted by Dr Simon Borg, University of Leeds and Dr. Saleh Al-Busaidi, Sultan Qaboos University. 22 professors of English field at Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas branch were invited to contribute to this study by completing the aforementioned questionnaire. The other questionnaire was related to learners' autonomy. In other words, it measured the students' actual level of autonomy. This questionnaire was adopted from Zhang and Li (2004).

1. The Questionnaire of English Language Teachers' Beliefs about Learner Autonomy

The questionnaire is based on the study about learner autonomy in ELT being funded by the British Council and which is being conducted by Dr Simon Borg, University of Leeds and Dr Saleh Al-Busaidi, Sultan Qaboos University. The goal of developing this questionnaire was to support the development of learner autonomy. The questionnaire included no right or wrong answers and it primarily focused on the teachers' perspective and opinion about learners' autonomy. Furthermore, the questionnaire included 37 items based on the five-point Likert scale. It also enjoyed the established reliability and validity for measuring teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy. It took about 20 minutes to be completed.

2. Learner autonomy questionnaire

Learners' autonomy questionnaire was utilized to measure the learners' autonomy. This questionnaire was developed by Zhang and Li (2004). It mainly examined students' level of autonomy and demonstrates whether learners are autonomous or not. The questionnaire comprised of two parts and included 21 items. The first section of the questionnaire consisted of 11 questions based on the five-point liker scale ranging from never to always .The second part of the questionnaire included 10 items and the participants should show their responses by choosing the closet response to their view in 30 minutes. The students' choices in the questionnaire were the scores from A to E that are respectively 1,2,3,4 and 5. It estimated the participants' autonomy with established reliability and validity.

D. Procedure

To conduct the present study several steps were taken. 50 male and female students with the age range of 20 to 34 who were studying English Translation at semester 5 and 6 at Islamic Azad University of Bandar Abbas branch were randomly selected to participate in this study. Furthermore, 22 professors at the same university were selected to provide information about lecturers' perspective regarding learners' autonomy. After selecting the participants of the study two questionnaires, one for students and one for teachers were distributed among the participants. The participants were assured that their responses would be kept secret in order to express their ideas freely. After completing the questionnaires, the results of the questionnaires were analyzed and compare using SPSS version 18.00.

E. Data Analysis

This study aimed to identify the relationship between teachers' perception of learners' autonomy and the learners' actual level of autonomy in order to determine whether there was a correlation between them on one hand, and examined the factors that contribute to the autonomous behavior of learners, on the other hand.

Questionnaires were applied for the purpose of data collection procedures. The statistical analyses were conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 18 through several statistical procedures. According to Mackey and Gass (2005), descriptive statistics provides a simple overview of data, thus allowing the researcher to expand her/his overall understanding of the data set. The results were analyzed under two sub-headings teachers' perception of learners' autonomy and learners' autonomy. Regarding the analysis of the results obtained from the questionnaire, descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and frequency were calculated to summarize the results of the both teachers and students' responses to the questionnaire as well as their demographic information. Since variables were related in linear relationship, Pearson Product-moment correlation analysis were conducted to compute the correlation between two variables, namely teachers' perception of students' autonomy and students' level of autonomy. Furthermore, based on the descriptive statistics of the obtained data, the factors which contributed to the students' self-correction, autonomy, and monitoring were identified.

III. RESULTS

1. Is there any relationship between teacher's perception of Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' autonomy and students' actual level of autonomy?

To answer the first research question, the data of the questionnaires were submitted to SPSS statistical program. The purpose of using teachers' perception of learner autonomy questionnaire was to show teachers' attitude toward their student autonomy and how they mostly thought they can promote students level of autonomy. The learner autonomy questionnaire was used in order to shed light on the fact that how much students were autonomous. Table 3.1 illustrates the descriptive statistics related to the teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy questionnaire.

TABLE 3.1
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR TEACHERS' PERCEPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Items	Number=22					Mean	SD
	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 unsure	4 Agree	5 Strongly Agree	Statistic	Statistic
1. Language learners of all ages can develop learner autonomy	18.2%	27.3%	27.3%	13.8%	13.4%	2.7727	1.30683
2. Independent study in the library is an activity which develops learner autonomy	13.6%	22.7%	36.4%	18.2%	9.1%	2.8636	1.16682
3. Learner autonomy is promoted through regular opportunities for learners to complete tasks alone	9.1%	13.6%	18.2%	22.7%	36.4%	3.6364	1.36436
4. Autonomy means that learners can make choices about how they learn	0%	0%	18.2%	36.4%	45.5.%	4.2727	.76730
5. Individuals who lack autonomy are not likely to be effective language learners	0%	13.6%	45.5%	18.2%	22.7%	3.5000	1.01183
6. Autonomy can develop most effectively through learning outside the classroom	0%	13.6%	40.9%	18.2%	27.3%	3.5909	1.05375
7. Involving learners in decisions about what to learn promotes learner autonomy	4.5%	9.1%	18.2%	40.9%	27.3%	3.7727	1.10978
8. Learner autonomy means learning without a teacher.	54.5%	36.4%	9.1%	0%	0%	1.7273	1.16217

9. It is harder to promote learner autonomy with proficient language learners than it is with beginners	18.2%	36.4%	22.7%	13.6%	9.1%	2.5909	1.22121
10. It is possible to promote learner autonomy with both young language learners and with adults	18.2%	18.2%	27.3%	18%	18.4%	3.0000	1.38013
11. Confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence	0%	0%	9 %	45.5%	45.5%	4.3636	.65795
12. Learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would.	0%	4.5%	27.3%	40.9%	27.3%	4.5691	.86790
13. Learner autonomy can be achieved by learners of all cultural backgrounds	4.5%	18.2%	7.3%	47.3%	22.7%	3.4545	1.18431
14. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners have some choice in the kinds of activities they do	0%	0%	0%	36.4%	63.6%	4.6364	.49237
15. Learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centered classrooms.	0%	11.4%	11.4%	13.6%	63.6%	4.1545	1.36198
16. Learner autonomy is promoted through activities which give learner opportunities to learn from each other.	0%	0%	0%	36.2%	36.8%	4.6364	.49237
17. Learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching	4.5%	4.5%	10.7%	41.8%	38.5%	3.9091	1.10880
18. Learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher	0%	9.1%	12.7%	18.2%	60%	4.0909	1.06499
19. Learner autonomy is promoted by activities that encourage learners to work together	0%	0%	22.7%	31.8%	45.5%	4.2273	.81251
20. Learner autonomy is only possible with adult learners	22.7%	27.3%	27.3%	22.7%	0%	2.5000	1.10195
21. Learner autonomy is promoted by independent work in a self-access centre	13.6%	27.3%	31.8%	18.2%	9.1%	3.8182	1.18065
22. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners are free to decide how their learning will be assessed	13.6%	22.7%	22.7%	18.2%	22.7%	3.1364	1.39029
23. Learner autonomy is a concept which is not suited to non-Western learners	40.9%	27.3%	9.1%	9.1%	13.6%	2.2727	1.45346
24. Learner autonomy requires the learner to be totally independent of the teacher	18.2%	22.7%	31.8%	13.6%	13.6%	2.8182	1.29601
25. Co-operative group work activities support the development of learner autonomy	0%	0%	4.5%	36.4%	59.1%	4.5455	.59580
26. Promoting autonomy is easier with beginning language learners than with more proficient learners	27.3	50	18.2	4.5	0%	2.0455	.95005
27. Learner autonomy is promoted when learners can choose their own learning materials	0%	9.1%	18.2%	45.5%	27.3%	3.9091	.92113
28. Learner-centered classrooms provide ideal conditions for developing learner autonomy	0%	13.6%	13.6%	18.2%	54.5%	4.1364	1.12527
29. Learning how to learn is key to developing learner autonomy	0%	4.5%	13.6%	36.4%	45.5%	4.2273	.86914
30. Learning to work alone is central to the development of learner autonomy	0%	13.6%	9.1%	45.5%	31.8%	3.9545	.99892
31. Out-of-class tasks which require learners to use the internet promote learner autonomy	0%	0%	13.6%	36.4%	50%	4.3636	.72673
32. The ability to monitor one's learning is central to learner autonomy.	4.5%	4.5%	9.1%	36.4%	45.5%	4.1364	1.08213
33. Motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated	0%	0%	0%	22.7%	77.3%	4.7727	.42893
34. The proficiency of a language learner does not affect their ability to develop autonomy	0%	18.2%	63.6%	18.2%	0%	3.0000	.61721
35. The teacher has an important role to play in supporting learner autonomy	0%	0%	0%	36.4%	63.6%	4.6364	.49237
36. Learner autonomy has a positive effect on success as a language learner	0%	9.1%	13.6%	27.3%	50%	4.8000	1.19523
37. Become autonomous, learners need to develop the ability to evaluate their own learning	0%	18.2	18.2	31.8	31.8	3.7727	2.19536

As table 3.1 demonstrates, most of the teachers (77.3%) believed that Learner autonomy has a positive effect on the success of the language learners and learner autonomy allows language learners to learn more effectively than they otherwise would (68.2%). So, it is generally admitted that autonomous learners are more successful language learners. On the other hand, it is obvious that teachers have a remarkable and undeniable role in enhancing learner autonomy which, in turns, leads to more language learning. As Table 3.1 reveals, most of the teachers asserted that learner autonomy doesn't mean learning without teachers (90%) and learner autonomy cannot develop without the help of the teacher (78.2%). In fact, it implies that teachers should teach students how they can become more autonomous. Furthermore, most of the teacher claimed that learner autonomy cannot be promoted in teacher-centered classrooms (77.2%) and learner autonomy implies a rejection of traditional teacher-led ways of teaching (80.3%) and they believed that Learner-centered classrooms provide ideal conditions for developing learner autonomy (M=4.13, P=72.7%). In fact, most of the teachers stated that learner autonomy could be enhanced by providing them with opportunity to make decision about the materials, activities, the way of assessment and so on which is discussed in full details in the result of second research question which dealt with the factors which contributed to the learner autonomy and self-correction.

At the second step, the learner autonomy questionnaire which aimed to estimate students' actual level of autonomy and learners' preferences in language classes was administered to the 50 undergraduate students. Table 3.2 reveals the descriptive statistics related to the learners autonomy questionnaire. The questionnaire was composed of two sections the first section included 11 items and was based on the five-point likert scale ranging from (1) Never, (2) rarely, (3) sometimes, (4) often, (5)always.

TABLE 3.2
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LEARNER AUTONOMY

Items	Number=50					Mean	SD
	1 Never	2 Rarely	3 sometimes	4 Often	5 Always		
1. I think I have the ability to learn English well	3%	2%	16%	41%	38%	3.9600	1.11685
2. I make good use of my free time in English study	0%	6%	26%	26%	42%	4.0400	.96806
3. I preview before the class	0%	8%	20%	38%	34%	3.9800	.93656
4. I find I can finish my task in time.	2%	12%	20%	32%	34%	3.8400	1.09470
5. I keep a record of my study, such as keeping a diary, writing review etc.	8%	8%	26%	24%	34%	3.6800	1.25259
6. I make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by myself	6%	0%	20%	34%	40%	4.0200	1.07836
7. I reward myself such as going shopping, playing etc. When I make progress	0%	4%	18%	38%	40%	4.1400	.85738
8. I attend out-class activities to practice and learn the language	10%	12%	10%	32%	36%	3.7200	1.34073
9. During the class, I try to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role-play, etc	2%	0%	12%	32%	54%	4.3600	.85141
10. I know my strengths and weaknesses in my English study	2%	0%	10%	34%	54%	4.3800	.83029
11. I choose books, exercises which suit me, neither too difficult nor too easy	4%	8%	12%	26%	50%	4.1000	1.14731

As table 3.2 indicates, broadly speaking learners assess their ability of being autonomous completely positive. As can be observed in the above table, most of the students chose "often" or "always" and these options gained the higher percentage. Regarding the first item, most of the students (79%) believed in their ability for learning English language and only 5% thought that they had deficiency. With respect to the second item, majority of the students (60%) stated that they make good use of their free time in English. In response to the third item students (72%) were inclined to preview before the class and finish a task in time (68%). More importantly, more than half of the students (54%) demonstrated that they prefer to keep a record of their study by keeping a diary, writing review, analyzing, etc. Regarding item 6, most of the students (74%) tried to assess themselves and make self-exam with the exam papers chosen by themselves, besides, 78% of the students expressed that they reward themselves when they progress. Furthermore, 68 % of the learners asserted that they had tendency to pursue language learning further by attending out-class activities which can be taken as evidence for autonomous language learning behavior. Regarding item 8 of the questionnaire, 86 % of the students declared that they were willing to catch chances to take part in activities such as pair/group discussion, role-play, etc. Thus, these activities should be implemented more and more in the classroom in order to promote students' autonomous behavior. 88% of the students claimed that they know their weak points and strengths and accordingly 76% of them stated that they completely know how to choose books, exercises which suit them, neither too difficult nor too easy. According the above mentioned analyses, it can safely be claimed that students in this study were completely autonomous. Table 3.3 showed the descriptive statistics related to the second part of the questionnaire (Appendix II).

TABLE 3.3
SUMMARY OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR LEARNER AUTONOMY (SECTION II)

Items	Number=50					Mean	SD
	1	2	3	4	5	statistic	statistic
12. I study English here due to	6%	8%	6%	18%	62%	4.4600	1.05386
13. think the learner-teacher relationship is that of	0%	6%	10%	24%	60%	4.4000	.90351
14. I think my success or failure in English study is mainly due to	4%	6%	6%	30%	54%	4.2400	1.07968
15. Whether students should design the teaching plan together with teachers or not, my opinion is.	4%	4%	13%	34%	45%	4.3800	.72534
16. the teacher asks questions for us to answer, I would mostly like to:	8%	26%	6%	22%	38%	3.8800	1.25584
17. When I meet a word I don't know, I mainly	4%	22%	50%	18%	6%	3.0800	.80407
18. When I make mistakes in study, I'd usually like the following ones to correct them	4%	19%	20%	4%	53%	3.9400	.87037
19. when I am asked to use technologies that I haven't used before(e. g. internet discussion)	28%	54%	8%	4%	6%	1.8000	.57143
20. I think the following way is most useful in my English study	8%	4%	12%	36%	38%	4.0600	1.13227
21. usually use materials selected	2%	2%	50%	34%	12%	3.5800	.70247

As table 3.3 illustrates, the vast majority of the students (62%) prefer to study English in order to get a good job, help to their major or because of their interest of English culture, such as film, sports, music, etc. So, most of the students were both instrumentally and intrinsically motivated to learn English language. With regard to the item 13, most of the learners (60%) considered teacher-learners relationship as explorer and director which implied that teachers should teach students the elements and principles of autonomous behavior and in fact, they should guide learner toward being autonomous and responsible for their own learning because students cannot become autonomous without the help of the teachers. Therefore, the teachers play a key and central role in this regard. More than half of the students (54%) attributed their failure or success to themselves which means they accepted that they are responsible for their own learning while 22 percent of the students considered teacher as a main factor in this regard. In response to item 15, 79 percent of the learners agreed that students should design the teaching plan together with teachers. In fact, students would rather to have choices about what they learn. With respect to the item 16, most of the students (38%) preferred to join a pair/group discussion when the teacher asks a question. 26 percent of the students preferred to rely on themselves and think and get ready to answer. On the other hand, 22 percent of the students preferred to ask teacher for clarification of the question. In response to item 17, half of the students again preferred to rely on themselves and use contextual clues for guessing the meaning of the unknown words, 22 percent of the students expressed that they would rather to use peer assistant and ask their peers and 18% of the students asserted that they used both peer assistance and dictionaries when encountering unknown words. More than half of the students (57%) preferred to work independently when making mistakes while 20% of the students preferred to be corrected by their classmate and 19% of the students preferred to be corrected by the teacher. Again, more than half of the students (54%) expressed that they would follow the others and learn new thing if they are asked to use technologies that they haven't used before (e. g. internet discussion) and 28% of the students asserted that they would try to challenge themselves and learn new skills. With regard to the way of learning English, 38% of the students preferred to have group discussion, 36% preferred to have classifying, grouping or comparing, 12% of the students preferred to do exercises of grammar, translation, word, etc., 8% of the students would rather to take note, and only 4% of the students used mechanic memory for learning English. Regarding the last item, half of the students preferred those materials which are selected by both teachers and themselves, it implies that students would like to have choices in selecting materials. 34% of the students also expressed that they would like the materials mostly be selected by themselves. By a close look at the table, it can easily be understood that the students generally would like to be active not passive and like the teachers ask for their opinion regarding selecting materials, activities, way of teaching, etc.

The primary purpose of the first research question of the present study was to investigate whether there is any relationship between teachers' perception of learners' autonomy and learners actual level of autonomy or not. To this end, after calculating the descriptive statistics, including mean, standard deviation, and percentage of each item of two questionnaires, the correlation analysis was conducted.

Firstly, preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity.Kolmlgrov-Smirnoff non-parametric test was used to see whether the data of the study are normally distributed or not. The sig for teachers' perception questionnaire turned out to be .65 and for the learner autonomy questionnaire was .88 based on the obtained data which indicates that the scores are normally distributed. The assumption of normal distribution is not violated since $p > 0.05$. So, the assumption of normality was met. Table 3.4 shows the results of normality test.

TABLE 3.4:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

Pretest		Teachers' Perception	Learners' Autonomy
N		22	50
Normal Parameters[a],[b]	Mean	3.64	3.66
	Std. Deviation	.169	.208
Extreme Differences	Absolute	.157	.083
	Positive	.103	.083
	Negative	-.157	-.077
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.736	.586
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.650	.882

*Test distribution is Normal

Furthermore, scatter plot was generated to check the other assumptions of correlation analysis. The first questionnaire measured the teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy through 37 items based on five-point likert scale. The total mean score was calculated by adding all mean scores of 37 items of the teacher' perception scale (TP1 to TP37). Total mean scores ranged from 3.32 (the lowest) to 3.97 (the highest). The second questionnaire examined learners' autonomy through 21 items based on five-point likert scale. The total mean score was calculated by adding all mean scores of 21 items of the learners' autonomy scale (LA1 to LA 21). Total mean scores ranged from 3 (the lowest) to 4.33 (the highest). Then, the scatter plot which enables the researchers to check for violation of the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity was produced (Pallant , 2005). In addition, the inspection of the scatter plot gives a better idea of the nature of the relationship between the variables (Pallant, 2005). Figure 3.1 shows the scatter plot for the variables.
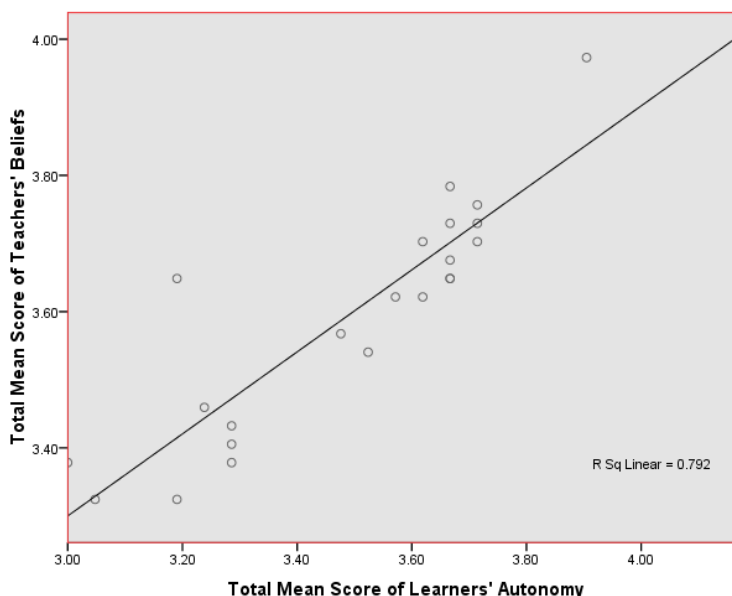
Figure 3.1: Scatter Plot of the Variables

As it is clear from the figure, the points are neatly arranged in a cigar shape. In other words, the distribution of scores on the scatter plot established that the relationship between the variables is linear. Furthermore, the direction of the line is upward and from left to right and high mean score on X is associated with high mean score on Y. Thus, it seems there is positive relationship between two variables. After making sure that there was no violation of assumption, Pearson product moment correlation analysis was employed to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. The results were summarized in Table 3.5.

The results showed that teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy positively and significantly correlated with learners' actual level of autonomy.

TABLE 3.5:
PEARSON CORRELATION BETWEEN TEACHERS' PERCEPTION AND LEARNERS' AUTONOMY

		Teachers' Perception	Learners' Autonomy
Teachers' Perception	Pearson Correlation	1.00	.766**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	22	.000
	N		50
Learners' Autonomy	Pearson Correlation	.776**	1.00
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.0000	
	N	22	50

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. Teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy were positively correlated. The R-observed value was .776 (Table 3.5). The findings of this study were statistically significant and they were of large value. Based on the effect size criteria developed by Cohen (1988), a Pearson correlation coefficient equal to .77 is considered to be a large one. In other words, the correlation is r=.776, which when squared indicates 59.4 per cent shared variance. This is quite a respectable amount of variance explained when compared with a lot of the research conducted in the social sciences. Thus, as indicated above, teachers play a key and central role in promoting learners' autonomous behavior which is one of the most important factors in learning every subject, in general, and mastering foreign language, in particular. Since there was strong positive relationship between teachers' beliefs and learners' autonomy, the first null hypothesis which stated that there is no significant relationship between these two variables, can safely be rejected.

The second research question of the present study investigated the factors that contribute to the autonomous behavior of the learners. As previously mentioned, teachers play an important role in enhancing learners' autonomous behavior. In fact, teachers should not be authoritative but should be facilitator in order to foster autonomy in the classroom and help students to monitor and self-correct themselves. In the same line of argumentation, according to the teachers' responses to the questionnaire, autonomy cannot develop in the teacher-centered classroom using traditional teacher-led way teaching. Furthermore, teachers believed that autonomous learners are better and more successful learners because they know how to self-correct and monitor their own learning. By close look at the mean of the items of the questionnaire, it can easily be understood that all the teachers (100%) asserted that motivated language learners are more likely to develop learner autonomy than learners who are not motivated. So, there is a direct relationship between motivation and autonomy. Furthermore, it was claimed that confident language learners are more likely to develop autonomy than those who lack confidence (90%). Thus, the teacher should promote students' self-confidence and motivation which are prerequisites to autonomy. In this case, teachers can assign activities which encourage students (77.3%) because those activities in which students are interested can simultaneously increase learners' motivation, self-confidence, and more importantly autonomy. On the other hand, the results showed that learner autonomy can be promoted when learners can make choices about how to learn (81.9%), can make decision about what to learn and should be encouraged to set individual goal for learning (68.2%), have some choices in the kinds of activities they do (88%), and more importantly, can choose their own learning materials (72%) because learner-centered classrooms provide ideal conditions for developing learner autonomy (72.8%). Students should also be cooperative because co-operative group work activities support the development of learner autonomy (95.5%) because these activities give them opportunities to learn from each other and understand their standing among the other students (73%). Teachers should also incorporate some kinds of technology in the classroom in order to make students curious and provide them with opportunity to come up with innovation and new ideas and have discussion with their classmate. In the present study, teachers believed that out-of-class tasks which require learners to use the internet can promote learner autonomy (86.4%). Broadly speaking, most of the teachers admitted that learning how to learn and amalgamating language content and learning process via effective language learning strategy training, (81.9%), learning to work independently by being provided with regular opportunities to do tasks alone (77.3%), developing the ability to monitor one's learning and making self-checking (81.9), and engaging learners in constant evaluation of their progress and making self-exam (63.6%) can be regarded as central and key to learner autonomy. It was also generally accepted that developing autonomy is not bound to any cultural (70%) or Western countries (68.2%). Furthermore, it was stated that language learners of all ages and proficiency levels can develop autonomy.

In a nutshell, it was discovered that autonomous learners are more successful language learners because they know how to learn, how to rely on themselves, and to be responsible for their own learning, they can monitor and self-correct themselves, besides, they are more motivated and have more self-confidence which are integral elements of mastering any foreign language. On the other hand, the role of teachers cannot be neglected in this regard. In fact, teachers play the most essential role in enhancing learners' autonomous behavior because students believe in their teachers. Briefly speaking, teachers should be supporter or facilitator and involve learners in the classroom activities and should give them opportunities to make choices about design of teaching plan, the kind of activities, the materials, how and what to learn and so one in order to motivate and encourage learners to develop positive attitude toward language learning which indirectly contribute to autonomy. Furthermore, the teachers should help students to set their own goal, to incorporate reflective lessons and technology such as internet into the content of the teaching, to encourage learners to keep portfolio or diaries, to help learners to monitor and self-evaluate themselves constantly, and more importantly implement the elements of cooperative learning in the classroom and encourage learners to share their new ideas with their friends, to have interaction with their classmate, to compare their own standing with their friends, etc.

IV. DISCUSSION

According to Joshi (2011), "The world of pedagogy is shifting rapidly from the authority to democracy since 1960s and the target of teaching/learning should be the learner autonomy" (p.25). The findings of the present study indicated that there exist a strong and positive relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. It implies that teachers as a facilitator of learning have a remarkable role in promoting

learners' autonomous behavior. Furthermore, some factors such as giving learners choices with regard to what to learn, the kinds of materials, teaching plan, cooperating with their classmate and so on were identified to contribute to autonomy, monitoring and self-correction. The results of the current study agree with those of Nasri, EslamiRasekh, Dastjerdi, and Amirian in a way that teachers asserted that promoting learners' autonomy is of utmost importance. The findings also are in accordance with Joshi's (2011) study, which shows that there is positive relationship between teachers and students' attitude toward autonomy. Also, in this study, as previously mentioned, outside tasks and activities proved to increase learners' autonomy. Contrary to the statement of Ho and Crookall (1995) that autonomy is related to the context of specific culture, in the present study, teachers stated that autonomy is not bound to the culture. The results of the study are also similar to those of Little (1995) and Voller (1997) which showed that autonomy does not mean learning without the help of the teachers and teachers have important role in promoting learners' autonomy. Tholin's (2009) study also lent support to the finding of the present study. He also declared that teachers and learners should have mutual relationship for developing autonomy and in fact, teachers should redirect "their teaching towards self-directed learning and on how their own experiences as autonomous language learners can give character to the teaching that they themselves carry out (p.183)".

V. CONCLUSION

The current study aimed to investigate the relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and the learners' actual level of autonomy and to determine the factors that contribute to the learners' autonomy. Two types of questionnaires were used as the instruments for the purpose of data collection. 22 lectures of English major of Islamic Azad University of Banadar Abbas and 50 undergraduate students at semester 5 and 6 served as the participants of this study. After data collection, analysis was done. The correlation analysis was conducted to discover the relationship between two variables of the study. The results showed that there was highly strong and positive relationship between teachers' beliefs about learners' autonomy and learners' actual level of autonomy. Further, the results demonstrated that teachers as the facilitators have undeniable role in promoting learners' autonomy. Furthermore, several factors were identified as the most important factors contributing to learners' autonomy. Some of these factors were involving students in the class, giving them opportunity to make decision about the content of material, the activities, teaching plan, the kind of evaluation, and so on. More importantly, it was found out that students should be provided with opportunity to learn from each other and have cooperative learning in order to develop their autonomy. The present study has both pedagogical and theoretical implications for teachers and learners. The results of the study indicated that autonomous learners are more effective learners. So, it is necessary for teachers to be aware and to increase their knowledge about how to train autonomous learners. In this regard, it can be suggested to Teacher Training Program to hold some workshops in order to increase teachers' knowledge and skill for improving learners' autonomy. It was also seen in this study that teachers by encouraging and motivating students can increase students' self-confidence which directly affect autonomy. Furthermore, teachers should act as a supporter or facilitator and avoid teacher-centered classroom and guide learners toward being more autonomous by giving them some chances for group discussion, making choices about material, activities, evaluation method, etc. To enhance learners' actual level of autonomy, teachers should assign students some outside tasks and let students to preview the lessons and do the task alone. Furthermore, in today world, technology such as internet has become indispensable part of every student's life. Thus, teachers should implement technology in the classroom and asked them to use technology in order to discover new innovation and ideas with their classmate through collaborative learning. Learners themselves are also the main factor for developing autonomy. They should rely on themselves for monitoring, self-checking, and self-correcting themselves. They should set a target for their own learning and be both intrinsically and instrumentally motivated to reach the target. They should keep some portfolio or diaries for promoting their autonomy. They should engage themselves in a constant evaluation of their progress. They should grab the chances in the classroom in order to have interaction with other students. Furthermore, they should do their best to solve the problem or to do tasks alone in order to learn how to learn independently and become responsible for their own learning. By considering the aforementioned points, teachers and learners can help to develop autonomy. Material developers should also design the course books in a way that motivate language learners toward autonomy and include different tasks which challenge students to do the task independently. They should also include some semi-exams in the course books in order to encourage learners toward self-evaluation and self-exam before the real one. With regard to the limitations of the current study, some suggestions for the future studies can make. The present study was done with only 22 lecturers and 50 undergraduate students. Any possible study can be conducted in a larger scale in order to enhance the generalizability of the results. Further, a similar study is needed to be carried out in the ESL context and its results be compared with the results of the current study to confirm these findings. The present study was done in the Banddar Abbas province, any further study can be done in other provinces such as Tehran to see whether the same results will obtain. This study was done with undergraduate students whose technical major is English; another study is needed to be done with graduate students or students who have different majors. The present study was only based on the quantitative data, any further research can be done based on triangulation method using both quantitative and qualitative data. Moreover, any future study can take individual difference variables such as age, major, personality type, and so on into account to investigate the issue under investigation better.

REFERENCES

[1]   Aoki, N. (2000). Aspects of teacher autonomy: Capacity, freedom and responsibility. Paper presented at 2000 Hong Kong University of Science and Technology Language Centre Conference.
[2]   Benson, P. (2000). Autonomy as a learners' and teachers' right. In B. Sinclair, I. McGrath and T. Lamb (eds.) *Learner autonomy, teacher autonomy: Future directions*, (pp.111-117). London: Longman.
[3]   Benson, P., & Voller, P. (1997).Autonomy and Independence in Language Learning. London: Longman.
[4]   Breen, M. P. (1984). Process in syllabus design and classroom language learning. In C.J. Brumfit (Ed.), *General English syllabus design. ELT Documents* (pp. 47-60). London: Pergamon Press and The British Council.
[5]   Cotterall, S. (1995).Developing a course strategy for learner autonomy.*ELT Journal, 49* (3), 219-227.
[6]   Dickinson, L. (1995). Autonomy and Motivation: A literature review. *System, 23* (2), 165-174.
[7]   Esch, E. (1996). Promoting learner autonomy: Criteria for the selection of appropriate methods. In R. Pemberton, E. S. L. Li, W. W. F. Or & H. D. Pierson (Eds.), *Taking control: Autonomy in language learning* (pp. 35-48). Hong Kong: Hong Kong University Press.
[8]   Ho, J., & Crookall, D. (1995). Breaking with Chinese cultural traditions: Learner autonomy in English language teaching.*System, 23 (2), 235-243*.
[9]   Holec, H. (1981). Autonomy and foreign language learning. Oxford: Pergamon.
[10]   Holec, H. (1979). Autonomy and foreign language learning. In M. Kłębowska (Ed).Transferring ELT knowledge to the classroom – Results of a study. *Glottodidactica,* 32.159–171.
[11]   Joshi, K. R. (2011). Learner Perceptions and Teacher Beliefs about Learner Autonomy in Language Learning, *Journal of NELTA, 16* (2), 12-29.
[12]   Kennedy, J. (2002). Learner Autonomy: A Realistic Proposition for Turkish Students. In M. Monty and M. Godfrey (Eds.).*Global Problems and Local Solutions.* Proceedings of ELT Conference (pp.118-122). İstanbul: Işık University.
[13]   Little, D. (1995). Learning as Dialogue: The Dependence of Learner Autonomy on Teacher Autonomy. *System, 23* (2), 175-181.
[14]   Little, D. (1991).Learner Autonomy: Definitions, Issues and Problems. Authentic Ltd. Dublin.
[15]   Nasri, N,. EslamiRasekh, A., Dastjerdi,H., & Amirian, Z. (2011). A study of Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions and practices regarding learner autonomy, *International Journal of Research Studies in Education, 4(4), 3-12*.
[16]   Nunan, D. (1991). Language Teaching Methodology. London: Prentice Hall.
[17]   Oxford, R. L. (1989). Language Learning Strategies. What Every Teacher Should Know. New York: Newburry House Publishers.
[18]   Richards, J. C., & Rodgers, T. S. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. (Second Edition) Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[19]   Smith, R. C. (2000). Starting with ourselves: Teacher-learner autonomy in language learning. In B. Sinclair, et al. (Eds.), *Learner autonomy*, *teacher autonomy: Future directions* (pp.89-99). London: Longman.
[20]   Thanh Nga, N. (2014). Learner autonomy in language learning: teachers' beliefs. Unpublished PhD thesis. Faculty of Education Queensland University of Technology
[21]   Tholin, J. (2009). Learner and Teacher Autonomy: Concepts, Realities, and Responses. ELT J., 63, 179-181.
[22]   Voller, P. (1997). Does the teacher have a role in autonomous language learning? In P. Benson and P. Voller (eds.) Autonomy and independence in language learning (pp.98-113). London: Longman.

Parvin Arshiyan was born (1987) in Kermanshah west of I.R Iran she is BA of English translation from Payamenoor university in (2011) and MA Student of English language Teaching, Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbas Branch .she is teaching English in Nosrat instituted in BandarAbbas.

Kian Pishkar (1969) was born in Ardabil from the north of I.R.Iran .He is BA and MA of English Literature and PhD candidate of ELT in Isfahan University .He is teaching English Language and literature in the different universities and he is the lecturer of Islamic Azad University Jieroft Branch in the south of Kerman Province of I.R.Iran .He is the author ,compiler and translator of more than 21 books about English language and literature and more than 28 articles about English language teaching and literature (modern, postmodern and comparative) He had lectures in several international conferences about English language and literature (Shanghai, Solo, Bali,...) He is living in Bandar Abbas and working in Jieroft city. He is in editorial board of several international scientific and literary journal. He is trying now to write some new books about criticism of Modern and Post modern English and American poetry.

Using Functional Approach in Translating Arab Spring Topics: Aljazeera and BBC Arabic as Study Cases

Nazar M. Tawfiq

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, University Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Che An Binti Abdul Ghani

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, University Putra Malaysia, Serdang, Malaysia

Abstract—in the last two decades there was an increasing interest in the relationship between media translation and ideology. The study sample of this article is the Arab Spring that attracted the attention of various western and Arab media channels like Aljazeera and the BBC. It is reported that each channel may be inclined certain translation strategies that may not necessarily be adopted by the other channel at the same time which entails that the translation in these media outlets is not random and unbiased. Therefore, the findings of the current work will be helpful for translators that are working in such media institutions.

Index Terms—Arab spring, media translation, functional theory, ideology, Aljazeera, BBC

I. INTRODUCTION

The Arab World is witnessing dramatic and profound political and social transformations during the events of Arab Spring. In the last years, these events are seen, by many observers, as the most significant in the area for the last two centuries and they may reshape the future of these communities (Andoni, 2011). Arab Spring, consequently, is being the focus of local Arabic as well as worldwide media. It has been covered, for example, by Aljazeera and some well-known western media agencies such as BBC. The west, however, approached Arab Spring with double standards and this led eventually to some sort of gap between the formal political discourse and the real reaction towards these rapid events and western leaders found themselves in a difficult situation. On the one hand, they are supposed to support these revolutions, as the west was always keen to urge these governments to respect human rights and liberties. On the other hand, there is a strong economic relation between western powers and old dictatorships of uprising countries. Therefore, for this type of text to achieve its goal through persuading or at least influencing the target audience, it highly relies on employing several rhetorical, implied and indirect tactics. In this case, any translation of such source texts will be assessed as inappropriate if the translator looked for the pure linguistic elements and does not take into account all other social, cultural and political factors that surround the original text. As a result, translators may unconsciously fall in two critical traps. Firstly, he/she may fail, in some way, to convey the entire intended message of source interlocutor. Secondly, and not less importantly, the target text may not meet the expectations of the targeted audience because it may be detached from the socio-cultural and political environment of the Arab World especially after the latest developments at the mass media and intellectual level. These emerging problems have not been sufficiently addressed. Some studies have tackled the relation between translation and ideology, while some others investigated how translators training programmes are laid down in the light of certain media orientations. Thus, the current research will incorporate recent developments in functional theories of translation studies and critical discourse analysis. This study seeks to enrich knowledge in this multidisciplinary area with focusing on English-Arabic direction of translation, because the majority of published works that studies the relationship between language and ideology and its implications on translation process are actually focused on a single given language and culture and they are mostly written in English and German. Furthermore, the findings of this study will be beneficial to professional translators working with rendering English political texts that are concerned with Arab current complex situation.

II. ARAB SPRING AND THE REACTION OF THE WEST

Arab Spring represents a number of internal socio-political events that took place in different Arab states. However, its most significant and common event is the radical change in the political system (Litsas, 2013). The onset of this spring was triggered in Tunisia in 2010 (Wouters & Duquet, 2013) and spread rapidly to Egypt, Libya, Yemen and Syria. This reaction by the public was not surprising as they have been suppressed by longstanding dictatorships, financial corruption and poverty for more than three decades, (Jamshidi, 2014). The region of Middle East and North Africa (MENA) has been the centre of scrutiny by analysts, theorists and politicians continue to investigate the effects of Arab Spring across the Middle East. These events have practically led to political system alteration in Tunisia, Libya,

Yemen and Egypt, and it may also change the system in Syria as well (Mameli, 2013). Within a relatively short period of time since the beginning of Arab uprisings, a good deal of different types of writings have been published about the topic (Christensen & Christensen, 2013).

Arab countries have been always emphasised by the EU and US foreign policies due to their significant geography that link the west to east, its impact on Israel security. Furthermore, the Middle East is the reservoir of about 54% of the global oil and the west know well that what is going on in the Middle East and North Africa will have surely its implications on the future of oil-dependent economies (Dadush & Dunne, 2011). Western countries, while officially welcomed the possibility of new democracies emerging in the region. At the same time, US and EU gained an enormous advantage from their cooperation with the existing regimes and do not seem prepared to support the new democracies. However, as Western nations became unable and unwilling to oppose these revolutions, they should reshuffle their international goals and policies to make a dialogue with these new democracies possible (Aliboni, 2011). On the official level, the public policy of the European Union when dealing with its Arab neighbours was always stressing on enacting reforms in this area through having accountability, freedom of speech and assembly, rule of law and human rights. So, in its preliminary reaction to the Arab Spring, it welcomed it and it called for revisiting its whole policies and that they back these uprising peoples (Hollis, 2012). Eventually, this created a considerable gap between realism and idealism of the foreign policies and political discourse of western powers towards the latest transformations in Arab area (Atlas, 2012).

III. ALJAZEERA AND BBC ARABIC: SIMILAR TONGUES AND DIFFERENT PERSPECTIVES

The world today is a mediated image of the real world. Almost everything we experience is conveyed through something else. Most of people's experience in life is now mediated through television. People's models of behaviour, values, principles, and aspirations are also mediated through the media. Therefore, besides informing audience about the world they live in; media reinforces certain representations of a selective reality. Interestingly, the media can usually offer knowledge about other parts of the world through translation in one form or another. The received information is translated and has undergone a series of changes and transformations, determined by internal and external factors (Darwish, 2010b).

The prominence of Arabic media in the Arab world and worldwide is increasing strikingly for its role in democratisation and the social, cultural and political change in the Middle East (Lahlali, 2011). In Middle East, the rise of the prominent mass media role started during the 1950s and 1960s with the emergence of Arabic unity discourse and Arab national identity. However, the transnational television broadcasting started in the 1990's (Aldawood, 2004; Amin, 2001; Sakr, 2007).

Several studies have worked on pinpointing the main features of trans-national channels in the Arab states, focusing on bias and independence of such media. They argue that despite the claims of being privately-owned, totally independent, and free from government control, these channels are acting as political tools. Arabic trans-border media is affiliated with certain agendas and ideologies directly or indirectly. These ideologies are rooted in regional conflicts (Fandy, 2007).

With the spread of international television channels worldwide in the last three decades, many issues relating to ideology, globalisation, identity, cross-cultural interactions, and wide range of cultural, political and economic implications have been tackled in academic and public world (Volkmer, 2008; Zayani & Ayish, 2006). Trans-border news channels like Aljazeera, Al-Arabia and BBC Arabic have offered the Arab audiences with a multitude of choice concerning content and presentation. This has led to breaking the monopoly of state channels and it helped in introducing the concept of freedom of expression that is significantly different from that held by Arab regimes through their discussions and current affairs programmes (Miladi, 2006).

Several studies have worked on pinpointing the main features of trans-national channels in the Arab states, focusing on bias and independence of such media. They argue that despite the claims of being privately-owned, totally independent, and free from government control, these channels are acting as political tools. Arabic trans-border media is affiliated with certain agendas and ideologies directly or indirectly. These ideologies are rooted in regional conflicts (Fandy, 2007). Mellor (2011) provides a historical account of how Arab media institutions managed to move from working under firm governmental control to be a commercially-oriented that are still under the governmental grip. There is a little or absent room for criticising these governments or even other neighbouring countries that have a similar foreign policy towards a number of sensitive national and international issues.

So that some reasonable comparisons can be performed, the study has chosen two prominent media agencies in the Arab World; the first is Qatar-based Aljazeera and the second is UK-based BBC Arabic.

A. Aljazeera Network

Aljazeera is the first Arabic trans-border channel specialised in news broadcasting that was launched in 1996 with the help of governmental long-term loan. Within less than a couple of decades, it managed to be one of the top five brands in the world coming ahead of BBC (Rusch, 2004). Many scholars attribute Qatar's emir decision to launch this channel to his strategy of mounting pressure on his rival Arab Gulf countries, especially Saudi Arabia regarding several regional controversial issues. Furthermore, Aljazeera has been considered a part of Qatar's double speak of sustaining friendly

economic and political relationships with both of United States and Israel while deeply criticising these nations on Aljazeera (Da Lage, 2005; El Oifi, 2005). Being sponsored by the government of Qatar, Aljazeera seemed unable to address some sensitive issues like the poor treatment of foreign workers (Tal Samuel-Azran, 2013).

Many media specialists suggest that the significance of satellite television manifested itself during 1991, when CNN monopolised the coverage of the Gulf war and the liberation of Kuwait. This war has contributed to the success of CNN, while Aljazeera's success may be attributed to airing of Osama bin Laden's tapes and the live coverage of September, 11 events in 2001 (Sultan, 2013).

Aljazeera has continuously adopted a taboo-breaking policy in its highlighting social, political and cultural controversial topics like human rights, state terror, suppression of freedom of speech, women oppression, sexuality, secularism in addition to racial and religious topics (Miles, 2005).

Aljazeera became the only credible source of information about the Arab Spring in Arabic for millions of Arab citizens. The growing fans of Aljazeera were not confined to Arab people; many western leaders were among its viewers like the American president Barack Obama, the US Foreign Secretary Hillary Clinton and the British Prime Minister David Cameron (Tharoor, 2011). The main (Arabic) Aljazeera channel that was established in 1996 and Aljazeera English was launched later in 2006. Samuel-Azran & Pecht (2014) suggest that news layout is not the same in both channels. They assert that the Arabic version is more aggressive in its dealing with the US affairs, while the English version tends to be edited through making changes, omissions and shifting direct speech to the indirect one. The motive behind this procedure, as it seems, is to meet the target audience satisfactions of both channels.

Many scholars attribute the decision of Qatar's Emir to found Aljazeera to his strategy of increasing Qatar's influence against rival Arab Gulf countries especially Saudi Arabia. It was also part of Qatar's double speak of sustaining friendly economic and political relationships with both of United States and Israel, while at the same time deeply criticising these nations on Aljazeera (Da Lage, 2005; El Oifi, 2005).

Aljazeera has turned to be a controversial phenomenon in the Arab and Western World. In the one hand, it has many enthusiastic viewers who appreciate Aljazeera's revolutionary media discourse in its treatment of various sensitive issues. On the other hand, Aljazeera is being strongly criticised by Arab and Western government, as well as radio and television stations for its financial resources, independence from Qatar government, presentation style, and story choices (El-Nawawy & Iskandar, 2002; Lynch, 2006).

Aljazeera adopts a high variety of Arabic known as Modern Standard Arabic in contrast to the colloquial version of Arabic that is spreading in many Arabic TV channels nowadays (Riman & Darwish, 2008). The influence of English is so apparent on the standardization of modern Arabic. Aljazeera depends basically on the translation of news and other contents from English (Zournazi, 2007).

B. BBC Arabic

The BBC (British Broadcasting Corporation), founded in October 1922, is known for being the world's largest media corporation. The corporation broadcast information services both locally and globally on television, radio, and the internet. It has a large audience reaching about 180 million people each week. The BBC operates nine TV local stations in the UK and 11 international television channels, including BBC America, BBC Knowledge, BBC World, and BBC Arabic. BBC is still in some regions of the world the only news provider (Hypergene, 2005).

BBC Arabic is a free-to-air, 24-hour television channel has been launched in 2008, based in London, to be BBC's first non-English TV station. BBC World Service is among the leading global news broadcasters that airs news in 33 languages to most parts of the world (Cheesman & Nohl, 2011). The staff and expertise of BBC Arabic TV were highly dependent on the trustworthy Arabic Service of BBC Radio that was launched in 1938. The independence of BBC's editorial policy is ambiguous because despite it is funded by the UK government, it insists on its independence concerning its management and the content of its output (Aly & Baumann, 2013).

BBC Arabic was established by the UK government to be competitive of the pan-Arabic Aljazeera channel. Although BBC World Service continuously dismisses the accusation of being Britain's government mouthpiece, many Arab critics fear that this professional media outlet may be politically biased as it is totally funded by the British Foreign Office (Jarrah, 2008). BBC Arabic television attempted to interact distinctively with topics that are being avoided by most Arab networks. Among these topics were democracy, minority rights and social change. This channel was a significant source of information about the Arab spring revolutions despite some considerable criticisms of lacking impartiality in some sporadic events (Hill & Alshaer, 2010).

BBC, in general, is well known for its implementation of tough and clear standards to assure objectivity and integrity (Harrison, 2010).

BBC Monitoring Service listens to TV, radio and news sources of over 140 countries with nearly 70 languages. The domestic version of news stories is provided by BBC General News Service. This process requires taking the huge mass of raw translations of these news sources and refining them. As a routine, translators in this service listen to broadcasts and while recording them, they type a summary of these news stories into the computer. Later, these broadcasts are prioritised and translated with guidance of the editorial policy. Then these translated materials are edited and sent to newsroom where they undergo further processing and reframing within what is known as "productive news processing" (Podkalicka, 2011).

C. Motives for Choosing Aljazeera and BBC

Aljazeera channel is regarded as a model for other Arabic satellite networks, and this makes it an ideal model for making safe generalisations. Aljazeera also offers a suitable research site as it relies on the translation of news, current affairs, documentaries and other various materials. Various modes of translation are performed in this channel like dubbing, voice over, live translation and narration (Darwish, 2010a). The reasons that have been mentioned earlier for choosing Aljazeera may be applicable to large extent to BBC as well. The other important reason for choosing these two channels is that both have Arabic and English TV channels that are well respected by Arab audience in general.

IV. MAJOR DEVELOPMENTS IN TRANSLATION STUDIES

While translation as a practice is long established, the field developed into a separate academic discipline only in the last quarter of the 20th century. Before that, translation had often been integrated into language learning. Contrastive linguistics was another area in which translation became the subject of research. Translations and translated examples provided much of the data in these studies. The systematic linguistic approach to the study of translation began to emerge in the late 1950s. This approach marked the beginning of the scientific investigation of translation. The word **science** was used by Nida in the title of his book *Toward a Science of Translating* (published in 1964) (Munday, 2012). Translation studies have undergone serious alterations in its orientations starting from the traditional linguistic approach and ending with the functionalist and cultural approach.

A. The Linguistic Approach

The first category involves theories of translation as a product, which basically entails a linguistic approach. According to Naudé (2002), the dominating notion within this line of research would be equivalence which still has some level of influence on today's scholarship (Halverson, 1997). The notion of equivalence is summarised as a choice between translation in pursuit of conveying the formal and cultural features of the foreign text and translation cultivating pragmatic equivalence immediately intelligible to the receptor (ibid). Hence, a range of dichotomic linguistic approaches are developed based on this notion. Following the iconic categorisation of word-for-word translation v.s. sense-for-sense translation, formal equivalence (Nida & Taber, 1969; Nida, 1964), semantic translation (Newmark, 1988) and overt translation (House 1981) can be largely grouped under the former, while dynamic equivalence (Nida 1964, Nida & Taber 1969), communicative translation (Newmark, 1988), covert translation (House, 2014).

B. Discourse-analysis Approach

The deterministic role accorded to STs as the sole criterion to render and evaluate translations has gradually incurred widespread criticism on the 'equivalence' approach. Its main shortcoming lies in the total disregard for those socio-cultural conditions under which translations are produced and the requirements of acts of communication in the receiving culture (Bassnett & Lefevere, 1990), which is characteristic of the normative and prescriptive category of research in translation studies. Against this backdrop, the linguistic-oriented translation theories are manifested in an updated form commonly known as discourse analysis approach. Amongst the many translation theorists following this approach, Hatim and Mason (1990, 1997) and Baker (1992, 2011) have made significant contributions by drawing on text linguistics, discourse analysis and pragmatics. Their studies conceptualise translation in a way language communicates meaning within social and power relations. To this end, translation means communicating a foreign text with target readership by exploring the pragmatic maxims in the target community. The pragmatic-oriented translation approach assumes a communicative intention and a relation of equivalence, based on textual analysis which locates equivalence at a textual and communicative level rather than at the sentential and lexical level (Naudé, 2002). The linguistic toolkit for textual analysis is derived from Halliday's systemic functional model on which the socio-cultural meanings behind texts are explored.

C. The Functional Approach

The 1980s witnessed the birth of a number of approaches to Translation Studies collectively named functionalist, which triggered a paradigm shift in the system. The second half of the twentieth century saw some paradigm shift in the discipline of translation studies, especially after the publication of Justa Holz-Manttari's *Translatorial Action: Theory and Method* and Reiss and Vermeer's *Foundation for a General Theory of Translation*, both published in 1984. These paved the way for what is later known as functionalist paradigm or approaches to translation, which view translation as a communicative act performed by an expert (the translator) within an intercultural communication, acting as a text producer who has certain communicative purposes (Nord, 2001).

In general, functionalist approaches reckon that the function of the target text determines the method of translation. These approaches are developed in opposition to the classical equivalence paradigm which sees the source text as the determinant of the nature of the target text. Vermeer (1987:29) says, "linguistics alone is not effective because translation itself is not merely a linguistic process, and that linguistics has not yet formulated the right questions to tackle our problems".

Among the most well-known publications on functionalist approach are Vermeer (1987, 1996, 2012); Reiss and Vermeer (1984); Nord (1991, 1997, 2001, 2002, 2003, 2005); Holz-Manttari (1984); Honig (1997); Honig and Kussmaul (1991); and many others.

D. The Cultural Approach

The cultural turn in translation studies has emerged in the early 1990s emphasising that translation would not be seen as an isolated activity, taking place in a kind of vacuum, but as an act directly linked to the settings in which translators work. The cultural turn stressed the need to take into account the circumstances in which translation occurs, broadening the object of study from the purely textual and taking into account both source and target contexts. Itamar Even-Zohar elaborated a cultural model based on a study of translation history that showed how translation varied at different moments (Even-Zohar, 1990). When the features of the source text and its context are reproduced resulting that the final product might seem strange and unfamiliar, this process is known as foreignisation. This form of translation deliberately foregrounds the source culture, so that the translated text can never be presumed to have originated in the target language. In contrast, when a text is adapted to suit the norms of the target culture, this is known as domestication because markers of its original foreignness are erased. Venuti draws attention to the ideological implications of domestication, which he sees as problematic. When the translator erases the traces of the foreign, the he prioritizes the needs and expectations of the target culture over the source (Venuti, 1992).

V. TRANSLATION WITHIN MEDIA AGENCIES

In media, the adopted translation strategies are regulated and evaluated by a set of professional and institutional constraints laid down by media broadcasters. Translating, like most other activities such as news planning, gathering, making and news reporting, is a gatekeeping activity, i.e. controlling the flow of information in communication channels. The broadcaster decides not only *what* to translate but also, importantly, *how* to translate (Katan & Sergio, 2003).

Media stations practice gatekeeping on the available material for translation by selecting what to translate and the optimal corresponding translation strategies. Such decisions are directed by the broadcasters according to particular programme strategies and general policies and perspectives of the channel. This process of gatekeeping is composed of two main phases of control of the translation activity. First, the potential target text is filtered before commencing translating through following instructions that guarantee the satisfaction of the beliefs, values and agendas of the media outlet. Second, there is extensive control during the editing process after translating. Theoretically, deletion, addition, substitution and reorganisation of the target text during editing should be the duty of the translator while, in reality, such editing is done by journalists (Vuorinen, 1997).

Translation is thus governed by the regulations and power of the broadcasting authorities. These constraints constitute a hidden force which directs translation tasks, roles and activities. The translator, therefore, is required to take into account the ideological orientations of the media agency. Dealing with ST and TT needs to match the expectations of media broadcasters. In other words, any decisions made in translation regarding translation strategy, degree of mediation, style and choices of TT structures, have to be in harmony with the tendencies and demands of the broadcasters (Katan & Sergio, 2003).

VI. MAJOR THEMES OF FUNCTIONAL THEORIES OF TRANSLATION

1. It is a target-text rather than source-text inclined approach: according to Vermeer and Nord, a source text is an *offer of information* that is directed from the author to reader; meanwhile the translated text is not an identical information offer because it is tailored for a different language and different culture. This means that the translator may not be able or is not required to offer the same quantity and quality of information of the source text to his target audience. The translator, instead, offers information in a new form because the target audience have different expectations, needs, background knowledge, etc (Mohatlane, 2014; Snell-Hornby, 2006).

2. It is applicable to all types of translations: Vermeer (1996) says that his theory can be perceived as a general theory because it can be applied to all types of translation. Snell-Hornby (1990) demonstrates that despite scholars believe that this theory may be of limited applicability in the field of literary works where there is no function from a skopos perspective, Vermeer counters these criticisms by saying that even with these texts, a translator may work purposefully to some extent.

3. It is a cross-cultural communicative process: skopos theory does not look at translation as a mere linguistic transcoding, but t places it in a wider frame of cross-cultural communication. This leads us to think that we cannot dig in the linguistic form to explore the function; however it is something culturally determined and it has a pragmatic nature for its dependence on the perception of receiver as well as context (Yan & Naikang, 2011; Yi, 2013).

4. It assumes possible multiple renderings of a text: according to this theory, it is normal to have more than one correct translation for a single source text depending on the needs, expectations and norms of target audience. This proposition has managed to solve the longstanding translation dichotomies like free vs. literal, formal vs. dynamic

equivalence and so on by making the purpose of translation to judge the appropriate translation for each particular case (Du, 2012).

5. It assumes multiple functionality of a text: conventionally, it said that a text has one function, but practically there may more than one function simultaneously. In such a case, these functions should not be of a similar importance and they have to be ordered hierarchically. Multiplicity of skopos surely affects the final target text in a way or another (Nord, 1997).

6. It presumes that each text has a function: functionalists stress on that the translators have always to be aware that all texts should have skopos. Except rarely, the skopos is not explicitly expressed, thus it has to be inferred (Schäffner, 2011).

For the above reasons, the functional theory is seen as the most appropriate for conducting and analysing translation in both media agencies because it justifies more than one correct target texts for a single source text based on the intended function of the text that is going to be translated.

VII. CONCLUSION

Translation is a dynamic and complex process that may involve multitude of factors and dimensions. Therefore, the traditional linguistic concept of equivalence has proved inadequate to understand and analyse certain types of translation such as media translation. In media, there could be more than one correct translation for the original text. This openness and the freedom that is shown on the part of translator is better explained and supported by the functional orientation of translation studies which has been introduced in the early eighties of the past century. For translating a sensitive political topic such as the Arab Spring, it is seen that different media outlets adopts different approaches and strategies in accordance with their eventual aims and perspectives. In this case, the primary aim of these media channels is to satisfy the needs and expectations of their audience. Thus, Aljazeera and BBC guide and train their own translators in way that serves their media strategy. The most noted translation strategy in these media agencies is the intervention or manipulation strategy in which the message of the target text may not totally mach that of the source text.

REFERENCES

[1]   Aldawood, A. A. (2004). Alhurra television channel and the Americanization of the Arab minds. Riyadh: Ghaida Publications.
[2]   Aliboni, R. (2011). The international dimension of the Arab Spring. *The International Spectator*, 46(4), 5–9. doi:10.1080/03932729.2011.637712
[3]   Aly, R., & Baumann, G. (2013). The BBC Arabic Service's dilemmatic triangle: Competing elites, conflicting priorities, contested media strategies. In M. Gillespie & A. Webb (Eds.), *Diasporas and diplomacy: Cosmopolitan contact zones at the BBC World Service (1932–2012)* (pp. 105–120). London and New York: Routledge.
[4]   Amin, H. (2001). Mass media in the Arab states between diversification and stagnation: An overview. In K. Hafez (Ed.), *Mass media, politics & society in the Middle East* (pp. 23–42). Cresskil, NJ: Hampton Press.
[5]   Andoni, L. (2011). The Resurrection of Pan-Arabism. Retrieved May 2, 2014, from http://www.globalpolicy.org/nations-a-states/general-analysis-on-states-and-their-future/49815.html.
[6]   Atlas, P. M. (2012). U.S. foreign policy and the Arab Spring: Balancing values and interests. *Digest of Middle East Studies,* 21(2), 353–385. doi:10.1111/j.1949-3606.2012.00158.x
[7]   Baker, M. (1992). In other words: A coursebook on translation. London and New York: Routledge.
[8]   Baker, M. (2011). In other words: A coursebook on translation (2nd ed.). London and New York: Routledge.
[9]   Bassnett, S., & Lefevere, A. (1990). Translation, history and culture. London: Pinter Publishers.
[10]   Cheesman, T., & Nohl, a.-M. (2011). Many voices, one BBC World Service? The 2008 US elections, gatekeeping and trans-editing. *Journalism,* 12(2), 217–233. doi:10.1177/1464884910388589.
[11]   Christensen, M., & Christensen, C. (2013). The Arab Spring As Meta-Event and Communicative Spaces. *Television & New Media,* 14(4), 351–364. doi:10.1177/1527476413482989.
[12]   Da Lage, O. (2005). The politics of Al Jazeera or the diplomacy of Doha. In M. Zayani (Ed.), *The Al Jazeera phenomenon: Critical perspectives on new Arab media* (pp. 171–182). London: Pluto.
[13]   Dadush, U., & Dunne, M. (2011). American and European Responses to the Arab Spring: What's the Big Idea? *The Washington Quarterly*, 34(4), 131–145. doi:10.1080/0163660X.2011.610728.
[14]   Darwish, A. (2010a). A journalist's guide to live direct and unbiased news translation. Melbourne: Writescope.
[15]   Darwish, A. (2010b). Elements of translation: A practical guide for translators (2nd ed.). Melbourne: Writescope.
[16]   Du, X. (2012). A brief introduction of skopos theory. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, 2(10), 2189–2193. doi:10.4304/tpls.2.10.2189-2193.
[17]   El Oifi, M. (2005). Influence without power: Al Jazeera and the Arab public sphere. In M. Zayani (Ed.), *The Al Jazeera phenomenon: Critical perspectives on new Arab media* (pp. 66–79). London: Pluto.
[18]   El-Nawawy, M., & Iskandar, A. (2002). Al-Jazeera: How the free Arab new network scooped the world and changed the Middle East. Boulder, CO.: Westview.
[19]   Even-Zohar, I. (1990). Polysystem theory. *Poetics Today*, 11(1), 9–26.
[20]   Fandy, M. (2007). (Un)civil war of words: Media and politics in Arab world. Westport, Connectticut: Praeger Security International.
[21]   Halverson, S. L. (1997). The concept of equivalence in translation studies. *Target*, 9(2), 207–233.
[22]   Harrison, J. (2010). User-generated content and gatekeeping at the BBC Hub. *Journalism Studies,* 11(2), 243–256. doi:10.1080/14616700903290593.

[23] Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1990). Discourse and translator. London: Longman.
[24] Hatim, B., & Mason, I. (1997). The translator as communicator. London and New York: Routledge.
[25] Hill, A., & Alshaer, A. (2010). BBC Arabic TV: Participation and the question of public diplomacy. *Middle East Journal of Culture and Communication*, 3(2), 152–171.
[26] Hollis, R. (2012). No friend of democratization : Europe ' s role in the genesis of the " Arab Spring ." *International Affairs,* 88(1), 81–94.
[27] Holz-Manttari, J. (1984). Translatorisches handeln: Theorie und method. Helsinki: Suomalainen Tiedeakatemia.
[28] Honig, H. G. (1997). Positions, power and practice: Functionalist approaches and translation quality assessment. *Current Issues in Language & Society*, 4, 6–34.
[29] Honig, H. G., & Kussmaul, P. (1991). Strategie der ubersetzung: Ein lehrund arbeitsbuch (4th ed.). Tubingen: Narr.
[30] House, J. (2014). Translation quality assessment: Past and present. London and New York: Routledge.
[31] Hypergene. (2005). Interview with Richard Sambrook, director of the BBC global news division. Hypergene Media Blog. Retrieved April 1, 2015, from http://www.hypergene.net/blog/weblog.php?id=P266.
[32] Jamshidi, M. (2014). The Future of the Arab Spring: Civic Entrepreneurship in Politics, Art, and Technology Startups. Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
[33] Jarrah, N. (2008). First look: Watching BBC Arabic TV. Arab Media & Society, 5. Retrieved from http://www.arabmediasociety.com/?article=674 (accessed 20/3/2013).
[34] Katan, D., & Sergio, F. (2003). Submerged ideologies in media translating. In M. Calzada-Pérez (Ed.), *Apropos of ideology: Translation studies on ideology, ideologies in translation studies* (pp. 131–144). Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
[35] Lahlali, E. M. (2011). Contemporary Arab broadcast media. Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press.
[36] Litsas, S. N. (2013). Stranger in a Strange Land: Thucydides' Stasis and the Arab Spring. *Digest of Middle East Studies,* 22(2), 361–376.
[37] Lynch, M. (2006). Voices of the new Arab public: Iraq, Al-Jazeera, and Middle Eastpolitics today. New York: Columbia University Press.
[38] Mameli, P. (2013). Under New Management: What the Arab Spring Tells Us About Leadership Needs in the Middle East and North Africa. *Digest of Middle East Studies,* 22(2), 377–404.
[39] Mellor, N. (2011). Arab media: An overview of recent trends. In *Arab media: Globalisation and emerging media industries* (pp. 12–28). Cambridge: Polity.
[40] Miladi, N. (2006). Satellite TV news and the Arab diaspora in Britain: Comparing Al-Jazeera, the BBC and CNN. *Journal of Ethnic and Migration Studies,* 32(6), 947–960. doi:10.1080/13691830600761552.
[41] Miles, H. (2005). Al-Jazeera: The inside story of the Arab news channel that is challenging the West. New York: Grove Press.
[42] Mohatlane, E. J. (2014). "Dethroning" the source text : A "Skopos" theoretical perspective in Sesotho translation. *Journal of Social Sciences: Interdisciplinary Reflection of Contemporary Society*, 40(2), 219–228.
[43] Munday, J. (2012). Introducing translation studies: Theories and applications (3rd ed.). London and New York: Routledge.
[44] Naudé, J. A. (2002). An overview of recent developments in translation studies with special reference to the implications for Bible translation. *Acta Theologica Supplementum*, 2, 44–69.
[45] Newmark, P. (1988). A textbook of translation. London: Prentice Hall.
[46] Nida, E. (1964). Toward a science of translating. Leiden: Brill.
[47] Nida, E., & Taber, R. C. (1969). The theory and practice of translation. Leiden: Brill.
[48] Nord, C. (1991). Scopos, loyalty and translational conventions. *Target*, 3(1), 91–109.
[49] Nord, C. (1997). Translating as a purposeful activity: Functionalist approaches explained. Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
[50] Nord, C. (2001). Loyalty revisited: Bible translation as a case in point. *The Translator,* 7(2), 185–202. doi:10.1080/13556509.2001.10799100.
[51] Nord, C. (2002). Manipulation and loyalty in functional translation. *Current Writing,* 14(2), 32–44. doi:10.1080/1013929X.2002.9678123.
[52] Nord, C. (2003). Function and loyalty in Bible translation. In M. Calzada-Pérez (Ed.), *Apropos of Ideology* (pp. 89–112). Manchester: St. Jerome Publishing.
[53] Nord, C. (2005). Text analysis in translation: Theory, methodology, and didactic application of a model for translation-oriented text analysis (2nd ed.). Amsterdam: Rodopi.
[54] Podkalicka, A. (2011). Factory, dialogue, or network? Competing translation practices in BBC transcultural journalism. *Journalism,* 12(2), 143–152. doi:10.1177/1464884910388583.
[55] Reiss, K., & Vermeer, H. (1984). Foundations of a general theory of translation. Tubingen: Niemeyer.
[56] Riman, I., & Darwish, A. (2008). Arabic diglossia in the golabalisation age and satellite media. Melbourne: Writescope.
[57] Rusch, R. D. (2004). Readers pick apple: 2004 readers' choice awards. Brandchannel. Retrieved March 23, 2015, from http://www.brandchannel.com/features_effect.asp?pf_id=248.
[58] Sakr, N. (2007). Arab media and political renewal. New York: I.B.Tauris.
[59] Samuel-Azran, T. (2013). Al-Jazeera, Qatar, and new tactics in state-sponsored media diplomacy. *American Behavioral Scientist*, 57(9), 1293–1311. doi:10.1177/0002764213487736.
[60] Samuel-Azran, T., & Pecht, N. (2014). Is there an Al-Jazeera-Qatari nexus? A study of Al-Jazeera's online reporting throughout the Qatari-Saudi conflict. Media, *War & Conflict,* 7(2), 218–232. doi:10.1177/1750635214530207.
[61] Schäffner, C. (2011). Skopos theory. Academia. Retrieved February 21, 2015, from https://www.academia.edu/5446376/Skopos_theory.
[62] Snell-Hornby, M. (1990). Linguistic transcoding or cultural transfer? A critique of translation theory in Germany. In S. Bassnett & A. Lefevere (Eds.), *Translation, History and Culture* (pp. 79–86). London and New York: Pinter.
[63] Snell-Hornby, M. (2006). The turns of translation studies: New paradigms or shifting viewpoints? Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[64] Sultan, N. (2013). Al Jazeera: Reflections on the Arab Spring. *Journal of Arabian Studies,* 3(2), 249–264. doi:10.1080/21534764.2013.863821.

[65] Tharoor, I. (2011, March). Clinton applauds Al Jazeera, rolls eyes at U.S. media. Time, 177(9), retrieved from http://world.time.com/2011/03/03/clinton-applauds-al-jazeera-rolls-eyes-at-u-s-media/ (accessed 8/2/2014).
[66] Venuti, L. (1992). Rethinking translation: Discourse, subjectivity, ideology. London: Routledge.
[67] Vermeer, H. (1987). What does it mean to translate? *Indian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 13(2), 25–33.
[68] Vermeer, H. (1996). A skopos theory of translation: Some arguments for and against. Heidelberg: Text con Text.
[69] Vermeer, H. (2012). Skopos and commission in translational action. In L. Venuti (Ed.), *The Translation Studies Reader* (2nd ed., pp. 221–232). London and New York: Routledge.
[70] Volkmer, I. (2008). Satellite cultures in Europe: Between national spheres and a globalized space. *Global Media and Communication,* 4(3), 231–244.
[71] Vuorinen, E. (1997). News translation as gatekeeping. In M. Snell-Hornby, Z. Jettmarová & K. Kaindl (Eds.), *Translation as intercultural communication* (pp. 161–172). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[72] Wouters, J., & Duquet, S. (2013). The Arab Uprisings and the European Union: In Search of a Comprehensive Strategy. *Yearbook of European Law,* 32(1), 230–265. doi:10.1093/yel/yet005.
[73] Yan, M., & Naikang, S. (2011). The skopos theory and tourist material translation: With an analysis of Mt. Lushan translation. *Cross-Cultural Communication,* 7(1), 53–61. Retrieved from /Users/nicolehawkesford/Dropbox/Dissertation/(9) Yan:Naikang - Skopos + Tourism.pdf (accessed 3/3/2014).
[74] Yi, Z. (2013). Communicative purposes in translational activities : A functional study on target prefaces and postscripts. *Intercultural Communication Studies*, 22(2), 75–90.
[75] Zayani, M., & Ayish, M. I. (2006). Arab satellite television and crisis reporting: Covering the fall of Baghdad. *International Communication Gazette,* 68(5-6), 473–497. doi:10.1177/1748048506068724.
[76] Zournazi, M. (2007). Keywords to war: Reviving language in an age of terror. Melbourne: Scribe.

Nazar M. Tawfiq was born in Mosul, Iraq. After completing high school in Bardarash, he obtained B.Sc in Biology from Salahaddin University, Erbil, Iraq; then he got BA and MA in Translation from Mosul University, Mosul, Iraq. After obtaining a scholarship from the Ministry of Higher Education in Iraq, Nazar is completing his study and he is currently a PhD candidate in the field of Translation and Interpretation in the Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication at University Putra Malaysia (UPM), Selangor, Malaysia.

He is currently teaching medical terminology at the department of Nursing, Duhok Polytechnic University, Duhok as an assistant Lecturer. His scope of interests includes Translation of political texts, Conference Interpreting, the interaction between ideology and translation and using corpus in translation studies. He has translated several chapters of medical textbooks that are taught at nursing department at Duhok Polytechnic University, many abstracts of theses in different fields. He has held some administrative posts at Bardarash Technical Institute like the vice-dean and head of quality control unit.

Nazar M. Tawfiq joins several professional associations to enhance his skills such as the Association of Iraqi Translators, Kurdistan Biology Association and   Kurdistan Teachers Association.

Che An Binti Abdul Ghani was born in Melaka, Malaysia. After completing high school, she left for the United States to pursue tertiary education in English and Applied Linguistics disciplines. She obtained B.Sc in English Education from Southeast Missouri State University, Missouri, USA; and MA in Applied Linguistics from California State University, California, USA. Dr. Che An complemented her specialization with a Diploma in Translation from Language Institute in Kuala Lumpur, the capital city of Malaysia. Several years later, she continued her doctorate in Applied Linguistics (Communication Disorder) at Universiti Malaya, Kuala Lumpur.

She is currently attached to English Department, Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) as a Senior Lecturer. Her scope of interests include Translation and Interpretation, Conversation Analysis and Language Disorder. She has translated works for two established publishers in Malaysia, documents from government ministries and reports from UPM research centers. She is also a Student Advisor, program coordinator and Postgraduate Supervisor. She has held some administrative posts at UPM and Ministry of Education (Malaysia).

Dr. Che An joins several professional organizations to enhance her skills such as Asia Tefl, Malaysia Modern Language Association and Malaysia Translation Association. At present, Dr. Che An engages in community services such as supporting works in Autism in her home country.

"Inescapable Doubleness of Vision": A Kristevian Reading of Alice Munro's "Runaway"

Raheleh Bahador

Department of English Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Kerman, Iran

Esmaeil Zohdi

Department of English Literature, Faculty of Humanities, Vali-e-Asr University, Rafsanjan, Kerman, Iran

Abstract—The subject evolution as the core of psycho-philosophical debates is verbalized in Alice Munro's "Runaway" (2004). Whereas the subject is one of the seminal ideas of the contemporary philosopher Julia Kristeva, it provides an integral part of the discussions over the character's subjective development in fiction. The present study undertakes to discuss over the latent aspects of character in the story to show how they are developed in the Abjection. Through transgression and revolt, they are posited on the borders of symbolic. The objective of this paper is to highlight the subject evolution and to demonstrate the uncertainty and ambiguity felt by the characters due to transgressing the borders of symbolic. To this end, Julia Kristeva's concept of Abjection will shed light upon the rise and fall of the character in order to study how they are formed through the abject. Considering the development of subjectivity in "Runaway", it shows that they are conceived to be 'subject-in-process' rather than being the Lacanian static, ordered subject. A Kristevian reading of Munro's short fiction presumes the abject part of characters indispensable for the evolution of their subjectivity. Threatening the integrity of the subjectivity, the characters attempt to overcome the double effect of seduction and repellent in abject and restore the secure territory of symbolic. Never to be consent with their lives, the characters stand on the verge of abjection which permanently summons them to revolt.

Index Terms—abjection, subject, symbolic, Alice Munro, Runaway

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Alice Munro's Critical Background

"Alice Munro is considered by many to be the finest short story writer now working in English" (Hunter, 2007, p. 165). Born on July 10, 1931, Alice Munro becomes a great name among other names of fiction like Margaret Attwood, Katherine Ann Porter and John Updike. According to Silvia Albertazzi in "A Comparative Essay on the Sociology of Literature: Alice Munro's "Unconsummated Relationships" (2010): "The major achievement of Alice Munro is to have conquered popularity and fame almost all over the world by dedicating her whole production to a rather unpopular and neglected genre: the short story" (p. 2). The general consensus of literary critics conceives of short story to be a minor, marginal form in literature, but it is the accurate form of a writer like Munro to exhibit the life of those women who are considered to be marginal or 'Other' by society and power relations. They fight, they lose, they win, sometimes but they never forget their desires. The Canadian writer pictures limited space at the Huron County-her native region- to confirm the limitations and boundaries for women who look for identity and freedom in many of her stories. Her novel-like stories delineate the dual life of women, one in reality, the other one in their imagination as the inner world. Elisa Vancoppernolle asserts :

This idea of a hidden identity appears in many of her stories under different forms, and also the fact that her protagonists are often married women with children who do not let themselves be oppressed by their husbands, but instead choose to live their own lives (2010, p. 4).

She delineates complicated lives in a genre that has space and narration limitations. Known as the "Chekov" in Canada, she had published the first collection of short stories in 1968 named *Dance of the Happy Shades*. Like Chekov, Munro is fascinated with the failings of love and small settings as well as regional areas. The Noble prize winner of 2013 creates complicated characters out of the common pictures of life .

The most important characteristics of her stories are regional settings, domestic life, distinction of inner and outer spaces for women, the world of women and "complexity of characterization" (Hunter, 2007, p. 165). She depicts through the words, what is common in the lives of men and women, but had not been studied well. Accordingly, Harold Bloom asserts: "ordinary unhappiness, which in others is not colorful to us, is an achievement for most of her women and many of her men" (2009, p. 1). Munro's stories are character-based and how they endure complicated situations especially regarding the women. Female characters in Munro's fiction are not the prototype of the ideal heroine but they conform to the type of women as in real life. Munro delineates women's heart wills, grieves, worries, desires and limitations. They have different roles as mother, wife, and daughter. To have the world of their own, women are looking for what they want. In her stories, Munro "studies not their [women] nostalgias but their surprising endurances" (Bloom,

2009, p. 2). The women depicted in Munro's works never reveal their maladies and suffering. They endure the difficulties in their mind until they cannot stand them anymore and escape but ultimately return to home. Women's relationship with the world, their family and their surroundings is complicated. The outer world is reflected in their mind. Afraid to face the reality of their life, they live in repulsion and attraction to what they really desire. This is Munro's artistic creation. Brad Hooper in *The Fiction of Alice Munro* (2008) writes: "From the beginning, Munro's stories were primarily character studies, the chief way of describing them" (p. viii). Another outstanding characteristic of her style is depicting the past as her critics assert. Interweaving the past and present is the great stylistic achievement for Munro to show how the past affects the present lives of characters, not being able to wipe out their memories and mistakes. Brad Hooper indicates that :

The particular talent of Munro…derives from an untraditional handling of the past. Her characteristic circling through time is all about the past; the difference she makes in her handling of the past is to arrive at a new way, unbound by traditional short-story moves and distinctions, of bringing the past into the frame of the story. (2008, p. ix).

The presence of the past is a crucial part in discussions about character study in Munro's stories. This is the same quality which connects the study of Munro's works to psychology. The centrality of character along with the importance of past tense and persistent change paves the way for her stories to be read in psychoanalytic lens. Debarshi Prasad Nath affirms: "Alice Munro's stories are in many ways an enactment of the psychoanalytic study of life. Like in psychoanalysis, the tenor of Alice Munro's characters is shaped and determined by their past" (2010, p. 172). The main focus of Munro is women and how their world is different from that of men. In spite of their family responsibilities, they dream a world of their own and they tend towards freedom and independence, although never decline what is their duty. Sometimes the relationship between men and women is complicated to be interpretable and Munro takes her characters, whether to epiphany or unchanged inner world. To depict the inner world, the imaginative sphere of characters along with the reality of their lives is Munro's specific. The character development is not always logical and it is the same quality essential in subject-in-process in Kristeva's words. The rise and fall of the subject is what will be shown in characters in the understudy short fiction. To decipher the essence of characters in the story it is needed to go through Kristeva's lens on subject and the complicated path of subjectivity. According to what will be presented, the characters will appear in as nearest model to reality as possible. Rather than being completely white or black, pessimistic in the Lacanian world, they are gray-like. The real-like characters of Munro are 'subject-in-process' in its psycho-philosophical terms. C.A. Howells writes: "…Munro's narratives, where her stories with their overlapping complexities plot identity not as single and fixed but as a series of alternative histories hidden within individual subject's life stories. These are "identities always in process" (Bloom, 2009, p. 169).

B. The Abjection: Subject-in-process

In *Powers of Horror* (1982) Kristeva introduced one of the most complicated terms in her psycho-philosophy named Abjection. The phenomenon of abjection holds a central role in Kristeva's subjectivity as well as her literary theories. She considers that the most important challenge in the subjectivity is when the subject faces the meaninglessness weight of Reality. It makes him to search for a meaning for his life, to change his position and to demarcating his subjective/inner world with the objective/outer world. The border between subjectivity and its lines and the eruption of Lacanian Real is what makes the Abjection. That is why Kristeva calls it "the in-between" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 4). Julia Kristeva associates the abject with the response to the eruption of the Lacanian Real into our lives. She believed that the process of subjectivity and signification begins much before the Lacanian mirror stage. Abjection is set after the symbolic and before the Real. It is not completely semiotic structured neither symbolic ordered. Although the term resists definition, it can be defined as the backbone of the other Kristevian seminal idea: subject-in-process. Hedwig Fraunhofer writes:

The transgression of established separations and the impossibility of keeping these strict separations intact produce what Kristeva calls the "abject". Abjection is thus the mechanism by means of which patriarchal society, in the interest of establishing a clear inside/outside division, constructs the "feminine" as other- as everything that threatens this distinction (2007, p. 2).

Expelling what seems 'other' to 'oneself', the subject is in a persistent demarcation between him and his world to protect the subjectivity against what threatens his identity. The abjection appears while the subject tries to demarcate between *I* and Other. Neither in semiotic phase, nor in symbolic area abjection blurs the borders and lines. The process of abjection puts everything in uncertainty and doubt. It is both inner and outer threat that undermines the subjectivity. Kristeva introduces the term in physical examples, but she reinforces the idea when she attributes it to subjectivity. Accordingly, Kristeva argues that: "it is not lack of cleanliness or health that causes abjection, but what disturbs identity, system, order. What does not respect borders, positions, rules. The in-between, the ambiguous" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 4). The Abjection is both repellent and seductive in the sense that it summons the subject to 'other' and yet activates the defensive position of him. The traces of abjection return back to the maternal body. Separation from the maternal body leaves the mark of the first *loss*. Subject can never put a definite border between him and his desire. Unable to get rid of desire, attracting towards abjection to fulfill loss is the process that forms subjectivity. The Abjection puts the subject out of order and he doubts the order of defined systems. It transgresses the laws, limitations and borders. The abject is the lost object which the subject has lost since the separation from maternal body. It is the sign of the maternal space

chora which is continued in the shape of 'other'. In order to save his subjectivity, subject needs to bypass the threat of abjection.

The Abjection denotes that the subject is never safe and secure and it leaves the subject in an ever-challenge with 'Other', 'not I'. Struggle towards *want* is attraction to the maternal body and this endless battle makes Kristevian 'subject-in-process'. On the one hand, the subject is attracted to abject for it reminds him of his initial separation and loss. One the other hand, subject attempts to overcome the temptation of abject for it threatens his subjectivity and puts him out of symbolic law. Mechanism of abjection enlivens desire in the subject and forms subjectivity. Subject besets by abjection and he rejects the threat but the rejection is never complete. The source of abjection returns to the maternal body and therefore many attribute abjection to feminine although Kristeva avoids the exact labeling of this phase. Abjection revolutionized the theories of psycho-philosophy about subject and questions the Lacanian as well as Freudian ordered, static, autonomous subject who is structured in the symbolic phase. She argues how the subject is influenced by desire towards loss during his lifetime. Kristeva opens a room for the feminine in abjection and in this way shatters the monopoly of symbolic paternal-masculine in the process of the subject. She sets the abjection neither in semiotic phase nor in the symbolic to indicate that none of them can conquer the other. Many critics conceive of abjection as the defence of feminine against masculine and discuss it in gender political terms. Kristeva believes that literature and art are two main sources of abjection for it allows the author/artist to put away what is other to him and therefore literary piece or artistic creation is seen as the lost object. The structure of character in Munro's short fiction has the same process in Kristeva' subject. Both fight inner desires and face the meaninglessness of Real in everyday life. The common ground between Kristeva's work in the field of subjectivity study and Munro's character creation in her fiction is that both close to the subject differently, namely different than their previous fellows or their contemporaries

The Abjection is essentially a response to Lacanian Real. The Real presupposed by Lacan is abstract to perceive and is a concept out of touch. According to Lacan, Real is a phase in which the subject reaches a weight of meaninglessness. He discovers how the ideologies, social and personal values are the constructions of society and authorities. That there is no purpose or meaning out of values and systems that make meaningful constructions. In this position he sees over the barriers and fences of what he *thought* to be reality of life. This is the absurdity of life. He discovers that all values and meanings attributed to life and subjectivity are hallucinations. The subject pauses for a moment perhaps in a daily basis to doubt about his basic beliefs, to return and reevaluate what he is used to as 'life'. He faces meaninglessness and he feels passivity against this situation consequently. Although Lacan produces a stable subject out of the symbolic phase, the Real is what disrupts the ordered world of symbolic. The subject faces a serious challenge which makes him to doubt about the actuality of life. Kristeva argues that this meaningless situation is a serious challenge for the subjectivity for there is no rule, barrier or system to save the subject against what threatens his subjectivity. Real is subject's rebellion against the stability of symbolic pole, however the Real gives nothing except a handful of questions with no answers. Putting everything stable in doubt, the subject gains nothing in the exchange of his beliefs with the Real. Accordingly the subject needs a defensive position to protect him in the dilemma of life. Absurd and passive, the subject experiences one of his most powerful chaotic concepts in his life. The subject is caught between two annoying alternatives: between the symbolic order which is too restrictive and the Real that is incomprehensible and absurd. The symbolic is constructed to avoid subject's entrance in Real. But Real's insurrection is unavoidable to shatter the stability of subjectivity. Kristeva believes that the defensive position of abject is the safeguard of subjectivity:

A weight of meaninglessness, about which there is nothing insignificant, and which crushes me. On the edge of nonexistence and hallucination, of a reality that, if I acknowledge it, annihilates me. There abject and abjection are my safeguards. The primers of my cultures. (1982, p. 2).

The adoption of subject in Kristeva's terms with Munro's character development in her fiction is the objective of this chapter. The structure of character in Munro's short fiction has the same process in Kristeva' subject. Both fight inner desires and face the meaninglessness of Real in everyday life.

II. DISCUSSION

A. "Runaway": "Inescapable Doubleness of Vision"

The title of this chapter/article gains Margaret Attwood's phrase in description of Munro's literary achievement as quoted in Howells (1987, p. 3). Munro's eleventh collection of her short stories is called simply *Runaway* which is published in 2004. Although the collection is considered by critics like Brad Hooper to be "a slight step backward" (2008, p. 143) in contrast to her other collections, the masterpiece of this collection gains the title of the book. "Runaway" as the name indicates literally is the story of a runaway. A young wife called Carla runs away from her husband (her home) and in a minor story which is the dramatic point of the story an animal runs away from her. According to Hooper this short fiction is one of the most successful psychological stories of Munro's (2008, p. 143). At the first glance, it is a story about a marriage in serious dysfunction but in a deeper study there are psychological reasons behind the oppressive atmosphere of the story between the couple. Narrated in limited third person point of view, the narration alters from the perspective of two main females of the story. It narrates Carla's displeasure with her life in general and with her husband in particular. Their neighbor Mrs. Sylvia Jamieson is a kind of "foil" character for both Carla and her husband Clark to show the misery of their relationship and life. Setting in a rural area of Canada, the story narrates the conflicts of the young couple with the hard conditions of life on the one hand, and the conflict of

Carla with her husband that is seriously affected by the presence and sudden absence of a little white goat called Flora. The psychological sphere of the story is oppressive and autocratic ruled by Clark. Carla is depicted as a typical woman who suffers the oppressive power of her husband, dreams of her world and searches an imaginative life which is very different from their present situation. At an overall glance, Carla moves through the borders of Abjection, falls in it and returns. To give an explanation of Carla's situation and her life context it is necessary to perceive the presence of abjection.

Julia Kristeva essentially associates the abject with the response to the eruption of the Lacanian Real into our lives. She enlivens the active subject against the passivity that wants to yield him against the absurdity of existence. The defensive position of Abjection is to resist the disruptive power of Real. Actually it is the pressure and comprehension of Real which makes the subject to guard against the danger which threatens his subjectivity. While perceiving Real, the subject feels that there is no possible meaning or direction for life. It is the last phase which Lacan presupposes for the subject. After entering into the symbolic phase and being besieged by orders, laws, filters, limitations and barriers, the subject discovers a reality other than the routine process of life. In this position the subject asks about the philosophy of life and existence. To doubt about the place he is standing is to perceive the Real which is beyond his control and is going to deprive him of all the possible meanings and values for his life. A brief overview over the Lacanian Real shows that in this phase the subject supposes no purpose or meaning for the life. When the subject sees through ideology he perceives that there is a curtain over the life he thinks to be real and meaningful. It is the world behind the curtain which collapses the meaningful life in the realm of symbolic. In *Critical Theory Today* (2006) Lois Tyson writes:

Real is the experience we have, perhaps on a daily basis even if it's only for a moment, when we feel that there is no purpose or meaning to life… the Real is something we can know nothing about, except to have the anxious feeling from time to time that it's there (p. 32).

"That it's there" and Carla knows about the fact of this irrefutable situation through her lifetime and continues life in abjection. As it had been argued Kristeva's Abjection is a response to the dilemma of Lacanian Real. When the subject faces meaninglessness, his struggle begins towards recapturing meaning and purpose. In order to understand the connection between Real and Abjection in "Runaway" the story is divided up into two parts: Carla's imagination about living with Clark and her life with him and then her escape and return. It might seem that the process of Symbolic, Abjection and their demarcation overlap in the course of the narration applying the theory but it is the same quality which justifies the title of this chapter.

Carla is very young when she gets familiar with Clark and gets married to him. The objectivity of Carla's life before Clark remains an abstract in her dreams for there are no similarities between her desires and the Real. The story narrates that Carla wants an "authentic life" (Munro, 2004, p. 33) with Clark which she never could attain. The oppressive atmosphere lingers throughout the story as early as the first paragraphs. The narrator explains that "this was the summer of rain and more rain" (Munro, 2004, p. 4). It indicates that Carla's economic life is solid and is threatened by her surroundings. It is indicated later that she lives not in a comfortable home but in a "mobile home" (Munro, 2004, p. 4). The heavy rain is simply a backdrop for the nature of her married life. It is foreshadowing that Carla does not live in the life she dreamt. The main oppressive power and the most serious in the story and in Carl's life is her husband Clark. The story narrates: "Clark had fights not just with the people he owed money to. His friendliness compelling at first, could suddenly turn sour" (Munro, 2004, p.6). The grumpy mood of Clark is indicated in a dialogue between him and Carla:

"You flare up," said Carla.

"That's what men do." (Munro, 2004, p. 6)

The life explained in the first paragraphs is reducing expectations to Carla. As the narrations shows, the condition in which Carla lives is quit new to her: "up until three years ago Carla never really looked at mobile homes" (Munro, 2004, p.6). The solid economic conditions, Clark's bitter temper and his oppressive behavior and Carla's dreams of a new life make her to search for a 'new identity' through finding a 'new life': "a life, a place, chosen for that specific reason-that it would not contain Clark" (Munro, 2004, p. 33). Carla wishes of a life in which she "taking charges of her own life. With nobody glowering over her, nobody's mood infecting her with misery" (Munro, 2004, p.32). In order to reach the imaginative life, Carla needs to remove Clark and to start anew. The Real of her life is that she perceives of Clark "as the architect of the life ahead of them" (Munro, 2004, p. 32). Clark is for Carla the source of values and thought. Embodying the preserve of the sense of self-reliance in Carla, Clark is introduced like a meaning-making for Carla. While she is in the bus, traveling to Toronto in the search of a new, independent life, Carla is unable to picture a future without Clark's existence. The story narrates:

While she was running away from him –now- Clark still kept his place in her life. But she was finished running away, when she just went on, what would she put in his place? What else-who else-could ever be so vivid a challenge? (Munro, 2004, p. 34).

Entering into the symbolic phase, the subject accepts barriers, limitations and systems to achieve the formation of a 'self' affirmed by social and cultural definitions. The social systems, the ideologies rooted in society, culture, religion and politics are there to make a meaningful, ordered world associated with the symbolic pole. The subject bases his life upon these systems that make 'meaning' and 'purpose' to life. This is the same reality which Lacan calls the symbolic. The systems of meanings make the subject to attain the subjectivity which is socially accepted like what happens in the

symbolic pole of the psyche. They act as 'activators' in the process of subjectivity. The subject feels dependence upon them and this dependence prevents the sense of meaninglessness. The Lacanian Real puts the subject in a position against all these ordered systems. It leaves all them in doubt and exchanges nothing instead. The values in the form of social, cultural, political and personal systems prevent subject's falling in the wilderness of meaninglessness. In the Lacanian Real the subject faces the artificiality of the ideologies, values and perceives that they are just 'social constructions'. The Real gives the opportunity to the subject to think beyond the present limitations and condemn the entrance to the realm of symbolic that is restrictive. Freedom proposed by a bondless space beyond the domination and influence of the Real is double in effect. On the one hand, it gives the chance to the subject to put the barriers away, to think anew in the essence of existence and the reality of life. But on the other hand, to remove the systems which make meaning and order to life, puts the subject in vacuum. It gives nothing to us in place of those meanings. The meaning-making systems are symbolic phases of life. They brought fore orders, laws and purposes in subject's life. Lois Tyson writes:

The Real is the uninterpretable dimension of existence; it is existence without the filters and buffers of our signifying, or meaning-making, systems… the Real is that experience we have, on a daily basis even if it's only for a moment, when we feel that there is no purpose or meaning to life (2006, p. 32).

Clark's presence for Carla is in a similar way a symbolic function. He gives order, meaning and purpose to her life as well as limitations, barriers and solid states of existence. He limits the power of Carla's subjectivity in the sense that he is viewed as a finished, state subject, meaning-making element throughout the story who prevents her wife by his grumpy nature. Accordingly, Carla thinks of Clark as "the architect of the life" (Munro, 2004, p. 32). Clark's presence is two dimensional in Carla's life. On the one hand, it defines life for her in a limited view which is controlled by his power. He gives meaning and purpose to Carla's life. He activates the passion and feeling for life in Carla as the story flashes back to the early days in their life: "in those days their world included several towns in the surrounding countryside and they had sometimes behaved like tourists… and they would sing all the way home like crazy hillbillies" (Munro, 2004, p. 33). On the other hand, Clark imposes restrictions upon Carla's freedom and she is always under the pressure of his dominance. In the sense of the symbolic, Clark is both restrictive and meaning-making. Lack of Clark's existence in her life faces Carla with Real. Omitting out Clark, Carla is searching a new identity for herself but is unable to substitute something or somebody for him. Actually the absence of Clark equals to lose of her symbolic pole and her meaningful act of her subjectivity. While she is omitting Clark out, leaves him behind and takes a journey to nowhere in fact, she misses the validity of her own existence. She leaves the arena of symbolic as she left Clark behind and enters the realm of semiotic while she runs away from him. Leaving him makes 'Real' bare to her: no systems, no values, no meaning and consequently absurdity. But there is nobody, nothing to put in place of Clark. A blank appears in Carla's life and essentially in her subjectivity which can be filled with nothing else. In order to protect her subjectivity against the threat of out/Other, Carla returns to Clark. She returns to the symbolic phase of her life. The borders between subjectivity borders' protection and the eruption of Lacanian Real lurk Abjection. Carla runs away and faces the Real, remains in abjection when she removes Clark and returns to the symbolic when she returns home. The weight of meaninglessness is the pressure upon Carla to escape the shadow of Real but even after her return she lives in abjection.

The impulse behind Carla's abjection is her dissatisfaction of life with Clark, a life that is a reduction of her expectations. Carla desires a life of her own in which Clark does not exist, to end "the seesaw misery with Clark" (Munro, 2004, p.16). Her impulse is embodied in the presence of a little goat named Flora. Flora stands as the desire or in Kristevian terms 'want'. The maternal desire which is never finished in the subjectivity stands both as a threat to subjectivity for it puts him out of the borders of symbolic and threatens his subjectivity consequently and it gives a freedom to him to think over the borders, transgress the lines and break the rules. This is what causes innovation and progress and leaves the subject a 'subject-in-process'. There are even similarities between the nature of Flora and Carla's. Flora is feminine and similar to Carla's feeling about Clark: "her [Flora's] resemblance to a guileless girl in love" (Munro, 2004, p. 9). It is interesting that Flora's feelings to Clark is quiet similar to that of Carla. At first the animal is attached towards Clark as "she had been Clark's pet entirely" (Munro, 2004, p.9) but then when "she grew older she seemed to attach herself to Carla" (Munro,2004 , p. 9). Carla revolts against the limitations of her life. Her revolt is apparently against her husband but in fact it is a revolt to reject the restriction imposed upon her while living in a rural area. Anna Jean Smith writes: "Abjection is a revolt of (and against) the being that gives us existence" (1992, p. 279). Abjection gives the opportunity to Carla to break the rules, to transgress and revolt against her condition in life with Clark. She perceives how the territory and dictatorship of Clark is breakable. She revolts against the life that is ordered by Clark as a system of stable, solid restrictions. Abjection as "the dark revolt of being" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 1), makes Carla to reevaluate her situation. There is nothing in common with her desired life before Clark or what she has defined as "authentic life" (Munro, 2004, p. 33). According to what Kristeva argues in *Powers of Horror* (1982) the subject has self-consciousness in the process of abjection. He knows both about his transgression and its consequent freedom and how the abject might threat his subjectivity.

The abject is a realm where drives and signifiers are all mixed up. The distinction between the border of symbolic and the line of desire is difficult if not completely impossible. As Kristeva notes, abjection is "a composite of judgment and affect, of condemnation and yearning, of signs and drives" (1982, p. 10). Carla's escape is affected by the restriction of the symbolic phase imposed by her husband. She reaches Real when she leaves Clark behind, for she omits out the

system of meaning-making who she has accepted in the figure of Clark. Unable to distinguish between condemnation and yearning, she lives in abjection. The story ends with the key sentence about the inner feelings of Carla after she returns home: "the days passed and Carla didn't go near that place. She held out against the temptation" (Munro, 2004, p.47). The double effect of abjection is ambiguity. Abjection as Kristeva notes is the "in-between". The subject lives in uncertainty about what has defined him as stable subject, the symbolic system of meanings, orders and limitations. He reevaluates identity in the light of a new psychic discovery. The Real rapes the hallucination of a stable identity constructed in the symbolic but leaves the subject in vacuum. Carla follows the desire to achieve her imagined life. She even feels "an unaccustomed confidence" (Munro, 2004, p.31). The feeling is the result of freedom brought about by Abjection, as she breaks the rules and experiences a new identity. Her yearning to have independence comes true when she runs away. The story narrates Carla's thoughts loudly: "her escape seems the most rational thing you could imagine, in fact the only self-respecting thing that a person in Carla's shoes could do" (Munro, 2004, p. 31) but her return puts her in the order phase of the symbolic. Implying the thought of escape, Carla is looking at far away "to the edge of bare woods" (Munro, 2004, p. 47) where she thinks of Flora. Living in temptation to know about Flora's destiny again, she has the temptation towards revolt. She knows that escape would allow her to be more or less, detached and autonomous but she is terrified of the danger of emptiness felt by the blank space of Clark. She is caught up between a rock and a hard place. She is tired with the symbolic world of Clark with all those orders, limitations and barriers but the world of Real is unlivable too. Devoid of meaning in Real and dissatisfied with the world she lives in, she continues in Abjection. The story narrates: "it was as if she had a murderous needle somewhere in her lungs" (Munro, 2004, p. 46). Carla attains a kind of self-awareness and consciousness when she experiences a space without Clark but it is difficult to bear it up for it is empty of value and meaning.

The thought of revolt, the ambiguous feeling of *want* along with the simultaneous feelings of yearning and condemnation are the 'murderous needle' of abjection. Carla feels uneasy towards the feeling that both suffers and enjoys. She knows now and then that "it was still there" (Munro, 200, p. 46). Oscillating between her desire to be free and autonomous and her fear of bewilderness again, Carla is the kind of Kristevian "tireless builder" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 8) who journeys through the difficult, tempting path of Abjection. Carla is in tenter-hooks; pulling towards desire, the maternal object of want and retreating into stability that Clark dedicates her. Uncertain and dissatisfied, Carla lives in a land of oblivion that is constantly remembered. She fights against her desire but is unable to forget it entirely. Kristeva argues: "the "unconscious" contents remain here excluded but in strange fashion: not radically enough to allow for a secure differentiation between subject and object, and yet clearly enough for a defensive position to be established" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 7). Implying a defensive position against what is going to weaken her subjectivity, Carla returns home to be safe and secure against 'outward object' of danger. Abjection pushes through a simultaneous feeling of desire and rejection and threatens the subjectivity. Carla's desire is both repellent and seductive as like as Abjection. What prevents Carla to fall in the land of abject is her fear of loneliness. Her inner thoughts in the way to Toronto are the comprehensive perspective of her feelings:

She set herself to thinking about Toronto, the first steps ahead. The taxi, the house she had never seen, the strange bed she would sleep in alone…she could not picture it…living among hordes of people every day who were not Clark (Munro, 2004, p. 33).

She feels the threat of meaninglessness and danger of undermining her identity without the presence of Clark. Hence she returns to him to recapture the source of value and order. A future without Clark's existence is unimaginable for her although "he despised her" (Munro, 2004, p. 24). Clark for Carla is both restrictive and meaning-making. He is *inescapable*, for Carla has accepted him as protector. She is alienated with the world of future and prefers the virulence of Clark, set in the symbolic. Clark for her brings security and stability vis-à-vis the alienation and terrifying world of Real/future. Through her escape, she achieves self-awareness that she is dependent on Clark yet the symbolic function of Clark is suffering for her. She has to demarcate between the abstract future which promises her freedom and perhaps an authentic life and undermining her subjectivity with lack of a stable symbolic embodied in Clark. Kristeva qualifies abject as "a refusal but also a sublimating elaboration" (1982, p. 7). Carla's sublime desire to be an autonomous subject is achieved through her refusal of Clark's domination and her self-awareness that gives her progress and motivation. Her refusal against temptation is 'a sublimating elaboration' for she holds on laws and limitations in order to save her familial responsibilities. Carla endeavors to separate herself from the object. The maternal *loss/want* penetrates whenever Carla looks at that direction of bare woods where she reminds of Flora. But the separation is not complete and enlivens through her resistance. Kristeva asserts that abjection is rooted in past, in the connection of subject with maternal body. Whenever the subject sets himself stable in the symbolic, it is abjection which shatters his comfort and shakes the solid basis of subjectivity: "a deep well of memory that is unapproachable and intimate: abject" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 6). Abjection is a double-edged phenomenon. It resides in the subject in the form of want/desire and it tantalizes with Out/object. There is no flight of abjection except a defensive position of the subject. R. Byrne writes: "it [abjection] is suppressed by society and thus it is placed behind closed doors- it is nevertheless, ultimately an element of life" (2010, p. 72). The subject adapts to the situation of demarcation in order to preserve his subjectivity. Carla's self-adaptation is the quintessential to the defensive position proposed by Kristeva. Carla's situation is akin to a mature subject who is fighting for and against an outward threat. She feels tired whenever she turns back in her inner thoughts. The story follows:

Carla found that she had got used to the sharp thought that had lodged in her. It wasn't so sharp anymore-in fact, it no longer surprised her. And she was inhabited now by an almost seductive notion, a constant low-lying temptation (Munro, 2004, pp. 46-47).

The Abjection is a realm of limits and boundaries and the voyager feels frustrated while he fights to secure his subjectivity. It is like an "inescapable boomerang" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 1) turns back to Carla while she confronts the absurdity of Real. A 'seductive notion' inhibited in the dark angles of subjectivity makes Carla aware of her inner desire and her disability to reach it. She combats against the inner desires and her rebellious subjectivity. Ian Rae writes: "the abject evokes a range of conflicting desires in the individual by entangling rejection and desire, far and near, fear and an uncanny sense of familiarity" (2010, p. 8) Kristeva considers the abjection of the self as the "culminating form of that experience of the subject" (1982, p. 5). She notes that the objects are rooted in the unresolved, maternal world and subject's separation which remains in the form of an endless loss. The story indicates that Carla flights for the second time. The first time she leaves her parents to live 'an authentic life' with Clark whom her parents hated. Dissatisfied with Clark, she runs away from him. Her escape is the second time in her life. Carla's dissatisfaction derives from unresolved desires rooted in the maternal loss. The Kristevian subject is 'subject-in-process' for there is an endless process of success and failure against an eternal loss and desire towards an object. Demarcating the borders of subjectivity with those of Not I is Carla's threat in the context of her life. The sense of ambiguity prevail Carla's thought. The abject is a dynamic activator which pushes the subject to promotion but he also passes back and forth in uncertainty and ambiguity. Carla is a reactioner against her feeling of loss but can never defy it completely. The dialectical relation between subject and object produces the sense of abjection in him which he guards against object and at the same time he desires it. Calvin Thomas writes: "At bottom, Kristeva writes, it is the "logic of prohibition", "the simple logic of excluding filth", that "founds the abject" (2008, p. xiii). Carla feels prohibited in front of what she desires for the restrictive power of Clark and her fear of losing him. Excluding the object of desire embodied in Flora, Carla maintains through the abject to avoid the object.

B. Jouissance

Through the process of abjection, there is 'jouissance' that Kristeva associates with the subject. Megan Becker Leckrone describes jouissance that "is a kind of bliss or euphoria associated with the breakdown of conventional practices" (2005, p. 158). The Other is structurally symbolic. Accordingly, the subject in order to be a subject other than Other (defined as the 'symbolic order') needs to transgress the laws articulated by Other in the symbolic pole. In rejection of the symbolic Other, jouissance appears as the psychic effect of the tolerance against it. Kristeva argues that the only reason for the abject to exist is essentially jouissance. The frontiers between the subject and Other is demarcated with the revolt of subject against the symbolic structure of the Other. In fact, the subject needs Other to be the subject of his own but he has the space to break the monopoly of Other. This unstable temporary position which is dominated by want is what causes jouissance. It is 'temporary' for the subject has to return to Other in order to set in the symbolic order. Carla in the way to Toronto feels an "unaccustomed confidence" (Munro, 2004, p. 31) and "even a sense of humor" (Munro, 2004, p. 31). Obviously she feels satisfied while she is running away from Clark. As it has been said, Clark is the source of symbolic order for Carla. Running away from him, Carla feels happiness, the feeling of freedom in result of breaking Other embodied in Clark. Carla transgresses the limitations imposed by Clark. Feeling jouissance, Carla releases the symbolic Other to touch the joy of another subjectivity. She releases the symbolic and the sense of jouissance enlivens in her "violently and painfully" (Kristeva, 1982, p. 9). The atmosphere described by Munro while Carla is in the bus in the way of Toronto is significant for it is in harmony with the kind of Jouissance which Kristeva associates with Abjection: freedom caused by breaking the symbolic order. The rainy, "steady showers" and "the summer of rain and more rain" (Munro, 2004, p. 4) changes into a delicate, pleasure weather of spring: (Munro, 2004, p. 4)

The sun was shining, as it had been for some time. When they sat at lunch it had made the wineglasses sparkle. No rain had fallen since early morning…summer clouds, not rain clouds were scudding across the sky. The whole countryside was changing, shaking itself loose, into the true brightness of a July day (Munro, 2004, p. 31).

However, the sense of meaninglessness begins while she is keeping Clark in distance. She immediately asks herself about the blank space caused by the absence of him. The discipline of her life is shattered when she omits out Clark. The chaotic weight of meaninglessness as well as terrifying picture of future in which Clark does not exist, makes Carla to return to her husband. She takes aside laws and limitations but to be an accepted subject she recovers Other in her subjectivity. In order to save her subjectivity, Carla needs Clark as Other. Throughout the story, the presence of Clark is more through Carla's thought than his real presence. The weight of his existence is so highlighted that he is at the core of Carla's dramatic conflict with her life.

Carla stays in the ambiguous space of abject. As she looks at the direction in the bare woods, she is uncertain about everything including her life, the essential of Clark's mood, Flora's destiny, her desires and even the nature of Sylvia's effect upon her. As they are in bed, she tells her husband that her decision to go away and leave him was "all a lie" (Munro, 2004, p. 45). She is uncertain about her decision while she was in the bus as well as in her return to Clark. She breaks the monopoly of Clark and feels a freedom needed to keep her alive. To survive, she needed a confrontation with the difficulty of Real and to grasp the symbolic order as well. Unable to define herself as a subject detached from the symbolic, she asks herself about the purpose of her life after leaving Clark away: "How would she know that she was

alive?" (Munro, 2004, p. 34). The world she enters is chaotic for the lack of stability of the symbolic pole. In search of want, she leaves behind the stable world of her home and her husband but the weight of meaninglessness of Real crushes her and makes her to return to the symbolic. She knows about the restrictions imposed upon her by Clark yet she cannot confront the Real. That is the inescapable doubleness of vision in abjection. She feels free for a few, short moments and that is the sweet jouissance of a 'subject-in-process' who commits abjection.

III. CONCLUSION

The abjection is a double condition. On the one hand, it denotes a seductive condition of freedom and independence from the masculine symbolic. On the other hand, it repels the subject towards the threat of undermining his subjectivity. The seductive power of abjection summons the subject to revolt, to outrage the Law-of-the-Father in the symbolic. This is the very quality that attracts the female character in "Runaway" (2004) to break the oppression of her husband who imposes upon her a solid life. In this way she questions the authority of symbolic and finds the chance to reevaluate her own subjectivity at the light of freedom suggests by abject. The jouissance of freedom in abject connects her to outlaw desires. Breaking the system of patriarchy, she is reconnected to the desire of maternal body-semiotic- and enjoys the world of her own. The repellent power of abject is the other side of it that warns the subject against the perilous effect of aggression. Not to be in the stable world of symbolic, Carla sets on the verge of uncertainty and ambiguity. She is deprived of the stable construction of symbolic embodied in Clark yet she is irritated by the restrictions and oppressions of him. While she is posited out of the rationality and meaning-making system of symbolic, she is confronted with the absurdity of Real. Suffused of the feelings of uncertainty and ambiguity, she stands on the borders of abject. She feels the touch of freedom out of a solid symbolic system, but the meaninglessness of Real is unlivable too. Unable to define a separate subjectivity for her, Carla returns to the secure territory of symbolic and returns home consequently. She reconciled herself to the restrictive arena of symbolic to save her subjectivity against what is going to undermine her identity. The consequent meaninglessness of the Real makes Carla to redefine herself in the shadow of Clark's symbolic characteristic. She has to keep a defensive position against the seductive power of abject if she tends to the meaning-making quality of symbolic pole. While she stands the pressure of temptation against revolt, abject enlivens the ambiguous sense of aggression and ignorance in her. Accordingly, Carla stays at the seductive realm of abject that calls her to annihilate the symbolic world of Clark and to remain in the safe area of him simultaneously. Freedom as the 'object of desire' for Carla keeps the sense of abject in progress in her. Whereas the abject blurs the demarcations of I/outside in Carla's subjectivity, she resists the annihilating feature of abject and ignores the joy of its liberating power.

REFERENCES

[1] Albertazzi, Silvia. (2010). "A Comparative Essay on the Sociology of Literature: Alice Munro's Unconsummated Relationships", in *Journal of the Short Story in English*, 55. pp.2-12.
[2] Bloom, Harold, Ed. (2009). Bloom's Modern Critical Views: Alice Munro. New York: Infobase Publishing.
[3] Becker-Leckrone, Megan. (2005). Julia Kristeva and Literary Theory. England: Palgrave & Macmillan.
[4] Byrne, Rory. (2010-2011). "Excreta, Ejaculate and the Emetic: the Role of the Abject in Ulysses", in *Inner Vate: Leading Undergraduate Work in English Studies*, The University of Nottingham, Vol.3. pp. 72-78.
[5] Fraunhofer, Hedwig. (2007) "Gender and the Abject in Sartre", in *Gender Forum: An Internet Journal for Gender Studies*, issue 18, pp. 2-12.
[6] Hooper, Brad. (2008). The Fiction of Alice Munro, United States of America: Greenwood.
[7] Howells, Carol Ann. (1987). Private and Fictional Worlds: Canadian Women Novelists of the 1970s and 1980s. New York: Methuen.
[8] Howells, Carol Ann. (2009) "Intimate Dislocations: Alice Munro, Hateship, Friendship, Courtship, Loveship, Marriage" in Harold Bloom Bloom's *Modern Critical Views: Alice Munro*. Infobase Publishing, New York.
[9] Hunter, Adrian. (2007*). The Cambridge Introduction to the Short Story in English. U.K: Cambridge University Press.
[10] Kristeva, Julia. (1982). Powers of Horror: An Essay on Abjection. New York: Colombia University Press.
[11] Munro, Alice. (2004). Runaway Stories. New York: Vintage Books.
[12] Prasad Nath, Debarshi. (2012). "Reading Alice Munro's early Fiction: A Kristevian Analysis". In *Rupkatha Journal on Interdisciplinary Studies in Humanities*, Vol. VI. pp. 172-179.
[13] Rae, Ian. (2010). "Runaway Classicists: Anne Carson and Alice Munro's "Juliet" Stories", in *Journal of the Short Story in English*, Vol. 55. pp. 2-11.
[14] Smith, Anna Jean. (1992). "Reading Julia Kristeva: Estrangement and Female Intellectual", A Thesis, University of Canterbury
[15] Thomas, Calvin. (2008*). Masculinity, Psychoanalysis, Straight Queer Theory: Essays on abjection in Literature, Mass Culture, and Film. New York: Palgrave: Macmillan.
[16] Tyson, Lois. (2006). Critical Theory Today: A User- Friendly Guide. London and New York: Routledge.
[17] Vancoppernolle, Elisa. (2010). "Hunted Families: Gothic Realism in Alice Munro's Too Much Happiness". A Thesis, Universiteit Gent, Faculty of Arts and Philosophy.

Raheleh Bahador is an M. A. graduate scholar in English Language and Literature at Vali-e-Asr University of Rafsanjan, Iran. She has published several articles in international journals.

Esmaeil Zohdi got his PhD from Calcutta University in 2000. He is a faculty member of Vali-e-Asr University since 2000. He is an Assistant Professor of English Literature majoring in political fiction. Moreover, he has been a member of Psyart Foundation from 2008 until now. He has translated two books from English to Persian, one related to Psyart Foundation and one related to writing academic papers. He has also published a good number of articles on a variety of subjects such as poetry, novel and comparative literature. He is presently more involved in a number of projects concerning film studies as well as comparative literature.

A Comparative Study of the Novel 'A Tale of Two Cities' and Its Persian Translation in Terms of Textual Cohesion: The Cases of Punctuation Marks, Sentencing and Paragraphing

Zahra Sojudifar
English Department, Fars Research and Science Branch, Islamic Azad University, Fars, Iran

Azadeh Nemati
Department of English Language Teaching, Jahrom branch, Islamic Azad University, Jahrom, Iran

Mohammad Reza Falahati Qadimi Fumani
Dep. of Computational Linguistics, Regional Information Center for Science and Technology (RICeST), Shiraz, Iran

Abstract—**The present study aimed at finding possible differences in using punctuation marks between the novel *'A Tale of Two Cities'* and its Persian translation and investigating whether TT sentences and paragraphs are as long as ST sentences and paragraphs. First, chapter one of the novel and its translation were selected. Then, punctuation marks including comma, full stop, semicolon, colon, hyphen, dash, and parenthesis in every thousand words were counted and the mean was calculated for each punctuation mark. Next, the number of words in the first 20 sentences and the first 10 paragraphs of each story were counted and the mean of sentence and paragraph length were calculated. Finally, T-Test and Wilcoxon Test were run. The results showed that there were significant differences between using comma, colon, semicolon, hyphen and dash in the ST and the TT. Moreover, TT sentences and paragraphs were as long as those of the ST.**

Index Terms—**cohesion, textual cohesion, punctuation, sentence, paragraph**

I. INTRODUCTION

Textuality consists of seven features which must occur simultaneously to identify any oral or written extract as text. These seven criteria are: cohesion, coherence, intentionality, acceptability, informativity, situationality and intertextuality (formal or semantic connections with texts of the same type) (Beaugrande & Dressler 1981). Cohesion seems to be the only obligatory requisite of texture since it entails semantic and intertextual factors (Halliday & Hassan 1976). Cohesion enables us, by means of lexical, grammatical or other devices, to connect different items that make up a text (Baker 1992). A text has to be cohesive in continuation of statements or paragraphs (Tarnyikova 2009). Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of some elements in the text is dependent on that of another (Halliday & Hasan 1976).

Punctuation is among the factors which create cohesion in a text (Bernárdez 1982). Punctuation has two main functions: the marking of lexical, grammatical and rhetorical items and the mitigation of sentence or paragraph length (and hence complexity) (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech & Svartvik 1985). Punctuation marks attach the sentences together and bring unity to the texts (Hyland 2005). The correct application of punctuation marks is notable for translators because of their vital role in transferring meaning from the Source Text (ST) to the Target Text (TT) (Kirkman 2006). In evaluation of a translated text to determine the degree to which the translator has managed to maintain discoursal value intended by the ST, punctuation can offer critical guidelines. Punctuation needs to be observed especially in the translation of literary texts because the overall textual effect is the product of correct use of punctuation (Lotfipur Saedi 2001).

Translators often tend to automatically copy any graphic features of the ST to the TT (Ishenko 1998). Considering intratextual elements, most translators pay obsessive attention to the structure and lexemes of the text while minorities of them consider punctuation as an influential part in their work (Schwartz 2006).

The researcher observed the same problem (copying punctuation marks from the ST to the TT) in Persian translations of some English Literary texts. Translation of *'Little Women' by Fariba Dastom,* translation of *'Great Expectations'* and *'Jane Eyre'* by Maryam Dastom are some examples.

A. Purpose of the Study

Regarding the above mentioned problems, the present study pursued the following objectives. The first objective of the study was to find possible differences in using punctuation marks between English novel *'A Tale of Two Cities'* and

its Persian translation. The second objective of the study was to investigate whether TT sentences are as long as ST sentences. The third objective of the study was to investigate whether TT paragraphs are as long as ST paragraphs. Following these objectives, the following research questions were posed:

1. Are there any significant differences in using punctuation marks between English novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translation?

2. Are TT sentences as long as ST sentences?

3. Are TT paragraphs as long as ST paragraphs?

B. Significance of the Study

Assessing three easily isolatable – but nevertheless frequently ignored – features of textual Cohesion (i.e. punctuation, sentencing, and paragraphing) is very important. Since assessments impact learning priorities in academic and professional settings, an assessment tool that focuses on these important, though often-overlooked, textual features, encourages novice translators to consider the target text globally, as a product involving a variety of features above and beyond lexis, for which they are professionally responsible (Baer & Bystrova-McIntyre 2009). The present study can check the practicality of Baer and Bystrova-McIntyre's (2009) frame work (See Section 2.5) between the English novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translation. Moreover, most studies undertaken between English and Persian (Seddigh, Shokrpour, & Kafipour 2010; Rahimi & Ebrahimi 2012) dealt with lexical cohesion. Other studies (Øverås 1998; Querol 2009) investigated grammatical or lexical cohesion between English texts and languages other than Persian such as Norwegian and Spanish. But, the present study will focus on an area of cohesion (i.e textual cohesion) that has not been studied much before.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Cohesion is the textual quality which is responsible for making the sentences of a text seem to hang together (Morris & Hirst 1991). Cohesion is the property that distinguishes a sequence of sentences that form a discourse from a random sequence of sentences (Singh 1979). Speakers and writers often also provide internal cues as to how the parts of a text are linked together or how sentences are related to other sentences. These cues create cohesion in a text (Johnstone 2008). The identification of connections that are linguistically signaled, like those between a pronoun and a previous noun phrase, enables us to recognize the cohesion of a text (Widdowson 2007). Cohesive relationships within and between sentences create texture. Cohesive relationships have different types including reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion. The effect of special punctuation might be added to indicate a relationship between what has been said and what is about to be said. Observing these cohesive relationships will guarantee textual cohesion (Brown & Yule 1989).

Three easily isolatable – but nevertheless frequently ignored – features of textual cohesion are punctuation, sentencing, and paragraphing (Baer & Bystrova-McIntyre 2009). Punctuation is an essential aspect of discourse analysis, since it gives a semantic indication of the relationship between sentences and clauses, which may vary according to languages (Newmark 1988). Punctuation can be potent, but it is easily overlooked. So, translators are advised to make a separate comparative punctuation check on their version and the original (Newmark 1988). In what follows English and Persian punctuation marks will be introduced:

English major punctuation marks include: period, comma, semicolon, colon, dash, hyphen, and parentheses. Period (**.**) ends a sentence that makes a statement, direct command, or request. The period (full stop) is used after initials and many abbreviations (Wyrick 2008). Comma (**,**) separates two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. Coordinating conjunctions include "for", "and", "but", "or", "yet", and "so". The comma sets off nonessential phrases and clauses. Moreover, the comma sets off conjunctive adverbs such as "however", "thus", "consequently" and "therefore". The comma is used in a series of words, phrases, or clauses, as well (Wyrick 2008). Semicolon (**;**) links two closely related independent clauses. The semicolon is used in a series between items that already contain internal punctuation (Wyrick 2008). Colon (**:**) is used to introduce a long or formal list. The colon is also used in the salutation of business or professional correspondence (Wyrick 2008). Dash (**—**) indicates a strong or sudden shift in thought. The dash is used before a statement that summarizes the proceeding thought (Wyrick 2008). Hyphen (**-**) joins words into a single adjective before a noun. The hyphen is used with some prefixes. The hyphen marks the separation of syllables when you divide a word at the end of a line (Wyrick 2008). And finally Parentheses ( ) sets off words, dates, or statement that give additional information, explain, or qualify the main thought. Parentheses may also set off numbers in a list that appears within prose (Wyrick 2008).

Regarding Pertsian punctuation marks, Mohamadifar (2002) asserted, "the history of punctuation in Persian writing is not very old and it did not exist in classical writings. Its usage goes back to the advent of press industry in Iran" (p. 439). Period (**.**) is used after complete declarative sentences and after abbreviations (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996). Comma (**،**) shows pause and separates two successive words. The comma is used after and before appositive (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996). Semicolon (**؛**) is used after related sentences and for separating independent meanings (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996). Colon (**:**) shows items that need definition or enumeration (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996). Parentheses ( ) is used for giving additional information (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996). And finally, Hyphen (**-**) is used instead of "from-to" in dates (Yahaghi & Naseh 1996).

Regarding sentence and paragraph, sentence is the largest unit of grammatical organization within which parts of speech (e.g. noun, verbs and adverbs) and grammatical classes (e.g. word, phrase and clause) are said to function. In English a sentence normally contains one independent clause with a finite verb (Richards, Platt & Platt 1992). Paragraph is a unit of organization of written language which serves to indicate how the main ideas in a written text are grouped. In text linguistics, paragraphs are treated as indicators of the macro-structure of a text. They group sentences which belong together, generally, those which deal with the same topic. A new paragraph thus indicates a change in topic or sub-topic. (Richards et al. 1992).

Since the "textual turn" in Translation Studies, translation scholars and trainers have recognized global textual features, such as cohesion, to be of central importance for it is cohesion that creates "text" out of individual sentences (Neubert & Shreve 1992). Moreover, studies documenting translations done by novices and experts point to cohesion as a fundamental distinguishing trait. Because novices tend to translate at the level of word, phrase, and sentence, their translations often lack cohesion and so appear awkward and unfocused (Le 2004). This situation can in part be explained by the fact that the qualities that constitute cohesion are generally difficult to pinpoint and isolate. Considerable deficiencies in 'discourse structure,' i.e., in the way the sentences are combined into well-integrated paragraphs and these in turn into a well-constructed whole exist in translations which affect cohesion negatively (Baker 1992).

Baer and Bystrova-McIntyre (2009), in their study analyzed punctuation, sentencing, and paragraphing. In the study of punctuation, the researchers used two untagged comparable corpora of Russian and English editorials for the analysis. They selected the editorials randomly from leading daily Russian and American newspapers (*Izvestia* and *The New York Times)* regardless of their content. Each corpus consisted of 20,000 words (titles and names of the authors were not included in the word count). For the study of sentencing and paragraphing, the researchers used international news articles from the same newspapers, and contemporary literary texts in addition to editorials. They selected the articles and literary corpora (Tolstaya's *Perevodnye Kartinki* and Updike's *Seek My Face*) randomly, regardless of their content. The number of different texts in each category was 20 (i.e., 120 texts, totaling 116,140 words). The results of the study showed that use of commas, colons, dashes and parentheses in the Russian editorials occurred with significantly greater frequency than in the English editorials, while the use of semicolons and hyphens were not significantly different. Significant differences in the use of commas, colons, dashes, and parentheses in English and Russian implied different grammatical and stylistic principles underlying the use of punctuation in those languages. The results also showed that the average number of words per sentence was significantly higher for English for all three text types. For paragraphs, the words-per-paragraph count was significantly higher for Russian international news. English international news reports revealed a tendency for more concise, focused paragraphs, often 1–2 sentences long. For literary texts, the result was not statistically significant (e.g., Updike, 728 words per paragraph).

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study used a mixture of qualitative and quantitative methods in collecting data, registering the observed cases, and analyzing the overall characteristics of sentencing, paragraphing and punctuation usage in both English and Persian languages. So, the design used in the present study is a descriptive- comparative one.

Two main sources were used as the materials in the present study: "*A Tale of Two Cities*" and its Persian translation, 'Da'asta'an-e dou Sha'hr', by Ibrahim Unesi. The first chapter of the novel, 'Recalled to Life', and its Persian translation were selected purposely as the sample in the present study. The reason behind selecting the sample was that it was the shortest chapter of the book. Had the researcher selected the other chapters it would not have been possible to complete the project within the expected time due to big data size. Therefore, the sample includes stories the period, the mail, the night shadows, the preparation, the wine-shop, the shoemaker in the ST and their translation in the TT.

Procedure of Data Collection and Analysis

To undertake the study and having selected the sample data, punctuation marks (i.e. coma, full stop, semicolon, colon, hyphen, dash, and parenthesis) were counted in every 1000 words (using word count option in Microsoft Word). Frequency and mean scores were computed here. Then, the number of words in the first 20 sentences of each story was counted using word count option in Microsoft Word. Frequency and mean scores were also computed. Later, the number of words in the first 10 paragraphs of each story was computed. After that, Performing Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test was used to check the normality of variables. Finally, paired sample T-Test and the Wilcoxon Test were used to analyze the data.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This part presents and analyzes the results of different procedures done in conducting the study.

A. Analysis of Results of Mean Number of Punctuations

Punctuations in every thousand words were counted and registered in the ST and the TT (See Appendix A). So the ST had 17 groups of thousand words (roughly 17000 words) and the TT had 19 thousand words.

TABLE 4.1
STATISTICS OF NUMBER OF PUNCTUATIONS IN THE ST AND THE TT

Punctuation	Statistics / Source	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Comma	English (ST)	17	98.29	7.880	82	111
	Persian (TT)	19	40.05	9.083	25	63
Fullstop	English	17	44.65	12.145	21	63
	Persian	19	43.53	16.514	24	95
Semicolon	English	17	7.71	4.552	2	19
	Persian	19	2.58	2.090	0	7
Colon	English	17	2.06	1.435	0	4
	Persian	19	8.11	4.280	1	17
Hyphen	English	17	8.35	3.757	0	15
	Persian	19	1.74	1.368	0	4
Dash	English	17	5.47	4.303	1	17
	Persian	19	0.00	0.000	0	0
Parenthesis	English	17	1.29	1.359	0	5
	Persian	19	0.53	0.697	0	2

As indicated in Table 4.1, mean number of comma was 98.29 and 40.05 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of full stop was 44.65 and 43.53 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of semicolon was 7.71 and 4.58 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of colon in the ST was 2.06 and 8.11 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of hyphen was 8.35 and 1.74 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of dash was 5.47 and 0.00 respectively in the ST and the TT. Mean number of parenthesis was 1.29 and 0.53 respectively in the ST and the TT. Thus, comma, semicolon, hyphen and parenthesis were used more frequently in the ST than the TT. Colon was used more frequently in the TT than the ST. Full stop was used equally in the ST and the TT and dash was used only in the ST, at all.

B. Analysis of Results of Mean Number of Words per Sentence

To collect data, number of words in first 20 sentences of stories of chapter one of the novel in the ST and the TT were counted and registered (See Appendix B).

TABLE 4.2
STATISTICS OF NUMBER OF WORDS PER SENTENCE IN THE ST AND THE TT

Story	Statistics / Source	No. of sentences	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	English (ST)	19	52.89	48.189	13	222
	Persian (TT)	20	33.70	25.795	6	94
2	English	20	32.40	21.402	4	79
	Persian	20	43.35	28.943	5	137
3	English	20	32.20	17.213	6	72
	Persian	20	51.25	30.409	11	117
4	English	20	26.25	18.467	4	67
	Persian	20	32.45	23.415	5	77
5	English	20	40.75	22.311	10	97
	Persian	20	36.70	22.734	10	101
6	English	20	21.75	10.249	9	45
	Persian	20	20.65	16.671	4	67
Total	English	119	34.22	27.008	4	222
	Persian	120	36.35	26.321	4	137

As Table 4.2 illustrates, mean number of words per sentence in the ST was 34.22 with standard deviation of 27.008, minimum number of 4 and maximum number of222. In the TT, mean number of words per sentence was 36.35 with standard deviation of 26.321, minimum number of 4 and maximum number of 137.

C. Analysis of Results of Mean Number of Words per Paragraph

To collect data, number of words in first 10 paragraphs of stories of chapter one of the novel in the ST and the TT were counted and registered (See Appendix C).

TABLE 4.3
STATISTICS OF NUMBER OF WORDS PER PARAGRAPH IN THE ST AND THE TT

Story	Statistics Source	No. of paragraphs	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
1	English (ST)	6	167.00	97.759	66	318
	Persian (TT)	6	162.00	103.317	45	318
2	English	10	70.00	72.210	4	209
	Persian	10	91.10	86.765	3	250
3	English	10	111.30	73.678	38	278
	Persian	10	111.50	92.257	16	303
4	English	10	69.50	72.489	9	251
	Persian	10	79.50	86.282	10	296
5	English	10	145.30	113.315	20	325
	Persian	10	170.80	146.718	20	405
6	English	10	33.50	39.190	2	137
	Persian	10	31.30	51.394	1	168
Total	English	56	94.61	88.407	2	325
	Persian	56	103.82	105.151	1	405

As Table 4.3 shows, mean number of words per paragraph in the ST was 94.61 with standard deviation of 88.407, minimum number of 2 and maximum number of 325. In the TT, mean number of words per paragraph was 103.82 with standard deviation of 105.151, minimum number of 1 and maximum number of 405.

D. Analysis of Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

To test the research hypotheses either t-test or Wilcoxon test was needed. The t-test is more precise, but needs normal distribution of variables as prerequisite. Thus, first normality of the variables distribution was investigated by Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test.

TABLE 4.4
KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY

Punctuation	Statistics Source	Z	Sig. (p)
Comma	English (ST)	0.717	0.683
	Persian (TT)	0.478	0.976
Full stop	English	0.654	0.786
	Persian	0.796	0.550
Semicolon	English	0.860	0.450
	Persian	0.625	0.829
Colon	English	1.128	0.157
	Persian	0.516	0.952
Hyphen	English	0.610	0.851
	Persian	0.779	0.579
Dash	English	0.915	0.372
	Persian		
Parenthesis	English	0.759	0.612
	Persian	1.543	0.017
Word per paragraph	English	1.217	0.104
	Persian	1.312	0.064
Word per sentence	English	1.598	0.012
	Persian	1.247	0.089

In Table 4.4, the p –values were greater than 0.05 (Sig.>0.05) for variables including commas (in the ST and the TT), full stop (in the ST and the TT), semicolon (in the ST and the TT), colon (in the ST and the TT), hyphen (in the ST and the TT), dash (in the ST), parenthesis (in the ST), word per sentence (in the TT), and word per paragraph (in the ST and the TT). So, for these variables the statistics were not significant. This means that the distributions were normal. For variables dash (in the TT), parenthesis (in the TT) and word per sentence (in the ST) the statistics were significant (Sig.<0.05), so these variables deviated from normal distribution.

E. Analysis of Results of Paired T-tests

The paired t-test was conducted for those variables with normal distributions including commas, full stop, semicolon, colon, hyphen, and word per paragraph. Data considered to be paired (i.e. any English data collected was accompanied by its Persian translation).

TABLE 4.5
PAIRED T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF PUNCTUATIONS IN THE ST AND THE TT

Variable	Statistics Source	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	Df	Sig. (p)
Comma	English (ST)	17	98.29	7.880	1.911	60.059	22.600	16	0.001
	Persian (TT)	17	38.24	7.242	1.756				
Full stop	English	17	44.65	12.145	2.946	1.647	0.376	16	0.712
	Persian	17	43.00	17.346	4.207				
Semicolon	English	17	7.71	4.552	1.104	4.941	4.080	16	0.001
	Persian	17	2.76	2.107	0.511				
Colon	English	17	2.06	1.435	0.348	-5.882	-4.991	16	0.001
	Persian	17	7.94	4.337	1.052				
Hyphen	English	17	8.35	3.757	0.911	6.471	6.885	16	0.001
	Persian	17	1.88	1.364	0.331				

Table 4.5 indicates that mean number of comma, semicolon and hyphen were more frequent in the ST than in the TT, while colon was more frequent in the TT than in the ST. The result of t-test was not significant for number of full stops (p=0.712>0.05).

TABLE 4.6
PAIRED T-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF PARAGRAPH LENGTH IN THE ST AND THE TT

Variable	Statistics Source	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	Df	Sig. (p)
Word per paragraph	English	56	94.61	88.407	11.814	-9.214	-1.356	55	0.181
	Persian	56	103.82	105.151	14.051				

The result of the test was not significant for number of words per paragraph (p=0.181>0.05).

F. Analysis of Results of Wilcoxon Test

The Wilcoxon test was conducted for variables which failed to have normal distribution including dash, parenthesis, and word per sentence. Data considered to be paired (i.e. any English data collected was accompanied by its Persian translation).

TABLE 4.7
THE WILCOXON-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF PUNCTUATIONS IN THE ST AND THE TT

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig. (p)
Dash	Negative Ranks	17[a]	9.00	153.00	-3.630	0.001
	Positive Ranks	0[b]	0.00	0.00		
	Ties	0[c]				
	Total	17				
Parenthesis	Negative Ranks	10[a]	7.70	77.00	-1.568	0.117
	Positive Ranks	4[b]	7.00	28.00		
	Ties	3[c]				
	Total	17				

a. Persian<English, b. Persian>English, c. Persian=English

Table 4.7 illustrates that the test statistics was significant for number of dashes (p=0.001<0.05), but it was not significant for number of parentheses (p=0.117>0.05).

TABLE 4.8
THE WILCOXON-TEST FOR COMPARISON OF SENTENCE LENGTH IN THE ST AND THE TT

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	Z	Sig. (p)
words per sentences	Negative Ranks	58[a]	54.84	3181.00	-0.736	0.462
	Positive Ranks	59[b]	63.08	3722.00		
	Ties	2[c]				
	Total	119				

a. Persian<English, b. Persian>English, c. Persian=English

As indicated in Table 4.8, the test statistics was not significant (p=0.462>0.05). Therefore, the number of words per sentence was not significantly different in the ST and the TT.

V. DISCUSSION

In this part, each research question and its relevant findings will be discussed:

The first research question of the study was, "Are there any significant differences in using punctuation marks between English novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translation?". To answer the this research question, punctuation marks including comma, full stop, semicolon, colon, hyphen, dash, and parenthesis in every thousand

words were counted in the ST and the TT and their frequency was registered (See Appendix A). Then, the mean number of each punctuation mark was calculated both in the ST and in the TT. As indicated in Table 4.1, the application of comma in the ST (mean= 98.29) was almost two times than in the TT (mean= 40.05), full stops in the ST (mean= 44.65) and the TT (mean= 43.53) were used equally, semicolon was used almost three times in the ST (mean=7.71) than in the TT (mean=2.58), colon was used almost four times in the TT (mean=8.11) than in the ST (mean=2.06), hyphen was used almost five times in the ST (mean= 8.35) than in the TT (mean= 1.74), dash was not used in the TT at all, while the mean number of dash in the ST was 5.47, and finally the frequency of appearance of parenthesis was almost two times in the ST (mean= 1.29) than in the TT (mean=0.53). Considering the above mentioned means, it could be inferred that comma, semicolon, hyphen, dash and parenthesis were used more frequently in the ST than in the TT while colon was used more in the TT than in the ST.

To make sure that the above mentioned differences were significant or not, a paired sample t-test was conducted for punctuation marks with normal distribution including comma, colon, semicolon, hyphen and full stop. The Wilcoxon test was also conducted for punctuation marks which failed to have normal distribution including dash and parenthesis. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run in advance to check the normality of variables' distribution (see Table 4.4). As Table 4.5 indicated, the number of commas, semicolons, colons and hyphens were significantly different between the ST and the TT ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). But the number of full stops was not significantly different between the ST and the TT ($p=0.712 > 0.05$). Thus, it was inferred that the number of full stop was statistically the same in the ST and the TT. As Table 4.7 showed, the number of dash was significantly different between the ST and the TT ($p=0.001 < 0.05$). But the number of parenthesis was not significantly different between the ST and the TT ($p=0.117 > 0.05$). Therefore, the first research hypothesis ($H_0 1$: There is no significant difference in using punctuation marks between English novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translation) was rejected in terms of comma, colon, semicolon, and dash. But it was accepted in terms of full stop and parenthesis.

The second research question of the study was, "Are TT sentences as long as ST sentences?". To answer the research question, the initial 20 sentences of each story were selected in the ST and the TT, and the number of words in each sentence was counted and registered (See Appendix B). Then, mean of sentence length in each story was calculated both in the ST and in the TT. As Table 4.2 showed, mean number of words per sentence in the ST was 34.22 and that in the TT was 36.35. Regarding mentioned mean numbers in the ST and the TT, it seems that TT sentences were as long as ST sentences. Further, a Wilcoxon test was performed. The result of test shown in Table 4.8 indicated that the test statistics was not significant ($p=0.462 > 0.05$). That means the number of words per sentences were not significantly different between the ST and the TT. In other words, TT sentences were found to be as long as ST sentences. Thus, the second research hypothesis ($H_0 2$: Target text sentences are not as long as source text sentences) was rejected.

The third research question was, "Are TT paragraphs as long as ST paragraphs?". To answer this research question, the initial 10 paragraphs of each story were selected in the ST and the TT and the number of words in each paragraph was counted and registered (See Appendix C). Then, mean of paragraph length in each story was calculated both in the ST and in the TT. As Table 4.3 illustrated, mean number of words per paragraph in the ST was 94.61 and that in the TT was 103.82. Therefore, TT paragraphs were found to be as long as ST paragraphs.

Further, a paired sample t-test was performed. The results of the t-test (Table 4.6) was not significant for the number of words per paragraph ($p=0.181 > 0.05$). That means the number of words per paragraph was not significantly different between the ST and the TT. In other words, TT paragraphs were as long as ST paragraphs. Consequently, the third research hypothesis ($H_0 3$: Target text paragraphs were not as long as source text paragraphs) was rejected.

Conclusions

The present study pursued three objectives: (1) finding possible differences in using punctuation marks between English novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translation, (2) investigating whether TT sentences were as long as ST sentences, and (3) investigating whether TT paragraphs were as long as ST paragraphs. In line with the mentioned objectives, the researcher conducted a comparative study between the stories of the first chapter of the novel '*A Tale of Two Cities*' and its Persian translations. The researcher collected necessary data, analyzed it, and discussed the obtained results.

Based on the discussion of the results, the following conclusions were drawn: (1) there were significant differences between using comma, colon, semicolon, hyphen and dash in the ST and the TT; comma, semicolon, hyphen and dash were used more frequently in the ST while colon was used more frequently in the TT, (2) there were not any significant differences between using other punctuation marks (i.e. full stop and parenthesis) in the ST and the TT, (3) TT sentences were found to be as long as ST sentences, and (4) TT paragraphs were found to be as long as ST paragraphs. Moreover, it was found that Baer and Bystrova-McIntyre's (2009) frame work (section 2.5) could be used between English and Persian Languages. Although the frame work, in the present thesis, delivered different results, it supported Baer and Bystrova-McIntyre's finding (i.e. differences in using punctuation marks between compared languages imply different grammatical and stylistic principle in those languages).

For the findings of the present study the following supportive statements on textual cohesion, were observed:

Every language has its own battery of certain cohesive devices for creating links between textual elements and there are different devices in different languages for achieving cohesive effects (Xi 2010). While every language has at its disposal a set of devices for maintaining textual cohesion, different languages have preferences for certain of these

devices and neglect certain others (James 1980). In addition to the fact that each language has general preferences for certain cohesive devices, it also has specific preferences for certain cohesive devices that are sensitive to text type (e.g. literary texts) (Xu 1996). There are specific preferences for certain cohesive devices in literary texts (Halliday & Hassan 1976). A text should be coherent with respect to itself, and therefore it is cohesive (Halliday & Hassan 1976).

To conclude, each language has its own rules of constructing cohesion; however, there are some similarities between the compared languages. When the compared languages are similar, the reconstruction of textual cohesion seems to be easier. As mentioned earlier (in section 5.2), each text should be cohesive with respect to itself; therefore, a translation considered as a text should be cohesive, too. Differences between languages are important issues in translation. Focusing on them will help translators to present a correct translation in terms of punctuation marks. Considering factors such as paragraph or sentence length in different languages will also pave the way in rendering an adequate translation.

APPENDIX A. PUNCTUATION MARKS IN EVERY THOUSAND WORDS IN THE ST AND THE TT

	Text	No of Words	Comma	Full stop	Semicolon	Colon	Hyphen	Dash	Parenthesis
1st thousand words	English (ST)	1007	94	21	12	3	9	3	1
	Persian (TT)	1010	40	25	4	3	1	0	0
2nd thousand words	English (ST)	1002	90	35	7	0	14	2	0
	Persian (TT)	1014	35	29	0	13	4	0	0
3rd thousand words	English (ST)	1017	97	63	3	1	8	2	2
	Persian (TT)	1000	29	48	3	17	4	0	1
4th thousand words	English (ST)	1011	102	28	5	0	11	4	2
	Persian (TT)	1002	45	24	6	2	2	0	0
5th thousand words	English (ST)	1024	101	47	4	3	10	7	1
	Persian (TT)	1002	25	31	2	9	2	0	1
6th thousand words	English (ST)	1013	94	50	2	3	6	2	0
	Persian (TT)	1004	49	45	3	1	0	0	1
7th thousand words	English (ST)	1004	102	46	6	1	7	11	2
	Persian (TT)	1007	36	37	0	6	1	0	0
8th thousand words	English (ST)	1027	82	48	14	2	8	17	3
	Persian (TT)	1041	43	95	3	6	4	0	0
9th thousand words	English (ST)	1021	104	45	11	4	6	5	5
	Persian (TT)	1011	42	57	4	4	3	0	1
10th thousand words	English (ST)	1013	100	26	19	0	15	3	0
	Persian (TT)	1005	49	46	1	9	0	0	1
11th thousand words	English (ST)	1032	106	39	9	3	11	4	2
	Persian (TT)	1003	27	24	0	5	2	0	0
12th thousand words	English (ST)	1008	103	54	5	0	7	4	0
	Persian (TT)	1034	46	31	5	10	1	0	2
13th thousand words	English (ST)	1012	104	61	6	3	11	6	0
	Persian (TT)	1025	37	44	1	14	2	0	0
14th thousand words	English (ST)	1037	85	56	6	4	8	1	2
	Persian (TT)	999	31	43	1	10	3	0	1
15th thousand words	English (ST)	1027	91	52	7	3	2	2	1
	Persian (TT)	1002	40	45	4	10	2	0	0
16th thousand words	English (ST)	1000	105	36	3	2	0	11	0
	Persian (TT)	997	37	60	3	9	1	0	2
17th thousand words	English (ST)	1128	111	52	12	3	9	9	1
	Persian (TT)	999	39	47	7	7	0	0	0
18th thousand words	English (ST)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Persian (TT)	1004	63	43	0	6	1	0	0
19th thousand words	English (ST)	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–
	Persian (TT)	1364	48	53	2	13	0	0	0

APPENDIX B. NUMBER OF WORDS IN SENTENCE IN THE ST AND THE TT

	Text	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4	Story 5	Story 6
Number of words in sentence 1	English (ST)	118	26	22	28	13	17
	Persian (TT)	6	39	20	57	10	20
Number of words in sentence 2	English (ST)	40	17	72	25	40	19
	Persian (TT)	6	137	86	32	37	10
Number of words in sentence 3	English (ST)	27	79	23	25	21	18
	Persian (TT)	7	48	11	77	21	20
Number of words in sentence 4	English (ST)	13	45	30	24	46	9
	Persian (TT)	6	62	58	9	71	11
Number of words in sentence 5	English (ST)	13	30	23	31	35	20
	Persian (TT)	7	26	85	14	51	60
Number of words in sentence 6	English (ST)	37	44	29	16	88	13
	Persian (TT)	62	29	93	13	28	67
Number of words in sentence 7	English (ST)	35	19	34	6	51	15
	Persian (TT)	45	33	50	8	101	4
Number of words in sentence 8	English (ST)	51	27	53	6	24	30
	Persian (TT)	6	45	42	5	10	11
Number of words in sentence 9	English (ST)	30	32	36	9	10	13
	Persian (TT)	16	16	36	17	42	10
Number of words in sentence 10	English (ST)	68	43	46	6	48	37
	Persian (TT)	13	16	37	7	23	35
Number of words in sentence 11	English (ST)	55	17	30	8	31	45
	Persian (TT)	38	30	13	14	22	13
Number of words in sentence 12	English (ST)	58	14	32	4	97	21
	Persian (TT)	37	52	20	64	13	17
Number of words in sentence 13	English (ST)	42	46	13	62	26	36
	Persian (TT)	44	68	89	75	44	23
Number of words in sentence 14	English (ST)	16	28	6	67	17	9
	Persian (TT)	28	66	22	15	37	14
Number of words in sentence 15	English (ST)	222	33	23	13	40	16
	Persian (TT)	71	36	22	29	52	32
Number of words in sentence 16	English (ST)	81	71	28	34	52	24
	Persian (TT)	57	5	117	51	47	10
Number of words in sentence 17	English (ST)	25	64	44	41	27	17
	Persian (TT)	94	67	42	47	18	8
Number of words in sentence 18	English (ST)	41	4	68	36	50	18
	Persian (TT)	31	41	59	27	59	8
Number of words in sentence 19	English (ST)	33	4	14	43	53	39
	Persian (TT)	60	42	56	42	24	19
Number of words in sentence 20	English (ST)	_	5	18	41	46	19
	Persian (TT)	40	9	67	46	24	21

APPENDIX C. NUMBER OF WORDS IN PARAGRAPH IN THE ST AND THE TT

	Text	Story 1	Story 2	Story 3	Story 4	Story 5	Story 6
Number of words in paragraph 1	English (ST)	118	167	278	53	53	17
	Persian (TT)	93	179	303	55	47	16
Number of words in paragraph 2	English (ST)	66	93	87	80	241	22
	Persian (TT)	45	139	93	111	326	1
Number of words in paragraph 3	English (ST)	148	101	144	9	210	2
	Persian (TT)	154	108	165	10	239	19
Number of words in paragraph 4	English (ST)	253	209	42	27	135	8
	Persian (TT)	251	250	16	29	138	1
Number of words in paragraph 5	English (ST)	318	64	95	16	27	37
	Persian (TT)	318	38	25	13	24	6
Number of words in paragraph 6	English (ST)	99	31	82	45	292	137
	Persian (TT)	111	4	108	55	351	13
Number of words in paragraph 7	English (ST)	_	4	38	129	325	45
	Persian (TT)	_	3	85	139	405	5
Number of words in paragraph 8	English (ST)	_	7	183	47	85	27
	Persian (TT)	_	5	44	44	87	20
Number of words in paragraph 9	English (ST)	_	5	57	251	65	36
	Persian (TT)	_	150	220	296	71	168
Number of words in paragraph 10	English (ST)	_	19	107	38	20	4
	Persian (TT)	_	35	56	43	20	64

R<small>EFERENCES</small>

[1]   Baer, B. J., & Mc-Intyre, T. (2009). Assessing cohesion: Developing assessment tools on the basis of comparable corpora. In C.V. Angelelli & H. E. Jacobson (Eds.), *Testing and assessment in translation and interpreting studies* (pp. 159-183). Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
[2]   Baker, M. (1992). In other words. NY: Rutledge.
[3]   Beaugrande, R., & Dressler, W. U. (1981). Introduction to Text Linguistics. London: Longman.
[4]   Bern árdez, E. (1982). Introducci ón a la Ling ü ística del Texto. Madrid: Espasa-Calpe.
[5]   Brown, G., & Yule, G. (1989). Discourse Analysis. Cambridge: CUP.
[6]   Callow, K. (1974). Discourse Considerations in Translating the Word of God. Michigan: Zondervan.
[7]   Dickens. Ch. (1985). A Tale of Two Cities. Philadephia: T.B. Peterson and Brothers.
[8]   Halliday, M. A. K., & Hassan, R. (1976). Cohesion in English. London: Longman.
[9]   Hyland, K. (2005). Metadiscourse: Exploring Interaction in Writing. London: Continuum.
[10] Ishenko, M. (1998). Translating punctuation marks: punctuating and formatting issues in English-Russian translation. *Proceedings of the 39th Annual Conference of the American Translators Association*, pp. 155–174. Retrieved December 26, 2013, from https://linguistlist.org/issues.
[11] James, C. (1980). Contrastive Analysis. London: Longman.
[12] Johnstone, B. (2008). Discourse Analysis. (2nd ed.). UK: Blackwell Publishing.
[13] Kachroo, B. (1980).Textual cohesion and translation. Retrieved December 28, 2013, from http:// jaits.sakura.ne.jp.
[14] Kirkman, J. (2006). Punctuation Matters: Advice on Punctuation for Scientific and Technical Writing (4th ed.). NY: Routledge.
[15] Le, E. (2004). The role of paragraphs in the construction of coherence – text linguistics and translation studies. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 42,* 259–275. Retrieved January 4, 2014, from http:// eric.ed.gov.
[16] Lotfipur Saedi, K. (2001). Lexical cohesion and translation equivalence. Retrieved June, 28, 2014, from http:// www.neiu.edu/~circill/.../lexical.
[17] Mohamadifar, M. (2002). Punctuation Guide. Tehran: Diba.
[18] Morris, J., & Hirst, G. (1991). Lexical cohesion computed by Thesaural relations as an indicator of the structure of text. *The Journal of Computational Linguistics, 17,* 21-48. Retrieved June 17, 2014, from http:// dl.acm.org/citation.cfm.
[19] Neubert, A., & Shreve, G. M. (1992). Translation as Text. Kent: Kent State University.
[20] Newmark, P. (1987). The Use of Systemic Linguistics in Translation Analysis and Criticism. Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
[21] Newmark, P. (1988). A Textbook of Translation. London: Prentice Hall.
[22] Øver ås, L. (1998). In search of the third code: an investigation of norms in literary translation. *Meta, 43*, 571-88. Retrieved July 6, 2014, from http:// nelson.cen.umontreal.ca.
[23] Querol, M. (2009). Substitution as a device of grammatical cohesion in English narratives and its translation into Spanish**.** *Jornades de Foment de la Investigaci á* Retrieved January 5, 2014, from http:// www.uji.es.
[24] Quirk, R., Greenbaum, S., Leech. G., & Svartvik, J. (1985). A Comprehensive Grammar of the English Language. London: Longman.
[25] Rahimi, A., & Ebrahimi, N.A. (2012). Lexical cohesion in English and Persian texts of novels. *Mediterranean Journal of Social Sciences,3*. Retrieved January 3, 2014, from http:// www.mcser.org.
[26] Richards, J. C., Platt, J., & Platt, H. (1992). Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics. London: Longman.
[27] Schwartz, M. (2006). Marks of Punctuation as False Grammatical Cognates. In B. J. Baer (Ed.), *Translating Russia: From Theory to Practice* (pp. 93–102). NY: Routeledge.
[28] Seddigh, F., Shokrpour, N., & Kafipour, R. (2010). Lexical cohesion in English and Persian abstracts. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies,2.* Retrieved January 6, 2014, from http:// journals.usb.ac.ir/IJALS/en-us/Articles/Article_408.
[29] Singh, R. (1979). Contrastive Textual Cohesion. Montreal: University de Montreal Publications.
[30] Tarnyikova, J. (2009). From Text to Texture. Olomouc: FF UP.
[31] Unesi, I. (1998). Da'asta'an-e Dou Sha'hr (Ch. Dickens, Trans.). Tehran: Negah Publications. (Original work published 1985)
[32] Widdowson, H. G. (2007). Discourse Analysis. Oxford: OUP.
[33] Wyrick, J. (2008). Steps to Writing Well (10th ed., Vol. 2). US: Thomson Wadsworth.
[34] Xu, Y. C. (1996). A contrastive analysis of major cohesive devices in English and Chinese. *Shandong Foreign Language Teaching Journal*, *4*, 1-6. Retrieved August 8, 2014, from http:// www. uri.edu/iaics.
[35] Yahaghi, M. J., & Naseh, M. M. (1996). A Guide to Writing and Editing. Mashhad: Astan Ghods Press.

Zahra Sojudifar was born in Bandar Abbass on 20 September 1984 and raised in Shiraz. She graduated from Bachelor Degree in English translation from Abadeh Azad University, Fars State,Iran on 2007 and then did an M.A on translation studies in Fars Research and Science Branch, Islamic Azad University, Fars State, Iran.

Azadeh Nemati is an Assistant Professor in Iran, majoring in ELT. She is the editor in chief of some international journals and has already published + 10 books and + 30 articles nationally and internationally. She has presented in many international conferences and also supervised some MA theses. In 2010, 2012 and 2014 she was selected as distinguished researcher in the University.

Mohammad Reza Falahati Qadimi Fumani is an Assistant Professor of Computational Linguistics. He currently works at the Department of Computational Linguistics at RICeST (www.ricest.ac.ir). He also teaches at different governmental and non-

governmental universities in Iran and acts as supervisor of M.A. theses on translation, linguistics and language teaching studies. He is also a researcher and has already published more than 30 articles, 10 books and has completed more than 10 research projects and has already held a number of workshop series for students of the aforementioned fields. His research hobbies are translation, linguistics, computational linguistics, language teaching and NLP (Natural language Processing).

Racial and Sexual Politics of *Their Eyes are Watching God* from a Spatial Perspective

Lihua Zhao

College of Foreign Languages, China West Normal University, Nanchong, China

Abstract—**Critics hold quite controversial ideas concerning the racial politics and sexual politics of Hurston's** ***Their Eyes are Watching God.*** **Through analyzing Janie's stubborn ignorance of the inevitable racial spatial division, Janie's spatial movements and space images in the novel, this paper points out that Janie's black identification is ambivalent due to the damages racism does to her and her feminist consciousness very weak which shows that the systematic brainwash of patriarchy is both successful and hard to eliminate. Janie therefore becomes to be more representative and universal than those protesting heroes and heroines. The harm and control that racism and patriarchy make to African-Americans and women are exposed from a different angle, exposing the racial and sexual politics of the novel.**

Index Terms—**racial politics, sexual politics, space, Their Eyes are Watching God, Zora Neale Hurston**

I. INTRODUCTION

African American/women literature and literary criticism have been developing rapidly with the trend of multiculturalism beginning from the second half of the 20th century. Many of the neglected African American/women writers have been rediscovered and their works included into the canon(s). Among them is Zora Neale Hurston. The noted African American literature critic Henry Louis Gates Jr. (1984) claims that "Zora Neale Hurston is the first writer that our generation of black and feminist critics has brought into the canon, or perhaps I should say the cannons." (p.37)Naturally, Hurston's most important work, *Their Eyes are Watching God,* has become to be one important research hotspot and its criticism presents two features: for one thing, critics are interested in multiple research focuses of the novel: the black folklore, the mythic pattern, the black vernacular of the characters, the relation between the narrative framework and the theme, the racial politics and sexual politics etc. "The curious aspect of the widespread critical attention being shown to Hurston's texts is that so many critics embracing such a diversity of theoretical approaches seem to find something new at which to marvel in her texts." (Gates, 1984, p.37) Hurston's accurate representation of the pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar of the black vernacular has been highly praised and Gates even calls the text "speakerly text", "a text whose rhetorical strategy is designed to represent an oral literary tradition … designed to emulate the phonetic, grammatical, and lexical patterns of actual speech and produce the illusion of oral narration." (Gates, 1984, p.38)Hurston shows her marvelous language skills by transferring the auditory into the visual.

The second feature of the criticism of the novel is the controversy over its racial politics and sexual politics. Many critics find it lack of racial politics, among them is the leading figure of the Harlem Renaissance Richard Wright (1937) who denounces that "the sensory sweep of her novel carries no theme, no message, no thought……" (p.25) However, "Internalized Racism and the Construction of Subjectivity: Trauma of African Americans under Racism as Reflected in *Their Eyes Were Watching God*" holds that a racial political sub-text is hidden in the internalized racism of its characters. The paper analyzes the internalized racism of the characters to show the racial politics of the novel. But it does not study the major character Janie's racial consciousness except claiming its ambivalence. This paper will focus on Janie only and to find out where her racial identification lies.

The sexual politics of the novel is also very controversial. Critics like Harold Bloom and Barbara Johnson etc. acclaim the feminist image of the heroine Janie. The former even groups Janie into the women literature tradition with Samuel Richardson and Doris Lessing. Barbara Johnson (1984) believes that Janie's self-split at the end of the novel means that she "develops an increasing ability to speak." (p.214) On the other hand, Mary Helen Washington (2009) holds that Hurston has not created a really liberated female voice and the writer continues to subvert Janie's voice even after her self-split. She thinks "that Hurston continues to subvert Janie's voice, that in crucial places where we need to hear her speak she is curiously silent, that even when Hurston sets out to explore Janie's internal consciousness, her internal speech, what we actually hear are the voices of men." (p.35) Joseph Urgo claims that Hurston equates submission to Tea Cake with Janie's liberation. He thinks all three of Janie's husbands want to control and possess Janie, including the third husband Tea Cake who treats Janie equally in the eyes of many critics. Todd Mcgowan even suggests that Tea Cake's manipulation of Janie is the strongest among the three husbands due to its imperceptibility.

It is natural that a thousand readers can see a thousand Hamlets, but so sharp a contrast of the views on one work is rare to be seen. We may wonder: How does racism affect Janie? Is Janie a traditional woman or a feminist? How does Hurston, a female African American writer in the United States, treat the inevitable issues of sex and race in her novel? From a new perspective, the spatial perspective, this paper tends to find out Hurston's racial and sexual positions in

Their Eyes Were Watching God.

Our civilization classifies human beings into races, classes and sexes and hierarchies are attached thereof based on ideologies like racism, classism and patriarchy constructed by dominant groups in the society. Materialization of these classifications and hierarchies can only be realized through the medium of space and in the space. "Race, like gender and sexuality, is a geographical project. Race is constructed in and through space, just as space is often constructed through race." (Mitchell, 2000, p.230) Space, on the other hand, represents social constructions. Space is "a materialization of 'social being'" (Lefebvre, 1991, p.102) To establish the authority of its ideology and to ascertain its power and privilege, the dominant group must separate and mark the space as either superior or inferior, privileged or controlled. Hence, the key issue of racism and sexism is to establish racial spatial order and sexual spatial order. Racial segregation, the duality of noble white space and humble black space, outdoor space of the males and indoor space of the females, all these contribute to construct dualities of the subject and the Other. Space therefore is branded social features of race and sex. White/black spatial dualities and male/female spatial dualities are therefore the dominant spatial principles in racist and patriarchal societies.

II. RACIAL POLITICS

The story sets in 1920s and 1930s in American South where its racial spatial construction principle should be white/black dual opposition due to the segregation system at that time. Based on racism ideologies, Jim Crow laws divided the social space into white/black binary oppositions: big houses against backyards, main houses against the sheds and frond doors against back doors. Besides, schools, trains, hotels, buses, churches and restaurants were all segregated, establishing racial spatial order of binary opposition. Whereas in Janie's perspective, this spatial binary order is blurred or avoided. Janie's story does not mention or imply the sharp contrast between the bright and luxurious big house of the whites and the dark and shabby backyard cabin of her grandmother's, nor does she note the division or separation of the two. Although Janie grows up together with the master's children in the backyard and all the children are punished equally by the mistress or the grandmother when mischief is found, Janie and the master's children must have eaten and slept in different and contrasted places because of the strict Jim Crow laws of the American South at that time. However, Janie seems to be unaware of the separation and hierarchy at all. Even if Janie might be very lucky and her white patrons are kind and open enough to let her and her white playmates live and eat together and there is no racial spatial segregation at home, it is definitely impossible for Janie to go to school together with the white children. But the readers find that school segregation is also unspoken by both Janie and the narrator who continues to see the world from Janie's point of view after replacing Janie's storytelling voice. The novel does not mention the fact that she and her white playmates go to different schools, not to say to talk about the contrasted qualities of the buildings, teachers and other facilities between the white schools and black schools. Both Janie and the narrator pretend that school segregation does not exist and her white playmates just disappear in her story after they go to school. Which school do they go to? Why do they stop hanging out with Janie? What changes are there? What do they do? Who do they marry? How are they? No explanation of any kind is made. Janie acts like they have never existed in her life.

Both the narrator and Janie insist on blurring the racial spatial division and hierarchy all throughout the story. Told in the narrator's voice but seen from Janie's eyes, Logan's cabin seems to locate outside the social space and beyond any social spatial order: "It was a lonesome place like a stump in the middle of the woods where nobody had ever been." (Hurston, 1978, p.39)The "woods" and "where nobody had ever been" take Logan's cabin outside the racial spatial environment and locate it in a purely physical spatial environment. Lefebvre believes all human created space is social and but Janie is very stubborn in ignoring the inevitable social element in her life. No contrasted big houses of the whites and no exploitation of the whites are seen and the inevitable segregation and other racial problems are completely ignored.

There is also no racial segregation on trains and at train stations in Janie's eyes too. "The train beat on itself and danced on the shiny steel rails mile after mile. Every now and then the engineer would play on his whistle for the people in the towns he passed by. And the train shuffled on to Jacksonville, and to a whole lot of things she wanted to see and to know." (Hurston, 1978, p.174) She does not mention the inevitable "black" and "white" signs for toilets and taps and it seems that she is not required to take "black" compartment on the train. She only sees "the big old station" (Hurston, 1978, p.175), "the town", "the people", it seems that she lives and travels in a place where race is not a conscious marker of people and where there is no racial segregation.

What is more, in Jacksonville and Everglades, Janie and Teacake seem to live in a place where there are no racial difference and racial segregation as well. The hotel they stay, the restaurants they eat at and the shops they buy from seem not serve blacks exclusively and not contrast with those for the whites. It seems race and skin color and racial difference do not exist in all people's consciousness except that of Mrs. Turner who admires Janie's less dark skin color, less flat nose shape and other physical features. All the ignorance of racial spatial division, impossible in the American South during segregation period, suggests Janie might most probably be trying to avoid facing the issue. Morrison (1989) once notes: "certain absences are so stressed, so ornate, so planned, they call attention to themselves; arrest us with intentionality and purpose" (p. 11) We may wonder: what makes Janie so determined and consistent in avoiding the racial spatial separation?

We believe that going to segregated school and falling apart with her white playmates must have made her realize

that she is inferior to the whites and the trauma must have been so painful that it is unspeakable, like Sethe's unspeakable pain in *Beloved*. That is why she stops talking about her white playmates and why she ignores the racial spatial division completely. Unlike other characters who have accepted and internalized racism from early years, Janie and her white playmates are treated equally by her white mistress and her grandma. She must have taken for granted that she is white and hence can not recognize the black girl in the photo to be herself when she is six. She has been so far identifying herself as white that the later realization of being a black can not help her return to black identification.

The facts that she has never identified with the black community, has admired white characteristics and has been trying to approach whites suggest her denial of her black identity. She has never assimilated herself into the black talks and has even been outside the black female circle. Her simple and cold greeting to the black community at the beginning of the story suggests her alienation with the black community which reflects "Hurston's ambivalence toward racial and communal definitions of her identity." (Kubitschek, 1987, p.29) The only one black friend she has is Pheobe who takes care of her without condition. It is Joe's white-like bearing and wealth that attract the attention of the then married Janie. Although she does not see the sweetness she expects in Joe. "She was proud of what she saw. Kind of portly like rich white folks." (Hurston, 1978, p.56) For Janie, Joe's resemblance with the whites is so attractive that it can compensate her romantic expectation Joe can not provide. The blacks in her eyes are even hostile, especially when she is facing murder accusation. The first thing she does after the trial is to visit and thank those kind whites. "The white women cried and stood around her like a protecting wall and the Negroes, with heads hung down, shuffled out and away." (Hurston, 1978, p.280) This scene symbolizes Janie's isolation from the black community because of her clinging white identification which is like a wall preventing her from embracing her true identity. Janie's vague black identification suggests that racism is so horrible and destructive that it makes Janie a marginal stuck between two identities. Without Wright's protesting strategy, Hurston successfully creates a work of racial politics.

III. SEXUAL POLITICS

As for the sexual politics of the novel, some critics hold that Janie's entering into Teacake's circle and her storytelling suggest she has found her voice, has become independent and has established her subjectivity. But from the spatial images, Janie's spatial positions and spatial movements, we can see that her feminist consciousness is at the most ambiguous and just a sprout.

First of all, Janie's "horizon" dream, this ambiguous spatial image, implies that she does not have a clear and specific goal and path. What is more, she has been depending on man after man to realize her dream. She agrees to go with Joe since Joe "spoke for far horizon". And after Joe's death, she has the opportunity to become an independent shop owner, but she turns immediately to rely on Hezekiah, allowing him to replace and imitate Joe. "She wouldn't know what to do without him." (Hurston, 1978, p.142) Hezekiah naturally took up his role of a protector: "You poor little thing, give it to big brother. He'll fix it for you." (Hurston, 1978, p.142) She leaves her shop and her life when Teacake needs her at his working place. She works in the kitchen when Teacake needs her in the kitchen and goes to the fields when Teacake needs her in the fields. All these are considered by her to be realization of her horizon dream. "Ah done been tuh de horizon and back now Ah kin set heah in mah house and live by compasisons." (Hurston, 1978, p.284) As is noted: "Janie's quest for excitement and pleasure in the Florida Everglades does not lead to an independent, self-fulfilled womanhood. She never learns to shape her destiny by making her own choices. S. Jay Walker (p. 526), Brown (pp. 43-45), and Jenkins (p. 65) point out or, at least, acknowledged that Janie's dependence on Tea Cake for fulfillment is contradictory to modem feminism." (Jordan, 1984, p.111) Janie herself attributes her growth to Teacake. "Ah never 'spected nothin' Tea Cake but bein' dead from the standin' still and tryin' tuh laugh. But you come 'long and made somethin' outa me." (Hurston, 1978, p.247) Her so called horizon dream is neither economic independence, nor emotional independence or intellectual independence. It is only dependence on men.

Janie's dependence on men suggests her acceptance of patriarchy which is also presented in her spatial position. She has never questioned her female spatial position, kitchen and bedroom. "In terms of activity, sex role assigns domestic service and attendance upon infants to the female, the rest of human achievement, interest, and ambition to the male. The limited role allotted the female tends to arrest her at the level of biological experience. Therefore, nearly all that can be described as distinctly human rather than animal activity (in their own way animals also give birth and care for their young) is largely reserved for the male. Of course, status again follows from such an assignment." (Millett, 1970, p.26)She tells Logan her place is in the kitchen. "Youse in yo' place and Ah'm in mine." (Hurston, 1978, p.52) Facing Logan's patriarchal discourse, "You ain't got no particular place. It's wherever Ah need yuh. Git uh move on yuh, and dat quick," (Hurston, 1978, p.52) Janie emphasizes her acceptance of indoor female position in the patriarchal system: "Youse mad'cause Ah'm telllin' yuh whut you already knowed." (Hurston, 1978, p.53) She can not realize that she has the right to decide and choose her own position. She "stood still in the middle of the floor without knowing it." (Hurston, 1978, p.53) The scene is symbolic in that it suggests Janie's ignorance of her being the center of her own life.

Kitchen and bedroom are constructed as female spatial signs. With Joe, Janie continues to be content with her female position in the kitchen and bedroom from the very first day. When Joe is chatting with men outside at the porch, "Janie could be seen through the bedroom window getting settled." (Hurston, 1978, p.59) The porch and bedroom are established as hierarchical spatial duality, representing the controlling and controlled relation of men and women. The passive voice "seen" here further strengthens Janie's secondary position. "Not only are Janie and the other women

barred from participation in the ceremonies and rituals of the community, but they become the objects of the sessions on the porch, included in the men's tale-telling as the butt of their jokes, or their flattery, or their scorn. The experience of having one's body become an object to be looked at is considered so demeaning that when it happens to a man, it figuratively transform him into a woman." (Washington, 2009, p.33) What is so shocking and unbearable to Joe is accepted by Janie without any question. The fact is that she does not even notice its harm and danger to her subjectivity. When Joe forbids Janie to participate the men's porch talk, the fact that Janie is disappointed but can not tell whether it is because his attitude or the content of his words suggests that, as a woman without clear subjectivity, she can not realize the patriarchal fallacy. She can not step out her female position and go to the funeral with the town when Joe does not allow. "The carcass moved off with the town, and left Janie standing in the doorway." (Hurston, 1978, p.95) Janie, obviously lack of clear feminist consciousness, can only let her position decided by Joe. As is noted by Gates: Joe is not only the creator of Eatonville, but the creator of Janie. (Menke, 2009, p.65)

Some critics read Janie's final retort against Joe as her finding her voice. But that voice is too brief to help Janie establish her subjectivity although she "robbed him of his illusion of irresistible maleness that all men cherish" (Washington, 2009, p.34) However, "Speech does not lead Janie to power, but to self division and to further acquiescence in her status as object." (Washington, 2009, p.34) She only begins to observe herself: "one day she sat and watched the shadow of herself going about tending store and prostrating itself before Jody, while all the time she herself sat under a shady tree with the wind blowing through her hair and her clothes." (Hurston, 1978, p.119) Half of Janie's split self still succumbs to patriarchal Joe, and the other half just sits there and observes, no action of any kind. And her observation does not reach any conscious realization as well.

If Janie's throwing away her head handkerchief can be read as freedom from the patriarchal bandage, this freedom is again very brief since "she took careful stack of herself, then combed her hair and tied it back up again…..then she starched and ironed her face, forming it into just what people wanted to see."(Hurston, 1978, p.135) After the brief liberation in private, she resumes to regard herself from the perspective of the patriarchal world. She is not courageous enough to be free in public and to go down the road.

Some critics read Teacake's taking Janie out of kitchen and into the fields as Janie's escape from the female position. But what we can not ignore is that Janie's going to the fields is to satisfy Teacake's wish of being always together with her. Janie just passively follows Teacake's wishes.

The writer also does not fully develop Janie voice even when Teacake allows her to chat at the porch. The narrator neither returns the narrating power to Janie nor describes the content of Janie's talk. The reader can not hear Janie's voice here and later when she begins to recall her life, her narrating voice is soon taken over by the narrator's voice. Janie's feminist consciousness is still too vague to have the discourse power and to have herself heard.

IV. CONCLUSION

To sum up, Janie's determined and consistent ignorance of racial spatial division implies her weak black identification, the horrible damage done by racism. Her vague and brief feminist consciousness suggests the brainwash of patriarchy is so successful that it is very hard to eliminate. Hence the novel can be said to be a more successful work of racial and sexual politics than those with protesting blacks/females as heroes and heroines. No protesting does not mean no political position. Exposing is the first and also very important step. We need heroes and protests to show racial and sexual politics. We also need Uncle Tom, the submissive oppressed images to awaken more sleepers because the later is the more common reality of the subaltern.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

REFERENCES

[1]   Gates, Henry Louis Jr. (1984). Black Literature and Literary Theory. New York: Methuen.
[2]   Hurston, Zora Neale. (1978). There Eyes Were Watching God. Urbana and Chicago: University of Illinois Press.
[3]   Johnson, Barbara. (1984). Metaphor, Metonymy and Voice in Their Eyes are Watching God. *Black Literature and Literary Theory*, ed. Henry Louis Gates, Jr. New York: Methuen, 204-219.
[4]   Jordan, Jennifer. (1988). Feminist Fantasies: Zora Neale Hurston's Their Eyes Were Watching God. *Tulsa Studies in Women's Literature* 7.1, 105-117.
[5]   Kubitschek, Missy Dehn. (1987). Tuh de Horizon and Back: The Female Quest in Their Eyes are Watching God in Harold Bloom. *Zora Neale Hurston's Their Eyes are Watching God*. New York: Chelsea House Publishers, 19-33.
[6]   Lefebvre, Henri. (1991). *The Production of Space*. 1974, trans. Donald Nicholson-Smith. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Basil Blackwell.
[7]   Mcgowan, Todd. (2009). On Liberation and Domination in Harold Bloom. *Bloom's Guides to Zora Neale Hurston's Their Eyes are Watching God*. New York: Infobase publishing, 51-59.

[8]   Menke, Pamela Glenn. (2009). On Voodoo Elements in the Novel in Harold Bloom. *Bloom's Guides to Zora Neale Hurston's There Eyes Were Watching God*. New York: Infobase publishing, 61-66.
[9]   Millett, Kate. (1970). Sexual Politics. New York: Doubleday.
[10]   Mitchell, Don. (2000). Cultural Geography: A Critical Introduction. Malden, Massachusetts: Blackwell Publishers Inc.
[11]   Morrison, Toni (1989). Unspeakable Things Unspoken: The Afro-American Presence in American Literature. *Michigan Quarterly Review* 28.1, 1-34.
[12]   Urgo, Joseph. (1991). "The Tune is the Unity of the Thing": Power and Vulnerability in Zora Neale Hurston's Their Eyes are Watching God. *Southern Literary Journal*. 23.2, 40-54.
[13]   Washington, Mary Helen. (2009). Hurston's failure to Create A Genuinely Liberated Female Voice in Harold Bloom. *Bloom's Guides to Zora Neale Hurston's There Eyes Were Watching God*. New York: Infobase publishing, 33-37.
[14]   Wright, Richard. (1937, October 5). Between Laughter and Tears. *New Masses*, 22-24.
[15]   Web Transcription Tool. http://www.unz.org/Pub/NewMasses-1937oct05-00022a02 201 (accessed 1/5/2015).
[16]   Zhao, Lihua & Shi Jian. (2007, Autumn). Internalized-racism and Subjectivity Construction: the Psychological Damage of Racism and Its Consequence in African-Americans as Reflected in Their Eyes Were Watching God. *Fudan Forum of Foreign Languages and Literature*, 33-39.

Lihua Zhao was born in Sichuan, China P.R. in 1972. She received Ph. D. of Arts from Sichuan University (Chengdu, China) in 2008. She is an English professor at China West Normal University (Nanchong, China). Her research focuses on American minority literature mainly. Her selected previous publications are: Skin Duality in Morrison's *Paradise. Foreign Literature Review 104.4 (Beijing, China, 2012); Spatial Politics: A Study of Toni Morrison's Fictions* (Chendu, China: Sichuan University Press, 2011); Baby Suggs' Decolonized Spatial Practice in *Beloved,* co-authored with Jian Shi. *Contemporary Foreign Literature* 113.3 (Nanjing, China, 2008). She is currently working on the spatial politics, spatial memory and spatial reconstruction of thirty American minority fictions.

A Comparison of Teacher Cognition and Corrective Feedback between University Graduates and Teachers Certified in English Language Teaching

Manoochehr Jafarigohar
Payame Noor University of Tehran, Iran

Saeed Kheiri
Payame Noor University of Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This study attempted to investigate teachers certified in English language teaching (referred to as TCELTs hereafter) and university graduates' teacher cognition in respect to error correction strategies they applied in classroom which would offer an insightful analysis of teachers' pedagogical knowledge and how and why university graduates and TCELTs deal with the students' spoken errors in certain ways. A questionnaire, containing twenty ill-formed sentences along with the feedback, was developed to unearth university graduates and TCELTs' teacher cognition in relation to their corrective feedback strategies. A sound recorder was also utilized to record the proceedings of the class to be analyzed as the indication of their practice. The findings suggested that the university graduates and TCELTs held similar views regarding their stated beliefs towards different types of error correction strategies, whereas, university graduates had higher stated beliefs toward the corrective feedback and made more correction of their students' ill-formed sentences. Furthermore, the study indicated that both the TCELTs and university graduates had opposite perspectives concerning their beliefs vis-a-vis practices of error correction strategies. In addition, the study demonstrated that the TCELTs tended to make the corrections implicitly, whereas, university graduates were more willing to correct students' ill-formed sentences explicitly. Finally, this study suggests some pedagogical implications that teachers could follow to bridge the gulf between their stated beliefs and practices.

Index Terms—teacher cognition, corrective feedback, pedagogical knowledge, educational background, University graduates, teachers certified in English language teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The study of teacher cognition - what teachers think, know, and believe - and of its relationship to teachers' classroom practices has become a key theme in the field of language teaching and teacher education (Borg, 2006).There is a general consensus among educational and language teaching scholars that what teachers do in the classroom is mirrored by what they believe and their beliefs often operate as a filter through which instructional judgments and decisions are made (Farrel & Lim, 2005).Therefore, classroom practice and teacher cognition exist in a symbiotic relationship (Foss & Kleinnsasser, 1996).Research into the relationship between beliefs and classroom practices has revealed consistencies (e.g., She, 2000) and inconsistencies (e.g., Borko & Niles, 1982; Karavas-Doukas, 1996) between stated beliefs and practices. Farrokhi (2006) reported a case study of five teachers investigating the relationship between their stated beliefs and classroom practices to explore the actual effectiveness of error correction and the conditions under which such corrections may function effectively. His data showed some mismatches between the teachers' stated beliefs and their classroom practices. The reasons for such mismatches would seem to be highly complex (Phips, 2010; Phips & Borg, 2009). However, he did not probe the reasons why such mismatches exist. Obviously, little empirical investigation has focused on the rationale behind such an intricacy. The incongruence can be considered from various perspectives such as teachers' personality, contextual factors, and cultural factors. To explain the complexity, all the relevant, influential and practical factors in language teaching which a teacher is supposed to know should be taken into account to assess the reasons for such practices.

One of the factors that may mold teachers' beliefs and practices is their educational background which can help them acquire knowledge on the subject they are going to teach after graduation. In addition to teachers' subject matter (content) knowledge, their general knowledge of instructional methods (pedagogical knowledge), and pedagogical content knowledge were suggested as a significant component of teaching expertise (Lee Shulman, 1987). To put it simply, a teacher should not only have a good command of what he or she is supposed to teach in the class but also have knowledge about the act of teaching and strategies a language instructor is expected to know. Teachers' pedagogical knowledge is based on the assumption that what teachers do in the classroom has its origins in thoughts or mental acts,

which have been shaped by attitudes, values, knowledge, and beliefs gathered through years of being a student and being a teacher (Borg, 1999, 2003; Calderhead,1996; Clark & Peterson, 1986; Gabonton, 2000). It is reasonable to expect that teachers' behaviors and practices in the class can be shaped due to their education as a student and what they have learned during this period of time may be mirrored in their teaching practices to an extent which can instruct them how to make on-the-spot decisions based on pedagogical and content knowledge they have developed during their education. Although some studies have been done to explore the development of course subjects teachers' pedagogical knowledge (eg. Lannin et al. 2013; Prescott, Bausch, and Bruder, 2007), little empirical study has been done to delve into that of English teachers' as practitioners of English teaching in EFL classes who are supposed to have gained a relative command of what they are going to teach due to a course they have done on teaching methodology and the mere fact that attending such a course creates expectations that teachers would acquire some pedagogical knowledge to apply in their classes.

One of the key issues in language teaching, which English teachers learn through their education and is likely to shape their practice, is the strategies applied in error correction. There have been a range of approaches to error correction in language teaching and learning from among which four strategies are coded in this study: (a) recast, (b) repetition, (c) metalinguistic feedback and, (d) explicit correction (as cited in Ellis, 2012, pp. 227-228). These error correction strategies are described and exemplified as below:

*Recast***:** It is an utterance that rephrases the learner's utterance by changing one or more components (subject, verb, object) while still referring to its central meaning. *Example:* Learner: I lost my road. Teacher: I see, you lost your way and then what happened?

*Repetition***:** It is an utterance that repeats the learner's erroneous utterance highlighting the error. *Example:*
Learner: The book was bored. Teacher: The book was ***bored?***

Metalinguistic feedback: It is an utterance provides comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance. *Example:*
Learner: I am here since yesterday. Teacher: Well, ok but remember we talked about the present perfect tense.

*Explicit correction***:** It is an utterance that provides the learner with the correct form while at the same time indicating an error was committed. *Example:*
Learner: we don't have *many* homework. Teacher: homework is an uncountable noun so you should say "much" instead of "many".

To shed light on the relationship between what teachers have learned at the time of being a student which can influence teacher cognition in respect to their practices, this study is going to examine how two kinds of teachers with different educational and pedagogical backgrounds correct their students' errors. Based on the education received, there are two kinds of English teachers practicing English at private schools, namely university graduates who have academic credentials, and teachers certified in English language teaching who hold English language teaching certificates and are qualified to teach English at private institutes.

The purpose of this paper is to investigate TCELTs and university graduates' teacher cognition in respectto error correction strategies they apply in classroom which may offer an insight into how these two types of educational back grounds may shape their instructional practices and how university graduates' stated beliefs differ from those of TCELTs' in terms of error correction.

The following research questions were used to frame the present investigation:
1) Do university graduates' corrective feedback strategies mirror their stated beliefs?
2) Do TCELTs' corrective feedback strategies reflect their stated beliefs?
3) In what aspects university graduates and TCELTs tend to differ or be similar?

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants were comprised of one hundred teachers at some English institutes in Alborzand Tehran provinces. Based on their educational backgrounds, the teachers were divided into two categories: (a) teachers who had obtained their qualifications from a university both BA and MA graduates without attending any English courses at institutes (b)instructors holding English language teaching certificates which had been trained to teach English. Out of 100 selected teachers, 52 were university graduates and 48 TCELTs. Three classes of each teacher were selected where the number of students in each class ranged from eight to fifteen. To preserve anonymity, numbers were assigned to teachers. The classes were selected from elementary and pre-intermediate levels. The reason for such selection of classes regarding their levels was that in elementary and pre-intermediate levels, the fluency and speed of students' speech are in a way that the teachers would be able to stop and correct the students so that such interruptions do not impede communication. By contrast, in advanced classes both fluency and speed of students' outputs make the correction unwieldy and this fact suggests that the instructors may ignore some mistakes for the sake of fluency and communication process. Teachers were of both sexes having teaching experience of two to fifteen years. After the observation of the classes, teachers were interviewed to ask them why they had applied such correction strategies in their classes.

Instruments

A questionnaire, containing twenty ill-formed sentences as well as feedback, was developed to trace university graduates and TCELTs' teacher cognition in respect to their corrective feedback strategies. This questionnaire was submitted to teachers two weeks prior to their class observation. The participants were asked to choose one of the five response options: 1=*strongly agree*, 2=*agree*, 3=somewhat agree, 4=disa*gree*, and 5=*strongly disagree*. A sound recorder was also utilized to record the teachers' class as the data. This procedure was conducted in three successive sessions and one of them was randomly chosen for transcription and analysis. This is done to lessen the impact of the contents of the questionnaire on their practice.

III. RESULTS

In order to address the first research question, concerning the relationship between the university graduates' corrective feedback strategies and their stated beliefs, the Kendal correlation coefficients was employed. The results showed that there was a negative and significant relationship between the university graduates' teacher cognition with regard to recast, repetition, metalinguistic feedback, and explicit correction strategy vis-a-vis their practice.

TABLE 1.
KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS; UNIVERSITY GRADUATES' STATED BELIEFS AND PRACTICE

		Recast Practice	Repetition Practice	Metalinguistic Practice	Explicit Practice
Recast Stated Belief	Correlation	-.467**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000			
	N	52			
Repetition Stated Belief	Correlation		-.336**		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.004		
	N		52		
Metalinguistic Stated Belief	Correlation			-.449**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	
	N			52	
Explicit Stated Belief	Correlation				-.379**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.001
	N				52

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To examine the second research question, regarding the relationship between TCELTs' teacher cognition and their corrective feedback strategies, the Kendal correlation coefficients was run which showed that there was a negative and significant relationship between the TCELTs' stated beliefs about recast, repetition, and explicit correction strategy in respect to their practice. However, there was a negative and non-significant relationship between TCELTs' stated beliefs towards metalinguistic feedback strategy and its practice.

TABLE 2.
KENDALL CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS; TCELTs' STATED BELIEFS AND PRACTICE

		Recast Practice	Repetition Practice	Metalinguistic Practice	Explicit Practice
Recast Stated Belief	Correlation	-.401**			
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001			
	N	48			
Repetition Stated Belief	Correlation		-.272*		
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.025		
	N		48		
Metalinguistic Stated Belief	Correlation			-.422**	
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.000	
	N			48	
Explicit Stated Belief	Correlation				-.577**
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.000
	N				48

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

To investigate the third question of the present study, eight separate analyses of chi-square were run to compare the university graduates' and TCELTs' stated beliefs and practices towards corrective feedback strategies, that is to say, the research question was divided into eight minor categories. Four analyses of chi-square were run to compare university graduates' and TCELTs' stated beliefs towards recast, repetition, metalinguistic and explicit strategy of error correction. The results of the analyses indicated that the university graduates held a higher stated belief towards the aforementioned strategies of error correction than TCELTs.

TABLE 3.
OBSERVED, EXPECTED AND RESIDUAL VALUES; STATED BELIEF TOWARDS GROUPS

		Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Recast	TCELTs	83	92.2	-9.2
	University graduates	109	99.8	9.2
	Total	192		
Repetition	TCELTs	98	116.6	-18.6
	University graduates	145	126.4	18.6
	Total	243		
Metalinguistic	TCELTs	143	162.2	-16.2
	University graduates	192	175.8	16.2
	Total	338		
Explicit	TCELTs	149	179.0	-30.0
	University graduates	224	194.0	30.0
	Total	373		

Four analyses of chi-square were also run to compare the university graduates and TCELTs' practices of recast, repetition, metalinguistic and explicit strategy of error correction. Based on the results, the TCELTs made more use of the recast and repetition strategies than the university graduates, while university-graduated teachers made more use of the metalinguistic and explicit strategies of error correction than the TCELTs.

TABLE 4.
OBSERVED, EXPECTED AND RESIDUAL VALUES; PRACTICES OF STRATEGIES BY GROUPS

		Observed N	Expected N	Residual
Recast	TCELTs	320	273.6	46.4
	University graduates	250	296.4	-46.4
	Total	570		
Repetition	TCELTs	132	118.1	13.9
	University graduates	114	127.9	-13.9
	Total	246		
Metalinguistic	TCELTs	164	191.5	-27.5
	University graduates	235	207.5	27.5
	Total	399		
Explicit	TCELTs	277	349.0	-72.0
	University graduates	450	378.0	72.0
	Total	727		

IV. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The findings of the present study suggested that both the university graduates and the TCELTs held opposite views concerning their beliefs in relation to practices of error correction strategies. It can be concluded that both the university graduates and the TCELTs have little know-how of the techniques applied in the class in general and error correction strategies in particular, that is to say, most of the strategies applied in their classes are contrary to their beliefs. Thus, they have failed to obtain in-depth practical knowledge of applying classroom strategies which are claimed to be laid with regard to error correction. The research also proposed that the university graduates held a more positive view towards different types of error correction strategies than the TCELTs. Therefore, university graduates tended to be more meticulous about students' errors due in part to their academic study which emphasizes upon correcting errors to avoid fossilization. The discrepancy suggested that the university graduates were stricter on the mistakes and tended to not tolerate the errors but the TCELTs were less sensitive to the ill-formed sentences probably at a cost of communication flow and so they preferred to ignore some of their students' errors. Implementing different error correction strategies by these two kinds of teachers can be a good indicator of their educational backgrounds which have shaped their practices.

The TCELTs made more positive use of implicit corrections, whereas, university graduates tended to correct their students' ill-formed sentences explicitly. Although there is no general agreement on the efficacy and appropriateness of either of the error correction strategies, the implicit corrections can be less intrusive and possibly can cause less embarrassment in learners. As most of teachers experience explicit error corrections during their school time, it can be inferred that language teaching certificate courses have changed the trainees' practice to a certain extent. However, university graduates showed a marked preference to give feedback to the ill-formed sentences based on traditional strategies, namely, metalinguistic feedback and explicit correction. Showing such a strong tendency can mean to imply that college courses are not strong and practical enough to modify prospective teachers' behaviors. Therefore, university courses need to be re-designed to enable potential teachers to gain practical experience and also teaching practice should be held practically.

Interviews with the teachers conducted after their classes revealed that some of the on-the-spot decisions made by teachers were made intuitively with no rationale behind and some were due to some situational constraints such as time

pressure, the instructors' viewpoint on speech flow, and external factors like mental and physical fatigue. Also, Some teachers claimed that they responded to the errors based on their students' preferences.

The mismatches found in the study could be an indicator of a fact that the teachers could not implement what they believed is right when dealing with errors. To narrow the existing gap between teachers' stated beliefs and their performances, one effective way is to coordinate workshops handled by experienced teachers in a pure practical way as well as regular class observations to monitor the behavior modifications which occurred after taking such courses and therefore to reduce such inconsistencies between their beliefs and practices. In a nutshell, if teachers are actively and practically involved in a task, they are more likely to get the most effective spontaneous decisions and this way, they will be able to reach practical maturity and quick decision-making strategies which help them deal with particular situations happening in their classrooms.

The findings of this study are restricted to a comparison between the stated beliefs and practices of university graduates and TCELTs in respect to their students' spoken errors. Future studies can be conducted to explore the discrepancies between university graduates and TCELTs in respect to their mastery of skills and how their skills can be honed. Also, the effects of years of experience in teaching, and sex in teachers with different educational backgrounds can be a subject area of research.

APPENDIX. QUESTIONNAIRE

Brief Teaching Experience: …………………………………………………………………………...………
Academic or Institutional Affiliated Degrees:……………………………………………….……..
Gender:………………

| **Please tick your favorite option and provide reasons for the following corrections.** |

1. ST: I get to Shiraz last year in year.
   T: Ok, well, you got there in New Year.
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

2. ST: It is our contributions that we will hopefully build up its greatness.
   T: Ok by our contribution we can make it perfect, what else?
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

3. ST: Next year this time, I will have studied at university.
   T: Congratulations, next year this time, you'll be studying at university.
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

4. ST: He is a rich man. He has lots of moneys.
   T: Yes, he drives a Lamborghini and he has lots of money.
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………..

5. ST: I wrote my homework last night.
   T: Good job, you did your homework last night.
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

6. T: What sports do you like?
   ST: I love Karate. I play Karate on odd days.
   T: You **play Karate**?So you're an athlete.
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

7. T: What are you going to do next week?
   ST: In the next week, I'm going to play soccer.
   T: You are going to play soccer **in the** next week?
   I strongly agree ⬤   I agree ⬤   No comment ⬤   I disagree ⬤   I strongly disagree ⬤
   Justify your reasons:
   ………

8. T: What does Ali look like?
   ST: He is tall and he has a short hair.
   T: A short hair?
   I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
   Justify your reasons:
   ....

9. ST: I like to buy a big home in the future.
   T: Buy a **big home**?
   I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
   Justify your reasons:
   ....

10. ST: The rest room was full.
    T: The rest room was **full**?
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

11. ST: I am agree with you.
    T: "Agree' is a verb so it is not correct to use "am" before it.
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

12. ST: I watched that film and it was so bored.
    T: Did you forget that we talked about the present participles.
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

13. ST: I will finish university by two years.
    T: Remember we talked about the future perfect.
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

14. ST: Since I joined the yoga gym I am more happier.
    T: Do you remember something about comparatives?
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

15. ST: I try to speak clear.
    T: At the beginning of the class we reviewed the adverbs, remember?
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

16. ST: The nurse got my temperature.
    T: Be careful, the collocation for your phrase is "took my temperature".
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

17. ST: I am interested to literature.
    T: The preposition used for interested is "in".
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

18. ST: There were a few bread left.
    T: You must say a little bread, because bread is an uncountable noun.
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:
    ....

19. ST: I always practice English, so it has been developed recently.
    T: For a positive change concerning language learning, you must say improved.
    I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●
    Justify your reasons:

……

20. ST: It depends to many different factors.

T: You know the word "depend" is collocated with "on".

I strongly agree ●   I agree ●   No comment ●   I disagree ●   I strongly disagree ●

Justify your reasons:

……..

REFERENCES

[1] Borg, S. (2006).Teacher cognition and language education: research and practice. London: Continuum.
[2] Borko, H. & Niles, J. (1982). Factors contributing to teachers' judgments about students and decisions about grouping students for reading instruction. *Journal of Reading Behavior, 14*, 127-136.
[3] Calderhead, J., (1996). Teachers; beliefs and knowledge. In: Berliner, D., Calfee, B. *Handbook of Educational Psychology.* MacMillan, New York, pp. 709–725.
[4] Clark, C. M., &. Peterson, P. L. (1986). Teacher's thought processes. In M. Wittrock (Ed.), *Handbook of research in teaching* (3rd ed., pp. 255–296).New York: Macmillan.
[5] Ellis, R. (2012). Second language acquisition. The United States: Oxford.
[6] Farrel, T.S.C. (1999). The reflective assignment: unlocking pre-service teachers' beliefs on grammar teaching. *RELC Journal,* 30 (2), 1-17.
[7] Farrell, T.S.C., & Lim, P.C.P. (2005). Conceptions of grammar teaching: A case study of teachers' beliefs and classroom practices. *TESL-EJ, 9*(2), 1-13.
[8] Farrokhi, F. (2006). Teachers' stated beliefs about corrective feedback in relation to their practices in EFL classes. *Journal of Faculty of Letters and Humanities,* Year 49, No.200, 101-114.
[9] Foss, D. H. & Kleinsasser, R. C. (1996). Preservice elementary teachers' views of pedagogical and mathematical content knowledge. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 12 (4), 429-42.
[10] Gatbonton, E. (2000). Investigating experienced ESL teachers' pedagogical knowledge. *Canadian Modern Language Review, 56,* 585–616.
[11] Karavas-Doukas, E. (1996). Using attitude scales to investigate teachers' attitudes to the communicative approach. *ELT Journal, 50*(3), 187-198.
[12] Lannin, J. Webb, M. Chval, K. Arbough, F. Hicks, S. Taylor, C. & Bruton, R. (2013). The development of beginning mathematics teacher pedagogical content knowledge. *Journal of Mathematics Teacher Education*. 34,56-65.
[13] Phipps, S. (2010). Language teacher education, beliefs and classroom practices. Saarbrucken: Lambert Academic Publishing.
[14] Phipps, S. & Borg, S. (2009). Exploring tensions between teachers' grammar teaching beliefs and practices. *System, 37*(3), 380-390.
[15] Prescott, A. Bausch, I. & Bruder, R. (2013). TELSP: A method for analyzing mathematics pre-service teachers' pedagogical content knowledge. *Teacher and Training Education.* 35, 43-50.
[16] She, H.C. (2000). The interplay of a biology teacher's beliefs, teaching practices, and gender-based student-teacher classroom interaction. *Educational Research, 42*(1), 100-111.
[17] Shulman, L. S. (1987). Knowledge and teaching: Foundations of the new reform. *Harvard educational Review,* 57, 1-22.

Manoochehr Jafarigohar is an associate professor and the head of the English department in Payame Noor University, Tehran, Iran. He holds Ph.D. and M.A. degrees in TEFL and a B.A. in English translation. He teaches research and Second Language Acquisition at post-graduate level. His research interests include foreign language teaching, language testing and learning foreign languages at a distance. He has been the author of numerous textbooks and has published papers in various national and international journals.

Saeed Kheiri is a Ph.D candidate in TEFL at Payame Noor University of Tehran, Iran. He received a B.A. in English language and literature from Semnan University and a master degree in TEFL from Payame Noor University. His research interests are teacher education and language testing. He has written a book on idioms and an article on the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and students' achievements. He is presently teaching translation, essay writing and grammar at Karaj and Shahriar Universities.

A Comparative Study on the Effects of While Listening Note Taking and Post Listening Summary Writing on Iranian EFL Learners' Listening Comprehension

Touran Ahour
Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Sara Bargool
Department of English, Tabriz Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—The aim of this study was to find out if there is any significant difference between while listening note taking and post listening summary writing on listening comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners. A pretest-posttest design was used in this quasi-experimental research. The study was conducted in a language institute in East Azarbaijan province in Iran. Sixty students in two homogenous advanced classes were selected as the participants and in one class while listening note taking was used as the treatment and in the other class post listening summary writing was used. The results of Paired-Samples t-test revealed that both classes had improvement in their listening comprehension ability, but the results of the Independent Samples t-test showed that there was not any significant difference in the both groups' post tests. The results can have pedagogical implications for language teachers and curriculum developers.

Index Terms—listening comprehension, while listening note taking, post listening summary writing, EFL

I. INTRODUCTION

Listening is the most important skill in learning a new language and its main purpose is to be able to understand what the intended meaning of the speaker is (Rost, 2011), but unfortunately usually not enough attention is paid to it and it has not received enough priorities (Farhady, Jafarpoor, & Birjandi, 1994; Gorbani, 2011). According to Nunan (1999), "listening is a Cinderella skill in second language learning" (p. 199). Nunan further explains that most people believe that knowing a language is the ability to speak and also write in that language. Chastain (1988) believes that there is this belief because students and teachers don't recognize listening as a prerequisite to a developed speaking ability. But it is the teachers' responsibility to help students to learn some strategies to concentrate more on listening and therefore be successful language learners (Brown, 2000). Listening develops faster than speaking and is very effective in developing other skills in learning a new language (Oxford, 1993; Scarella & Oxford, 1992, as cited in Shirani Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011). Some researchers have emphasized the main role that listening comprehension has in learning a new language (Brown, 2000; Chastain, 1988; Harmer, 2001; Rost, 2011). Rost (2001) points out that because listening comprehension is very essential in using and learning a language and it is the basic channel in L2 acquisition, the development of this skill should be given great priority in instruction. Linse (2005) says that listening skill is the base of other skills and it should be taught to students. Vandergrift (2003) claims that meta-linguistic awareness in listening and explicit teaching must be emphasized in listening.

There are two views about what happens when we comprehend aural messages. According to one view (Buck, 2001; Linse, 2005; Nunan, 1991), some listeners chunk the received input into sounds, assemble them to make words, then make clauses and sentences and so on. This view is called bottom up approach to listening. The other group of listeners who are more successful, believe that the meaning is not merely and exclusively inside the texts but also they bring the knowledge from outside the text or what Nunan calls "inside the head" knowledge, that is, knowledge which is not clearly and directly in the words or phrases. This view is known as top down view of listening. Bottom up listener acts as a tape recorder and top down listener as a model builder. Bottom up processing is a linear, additive processing whereas top down processing is the one in which the learner uses the previous knowledge to get the whole story (Nunan, 1991).

Brown and Yule (1983b, as cited in Nunan, 1991) claim that there are four factors that make listening difficult: the accent and speed of speaker, whether the listener is a participant or not, the listening content, and any visual or practical supports which aid the listener; therefore learners need to be able to develop a skill to segment words in spite of the challenging nature of listening texts which are full of reduced forms and elisions and connected streams of words.

Unfortunately listening has not been given much attention in EFL/ESL settings. Teachers, especially EFL teachers, are often not aware of or maybe not interested in teaching listening techniques and the processes of listening and merely focus on the final product and the outcome. Instruction in listening classes is limited to testing and focusing on the product (Rezaei & Hashim, 2013; Sheerin, 1987). Likewise, Field (1998) believes that most published books about listening don't teach the listening, but test it. But Oxford (1990) and Peterson (2001) believe that focusing on what to learn has been shifted to how to learn or learning strategies. In her view there are different learning strategies or activities that learners perform to help them learn easier, faster, and more practically. Two strategies of note taking and summary writing are among the ones that help learners make the information that comes to them more tangible and help them sort and organize the incoming information in the target language(Oxford, 1990).

Note taking is a very important strategy that can be used for listening and reading, but unfortunately students don't have enough knowledge about it or ability on how to do it, or if they have any information, they are not taught to practice it, although it can activate working memory and help problem solving (Boch & Piolat, 2005; Gur, Dilci, Coskun, & Delijan, 2013). Furthermore, it is thought by mistake that this strategy is just for advanced levels. The teachers should make the students aware that they need to have notes about the main ideas and key words. Not taking needs a metacognitive strategy called "organizing" (Oxford, 1990). Many researchers (Aiken, Thomas, & Shennun, 1975; Bretzing & Kulhavy, 1979; Divesta & Gray, 1972; Kiewra, 1984, as cited in Boyle and Weishaar, 2001) have also mentioned that while listening note taking has advantages both for helping better and active comprehension and for future recall. Majid Hayati and Jalilifar (2009) conducted a study about the effect of note taking and found that note takers had better achievements than non note takers. Tsai-Fu (2009) believes that note taking causes enhanced comprehension. According to Ellis (2003), listening and taking notes simultaneously is a 'dual-task' which may be very difficult and challenging for many L2 learners. Arslan (2006) defines note taking as an external version of memory store. While taking notes, students are actively engaged in the task. Studies show that note taking helps the learner to store and comprehend the message better through concentration boost and increased attention than when there is mere listening or reading (Botch & Piolat, 2005; Piolat, Olive, & Kelog, 2004). As Dunkel and Pialorsi (2005) and Hasswell and Lee (2013) mention, when learners are allowed to take notes, they feel more comfortable and they have better performance in answering the post listening questions. Weener (1974) believes that note taking causes assimilation of the new information in to the cognitive structure and makes the new information more recallable than if there weren't any note taking. Hartley and Marshall (1974) mention three reasons for taking notes: (a) to help later recall,(b) to be able to review the ideas when needed, (c) to have higher concentration while listening.

Summarizing is another strategy that shows whether or not learners can get the new information and comprehend it. By summarizing the learner tries to paraphrase the original massage and change it to an easier and shorter version (Kirkland & Saunders, 1991; Oxford, 1990; Walters & Chien, 2014). According to Oxford (1990), "writing a summary can be more challenging (and sometimes more useful) than taking notes, because it often requires greater condensation of thoughts" (p. 88). Tuncer and Altunay (2006) had a study about summary writing of students with visual impairments in listening classes and the findings showed the procedure helped these students to improve their listening comprehension. There are some studies on summary writing (Hood, 2008; Keck, 2006; Walters & Chien, 2014; Wichadee, 2013; Yang, & Shi, 2003; Yasuda, 2014), and very few on the effect of summary writing on listening comprehension ability (Tuncer & Altunay, 2006; Yu, 2013, Zhang, & Elder, 2011).

However, to the knowledge of the researchers, there was not any study regarding the comparative study of the effect of while listening note taking and post listening summary writing in the EFL context of Iran. In this regard, the aim of this study was to find out the effect of two strategies (i.e., while listening note taking and post listening summary writing) on Iranian EFL students' listening comprehension. For this reason the following research questions were posed:

1. Does while listening note taking affect EFL students' listening comprehension?

2. Does post listening summary writing affect EFL students' listening comprehension?

3. Is there any significant difference between the effects of while listening note taking and post listening summary writing on EFL students' listening comprehension?

II. Method

Design

This study was a quasi experimental research with a pretest and a post test. Note taking and summary writing are the independent variables and listening comprehension ability is the dependent variable. Note taking and summary writing were manipulated as treatments in two comparison groups of the study.

Participants

This study was conducted with 60 students from two advanced level classes in an English institute in Tabriz in East-Azarbaijan, Iran, in December 2014. The participants were male and female university students of different fields of study with the age range of 18 to 25. At the beginning of the study a pretest was administered in order to see if the participants are homogenous. The results of the pretest confirmed the homogeneity. Then the classes were randomly assigned to the not taking class and the summary writing class, each with 30 students.

Instruments

The following instruments were used for data collection in the present study:

1)A listening comprehension test with 15 multiple choice questions taken from Barron's (2008) iBT TOEFL book was used as the pre-test

2) Longman TOEFL iBT as the course book

During the 20 sessions of the study, the students practiced the Longman TOEFL IBT book in both classes. The students studied the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but the focus of this study was on the listening part which was about 20 minutes for each session.

3) Another listening comprehension test with 15 multiple choice questions taken from Barron's IBT TOEFL book as the post test

III. PROCEDURE

This study was conducted during 40 hours, or 20 sessions of study in two advanced level English classes. The students in this institute have three sessions of one hundred minute English class every week. The teacher of both classes was the same (one of the researchers). The homogeneity of the students was verified using a t-test to compare the pretests of the two class. The students practiced the four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, but the focus of this study was on the listening part which was about 20 minutes for each session.

The listening passages that the students listened to in the pretest, class practices, and posttest were unheared ones and they were for the advanced level since they were taken from a TOEFL book. During each session, the students listened to four different passages in each class. In order to conduct this study a multiple choice listening comprehension test with 15 multiple choice questions which was chosen from Barron's (2008) TOEFL iBT book was used as the pretest to know about the students' listening comprehension at the beginning of the study and to check the homogeneity of the participants. During the pretest, students listened to two different lectures just once, then they were given the 15 questions to answer in 20 minutes.

After the pretest, the treatment was manipulated. In one class, while listening note taking was taught and practiced for about 20 minutes in each session as the treatment. The students listened to the listening passages with different topics during the study. The students were asked to listen to the passages just once and while they were listening they were asked to take notes about the main points and key words of the listening passages. After taking notes they answered the multiple choice comprehension questions about each listening passage using their notes. The answers of these questions were immediately checked and explained in the same session. In the other class post listening summary writing was used as the treatment during 20 sessions about 20 minutes each session. The students listened to the listening passages of different topics just once and after the listening finished, they were asked to write a summary of the text and then answer the multiple choice questions about each listening passage using their summaries. Their answers for the multiple choice questions were checked in the class.

At the end of the study, on the 20th session, another multiple choice listening comprehension test with 15 questions from Barron's (2008) TOEFL iBT book and with new topics was used as the post test for both classes. The test started with the students listening to two passages, and after that they were given 20 minutes to answer its multiple choice questions. Finally, the collected data were entered into the SPSS 17 for further analysis. To answer the research questions of the study, Paired-Samples t-test and Independent-Samples t-test were carried out to compare within group and between group improvements, respectively. The alpha level for significance testing was set at .05 level of significance

IV. RESULTS

A. Result of the Kolmogorov Smirnov Test

The non-parametric test of Kolmogorov Smirnov (K-S test) test was used to see if the participants' listening scores in the pretest were normally distributed (see Table 1).

TABLE 1.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST ON PRETEST LISTENING SCORES

		Pretest
N		60
Normal Parameters	Mean	82.40
	Std. Deviation	7.34
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.10
	Positive	.07
	Negative	-.10
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.81
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.52

a. Test distribution is Normal.

As shown in Table 1, the p value of .52 is more than the Alpha level of .o5. This means that the participants' listening scores in the pretest were normally distributed; hence resorting to parametric tests in order to perform statistical analysis.

B. Results of the Independent Samples T-test for Homogeneity

An Independent samples t-test was carried out to find out whether there was a significant difference between the pretest scores of note taking and summary writing groups (see Table 2).

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF THE INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST BETWEEN NOTE-TAKING AND SUMMARY-WRITING GROUPS IN PRETEST

		Leven's Test for Equality of Variances							
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Differences	Std. Error Differences	95% Confidence Interval Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Pretest Equal Variances Assumed	.21	.64	-.03	58	.97	.06	1.91	-3.89	3.76

As it is shown in the Table 2 Leven's Sig. value was .64, which was higher than .05 level of significance. This meant that the variances of the two groups could be assumed equal. The p-value (p= .97) was also more than the alpha level (.05).Therefore, in the beginning of the study the two classes were homogeneous.

C. Results of the Data Analysis for Research Questions 1and 2

To find whether there was a significant change from the pretest to the posttest in the Note-taking and Summary-writing groups, two Paired-Samples t-tests were run. The results of the descriptive statistics are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE SCORES OF LISTENING COMPREHENSION TEST

		M	*SD*	*N*
Group Pretest	Note-taking	82.43	7.67	30
	Summary-writing	82.36	7.12	30
Posttest	Note-taking	88.06	5.64	30
	Summary-writing	85.36	7.18	30

As Table 3 indicates, the posttest mean scores of both groups are higher than their pretest, and the mean score of the note-taking group was higher than the summary writing group. In order to determine the significance level of their mean difference, results of the Paired-Samples t-tests are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE MEANS OF THE TWO GROUPS ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

Paired Differences								
Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of Differences		t	df (2-tailed)	Sig.
				Lower	Upper			
Summary Writing	-2.83	3.60	.65	-4.17	-1.48	-4.30	29	.00
Note taking	-5.63	4.35	.79	-7.25	-4.00	-7.09	29	.00

As indicated in Table 4, the sig. (2-tailed) in both groups was .00 which was lower than 0.05 level of significance. Therefore, a significant difference was proved between the pretest and posttest in note taking and summary writing classes. So the research questions 1 and 2 are confirmed.

D. Results of the Data Analysis for Research Question 3

In order to find the answer to the third research question, the researchers conducted an Independent-Samp4es t-test to see which group significantly outperformed in the posttest of listening. Table 5 revealed that p>0.05, and therefore there isn't any significant difference between the posttests.

TABLE 5.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE POST-TEST OF NOTE-TAKING AND SUMMARY-WRITING GROUPS

	Levens' Test for equality of variances		T	df	sig. (2-tailed)
	F	sig.			
Equal variance assumed	2.80	.09	-1.71	58	.09

* P < .05

According to Table 5 the Levens' sig was .09 which exceeded 0.05 level of significance. This meant that the variances of the two groups should be assumed equal. The sig. (2-tailed) value was .09 which was higher than 0.05 significance level. The results of the t-test indicated that the difference between mean scores of the two groups was not statistically significant, (58), p= .09 <0.05). It was concluded that there was no significant difference between the results of the post tests of the two groups and therefore, the third research question of this study was negatively answered. In other words, there was not significant difference in the listening comprehension of the note-taking and summary-writing groups.

V. DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to find out the effect of while listening note taking and post listening summary writing on Iranian EFL students listening comprehension and to see if there is any significant difference between the effects of the two listening strategies. Based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that although while listening note taking and post listening summary writing had a positive effect on Iranian EFL students' listening comprehension, there was not a significant difference between the results of posttests of the two groups of Iranian EFL students.

In line with the findings of this study, some researchers have emphasized the role of while listening note taking and post listening summary writing on learners' listening comprehension. Gur, Dilci, Coskun, & Delican (2013) conducted a study in Turkey to help learners not to be passive listeners and to see how listening to different lecture types by note taking affects listening comprehension. The results revealed that students who used note taking methods had higher levels of comprehension. In a study by Sahin, Aydin, and Sevim (2011), it was mentioned that note taking was an effective method in listening comprehension. A study by Piolat, Olive, and Kellogg (2004) revealed that note taking was effective in both higher achievement and recall. Other researches by Frost, Elder, and Wigglesworth, (2012); Yu, (2013); and Kirkland and Saunders, (1991) also revealed that summary writing is an important and useful method in listening comprehension. Although further work is required to gain a more complete understanding of the factors affecting Iranian EFL students' listening comprehension ability in each group, our findings indicated that both while listening note taking and post listening summary writing had positive effects on the participants' listening comprehension ability, but there was not any significant difference between the results of the two groups which reveals that although there were different treatments for the two classes, both groups had nearly the same amount of improvement in their listening comprehension abilities. Therefore, any of these listening techniques or a combination of both could be useful in Iranian EFL classes according to special contexts, needs of the students, types of activities, and time. Although this study had some limitations regarding the number of participants and time devoted, its findings could be useful for material developers to create necessary tasks and exercises, as well as teachers to choose the most appropriate strategies for improving their students' listening comprehension in EFL classes.

REFERENCES

[1] Arslan, M. (2006). The influence of teaching note taking and information mapping on learning and recalling in science. *The Turkish Journal of Educational Technology, 5*(2), 8-17.
[2] Boch, F. & Piolat, A. (2005). Note taking and learning: A summary of research. *The WAC Journal, 16,* 101-113.
[3] Boyle, J. R. & Weishaar, M. (2001). The effect of strategic note taking on the recall and comprehension of lecture information for high school students with learning disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 16(3), 133-141.*
[4] Brown, H. D. (2000). Teaching by principles: An interactive approach to language pedagogy (2nd ed.). New York: Longman.
[5] Buck, G. (2001). Assessing listening. United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
[6] Chastain, K. (1988). Developing second language skills: Theory and practice (3rd ed.). Florida: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich.
[7] Dunkel, p. & Pialorsi, F. (2005). Advanced listening comprehension: developing aural and notetaking skills (3rd ed.). NY: Thomson Heinle.
[8] Ellis, R. (2003). Task-based language learning and teaching. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[9] Farhady, H., Jafarpoor, A., & Birjandi, P. (1994). Testing language skills: From theory to practice. Tehran: SAMT Publications.
[10] Field, J. (1998). Skills and strategies: toward a new methodology for listening. *ELT Journal, 52,* 110-118.
[11] Frost, K., Elder, C., & Wigglesworth, G. (2012). Investigating the validity of an integrated listening-speaking task: A discourse-based analysis of test takers' oral performances. *Language Testing, 29*(3), 345-359.
[12] Gorbani, M. R. (2011). The impact of phonetic instruction on Iranian students' listening ability enhancement. *Asian EFL Journal. Professional Teaching Articles, 52*(2), 24-34.
[13] Gur, T., Dilci, T., Coskun, I. & Delijan, B. (2013). The impact of note-taking while listening Comprehension in a higher education context. *International Journal of Academic Research, 5*(1), 93-97. doi: 10.7813/2075-4124.2013/5-1/B.16. (accessed 28/2/2013).
[14] Harmer, J. (2001). The practice of English language teaching. England: Pearson Education Limited.
[15] Harttley, J., & Marshall, S. (1974). On notes and note taking. *Higher Education Quarterly, 28(2),* 225-235. doi:10.111-j.1468-2273.1974.tb00467.x. (accessed 14/10/2013).
[16] Haswell, C. G., & Lee, R. A. (2013). A comparative study of listening comprehension and organization of lecture notes in intermediate English classes. *Polyglossia, 24,* 16-25.
[17] Hood, S. (2008). Summary writing in academic contexts: Implicating meaning in process of change. *Linguistics and Education, 19,* 351-365.
[18] Keck, C. (2006). The use of paraphrase in summary writing: A comparison of L1 and L2 writers. *Journal of Second Language Writing, 15,* 261-278.
[19] Kirkland, M. R., & Saunders, M. A. P. (1991). Maximizing student performance in summary writing: Managing cognitive load. *TESOL Quarterly, 25*(1), 105-121.
[20] Linse, C. T. (2005). Practical English language teaching: young learners. Mc Grow- Hill.
[21] Majid Hayati, A., & Jalilifar, A. (2009). The impact of note-taking strategies on listening comprehension. *English Language Teaching, 2*(1), 101-111.
[22] Nunan, D. (1991). Language teaching methodology: a textbook for teachers. Massachusettes: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.
[23] Nunan, D. (1999). Second language teaching and learning. Massachusettes: Heinle & Heinle Publishers.

[24] Oxford, R. L. (1990). Language learning strategies: what every teacher should know. Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

[25] Peterson, P. W. (2001). Skills and strategies for proficient listening. In M. Celce- Murcia (Ed.), *Teaching English as a second or foreign language* (pp. 87-101). Boston, MA: Heinle & Heinle.

[26] Piolat, A., Olive, T., & Kellogg, R. T. (2004). Cognitive effort of note taking. *Applied Cognitive Psychology, 18*, 1-22.

[27] Rezaei, A., & Hashim, F. (2013). Impact of awareness raising about listening micro-skills on the listening comprehension enhancement: an exploration of the listening micro-skills in EFL classes. *Australian Journal of Teacher Education, 38(8),* 1-15. http://ro.ecu.edu.au/ajte/vol38/iss8/1 (accessed 15/3/2014).

[28] Rost, M. (2001). Listening. In R. Carter & D. Nunan (Eds.), *The Cambridge guide to teaching English to speakers of other languages* (pp. 7-13). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[29] Rost, M. (2011). Teaching and researching listening (2nd ed.). UK: Pearson Education Limited.

[30] Sahin, A., Aydin, G., & Sevim, O. (2011). Cornell not alma tekniginin dinlenilen metni anlamaya ve kaliciliga etkisi. *Dumlupinar Universitesi Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi, 29,* 29-36.

[31] Sheerin, S. (1987). Listening comprehension: teaching or testing? *ELT Journal, 41*(2), 126-131.

[32] Shirani Bidabadi, F., & Yamat, H. (2011). The relationship between listening strategy used by Iranian EFL freshman university students and their listening proficiency levels. *English Language Teaching, 4*(1), 109-111.

[33] Tsai-Fu, T. (2009). EFL college freshman note-taking training for reading Comprehension. *The Journal of Human Resource and Adult Learning, 5(2),* 12-18.

[34] Tuncer, A. T., & Altunay, B. (2006). The effect of a summarization-based cumulative retelling strategy on listening comprehension of college students with visual impairments. *JVIB, 100*(6), 79-84.

[35] Vandergrift, L. (2003). Orchestrating strategy use: Toward a model of the skilled second language listener. *Language Learning, 53(3),* 463-496.

[36] Walters, B. G., & Chien, C. (2014). College EFL teachers' perspectives on listening assessment and summarization for a specific task. *Journal of Language Teaching & Research, 5(2),* 313-322. doi: 10.4304/jltr.5.2313-322.

[37] Weener, P. (1974). Note taking and student verbalization as instrumental learning activities. *Instructional Science, 3(1),* 51-74. doi: 10.1007-bf00117026.

[38] Wichadee, S. (2013). Improving students' summary writing ability through Collaboration: A comparison between online Wiki group and conventional Face-to-face group. *The Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, 12*(3), 107-116.

[39] Yang, L., & Shi, L (2003). Exploring six MBA students' summary writing by introspection. *Journal of English for Academic Purposes, 2,* 165-192.

[40] Yasuda, S. (2014). Exploring changes in FL writers' meaning-making choices in summary writing: a systemic functional approach. *Journal of Second Language Writing,* retrieved from www.sciencedirect.com. (accessed 28/4/2014).

[41] Yu, G. (2013). The use of summarization tasks: Some lexical and conceptual analysis. *Language Assessment Quarterly, 10*(1), 96-109.

[42] Zhang, Y. & Elder, C. (2011). Judgments of oral proficiency by non-native and native English speaking teacher rates: competing or complementary constructs? *Language Testing, 28*(1), 31-50.

Touran Ahour is an assistant professor and academic staff member at the Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz branch, Iran. She has received her PhD degree in TESL from the University Putra Malaysia. She has published several books and articles in international scholarly journals. Her research interests include writing assessment, materials evaluation, reading-writing connection, and ELT issues.

Sara Barghool is a PhD student in TESL at the Faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran. Her research interests include testing, teacher-learner interaction, and international general English tests.

The Influence of Learners' Motivation and Attitudes on Second Language Teaching[*]

Lili Zhao

Department of Foreign Language Teaching, Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities, Tongliao, China

Abstract—**Learners' motivation and attitudes have great impact on the second language learning and teaching. This thesis first introduces the theories concerning learners' affective factors and then gives a brief definition of motivation and attitude .In order to reveal the co-relation between motivation and attitude of language learners and the second language teaching, the research designs two questionnaires to investigate the students' learning attitude and the attribution for success or failure. Through discussion of the two surveys, the teaching tips in respect of a learner's motivation and attitude are recommended with the purpose of eliminating students' negative emotional reactions as well as developing students' autonomous learning abilities. In summary, this paper intends to improve the teaching effect by means of exploring the influences that a learner's motivation and attitude bring about to foreign language teaching.**

Index Terms—**motivation, attitude, attribution, teaching methods, emotion**

I. INTRODUCTION

At the present English teaching, the teacher in the university lays too much emphasis on students' cognitive factors in language learning and the affective factors of the students are neglected. Western scholars have found that cognition and emotion are two aspects that have close relationship with language learning. Emotional problems have important impact on language acquisition. The study of affective factors of language learning in China began in the 1980s. Many researches analyze the influences that affective elements have from the angles of cognition and emotion. Negative affective factors such as anxiety, fear and depression hinder a learner's potential learning abilities. Positive emotions such as motivation and attitude contribute to learning. Therefore, English teaching should pay more attention to the study of the emotional factors to help students eliminate their negative psychological factors and promote positive affection to learning.

II. THEORIES RELEVANT TO LEARNERS' AFFECTIVE FACTORS

A. Dörnyei's Three-level Motivation Theory

In the 1990s, the Gardner's motivational theory was faced with several challenges, a number of researchers tried to reopen motivational research. They began with a new belief that changes from social-center study to educational-center significant study. Educational orientation has become the mainstream of current research. The learner's classroom environment became more and more important, and it immediately impacts their L2 learning motivation. The intention of the changing makes the motivational theories more suitable for the classroom setting.

Dörnyei, one of the most influential researchers, he has proposed three-level extended motivational framework based on Crooks and Schmidt's (1991) approach of examining motivation. Moreover, there are three main factors which decided L2 learners' motivation that is integrativeness, the classroom environment and self-confidence was investigated by Dörnyei and Noels (1994). In 1994, a more general framework of L2 motivation was broadened by Dörnyei, with the method of integrating the various issues put forward by other scholars.

Language Level	Integrative Motivational Subsystem
	Instrumental Motivational Subsystem
Learner Level	Need for Achievement
	Self-confidence
	Language Use Anxiety
	Perceived L2 Competence
	Causal Attributions
	Self-efficacy
Learning Situation Level	Interest
Course-specific Motivational	Relevance
Components	Expectancy
Teacher- specific Motivational	Satisfaction
Components	Afflictive Drive
Group- specific Motivational	Authority Type
Components	Direct Socialization of Motivation
	Modeling
	•Modeling
	•Task Presentation
	•Feedback
	Goal-orientedness
	Norm and Reward System
	Group Cohesion
	Classroom Goal Structure

Dörnyei's Framework of L2 Motivation (Dörnyei, 1994)

Dörnyei's three-level motivational framework contains three levels: language level, learning situation level and learner level (Dörnyei, 1994). The table above clearly illustrates Dörnyei's framework of L2 motivation. The three levels of motivation are consistent with the three fundamental components, which are the learning environment, the learners, and the target language.

B.   Attribution Theory

Attribution is a concept in social psychology addressing the processes by which individuals explain the causes of behavior and events; Attribution theory is an umbrella term for various models that attempt to explain those processes (Kassin, Fein&Markuss, 2008). Attribution theory provides an important method for examining and understanding motivation in English settings. It examines individuals' beliefs about why certain events occur and correlates those beliefs to subsequent motivation. The basic premise of this theory is that people want to understand their environments and, therefore, strive to understand why certain events happen. In the classroom, the understanding students have about the causes of past events influences their ability to control what happens to them in the future. For example, if students fail a test, they will probably attribute that failure to a specific cause, such as (1) lack of ability, (2) lack of effort, or (3) poor instruction. The selected attribution will affect their subsequent motivation to engage in similar learning activities. (http://www. Education.com)

The attribution theory by Fritz Heider (1958), often described as "the father of attribution theory", provided a method used for evaluating how people perceive the behaviors of themselves and other people, which were subsequently developed by others such as Jones and Davis, Harold Kelley and Bernard Weiner. Heider pointed out that reasons for people's behavior can be divided into internal and external causes. The internal causes are individuals themselves factors, such as need, emotion, interest, attitude, belief, effort, and so on; The external causes are factors in the surrounding environment of individuals, such as others' expectation, reward, punishment, instruction, order, good or bad weather, the degree of difficulty of work and so on (Heider, 1958, cited in Zhang Qingzong, 2011:113—114).

III.   FACTORS AFFECTING SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

A.   Motivation

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 form 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 & R.C.Gardner, 2002) Motivation can be classified into intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. The following are brief definitions of intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation.

1. Intrinsic Motivation

"Intrinsic motivation occurs when we act without any obvious external rewards. We simply enjoy an activity or see it as an opportunity to explore, learn, and actualize our potentials."(Coon & Mitterer, 2010) "Intrinsic motivation refers to the reason why we perform certain activities for inherent satisfaction or pleasure; you might say performing one of these activities in reinforcing in-and-of itself."(Brown, 2007) The factors that they identify as increasing intrinsic

motivation are:

● **Challenge:** People are more motivated when they pursue goals that have personal meaning, that relate to their self-esteem, when performance feedback is available, and when attaining the goal is possible but not necessarily certain.

● **Curiosity:** Internal motivation is increased when something in the physical environment grabs the individual's attention (sensory curiosity) and when something about the activity stimulates the person to want to learn more (cognitive curiosity).

● **Control:** People want control over themselves and their environments and want to determine what they pursue.

● **Cooperation and Competition:** Intrinsic motivation can be increased in situations where people gain satisfaction from helping others and also in cases where they are able to compare their own performance favorably to that of others.

● **Recognition:** People enjoy having their accomplishment recognized by others, which can increase internal motivation. (http://www. pshchology.about.com)

2. Extrinsic Motivation

"Extrinsic motivation refers to our tendency to perform activities for known external rewards, whether they be tangible (e.g., money) or psychological (e.g., praise) in nature."(Brown, 2007) "Motivation can come from the outside, such as the motivation to win medals, receive financial rewards, and attract attention from the media. This is known as external, or extrinsic, motivation because it involves participation in sport for some kind of reward that is external to the process of participation."(Karageorghis & Terry, 1969)

B. Attitude

Gardner proposed that "attitude is an evaluative reaction to some referent or attitude object, inferred on the basis the individual's beliefs or opinions about the referent." (Gardner, 1985, P. 9). Attitudes towards the learning situation refer to the individual's reaction to anything associated with the immediate context in which the language is taught. There are many factors that need to be considered with respect to the learning attitudes, such as the evaluation of the teaching environment, the English class and classmates. Learning attitude is concerned with a learner's learning experiences, beliefs, values as well as a learner's educational background. The attitude of learning is one of the important individual factors that plays a vital role in the learning behaviors. It has great effect on the learning process and learning outcomes. It determines a learner's success or failure to a great extent. Therefore, more attention should be paid to the problem of the students' attitude toward learning.

(a)Baker (1988) summarized the main characteristics of attitude as follows:

1) Attitudes are cognitive (i.e. are capable of being thought about) and affective (i.e. have feelings and emotions attached to them).

2) Attitudes are dimensional rather than bipolar—they vary in degree of favorability/unfavorability.

3) Attitudes predispose a person to act in a certain way, but the relationship between attitudes and actions is not a strong one.

4) Attitudes are learnt, not inherited or genetically endowed.

5) Attitudes tend to persist but they can be modified by experience.

(b)Types of attitudes

Most of the research on attitudes with regard to language learning has tended to concentrate on attitude towards target language and their speakers. In 1950s, Gardner and Lambert investigated a number of different attitudes which they consider relevant to L2 learning. Stern (1983) classifies these attitudes into three types:

1) attitudes towards the community and people who speak the L2;

2) attitudes towards learning the concerned; and

3) attitudes towards languages and language learning in general. These attitudes are influenced by the personality of the learner, for instance whether he is ethnocentric or authoritarian.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to find out the influences that motivation and attitude bring about to language learners, a thorough self-administered questionnaire survey is conducted in an attempt to draw a conclusion about the impact that learners' motivation and attitude have on students' learning process. The students investigated are Mongolian students in Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. They are all majors in clinical medicine chosen from two classes of different grades. One hundred valid replies are received in the research. They differ from each other in their English levels, learning motivation and attitude. Some students have a good command of English while others can not master English very well. In addition, the variety of their learning motivation as well as their learning attitude shown by their classroom behaviors also prove the differences between students. Through the survey, an overall knowledge of the students' learning status is to be investigated and the corresponding teaching strategies are to be explored. The survey is made in the following steps.

B. Research Design

(a) The teacher means to search for the correlations between the second language learners' motivation and attitudes to second language learning. A study is conducted from the perspective of intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation, and attribution. A question is raised by the teacher to find out what students' motivation of learning English is. The answers diversify as follows.

Some students are motivated intrinsically in that they learn English for the purpose of communicating with foreigners, or for an interest in American culture, or even learning English is their hobby. Some students are motivated due to the extrinsic factors such as for the purpose of career development, higher education, access to information or travel.

(b) In the following two tables, the teacher means to search for the correlations between the second language learners' attitudes to second language learning. Two surveys are conducted from the perspective of students' learning attitudes and the attribution of students' success or failure in learning. In table one, a question is raised by the teacher about the students' attitude towards learning English. Six items are proposed with three alternatives for the students to choose. In table two, a survey about students' attribution for success and failure is made to figure out the major problems that discourage students from learning.

C. Procedure

The survey is made in the following steps

(a) The teacher collects some typical questionnaires that investigate the attribution of students' success and failure of second language learning and their attitudes towards English learning. A major purpose of the investigation is to estimate the magnitude of the contributions that the attribution theory and attitudes make to the achievement of second language learning.

(b) The teacher asks students to fill in the investigation form with regard to the affective factors that have influence on students' learning abilities. The content of the forms are researches in the matter of students' attitudes and attribution theory for failure and success. Afterwards, the teacher collects the data and counts out the percentage of each item. The table and the chart are shown below.

TABLE 1.
WHAT IS YOUR ATTITUDE TOWARDS LEARNING ENGLISH?

Items	options	AA(%)	BB(%)	CC(%)
My attitude toward learning English in class is	A.I will not learn if I don't understand the teacher's words B.I will listen if the teacher is good C.I will listen carefully	13%	35%	52%
In English class I will	A. never answer the teacher's questions B. answer some easy questions C. answer questions actively	4%	51%	45%
If there is an English corner in university,	A.I will never attend B. Sometimes I will attend C.I will attend with great interest	6%	58%	36%
When I meet with some difficulties in learning English,	A.I will neglect them B. Ask for help only before the exam C. Ask the teacher immediately	9%	29%	62%
Why didn't you want to learn English?	A. Because my English is poor B. Because English is difficult to learn C. Because English lesson is boring	32%	52%	16%
What will you do, if there is no English classes in the university?	A.I will not learn English B.I will learn English in daily life C.I will manage to attend some other English classes.	31%	42%	27%

TABLE2
ATTRIBUTIONS FOR FAILURE AND SUCCESS

Items	Distributions(%)
effort	51%
luck	4%
Good teachers	27%
aptitude	13%
easy questions	5%

THE CHART OF TABLE 2
ATTRIBUTIONS FOR FAILURE AND SUCCESS
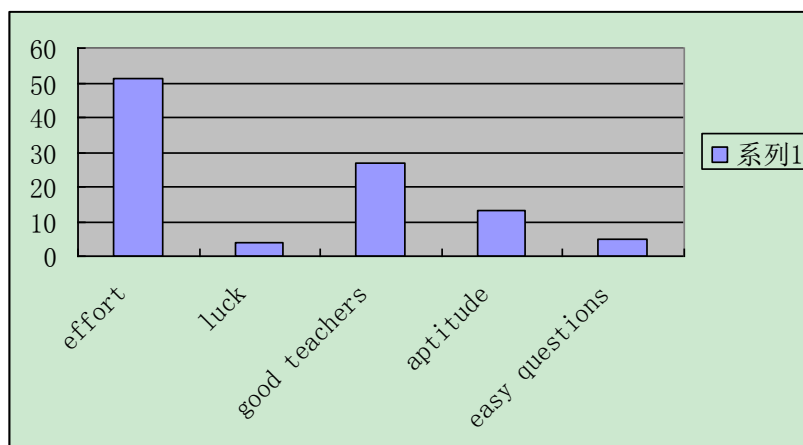
D. Results and Discussions

(a) From the data analysis of table 1, we can get the conclusion that students' attitudes toward learning English is positive. Over half of the students would like to listen to the teacher carefully .However, 35% of the students will learn English carefully in class simply because they like a good teacher. Only a small part of the students take a passive attitude toward learning English. In English class, a large majority of the students are willing to answer the teacher's questions and only 4% of the students keep silent in class. More than half of the students take part in school activities concerning English learning occasionally.36% of the students take part in the English corner actively and only 6% of the students take no interest in the English corner activities. When students suffer from difficulties in learning English, 62% of the students will choose to ask the teacher for help .29% of the students may settle the problem when the exam is near at hand. Less than 10% of the students will do nothing but ignore the questions they don't know. As for the underachievers, they are not willing to learn English partly because of their poor English level and partly because they are in fear of difficulties when they learn English. A small number of the students lose interest in English due to a dull and boring English lesson.31% of the students hold the idea that English is not a necessary lesson and they will not learn it unless they are obliged to. About half of the students like to learn English daily and 27% of the students intend to attend the English classes if there are no English lessons arranged in school. Table one reveals us a fact that over half of the students take a positive attitude toward English learning. Besides, the type of a teacher and the content of a lesson also have an impact on English learning.

(b) The survey in table two is concerned with the factors that affect a learner's success. Over half of the students believe that efforts are the key factors to achieve success. 27% of the students attribute their success to the help of a good teacher. 13% of the students consider a good learning aptitude as a reflection of success. No more than 5% of the students take success for granted because they think they are lucky enough or they have got easy questions in the exam. effort and aptitude are internal factors that weigh heavily on learners' grades. Failure to get a good command of English are ascribed to a lack of efforts and poor performance in language learning. In addition, a teacher of high level promotes the learning abilities of students. A good teacher may use various kinds of teaching methods to attract their students and the classroom environment is generally relaxed and lively. It is popularly believed that some students have a knack for learning languages, yet others are rather poor at it. This is because of their different learning aptitudes. Aptitude has almost invariably been used in connection with students in classrooms. It does not refer to the knack that students have for learning in real-life situations but to the ability to learn from teaching. It is the fact that some students have more aptitude for learning second languages than others. Predictions about success need to take into account the kind of classroom that is involved rather than being biased towards one kind or assuming there is a single factor of aptitude which applies regardless of situations.

V. TEACHING STRATEGIES IN VIEW OF AFFECTIVE FACTORS

A. Teaching Tips on Motivation

(a)Stevick(1971)introduces the concept of any second language learning course needing to have the 'strength' to carry its own 'weight' by means of the rewards that it provides for success. The effort of learning the second language should be made worthwhile for the learners, by what they eventually achieve as a result of having learned successfully. He suggests that any second language learning course can provide five types of reward to encourage learner motivation and success:

At syllabus-level the course will only have the 'strength' to carry its own 'weight' of it:

i) is relevant---the content of the syllabus is seen by the learners to be relevant to their reasons for learning the L2.

ii) is complete--- includes all the language necessary for the learners to achieve their goals in the L2.

iii) is authentic--- the materials used are, and can be seen to be, linguistically and culturally authentic.

At lesson level to have strength the learners need to feel that what is taught is:

iv) satisfying---so that they leave the classroom each time feeling that they have benefited from being there.

v) useful---so that they can leave the classroom and use what they have learned immediately.

Therefore, the teacher can take advantage of the rewards to stimulate students' learning motivation. Moreover, in a learner-centered classroom, the learner's emotional needs must be taken into consideration and a positive and non-threatening classroom atmosphere has to be established so that the learner's learning motivation can be stimulated to a large extent.

(b) It is undeniable that the role of teachers is of great significance to stimulate and maintain students' foreign language learning motivation, and teachers are more concerned about motivating students' learning style. Teachers should try their best to help the students to develop their own sense of self efficacy. External factors, such as teaching resources, learning tasks, and course design contribute to improving students' self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the key factor for the students to achieve success. A learner with strong self-efficacy is likely to select challenging tasks and they can stick to their goals though they are difficult to accomplish. Furthermore, the teacher should emphasize that aptitude and effort are the most important factors to reach one's goal. The learners must rethink their learning behaviors and make efforts to grasp the language skills.

(c) The teacher should cultivate students' autonomous learning abilities.

Dickinson (1995) put forward that autonomous learning was not only an ability to learn independently, but also an attitude. He explained the attitude is the responsibility for making decisions for one's own learning; the ability referred to decisions and reflections for learning process. The mode of foreign language teaching should be student-centered and the teacher's role should be changed from the explainer to the enabler. That is, the teacher is aware of the thoughts and feelings of his students and knows well of the subject matter. In most of the cases, the teacher regards himself as someone whose job is to create the conditions that enable the students to learn for themselves. In such classroom environment, cooperation and negotiation are encouraged and a lot of autonomous learning will go on smoothly.

B. Teaching Tips on Learning Attitude

As for the students' learning attitude, there are some teaching methods to be followed. First of all, the teacher should help the students to set up the correct learning attitude. The teacher may take some good examples of learning English to let the students be aware of their wrong concepts about language learning and help them correct their false ideas. Secondly, the students' negative learning attitudes have something to do with the teacher's teaching methods. A rigid teaching method and boring teaching content usually make the students lose interest in the course. It is necessary for the teacher to change their teaching methods and stimulate students' learning interest. The teacher should employ heuristic teaching methods to inspire students' critical thinking. A novelty and diverse teaching method is bound to arouse the students' learning interest. Finally, it is the teacher's duty to eliminate students' negative learning experiences. Students' negative learning attitude results from their setbacks and failures encountered in the learning process. Students are rather frustrated by their unsuccessful learning experiences and they may feel inferior to the top students. Therefore, the teacher needs to encourage the students to learn from their poor performance with no criticism or condemn. Besides, the teacher can create a positive and happy classroom atmosphere for the students to ease their nervousness.

VI. CONCLUSION

In order to achieve successful language teaching, the teacher must pay attention to the affective factors of the students. Motivation and attitude are the most often discussed emotional factors. They play a vital part in foreign language learning. Students' learning interest can be motivated by enhancing their positive emotional experiences. With regard to the individual affective reactions, it is suitable for the teacher to take humanistic measures to eliminate students' negative emotional experiences and develop their positive learning attitudes. Moreover, learner-centered learning is believed to be enhanced by harmonious classroom relationships between teachers and students and by ensuring that the learner' affective needs are considered. A teacher's care, encouragement and rewards add weight to developing students' learning abilities. A variety of teaching methods as well as the cultivation of students' autonomous learning ability is considered to be feasible to improve the teaching standards.

REFERENCES

[1]   Adrian Furnham, Jeremy Monsen and Gorkan Ahmetoglu. (2009). Typical intellectual engagement, Big Five personality traits, approaches to learning and cognitive ability predictors of academic performance .*British Journal of Educational Psychology*. Volume 79, issue 4,Pages 769-782.

[2]   A.-M.Masgoret & R.C.Gardner. (2002). Attitudes, Motivation, and Second Language Learning: A Meta-Analysis of Studies Conducted by Gardner and Associates. http://wenku.baidu.com/view/7bdf737401f69e31433294db.html (accessed 26/7/2015).

[3]   Baker, C. (1988). Key issues in bilingualism and bilingual education. Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.

[4]   Baumeister, R., & Tierney, J. (2011). Willpower: Rediscovering the Greatest Human Strength. New York: Penguin Press.

[5]   Blascovich, J., & Tomaka, J. (1991). Measures of self-esteem. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver,& L. S. Wrightsman (Eds.)

Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes, Volume I. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

[6]   Brown, L. V. (2007). Psychology of motivation. New York: Nova Publishers.

[7]   Carroll,J.B. (1981): Twenty-five years of research on foreign language aptitude. In Diller,K.C.(ed.)1981, *Individual Differences and Universals in Language Learning*. Rowley, MA: Newbury House, 83-118.

[8]   Coon, D. & Mitterer, J. O. (2010). Introduction to psychology: Gateways to mind and behavior with concept maps. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

[9]   Coopersmith, S. (1981). The antecedents of self-esteem. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press. (Original work published 1967).

[10] Dornyei, Z. (1994). Motivation and motivating in the foreign language classroom, *Modern Language Journal*, 78: 273—84.

[11] Eric Anderman | Lynley Anderman. (2009). Attribution Theory .http://www. Education.com (accessed 29/7/2015).

[12] Gardner, R. C. (1985).Social psychology and second language learning. The role of attitudes and motivation. London: Edward Arnold.

[13] Heckhausen, H. (1991).Motivation and Action. New York: Springer.

[14] Heider, F. (1958). The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations. New York: Wiley.

[15] Karageorghis, C. I. & Terry, P. C. (1969). Inside Sport Psychology. Champaign, IL: Human Kinetics.

[16] Kassin, Fein&Markus. (2008). Social Psychology. Wadsworth: Cengage Learning.

[17] Kendra Cherry. (no date). What Is Intrinsic Motivation? http://www. pshchology.about.com(accessed 29/7/2015).

[18] Self Confidence .http://psychology.wikia.com/wiki/Self_confidence (accessed 28/7/2015).

[19] Stern,H.H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of Language Learning. U.K.:OUP.

[20] Stevick,E. (1971). Adapting and writing language lessons. Washington, D.C. Foreign Service Institute.

[21] Wedell,M. (1996). Language Teaching & Learning From Theory To Practice. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

[22] Wondimu Ahmed, Greetje van der Werf, Alexander Minnaert and Hans Kuyper. (2010). Students' daily emotions in the classroom: Intra-individual variability and appraisal correlates *British journal of Educational Psychology*, Volume 80,issue 4,pages 583-597.

Lili Zhao is a lecturer in the department of foreign language teaching of Inner Mongolia University for the Nationalities. Her researches mainly include English language teaching, linguistics and literature. She has published several papers in both Chinese and international journals.

A Linguistic Analysis of Errors in News Agencies and Websites of Iran

Elham Akbari

Department of General Linguistics, Shahroud Science and Researches Pardis, Iran

Reza Kheirabadi

Organization for Educational Research and Planning, Iran

Abstract—In this research, we analyzed the common errors of three highly visited news websites of Iran within three syntactic, morphological and typographic-orthographic level to scrutinize the pitfalls of news websites. The data was gathered from three news websites of ALEF, ASRE-IRAN AND TABNAK which are listed among the most visited news websites in Iran based on Alexa ranking site. The findings showed that in studying the syntactic level of the materials on the news sites, one can face with a breach in the unmarked constituent order of Persian language and asymmetrical verbs deletion. Furthermore, the writing errors in the news are more of the typographical errors, and lack of using punctuations in the news and the commonest linguistic errors in morphological level in news sites are lexical redundancy

Index Terms—errors, discourse, linguistic analysis, linguistic analysis of errors, news

I. INTRODUCTION

In new theories, "discourse" is a social and communicative act. In fact, discourse analysis is the analysis of the text in context. Text can be used in a broad sense by discourse analysis. Sometimes text can be news, a radio program, a page of the newspaper, a TV series, or a TV program, a simple talk, a social interaction and so on. All kinds of are text can be analyzed. Text analysis can be done at different levels. Since news sites and agencies have a lot of addresses all around the country and became use people receive the news and the events of politics, society, sports, etc from them, the appearance of errors like incorrect spelling of words, using uncommon structures,and inappropriate words in some journalistic texts show that some of Persian writing and grammatical points in these mass media require more attention and since in Iran the research has not been done much on the analysis of such news errors in the news sites and agencies and through considering the thing that linguistic errors analysis in mass media like news sites and agencies can uncover their drawbacks, this study investigates the linguistic features of the news from the perspective of the common linguistic errors at different levels of the sentence so that it helps the authorities identify and strengthen the weaknesses and it can increase the quality of public news transmission by revealing the flaws in such sources. The purpose of this study is to find out the most common linguistic errors in morphological, syntactic, and writing levels in the Iranian information centers and news agencies as the most modern and developing source of information gathering for Iranian citizens. This study offers suggestions to the news writers and correspondents for using better ways in writing Persian language and linguistic principles to reduce the linguistic errors in supplying the news. It also provides a technique to resolve the morphological, syntactic, and writing linguistic errors. This study seeks to answer the following questions:

Q1. What kinds of linguistic errors are seen more in considering the syntactic level of the news on news sites and agencies,?

Q2.What are the linguistic errors at the morphological level of the news on the news sites?

Q3.What are the commonest linguistic errors in writing and editing level of the broadcasted news on the news sites?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Discourse Analysis of Media and News Texts

Harrison's (2000), in his study about supplying TV news. Analyzed TV news of 4 channels (ITV, BBC2, BBC, and Channel 4) gave interesting educational explanations about content analysis in a series of the students' textbooks. Fowler (1991) is of the forerunner linguists in critical discourse analysis whose views have been changed a lot, primarily from 1970s to 1990s. However, his propounded known book entitled as "Language in the News", "Discourse and Ideology in the Press" and also " the Language of the News " are his recent and influential works has a peculiar place in the studies of critical discourse analysis especially linguistics. In addition, the book " language and control" (1997) published by Fowler, Haj, and Trew can be counted as one of the progressive works in critical linguistics and explanation of the role of language in social control that became a progressive and productive work.

Kheir Abadi (1390), in his doctoral thesis entitled as" the Linguistic Model of Supplying and Processing the News: Critical Discourse Analysis Approach", has studied the supplying of the news and its related processes. Supplying of

the news, as a worthy phenomenon in the world of information gathering and the main offered product in the news media, has been noticed by the researchers in different fields particularly linguists and also the researchers in media and news agencies.

Agha Golzadeh and Kheir Abadi (2014), in their study entitled as "comparative study of the way of representation of Iranian and European activists in Iran nuclear records in international media", stated that one of the objectives of the critical discourse analysis is to study the unequal and hegemonic relations over media and to create the critical awareness and insight in media addresses. In the current research, 50 news and papers for two last months of 2010 on Islamic Republic of Iran atomic records published within valid international media were studied within the framework of the said model and the ways of representation by the social activists on both sides of dispute (Iran and Europe) were analyzed.

B. Analysis of the Linguistic Errors in the News Media and Texts

Agha Golzadeh and Kheir Abadi (2014), in their article entitled as "The absence of verb in the news headlines of Farsi speaking newspapers from the aspect of critical discourse analysis", argued that the news text of the newspapers are mostly narrative and in a few sentences or paragraphs describe an event cohesively. Headlines do not usually follow sentence pattern, and they have no cohesion. It seems that verb absence in headlines is more salient than its presence.

Hasani (2004) studied the types of linguistic mistakes in Seda-o- Sima (name of Iran Radio and Television Organization), and he investigated the mistakes that have come into the Persian language. He found out that the mistakes can be primarily classified into three categories. The first category includes semantic, content, and grammatical errors. The second category involves the pronunciation errors like the pronunciation of Persian and Arabic words, signs and phrases whether verses, hadiths and proverbs. The third category includes prosodic errors in reciting the poem. He later has mentioned some examples for each part of these mistakes.

In a news report, the text from which the news has been reported (secondary discourse) and the report itself (primary discourse) must be differentiated from each other. The way of representing the secondary discourse by primary discourse has two main types: direct and indirect quotations. Each of these has its analysis. For example, the following reasons may play role in using direct quotation:

The importance and pre-eminence of secondary discourse
The dominance of the source of secondary discourse
The liking of news report setters to get away from or close to secondary discourse

III. METHOD

A. Research Data

The sample was selected from some of the country's present news sites and agencies. In this study, one news agency and three news sites were selected. For this research, two first news pages in these selected sites and agencies were observed within two weeks to achieve the samples needed to be studied.

B. Data Collection

The data were collected in a library form using the archive of the news sites and agencies. The researcher, randomly but systematically, selects the concerned news agencies from the available agencies in Iran, then by going to the concerned news sites and agencies archive for two weeks, she studied and observed one special news agency in the selected sources and used them as research sample.

Ranking of the selected news agencies according to ALEXA.com Ranking was as follows:

Fars news agency: 9
Tabnak news agency: 12
Alef news agency: 68
Asr-e- Iran news agency: 23

In this study, 2074 sentences from three news sites and one news agency were studied for two weeks from 1393/05/15 to 1393/05/30. These sentences were selected from the news of the first page of the concerned sites. From each of these sites 25 news pages were extracted so that altogether 100 pages were attained from four concerned sources. 709 sentences from Alef news agency, 426 sentences from Tabnak news agency, 468 sentences from Asr-e- Iran news agency , and 471 sentences from Fars news agency were assessed that constitute the data of the present research.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Studying Syntactic Level of Sentence

Constituent order of the sentence in the news headlines (sentence word order):

This method is also called "word order." However, a better term for it is "constituent order" which refers to the order of the constituents placement in the sentence that shows how the constituents are related to each other. Within the fluent Persian, it is the tradition to put each of the constituent words of the sentences in its distinct place, but in the past it has been noted less. As it was mentioned before, the constituent order of the sentence in verb clause sentences is as follows:

1.Subject 2. Direct object 3. Indirect object (verb complement) 4- verb and in predicative sentences, the word order is like the following: 1.Subject 2- Predicate 3- Copula verb (Ghandi, 2002, p. 106-109). In the current Farsi, a verb is usually moved to the end of the sentence but this rule is not observed in all cases.

B. Deletion of Verb in the News Headlines

Some verbs are omitted to beautify the phrase or shorten the speech. However, the verb is deleted by literal ellipsis and ellipsis. Therefore, we must know that in sentences with the deletion of the verb by literal ellipsis, the stated verb must be the same with deleted verb in every respect. In Persian, the verb is very important. Verb frequency is one of the principles of writing which structurally makes an utterance more animate if it is used appropriately. Selecting an appropriate verb has been known as an important issue for succeeding in composing the news headlines (Gandhi, 2003. p. 109-110).

The absence of verb in the news headlines is very common and it should not be just perceived as the shorter way to express a news event; rather we can enumerate other objectives for it; for example, employing this language tool makes it possible for writer to say the events indirectly and by this create ambiguity in his words (ibid).

C. Study of Morphological Level of Sentence

1. Lexical Cohesion

Transitional words and phrases, point of view, repetition of basic words and concepts, and general patterns (whether grammatical, lexical or conjunctive) make discourse cohesive. Textual cohesion shows how a writer has consecutively brought together the things he has mentioned in some sentences as allegory, description, and argument. Supporting sentences are arranged in a good paragraph in such a way that create a logical order in reader's mind. To write a cohesive text, one can use the following ways: transitional words and phrases, point of view, and the repetition of basic words and concepts. In other words, to produce a cohesive and meaningful text, facial cohesion factors , that is, lexical, grammatical, and conjunctive elements and non-facial factors including elements of dominant discourse, semantic cohesion and cultural models and also pragmatics factors should be considered.

2. Lexical Redundancy

One of the other inaccuracies which have come into Persian is using words redundantly. In the literary sense, redundancy is putting two synonymous words next to each other attributively or other than that. These two terms are often from one language (Sa'adat, 2005, p.455). Linguistically, redundancy refers to a thing that becomes possible to be predicted or deleted. This concept has been applied in various fields of language study like phonetics, phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantics.

D. Studying Writing Level of Sentences

The script refers to the written aspect of language and follows a set of rules and principles called "language grammar." The script has to stick to set of standards that we called "script grammar." According to the 15th rule of Iran constitution, a Persian script is the official script of our country. All formal documents, correspondence, and textbooks must be written in this script. Therefore, such script must naturally have known and standardized rules and principles so that everybody establishes and keeps script identity by following those principles (Academy of Persian Language and Literature, 2005). General rules of Persian academic language include the following: Keeping the face of Persian script, Keeping independence of script, Conformity of written to pronounced, Rule comprehensiveness, Ease of writing and reading, Simplicity of teaching rules, Spacing and delimitation of the word for keeping word independence and reading accuracy (ibid).

In studying the constituent order of the sentences in broadcasted news of the news sites in research given the period, 2074 sentences were investigated from which 98 sentences have breached unmarked order of sentence constituents. For instance, five of these sentences were selected from the concerned sites that were as follows:

Such matter has no reason but wrong and often inappropriate interference of human in nature (Alef news site, news code 238390, 1393/05/18)

Unmarked sentence: Such matter except for wrong and often inappropriate interferences of human in nature has no reason.

Make all power of this poor but honest nation consolidated and centralized to get the result (Asr-e- Iran news site, news code 350892, 1393/05/29)

Unmarked sentence: To get the result, consolidate and centralize all power of this poor but honest nation.

On the basis of findings, it became clear that in most cases breach of the constituent order of sentences occur because of disregarding the placement of verb and subject in sentence and displacement of adjectives and/or adverbs in which the constituents order of the sentence is not observed. This is against the syntactic principles of Persian grammar. However, media owners use special techniques to get the addressees attention more. One of these techniques is to make news headlines salient and show their importance. Therefore, through displacing some constituents of the sentence, news writer tries to make his intended important event more significant in addressees' view. For this, he utilizes news saliency technique that causes that some used sentences in the news do not follow the principles of the constituent order of a sentence in Persian so the sentence will be syntactically wrong.

Ninety-eight sentences among the total number of 2074 sentences studied in the research were found as we were considering the constituent order of the sentences in these news sites. In these 98 sentences, the order of sentences constituents was disregarded. This constitutes 4.72% of all studied sentences in this study that are illustrated in the following diagram.
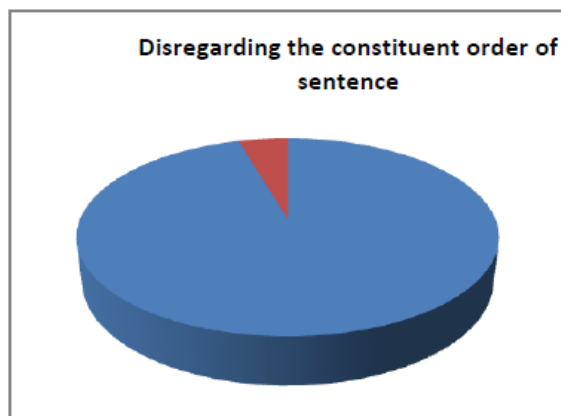

Figure1. Disregarding the constituent order of sentence Total number of sentences Order breach

In a news headline, sentence will not get out of ambiguity until a verb is not added to it, and since primary headline must always make complete sense independently and directly, the verb must be used in it.

While studying asymmetrical verb deletion in the news headlines in the studied news sites, 117 headlines were found in which 45 cases had a deleted verb in their sentences. Five of these sentences, as an example, were selected from the concerned news sites:

Yemenis still looking for achieving Islamic awareness requests

Unmarked sentence: Yemenis still seek to achieve Islamic knowledge requests.

3.2 billion rial raise in research budgets of Gonbad Kavoos Azad University

Unmarked sentence: The research budgets of Gonbad Kavoos Azad University raised to 3.2 billion rials.

One of the news correspondents' technique for making the news salient is to delete the verb in news headline so that it creates a kind of ambiguity in headline and it motivates addressee to read the rest of news and ne aware of theme of the news. So, this technique is prevalent on the news sites and the main purpose to shorten the sentence and delete verb is making a headline more interesting in addressee's mind.

Regarding asymmetrical verb deletion, 117 news headlines were studied in data among which 45 cases of headlines had a deleted verb. This number comprises 38.46% of all headlines under study in this research that are shown in this figure:
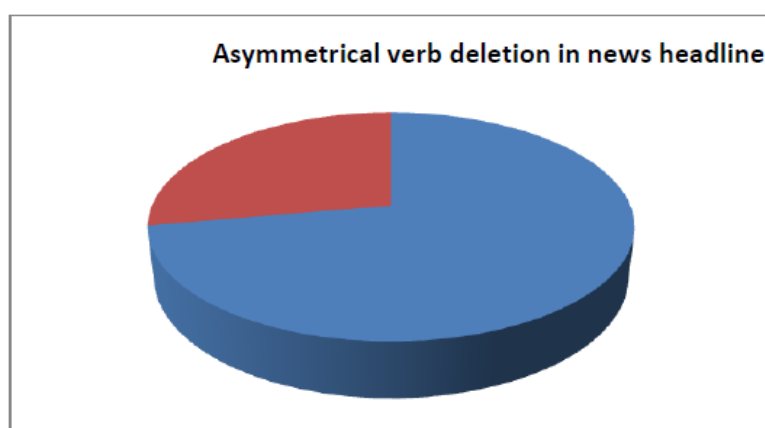
Figure4.2 Asymmetrical verb deletion in news headlines Total number of news headlines Analysis of morphological level of sentence

Lexical cohesion and redundancy were studied in morphological level of the sentences in the news sites and agencies:
1. Lexical cohesion

In forming the text, besides structural relations between the inner parts of the sentence and clause, a number of meta sentence semantic relations is also intelligible that are facially represented by cohesion factors such as reference, substitution, and lexical ellipsis.

We also dealt with studying the repetition process of words in news headlines as we studied the lexical cohesion in the news sites and agencies. On account of this, 117 news headlines were selected from the relevant news sites. The frequency of 10 highly repetitive words of them is as follows:

10	9	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
امریکا America	رئیس جمهور president	سوریه Syria	ایران Iran	داعش Daish	سیاست politics	مردم people	اقتصاد economy	دولت government	یارانه subsidy	واژه word
6	8	9	9	10	10	11	11	13	15	بسامد تکرار Frequency of repetition

According to research data, it is evident that the most frequent words in the news headlines include the words that are more about people's daily events and economies such as subsidy, government, economy, and people. Following these, attention to political affairs is a top priority. It consists of words like the president, Daesh, America, politics, and Syria. In this range, word" subsidy" has the highest and word "America" the lowest frequency of repetition. This showed the lexical cohesion of the news headlines in the public's favorite areas.

2. Lexical Redundancy

Lexical redundancy is a linguistic error that occurs unconsciously by the news writer as he writes the news text. The news correspondent adds additional explanations to it to make the central theme of the news ambiguous and distract the addressee's mind from the main point. The application of this feature in the news texts is due to the correspondent's lack of mastery in the art of writing the news. The news correspondent's carelessness to clarify of the news text in transferring the message is due to the ambiguousness of the text. The more ambiguity the news text is, the more problem the addressee has in understanding the news. As a result, redundancy in news correspondence should be avoided so that the central theme of the news should be offered clearly to the addressee with brief and striking words in order to be easily perceived by the recipient.

Five sentences of these were selected from the relevant news sites. The sentences in which lexical redundancy was used are the following:

Different Yemeni tribes became united with each other against central government (Alef news site, news code 238395, 26/05/1393)

Lexical redundancy: became united with each other

Referring to this principle is to repeat the last years repetitious things

(Fars news agency, news code 13930529001681, 1393/05/29)

Lexical redundancy: repeating the repetitious things

While studying the lexical redundancy in the news sites sentences, 42 sentences were found from 2074 constituent sentences of the research in which the lexical redundancy was used. This makes up 2.02% of all studied sentences in the study that were shown in the following figure.
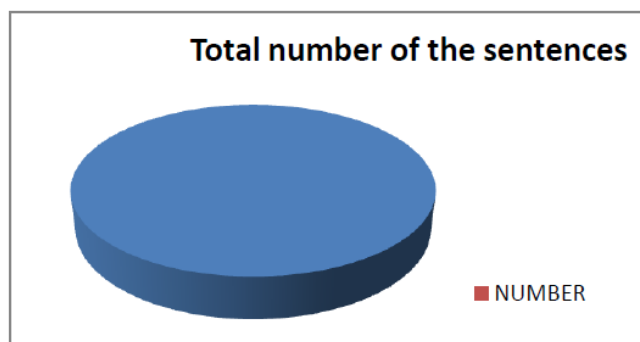
Figure4.3. Use of lexical redundancy in sentences Total number of sentences Using redundancy

In writing level, we studied typographical errors and writing mistakes in broadcasted news on the news sites. These errors are as follows:

Analysis of writing the level of the sentence. When we were studying typographical errors in the news sites sentences, 195 sentences were found from 2074 sentences. They were wrong in following the principles of typing and spelling. As an example, five sentences have been selected from the concerned news sites that are as follows:

Dowlat dar sharayet zamame umur ra be dast gereft ke sakhtarin vazeyate eghtesadi keshvar teye salhaye ba'ad va ghabl az enghelab re dashtim(Alef news site, news code 238418, 1393/05/24).

Correct sentence: Dowlat dar sharayeti zaamame umur ra be dast gereft ke sakhtarin vazeyate eghtesadi keshvar teye salhaye ba'ad va ghabl az enghelab ra dashtim.

Emrooz baraye eghtesad ma az janebe barkhi pinshahad mishavad (Fars news agency, news code 13930529000245, 1393/05/29).

Correct sentence: Emrooz baraye eghtesad ma az janebe barkhi pishnahad mishavad.

Studying typographical errors in the sentences of the news sites, from among 2074 studied sentences, 195 sentences were found in which the sentence was wrong in observing the spelling and typographical principles. This constitutes 9.40% of total studied sentences that are shown in the following diagram:
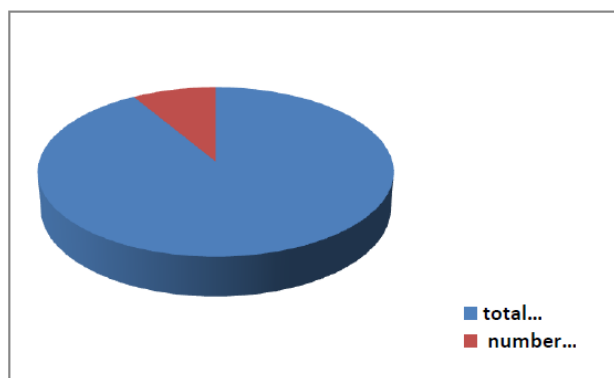

Figure4-4: Typographical errors in the news sites sentences Total number of sentences number of errors

Most of spelling and typographical errors are one or two letters displacement with each other, deletion of one or two letters in a word, wrong typing of one same letter and often repetition of a whole word. The appearance of typographical errors in the news text of the news sites is probably because of high speed in supplying the news and because these bulletins are online and have no time limit for producing news to publish them in special hours . Spelling and typographical errors are completely removed by a little more attention to typing the materials and reviewing and rereading the same materials by another person.

In studying writing mistakes in 2074 sentences in the studied news sites, 385 sentences were found having mistakes in not following the writing principles. Disregarding these principles makes the sentence ambiguous to understand and causes that text reader does not comprehend the writer's intention correctly. Five sentences of these are selected from the relevant sites that will be said in the following:

١- و یا در صنایع نیروگاهی برای ایجاد هر شغل باید ۹۴۰ میلیون تومان هزینه کرد.(سایت الف، کد خبر ۲۳۸۴۸۸، ۱۳۹۳ /۰۵/۲۸)

جمله بی نشان: .... و یا در صنایع نیروگاهی برای ایجاد هر شغل باید ۹۴۰ میلیون تومان هزینه کرد.

٢- چراکه کسانی که در این وضعیت بد اقتصادی با به کار انداختن خط تولید برای چند نفر شغل ایجاد می کنند لایق و شایسته احترام هستند. (خبرگزاری فارس، کد خبر ۱۳۹۳۰۵۲۹۰۰۰۲۴۵ ، ۱۳۹۳ /۰۵/۲۹)

جمله بی نشان: چراکه کسانی که در این وضعیت بد اقتصادی با به کار انداختن خط تولید برای چند نفر شغل ایجاد می‌کنند لایق و شایسته احترام هستند

385 sentences were found while we were studying writing mistakes in 2074 sentences in the studied news sites. According to the writing principles of the Academy of Persian Language and Literature, these sentences were not true. This consists 18.56% of the studied sentences that were illustrated in the following diagram.

Figure 4.5. Writing mistakes in the news sites sentences Total number of sentences Number of mistakes

Most of the writing mistakes are the following:
1. Disregarding space and semi-space between letters and words
2. Joint writing of words that have two separate parts and they must be written separately.
3. Lack of observing punctuations such as comma, colon, period, and quotation.

A variety of reasons causes that writing principles will not be found in the news of the news sites. These reasons include the following:

1. Observing the writing and editing principles in Iran are related to taste in a way that most media and news agencies owners follow their own special institute's writing principles for composing the news. These principles may not be equal to the enacted writing principles of the Academy of Persian Language and Literature.

2. Some news correspondents are not familiar enough with the news writing and editing principles, and they have empirically learned the arts of writing the news, so this causes the mistakes like these.

3. Many of news correspondents do not have university education related to the field of news correspondence.

4. We do not have complete and comprehensive teaching courses of professional news correspondence in our country, and most correspondents are taught either in university or welcome this profession through the news related institutions. Because there is an abundance of these centers in country and since their offered teachings are not consolidated, we see the appearance of writing, editing, and other linguistic errors in broadcasted news in the country's news sites and agencies.

As we were studying the writing errors in 2074 sentences of the studied news sites, 385 sentences were found which were wrong, according to the observance of the writing principles of Persian language and literature academy. This constitutes 18.56% of the studied sentences. Of these, 205 cases were related to lack of observing comma inappropriate setting of sentence, 185 cases pertained to lack of using correct spacing between letters, 127 cases were relative to incorrect joint writing of words , and 65 cases were joined with lack of following declarative colon in its suitable place. All of these are specified in the following figure.
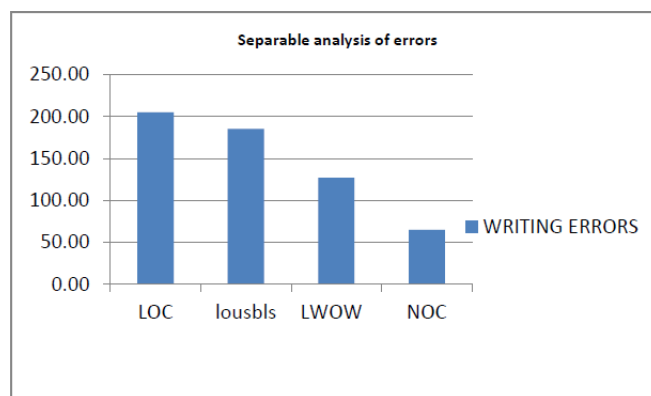
Figure 4.6. Separable analysis of writing errors Writing errors Lack of observing comma Joint writing of words Lack of using space between letters Not using comma

V. CONCLUSION

Since some news of oral speech turns exactly into writing, we also noticed some linguistic errors when the message is transferred from speech into writing. Moreover, one of the saliency techniques of the news by the news correspondents is deleting the verb in the headline. Verb deletion in news headline causes some ambiguity and duality in a headline, and this makes addressee eager to read the rest of the news and get to know the theme of the news. So, this technique is common in the news sites. Typographical errors and lack of using punctuation are the most common writing errors in the news of the news sites and agencies. The findings showed that most of the orthographical and typographical errors include the displacement of one or two letters with each other, deleting one or two letters in a word , wrong typing of one similar letter, and often repeating one whole word. The high-frequency of typological errors in the news texts of the news sites may be due to the high speed in supplying the news of these sites.

Since these bulletins are online and have no time limitation for supplying the news to publish them on certain hours, they try to make their site the first site which makes an event communicated. On account of this, in time of supplying and composing the news, orthographical / spelling writing of the words and their accurate writing may be overlooked so cause errors like these. The spelling and typographical errors will be removed completely with a bit more attention to typing the materials and reviewing and rereading them by another person. In studying lexical cohesion in the news sites and agencies, we looked into the process of lexical repetition in the news headlines. On this basis, 117 headlines were selected from the relevant news sites for which the frequency of 10 highly repetitive words of them is as follows:

Based on the research data , the most frequent words in the news headlines are found to be the words that are more on the daily events of people and their economy such as subsidy, government, economy, and people. After that, political affairs are in the top priority to be minded which includes words like the President, Daesh, America, politics, and Syria. In this range, the word "subsidy" has the highest and "America" the lowest frequency of repetition. It denotes the lexical cohesion of the news headlines in areas that are favored by the general public.

The commonest linguistic error in the sentences used in the news sites and agencies is using lexical redundancy. Lexical redundancy is one of the linguistic errors that unconsciously happen by the news writer as he is corresponding the news text. The correspondent makes the main theme of the news ambiguous by adding additional explanations to it so the addressee's mind will be distracted.The use of this feature in the news texts is due to the news correspondent's

lack of mastery in the arts of news correspondence and his inattention to the candor and clarity of the news text in transferring the message because the more ambiguous the news text is, the more the addressee will be in difficulty to understand the news. Consequently, using redundancy in the news correspondence should be avoided for the news main theme to be communicated to the addressee clearly and explicitly with succinct and interesting words to be understood easily by the addressee.

REFERENCES

[1]   Agha Golzadeh and Kheir Abadi. (2014). The absence of verb in the news headlines of Farsi speaking newspapers,*language research*,NO. 9
[2]   Agha Golzadeh and Kheir Abadi. (2014). comparative study of the way of representation of Iranian and European activists in Iran nuclear records in international media, *Language related research*,NO.1
[3]   Asarberger, A. (2009). Media analysis methods. (Translation of Parviz Ejlali): Tehran, Department media development.
[4]   Aghagholizadeh, F,& Kheirabad, R. (2013). Iranian and Western comparative study of ways of representing actors on the nuclear issue of Iran in the international media, *language inquiries* , 4,13,1-19]
[5]   Ali Abadi, G. and A. Asadi.. (2001). ID World News Agency, Tehran, Press Department of the Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance.
[6]   Ali Abadi, G and Asadi, A. (2001). Identification of the World News Agency , Tehran: The organization of the Press and Ministry of Culture and Islamic Guidance.
[7]   Aghagholizadeh, F,& Kheirabad, F.(2012). The lack of verb in the Persian language newspaper article news topics. *Journal of English Studies*, 5, 9,220-235.
[8]   Elmianvari, A., & Kheirabadi, R. (2013). Interactive theoretical model of text processing reflected in reading comprehension: An experimental study. Journal of Language Teaching and Research, 4(2), 279-290.
[9]   Fowler. (1991). Language in the News, discourse and ideology in the press. Rutlebge.
[10] Ghandi , H.(2005). modern journalism, Tehran: Allameh Tabatabai University.
[11] harrison's. (2000). News. Abingdon: Routledge.
[12] Hasani , H. (2005), looking at the types of language errors in Media, Proceedings of the seminar on radio and television and in the media, Tehran. Publication of Tarh E Ayandeh.
[13] Kheirabadi, R. (1390). Production and processing linguistic notions news: critical discourse analysis approach. Doctoral dissertation., Tarbiat Modarres University.
[14] Kheirabadi, R., & Alavi Moghaddam, S. B. (2014). New horizons in teaching English in Iran: A transition from reading-based methods to communicative ones by "English for School Series". *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, 5(4), 225-232.
[15] Neamati, M. (2004). The negative impact of the English language through translations and texts, press wrong. *The study of foreign language*s, 23, 1, 107-118.
[16] Shokrkhah, J. (2001). News. Tehran: Media Research Center.
[17] Shkrkhvah, J. (2001). Graphic manifestation of objective events . *Special Education*. 1.1.220-232.

Elham Akbari was born in Tehran, Iran in 1981. She received B.A degree in linguistics from Shahrood University, Iran in 2014.
   She is currently a supervisor in the Masoomeh Educational Compound, Tehran, Iran. Her research interests include discourse analysis and News Agencies.

Reza Kheirabadi was born in Tehran, Iran in 1979.He received PHD degree in linguistics from Tarbiat Modares University, Iran in 2011.
   He is a faculty member of organization for educational research and planning (OERP)

Differential Effects of Explicit, Implicit, and Incidental Teaching on Learning Grammatical Cohesive Devices

Zeynab Bagheri

Department of English Language, Ardabil Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran;
Department of English Language, Ardabil Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran

Asgar Mahmoudi

Department of English Language, Ardabil Branch, Islamic Azad University, Ardabil, Iran

Abstract—The present study investigated the effects of explicit, implicit, and incidental teaching of Grammatical Cohesive Devices (GCDs) on students' application of these devices. Sixty Iranian intermediate EFL learners were selected and randomly assigned to three groups of 20. Each group received 15 hours of instruction during 10 sessions and was exposed to a different kind of instruction. The explicit group was exposed to conscious learning. In the implicit group the learners were exposed to grammatical cohesive devices through different instances and uses, and in the incidental group the learners underwent teaching GCDs without any conscious attention to these devices or their functions. Materials used for the research purposes were only reading passages although the learners were engaged in other activities too during the experiment. At the final stage of the treatment, all participants were given the same cloze test that was used in the pretests and were asked to complete the test by using appropriate GCDs. The findings indicated that the participants with explicit instruction performed better as compared with participants who received implicit and incidental instruction. However there was not a statistically significant difference between the implicit and incidental groups' performance.

Index Terms—explicit, implicit, incidental, grammatical cohesive devices

I. INTRODUCTION

Cohesive devices constitute an important part of the system of language which has potentials for meaning enhancement. Cohesion occurs where the interpretation of one element in the text is dependent on the other. In other words, without resorting to other elements, either preceding or following an element, it will be difficult to decode it (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Moreover it has been proved that cohesive devices give a well-organized structure to different skills.

In spite of their importance, grammatical cohesive devices (GCDs) have been ignored in Iranian EFL context which has had two adverse consequences: first, a large number of Iranian EFL learners are poor in recognizing word relations in texts; second, they do not know how to use these devices to produce complete meaningful sentences and texts.

To be proficient in using GCDs, learners must be able to engage in finding and using appropriate cues in texts and discourses through appropriate ways of teaching. Several studies (e.g., Bialystok, 1979; Gass, 1999; Laufer, 2001; Leow, 2000; Leung & Williams, 2011;Marzban&Mokhberi, 2012; Nazari, 2013; Rahimpour & Salimi, 2010;Rott, 1999; Wode, 1999) indicate that explicit, implicit and incidental teachings of GCDs have differential effects on the language learning processes of students.

Most of the earliest research on GCDs was method oriented and examined differences resulting from exposure to different methods. However, it is a proven fact that, while we learn some cohesive devices formally in some very specific situations, incidental and informal learning are even more important for a comprehensive knowledge of these devices. Zamel (1983) argues that since linking devices, in spite of their importance in comprehension and production of different skills, are problematic for foreign language learners, different teaching and learning strategies should be used for effective presenting and teaching them.

This study investigated how different ways of teaching GCDs can affect Iranian EFL learners' effective use of them and understanding textual relations. The study was justified by the scarcity of studies on the effects of teaching GCDs in Iranian context hoping that conducting such a research would be of help to Iranian EFL learners, teachers, and program developers.

A. Textuality and Grammatical Cohesion

McCarthy (1991) defines textuality as the feeling that the collection of sentences we are dealing with is not a chance collection. Text grammar is concerned with the way that sentences are glued or related to each other and it is different

from sentence grammar whose focus is on how single sentences are constructed. Text grammar is, therefore, a subsection of discourse analysis, which is preoccupied with units larger than sentence.

In every text the relationship between sentences should be clear. This clarity is called grammatical cohesion and is created through using various GCDs. Grammatical cohesion helps the readers understand which items are referred to and in a sense bonds different sections of the text to each other (Harmer, 2004).

In addition, to be able to interpret sentences which are semantically related, the existence of a shared linguistic environment is necessary. A sentence such as "so did she" is both semantically and grammatically correct. However, we do not know who the pronoun *she* refers to or what the activity was. This means that, we have to look at the sentence's surrounding environment to find out about these things and GCDs are essential in telling us where to look for such information.

B. Types of Grammatical Cohesion

Halliday and Hassan (1976) introduce the major classes of GCDs pointing out that each of these major classes is still divisible to a small number of discrete categories. The major classes of GCDs, according to Halliday and Hassan, are reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction, which provide a framework for describing and analyzing any kind of text in terms of their coherence.

1. Reference: Reference relates one element of the text to another for its interpretation. It refers to "specific items within a text/discourse which cannot be interpreted semantically in their own right but make reference to something else" (Haliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 31).

2. Substitution: "Substitution, as another type of cohesive relation, is the process in which one item within a text or discourse is replaced by another. It is a relation on the lexico-grammatical level between linguistic items, such as words or phrases" (Haliday & Hasan, 1976, pp. 88–89).

3. Ellipsis: Ellipsis is an omission of an element required by the grammar which is assumed obvious from the context and need not to be raised. The process can, therefore, be "interpreted as that form of substitution in which [an] item is replaced by nothing" (Haliday & Hasan, 1976, p. 88).

4. Conjunction: Conjunction functions to connect one element of text with another. The element which is connected can be a word, phrase, clause, sentence, or even a paragraph.

C. Methods of Teaching and Learning

1. Explicit learning: Ellis (1994) refers to explicit learning as a conscious search operation whereby an individual makes hypotheses and tests them to come up with a structure.

2. Implicit learning: Implicit learning, in contrast, is defined as the natural acquisition of knowledge about a structure which is complex without undue or conscious effort (Ellis, 1994).

3. Incidental learning: Incidental learning is defined by Hulstijn as the "learning something as a by-product of an activity not explicitly geared to that learning" (2001, p. 271).

D. Research Hypotheses

H_01: Grammatical cohesive devices are not affected by teaching.

H_02: Methods of teaching do not affect the learning of grammatical cohesive devices differentially.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Explicit instruction and its effect on the efficiency of interpreting implicatures was the subject of Bouton's (1994) investigation of 14 non-native speakers of English. He was interested in knowing if classroom instruction of particular rules and application patterns of implicatures could speed up interpreting skills of the students in a rather short time. Results indicated that focused instruction of formulaic implicatures was extremely useful in developing the interpretation skill.

Tateyama (2001) compared implicit teaching with explicit teaching by employing 102 non-Japanese university students in Hawaii, who were learning Japanese *sumimasen*. A short video was shown twice to the implicit group without asking them to get engaged in meta-pragmatic activities. The explicit group watched the movie only once but the students in the group were asked to participate in explicit meta-pragmatic activities. Although Tateyama found no significant differences between the groups he had studied, his conclusion was that explicit teaching facilitates the acquisition of pragmatic routines more than the degree that implicit teaching does. Dastjerdi and Shirzad's (2010) findings were similar to Tateyama's findings but in their study explicit instruction of meta-discourse markers had significantly improved EFL learners' writing ability in comparison to implicit instruction. The unpredicted finding was that intermediate-level learners improved significantly greater than the advanced- and elementary-level students.

Along the same lines but in a rather limited study, Maeda (2011) examined the efficacy of implicit and explicit teaching of the use of 'please' in the area of request strategies among 146 second year high school students. The results showed that explicit teaching had an advantage because of the detailed explanation on the use of 'please' in the explicit group. Secondly, understanding of the implicit teaching groups was lower. However, longer procedure, was speculated, might change the result. Maeda's findings were confirmed by Rahimi and Riasati (2012) who investigated the effect of

explicit vs. implicit instruction of discourse markers on learners' oral production. Students attending the speaking course in one of the groups received no explicit instruction on DMs, whereas students attending the same course in the other group received instruction on them. Results indicated that participants in the implicit group did not show to use discourse markers frequently. In contrast, learners in the experimental group used discourse markers frequently in their speech.

Mobalegh and Saljooghian (2012) examined the effect of explicitly instructing reading strategies on learners' perceptions of cohesive ties (reference, substitution, conjunction, and ellipses) in reading. Their findings revealed that this method can be helpful in improving learners' ability in perceiving reference and ellipsis aspects of cohesive ties. The two other aspects (conjunction and substitution) were not improved so much. In a slightly different study, Rassouli and Abbasvandi (2013) found both positive and negative effects for teaching cohesive devices. It was found that instruction could promote the learners' use of cohesive devices in writing, but the learners' writing quality did not improve because the instruction led to more repetition in writings.

Another experimental study was carried out by Badiozzaman and Gorjian (2014) who investigated the effect of learners' awareness of transition strategies on 60 pre-intermediate English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners' performance in writing descriptive essays. The control group attending the writing course received conventional instruction, but the experiment group received an explicit treatment on how to use transition in their paragraph development. Results showed that the experimental group, who received instruction on transition strategies, used transitions in their writing essays more effectively. A process oriented program, conducted by Sahebkheir and Aidinlou (2014) found similar results. Students in the experimental group outperforming the control group in terms of using conjunctions appropriately. There are, however, studies with mixed results. For example, Yali (2010) explored the relationship between reading in L2 and the acquisition of vocabulary. He also examined the effect of different vocabulary instructional techniques, i.e., incidental vs. intentional on the vocabulary learning in Chinese universities. The finding was that both instructional treatments result in significant gains but greater gains and retention are only achievable when the two techniques are combined.

A series of descriptive studies have tried to statistically compare the proportions of GCDs used in different text types. Seken and Suarnajaya (2013), for example, aimed at analyzing students` writings in terms of the types of cohesive devices used. The results of the study indicated that the students used all five types of cohesive devices to serve the coherence of their writings but reference with 40.84%, with personal reference as the dominant form, was the most used cohesive device. Lexical cohesion was used 37.99% dominated with repetition which was followed by conjunction 19.60 %, ellipsis 1.35%, and substitution 0.29%. The results of the study implied that cohesion and coherence have to be given emphasis in teaching writing. Nga (2012) did the same thing in the context of ESP. The researcher found out that most frequently used cohesive devices in the reading texts were reference (43.98 %), then conjunction (39.72 %), and finally ellipsis and substitution (21.99 % and 1.42 %).

Nurhayati (2012) described and explained GCD's errors in 66 essays written by his students. The results of this research were as follows: there were 817 errors on the use of cohesive devices identified in the students' essays. The percentages of errors were: reference 79.07% and conjunction 17.26%. However, no error was found on the use of substitution and ellipsis.

Finally Farrokhi and Mahmoudi (2011), in the preface to their book *Discourse Markers in English*, point to the scarcity and misapplication of textual signals in Iranian students' texts whether they are oral or written. In emphasizing the importance of GCDs, they provide more than one thousand contextualized and classified examples of these devices to show how prevalent they are.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Participants of this study were Iranian male and female EFL learners whose ages ranged from 14 to 25. They were studying in an English language institute in classes in the northwest city of Ardabil. It was suspected that students` proficiency levels might affect the results of the study, so learners were screened for their proficiency using Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT) and only intermediate level students were selected.

B. Procedure

The students were randomly assigned to three groups—one control and two experimental groups—and a pretest was given to all of them. The pretest was a 'variable-ratio' cloze test with only GCDs being omitted. After that, the distributions of learners' scores were checked for normality to adopt the necessary measures in case they were in violation of the parametric tests' assumptions. Because the distributions of scores were normal, a One-way ANOVA was run on students' pretest scores to check for the homogeneity of the scores and to see if the groups were significantly different at this stage. The groups' gains over time in terms of using cohesive devices appropriately were calculated by running Paired-Samples T-tests on their pretests and posttests' results. Conclusions about which group had gained the most at the posttest stage and about the place of difference were made based on another One-way ANOVA and a post-hoc test that followed it. At the end, an effect size was calculated to find out about the strength of the difference. The test used to measure students' gains and the teaching procedure are explained in the following paragraph.

The pretest consisted of 40 items measuring the learners' knowledge of GCDs, 10 items for each category. Participants were given 40 minutes to answer the questions. Depending on the nature of methods— explicit, implicit, incidental—students in each group received 10 sessions of instruction amounting to 15 hours altogether. In the explicit group about one-third of the class time was allotted to the explicit instruction of GCDs. This amount of time was roughly kept constant for other groups too. In the Explicit group, explanations were followed by some practice to assure that the learners had understood the application of intended GCDs. For instance, reference and its types like personal references were explained and then followed by two examples as in (I like them/She gave it to us.). In the implicit group the learners were exposed to examples and uses of different kinds of GCDs like substitution or ellipses in the input-flooded texts but without any explicit instruction on their discoursal and grammatical functions. In the incidental group the participants learned GCDs through readings without any manipulation of the texts and the teacher's only role was to help them figure out the meaning of texts.

C. Materials

Different instruments were utilized in the process of conducting this research. The instruments included Oxford Proficiency Test, Connect 1and 2, their workbooks; the third volume of the Interchange 1 by Jack C. Richards (the orange book), its workbook and Halliday and Hassan's (1976) book on GCDs.

In order to measure students' performance in the area of interest, a cloze test with 40 items was also developed which was used both at the pretest and posttest stages. The reliability of this test was established using an appropriate statistical test as explained in the next section.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The OPT test used to screen the participants for their proficiency was not tested for its reliability because it is a standard test the reliability of which is already established. But, the reliability of the cloze test used both in the pretest and posttest was checked. The result of the Cronbach's Alpha internal-consistency reliability calculated using SPSS is given below.

TABLE 4.1
RELIABILITY OF THE PROFICIENCY TEST

Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.755	4

The test gives a relatively high reliability value. Reliability values above .70 are acceptable according to Pallant (2013). As the next step, the normality of the distributions of pretest scores, as one of the assumptions of parametric tests, was controlled for by running a 1-Sample KS test. Table 4.2 represents the results of this test.

TABLE 4.2
NORMALITY OF THE PRETEST SCORES' DISTRIBUTIONS

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	pretest explicit group	pretest implicit group	pretest incidental group
N	20	20	20
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	.408	.547	.498
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.996	.926	.965

a. Test distribution is Normal.

As can be seen in Table 4.2, all *sig* values are non-significant which means that the normality assumption was not violated. The finding that the distributions of scores are normal, however, is not enough and should be buttressed by the other two assumptions of parametric tests, that is, the homogeneity of variances and the independence of scores. The latter requirement had already been met because all data points came from different people. However, to test for the homogeneity of variances in the groups running a One-way ANOVA was necessary. This test, in addition to producing Leven's homogeneity table, could help us ascertain that the groups did not have any significant differences at the beginning of the study. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 below show the results of these tests.

TABLE 4.3
TEST OF PRETEST SCORES' HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES

Pretest scores

Leven's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.708	2	57	.497

TABLE 4.4
ANOVA TABLE OF PRETEST SCORES

Pretest scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	1.633	2	.817	.059	.943
Within Groups	785.300	57	13.777		
Total	786.933	59			

A non-significant value for the Leven's test means that the groups were similar in terms of homogeneity. The ANOVA table also shows no statistically significant difference at $P< .5$ level in pretest scores among the three groups: $F (2, 57) = .059$, $P = .943$. Figure 4.1 represents this finding in the form of a bar chart with overlapping error bars and figure 4.2 represents similar information with boxplots.
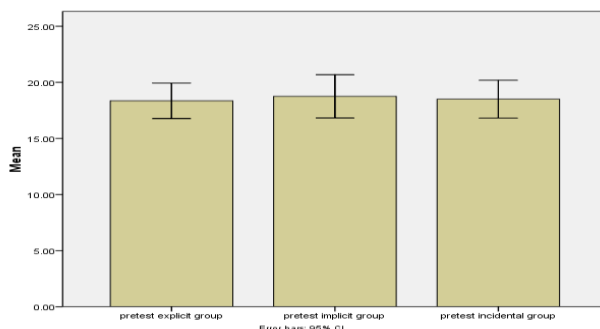
Figure 4.1 Bar charts representing the means of scores at pretest
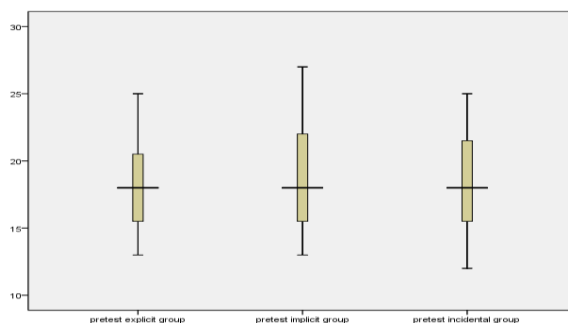
Figure 4.2 Boxplots representing pretest scores' features

That error bars overlap in Figure 4.1 points to the fact that the means of these three groups were not substantially different at the pretest stage. The boxplots, too, provide us with visual information about the ranges, variances, and medians of these groups, which are very similar.

The next step in our data analysis was to compare the participants' gains from pre- to posttest in each group to discover if any significant changes had happened. To this end, running Paired-samples T-tests were inevitable. The results of the T-tests and their accompanying bar chart with error bars are given below.

TABLE 4.5
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TESTS COMPARING PRETEST AND POSTTEST RESULTS

Paired Samples T-tests

		Paired Differences				
		95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	pretest explicit group - posttest explicit	-17.21456	-13.78544	-18.921	19	.000
Pair 2	pretest implicit group - posttest implicit	-11.82809	-9.17191	-16.548	19	.000
Pair 3	pretest incidental group posttest incidental	-10.32472	-7.77528	-14.860	19	.000
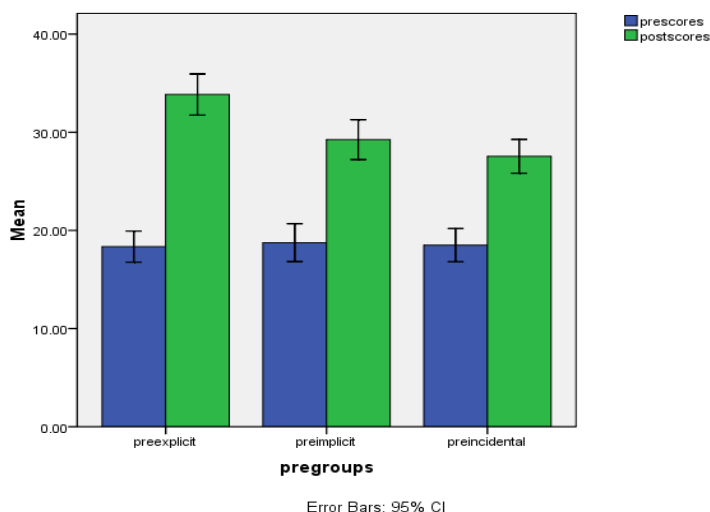
Figure 4.3 Bars comparing groups' pre- and posttest results

It is obvious from Table 4.5 (with all *P* values equal to .000) and Figure 4.3 (with non-overlapping error bars in each group) that all three groups have made significant improvements in their use of GCDs from pretests to posttests. At this point it is necessary to compare the means of all three groups in posttest stage to find out whether the teaching methods taken together had any significant effect on the performance of groups. If this proves to be the case, running a post-hoc test to find the location of difference or differences will be inevitable, although from figure 4.3 we can tentatively say that the main difference lied between explicit and incidental groups. Table 4.6 shows the results of ANOVA run on posttest data.

TABLE 4.6
COMPARING MEANS OF THE GROUPS AT POSTTEST STAGE

ANOVA

Posttest scores	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	424.933	2	212.467	12.193	.000
Within Groups	993.250	57	17.425		
Total	1418.183	59			

We can see clearly in the table that the difference between the groups is significant at $F(2, 57), = 12.193, P = .000$. This compels us to run the post-hoc test the results of which are given in Table 4.7 below.

TABLE 4.7
POST-HOC TEST

Multiple Comparisons

(I) posttest groups	(J) posttest groups	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	4.60000[*]	1.32005	.004	1.2820	7.9180
	3	6.30000[*]	1.32005	.000	2.9820	9.6180
2	1	-4.60000[*]	1.32005	.004	-7.9180	-1.2820
	3	1.70000	1.32005	.442	-1.6180	5.0180
3	1	-6.30000[*]	1.32005	.000	-9.6180	-2.9820
	2	-1.70000	1.32005	.442	-5.0180	1.6180

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

Scheffe post-hoc test reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between the Implicit group (M=29.25, SD=4.32) and the Incidental group (M=27.55, SD=3.67). However, significant differences can be seen between the Explicit group (M=33.85, SD=4.47) and the Implicit group (M=29.25, SD=4.32) and also between the Explicit group (M=33.85, SD=4.47) and the Incidental group (M=27.55, SD=3.67). These findings can be shown visually using a means plot as represented in Figure 4.4 below.
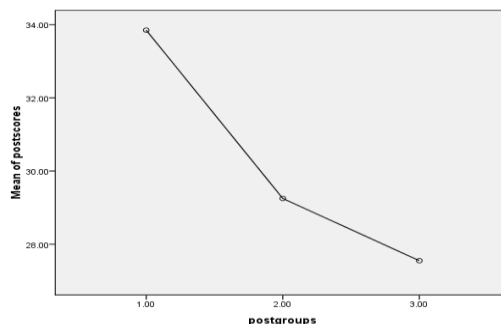
Figure 4.4 Posttest means plot

V. DISCUSSION

Our results from analyzing the data reveal that we have to reject both first and second hypotheses. In the case of the first hypothesis, the results of Paired-samples T-tests showed significant gains from pretests to posttests. In the case of method effect, we learned from the ANOVA and post-hoc tests that there had been a real difference and that this difference lied between the explicit and incidental and explicit and implicit groups but not between the implicit and incidental groups. These findings are in conformity with a lot of studies that were referred to in the review of the related literature section. Although there were a few studies with mixed results, the majority of the studies reviewed for the sake of this study confirmed superiority of the explicit teaching of GCDs over the implicit and incidental teaching methods as was found in this study.

REFERENCES

[1]   Badiozzaman, A., & Gorjian, B. (2014). The Impact of Iranian learners' awareness transition   strategies on writing descriptive essays among Pre-Intermediate EFL Learners. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*, *6*, 98–114.
[2]   Bialystok, E. (1979). Explicit and implicit judgments of L2 grammaticality. *Language Learning, 29*, 81–103.
[3]   Bouton, L. F. (1994). Can NNS skill in interpreting implicature in American English be improved through explicit instruction? : A Pilot Study. *Pragmatics and Language Learning: Monograph Series*, *5*, 89–109.
[4]   Dastjerdi, H., & Shirzad, M. (2010). The Impact of explicit instruction of metadiscours markers on EFL Learners' writing Performance. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills*, *2*, 154–174.
[5]   Ellis, N. C. (1994). Implicit and explicit learning of languages. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.
[6]   Farrokhi, F., & Mahmoudi, A. (2011). Discourse markers in English. Tabriz: Tabriz University Press.
[7]   Gass, S. (1999). Incidental vocabulary learning: Discussion. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 19–333.
[8]   Haliday, M. A. K., & Hasan, R. (1976). Cohesion in English. London: Longman.
[9]   Harmer, J. (2004). How to teach Writing. Harlow: Longman.
[10]   House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a Foreign Language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 225–252.
[11]   Hulstijn, J. H. (2001). Intentional and incidental second language vocabulary learning: A reappraisal of elaboration, rehearsal and automaticity. In P. Robinson (Ed.), *Cognition and second language instruction* (258–287). New York: Cambridge.
[12]   Laufer, B. (2001). Reading, word-focused activities and incidental vocabulary acquisition in a second language. *Prospect*, 16, 44–54.
[13]   Leow, R. P. (2000). A study of the role of awareness in foreign language behavior: Awareness unaware learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 22, 557–584.
[14]   Leung, J. H. C., & Williams, J. N. (2011). The implicit learning of mappings between forms and contextually derived meanings. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 33, 33–55.
[15]   Maeda, S. (2011). A Study of implicit teaching and explicit teaching of the usage of "Please" to high school students. The 16th Conference of Pan-Pacific Association of Applied Linguistics (pp. 436– 443). Tokyo, Japan.
[16]   Majdeddin, K. (2010). Cohesive devices in students' IELTS writing tasks. *Iran International Journal of Language Studies*, 4, 1–8.
[17]   Marzban, A., & Mokhberi, M. (2012). The Effect of focus on form instruction on intermediate EFL learners' grammar learning in task-based language teaching. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 46, 5340–5344.
[18]   McCarthy, M. (1991). Discourse analysis for language teachers. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[19]   Mobalegh, A., & Saljooghian, M. (2012). The Effect of teaching reading strategies explicitly on students' understanding of cohesion in reading. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 3, 1180–1185.
[20]   Nazari, N. (2013). The effect of implicit and explicit grammar instruction on learners' achievements in receptive and productive modes. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 70, 156 –162.
[21]   Nga, C. T. (2012). Analysis of cohesive devices in the ESP textbook on accounting at university of labor and social affair (M.A Thesis). University of Languages and International Studies, Hanoi, Vietnam.
[22]   Nurhayati, Y. (2012). The Error analysis on the use of cohesive devices in English writing essay among the seventh semester students (graduating paper). State Institute for Islamic Studies, Satatiga, Indonesia.
[23]   Pallant, J. (2013). SPSS survival manual. Berkshire: Open University Press.

[24] Rahimi, F., & Riasati, M. J. (2012). The Effect of explicit instruction of discourse markers on the quality of oral output. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 1, 70– 81.

[25] Rahimpour, M., & Salimi, A. (2010). The impact of explicit instruction on foreign language learners. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 1740–1746.

[26] Rassouli, M., & Abbasvandi, M. (2013). The Effects of explicit instruction of grammatical cohesive devices on intermediate Iranian learners' writing. *European Online Journal of Natural and Social Sciences*, 2, 15– 22.

[27] Rott, S. (1999). The effect of exposure frequency on intermediate language learner's incidental vocabulary acquisition and retention through reading. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition*, 21, 589–619.

[28] Sahebkheir, F., & Aidinlou, N. A. (2014). The role of explicit instruction on using conjunctions in Iranian EFL learners' written performance. *International Journal of Language and Linguistics*, 2, 121–126.

[29] Seken, K., Suarnajaya, W., & Aybe. A. (2013). An Analysis of the Cohesion and Coherence of students` English writings. *e-Journal Program Pascasarjana Universitas Pendidikan Ganesha Program Studi Pendidikan BahasaInggris*. 1, 1–13.

[30] Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines: Japanese Sumimasen. In K. Rose, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in Language Teaching* (pp. 200-222). New York: Cambridge.

[31] Wode, H. (1999). Incidental vocabulary acquisition in the foreign language classroom. *Studies of Second Language Acquisition,* 21, 243–258.

[32] Yali, G., (2010). L2 vocabulary acquisition through Reading—Incidental learning and Intentional learning. *Chinese Journal of Applied Linguistics,* 33, 74–85.

[33] Zamel, V. (1983). Teaching those missing links in writing. *ELT Journal,* 37, 22–28.

Zeynab Bagheri is an MA student of ELT at Islamic Azad University, Ardabil Branch in Iran. She works on grammatical cohesive devices and discourse analysis.

Asgar Mahmoudi is an assistant professor of ELT at Islamic Azad University, Ardabil Branch in Iran. His research interests are research methodology, theories of second language learning and teaching, syllabus design, testing, and applied linguistics.

Contrastive Analysis of Lexical Choice and Ideologies in News Reporting the Same Accidents between Chinese and American Newspapers

Xianzhong He
Chang'an University, Xi'an, China

Xulu Zhou
Noblelift China, Huzhou, China

Abstract—This article probes into the lexical choice of six pieces of news reporting three safety accidents in China in *China Daily* and *The Washing Post*. By analyzing the difference of the word choice and verbal messages, the article aims to reveal the hidden ideologies in the news discourse covertly implied and unbeknownst to the readers. Guided by assumptions of critical discourse analysis and drawing on the framework of lexical classification in Halliday's (1994) systemic-functional grammar, the study finds that the seemingly impersonal, objective news reports are not neutral at all; rather, they encode ideologies to exert influence on readers' view towards the world. The article demonstrates how the two newspapers represented the same event in vastly different ways through the particular uses of lexicon that reflected their differing ideological standpoints and national interests.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, accident news, lexical choice, lexical classification, ideology

I. INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancement of information and communication technology (ICT) especially in the past decades has rendered mass media unprecedented power to affect every individual's life and worldview. News has been the most prominent genre in mass media and the most important source of information of human communication. Due to this undeniable power, news language and media discourse have inspired many critical studies in many disciplines, such as media and communication studies, applied linguistics, pragmatics, semiotics, and (critical) discourse analysis. Among these, critical discourse analysis (CDA) is an important discipline and a method aiming to disclose the relationship between language and ideology through analysis of text features in discourses and the context in which the text is produced. Through years, CDA scholars such as Bell (1991), Fowler (1991), Fowler et al. (1979), Fairclough (1989), Richardson (2007), Teo (2000) and van Dijk (2001) have found that news is never a value-free vehicle, but an ideological social practice. Though press throughout the world claims factuality, objectivity and neutrality in its news reporting, news actually not only reports the matters but reflects the attitudes of the reporters towards the events. Such attitudes and ideologies they invest inevitably exert impact on people's value orientation, political attitudes and living objectives through the so called neutral reports. News reports are inevitably influenced by culture, ideology, and social stratum, which make news unable to be reported in a completely neutral way. Therefore, it is necessary to focus on news discourse and examine the language in news to see how it embodies ideology to affect people and shape their outlook.

Accident reports are special news that focuses on "an unpleasant event, especially in a vehicle, that happens unexpectedly and causes injury or damage" or "something that happens unexpectedly and is not planned in advance" (*Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary*, 2008). Since accidents are unpredicted events which often lead to injury, death, catastrophe, financial and social misfortune, accident news belongs to downside news. Due to its negative and eruptive nature, accident news tends to attract immediate attention from the press. Being different from natural disasters, accidents are usually caused by human factors and closely related to people's life, and such news often attracts more attention. For instance, shortly after the 911 terrorist attacks which happened in the US in 2001, the same news footage was shown everywhere and the reportage dominated the stands of newsagents the world over. However, in reporting this same accident, different newspapers, television, websites, etc. produced different versions of the news due to their preferences of the choice of language features that reflect their own interpretation and ideology of the event. However, through this process, news tends to portray a misshapen picture of reality that may mislead the readers. This article attempts to analyze some news reports of the same accidents in China from the websites of *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*, aiming to reveal the hidden ideologies of the reporters, the newspapers and the Chinese and American governments unbeknownst to the readers.

The websites of *China Daily* and *The Washing Post* were chosen to study accident news because both are leading daily newspapers with widespread impact in their respective countries. *China Daily* has been the only official English language newspaper in China since its first publication in 1981. Often regarded as the "official mouthpiece" of the Chinese Communist Party, it plays a unique role in creating China's national image and in articulating the Chinese government's policies with its ideological orientations (Li, 2010). *The Washington Post,* on the other hand, is one of the most circulated and leading daily newspapers in the United States. It is notable for its political reporting on the working of the White House, Congress and the other aspects of the American government, its coverage of international news and the influence on the content it has on the other mass media (Wikipedia, 2014). Therefore, both papers can be considered as representative of the policies and concerns of their respective government. The websites of the two papers offer an ideal source to investigate linguistic features in news discourse to unravel ideological differences between them. Another reason for choosing *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* is that both are in English, so that contrastive analysis can be made on the choice of linguistic features of news of both sides conveniently.

The news reportage chosen to examine in this study are three accidents which happened in recent years in China. They are the 2011 Wenzhou train accident, the 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack and the 2014 Kunming attack. The first refers to China's first high-speed rail fatal accident when a fast moving bullet train rear-ended a stalled service on a viaduct outside Wenzhou on July 23, 2011, killing 40 people and injuring 191 others. Faulty signaling and the stormy weather and lighting, according result of the investigation conducted by the former Ministry of Railways of China, were the main causes of the accident. Train speeds were slowed from 350 km/h to 300 km/h and most projects were suspended after the accident. The second accident refers to the fatal vehicle crash in Beijing's Tian'anmen Square on October 28, 2013, when an SUV ploughed through bystanders and burst into flames, killing the three people in the car and two bystanders, and injured another 40. The crash was later identified by the police as a violent terrorist attack carefully planned, organized and premeditated by Uygur separatist groups. Eight suspects were captured in connection with the terrorist attack. The third, 2014 Kunming attack refers to the terror attack at Kunming Railway Station in Yunnan Province on March 1, 2014, after five knife-wielding terrorists killed 31 people and injured 141 others. The police shot four attackers to death and wounded and seized one on the spot. Because of the eruptive nature and the great negative impact brought by them, the three accidents were both reported by the two newspapers. The purpose of this study is to investigate the specific linguistic choices made by each newspaper, and in turn, help us to understand the ideological differences between Chinese and American news reporting the same accidents. The present study hopes to draw attention from the English teachers to notice the importance of cultivating students' critical thinking awareness and reading ability, which may help them understand English news better and deeper.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. News Discourse

News mainly deals with happenings of the recent past. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), news is the "new information about something that has happened recently; reports of recent events that appear in newspapers or on television or radio". Reah (2007: 4) defines news as "information about recent events that are of interest to a sufficiently large group, or that may affect the lives of a sufficiently large group". These definitions show that news is not only what happened recently, but what events that can be regarded as important or newsworthy. News is the communication of the selected information. Fowler (1991) believes that news media selects events according to news values, which originates from general values about the society such as "consensus" and "hierarchy", journalistic conventions, nature of sources, publication frequency and schedule and so on. Therefore, the contents of news are not just facts about the world, but in a very general sense "beliefs", "values", "theories", "propositions" and "ideology" (ibid.). Fowler (1991) thinks that news is not a newsworthy event itself, but a product of selection and transformation of a real event. Since the vast majority of events are not mentioned in news reports, so the selection of events immediately gives readers a partial view of the world. And selection is usually accompanied by transformation, differential treatment in presentation according to numerous political, economic and social factors. So the world of news is not the real world, but a world skewed and judged. The language of news is pervasive and prominent in our society. News, like any other discourse, is inevitably not a value-free reflection of reality (Fowler, 1991). Therefore, it is worthwhile to learn the way of how language works and affects people's comprehension towards this world, as well as how news is produced and shaped by values.

In different countries different languages will be used in news discourses, and the various languages used will represent particular reality of the world. Newspaper discourse has always announced its objectivity and impartiality towards the world, but with the birth of CDA, critical linguists and scholars have interrogated the assertion. Richardson (2007) has stated that,

Journalistic discourse has some very specific textual characteristics, some very specific method of text production and consumption, and is defined by a particular set of relationships between itself and other agencies of symbolic and material power. These three sets of characteristics – that is, the language of journalism, its production and consumption and the relations of journalism to social ideas and institutions – are clearly inter-related and sometimes difficult to disentangle (p.1).

Though news discourse is announced to report facts objectively and without bias, by selection and transformation, news is not merely the display of reality, and it also carries values as well as orientations. Without a critical ability, it is hard for readers to find the hidden values when they read the words on pages.

According to Gu's (2007) findings, news reports have several features different from other discourses. In news discourse, the headlines are eye-catching, and the semantic units in the lead sentences are richer in meanings than those of the opening paragraphs of other discourses. News reports often employ descending order to describe the progression of the event, and important news is often accompanied by pictures and diagrams. The inverted triangle form used to convey information is more frequent than that of other discourses. Further, news discourse is often positioned between colloquial discourse and academic discourse, and it emphasizes the use of vocabulary belonging to the basic level and category in order to be simple and to facilitate understandings by the public (ibid.). To sum up, newspaper discourse has its unique style and structure. Because of the embedded ideologies, readers are not likely to figure out its implication under the superficial language. Thus, to analyze newspaper discourses from a critical perspective is efficacious to explore the relationship between language and ideology.

B. Ideology and Lexicon in News Discourse

Ideology has been the focus of critical linguists for years, however, because the term encompasses many different meanings and functions, a single, adequate definition of ideology is difficult to find. The following two are useful for the purpose of the present research. Van Dijk (1998) sees ideology as a system of ideas and beliefs that is shared by members of social groups, organizations and institutions and that reflect the societal propositions and interests of social groups. Oktar (2001, p. 314) defines ideology as "presentations of who we are, what we stand for, what our values are and what our relationships with others are". This is particularly useful for our research as it focuses on the role ideology plays in the formation of "us" and "them" groups in society. Modern theories of ideology believe that ideology is almost everywhere in human action. Van Dijk (1998, p. 17) finds that "ideologies are typically, though not exclusively, expressed and reproduced in discourse and communication". Ideological analysis, according to him, involves examining linguistic features of various structures of different levels of discourse that are relevant for efficient expression and persuasion of ideological meanings, including surface structures (e.g. phonology and graphics), syntax (e.g. the use of passive sentences, agentless passives or nominalizations), lexicon (e.g. the choice of words and the use of euphemisms), and so on. To refer to the same persons, groups or social issues, the language users generally have a choice of several words based on genre, personal, social and socio-cultural contexts. The choice is often ideologically based. For instance, to report the same news, the reporter many choose "freedom fighter" rather than "terrorist", or "pro-choice" rather than "pro-life" to emphasize the positive implications of ingroup opinions and values and the negative ones of those of the Others. As a result, the same news event would be reported differently by different newspapers depending on the underlying ideology of the newspaper (Fang, 2001; Lee & Craig, 1992; Wang, 1993, Xu, 1999).

C. Lexical Classification

In Halliday's (1994) linguistic theory, vocabulary or lexis is a major determinant of ideational structure. He points out that lexical classification is a fundamental way of cognition for human beings. Since different individuals have different social experiences, they would possess diverse sociolinguistic abilities, which may influence their language use from the perspective of ideational experience. It would be incorrect to think that every individual possesses a single and united world-view or ideology that encompasses all aspects of his or her experience. Kress and Hodge (1979) point out that classification is regarded as the linguistic ordering of the world. Classification is based on language and thought, and without acts of classification nobody can relate concepts or words to new concepts or messages because words and concepts only exist through classification. And classification means that the description of the objects or events is mainly realized by polarized lexical choice (Xin, 2005). Words convey the imprint of society and of value judgments in particular – they convey connoted as well as denoted meanings. Lexis is always under the control of ideology, which has an impact on people's choice of words. In news discourse, the ideologies and opinions may hide in the lexical choice.

As an analytical tool of CDA, lexical classification can effectively help to expose the hidden ideology in discourses. Zhang (2011, p.32) asserts that language can not be used to describe things objectively, and the label or definition people fix on things and objects does not always reflect their intrinsic characters. It is because that under most occasions, people are influenced by their levels of cognition and their emotional experience, which would make their principles different in classification. For example, different terms are available for referring to the same object, but they may differ in a number of dimensions. For instance, the word pairs like *radical/liberal*, *terrorists/freedom fighters*, *kill/eliminate* and *censorship/reporting restrictions* can generate distinctions in ideology that is based on different principles of classification. Those word pairs are termed as dispute paradigm (Trew, 1979, p.135), which refers that a group of words could be used under a certain situation, but different choices of words would mean different stands of ideologies.

In Zhang's theory (2011), words can be divided into three categories according to their emotional coloring: commendatory words, derogatory words and neutral words. Commendatory terms are words with active evaluation that show the user's favorable attitude to his or her descriptive objects. Derogatory terms are words with negative evaluation that reflect the user's negative attitude. Neutral terms are words with no evaluation, and by using neutral words the user makes no comments on his or her descriptive objects but only states the fact. Both commendatory and derogatory words

have evaluative coloring. Therefore, journalists may use different coloring words at will, especially adjectives and adverbs, which will carry ideologies behind them.

In the present research, the authors chose different lexis used to describe the same object or process in news reporting the same accident in the websites of *China Daily* and *The Washington Post,* utilizing the analytical tool of lexical classification. By comparing different evaluative coloring in the chosen words, the study tries to uncover the ideologies behind the words and further to explore causes of the difference from different aspects. To be specific, the present study addresses the following three research questions:

1) What are the similarities and differences in the choice of words in news reporting the same accidents in *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*?

2) What image is China portrayed in the news reports of *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*?

3) What causes the differences in news reporting the same accident in the two newspapers?

III. Methodology

A. Data Collection

The data of the present study came from news reports on the official websites of *China Daily* and *The Washing Post*. There was a purposive sampling procedure of selecting the news reports. That is, the data collection and the sampling were based on our judgment of popularity and the influence of the news event and the purpose of the study. First, three accidents which happened in China in recent years were chosen by their domestic and international influence. For each accident, the authors selected two news reports from both sides. All the reports were published in the two newspapers within the first week after the accident has happened. Then, some words of defining and describing the accident from both news papers were paired for comparison. Thus, all together there are six sample news reports. The length of each news report is within 1000 words, the average being 762.3 words per piece. Table 1 shows the news reports for the analysis in the present study.

TABLE 1
NEWS REPORTS CHOSEN FOR ANALYSIS IN THIS STUDY

News Events	*China Daily*	*The Washington Post*
1. The 2011 Wenzhou train accident	**Train accident kills 22; over 100 hospitalized** July 24, 2011. 00:24	**The politics of China's high-speed train wreck** July 28, 2011
2. The 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack	**ETIM terror group 'behind Tian'anmen suicide attack'** Nov 2, 2013. 00:36:54	**China censors news of an SUV plowing into a crowd in Tiananmen Square, killing five** October 28, 2013
3. The 2014 Kunming attack	**At least 29 dead, 130 injured in Kunming violence** March 2, 2014. 08:13	**Knife-wielding attackers kill 29 at Chinese train station; more than 100 injured** March 2, 2014.

Note: The sentences in bold are the headlines of the news reports and the dates are the time they were published on the websites.

B. Research Procedure

The present study adopts qualitative approach to analyze accident news report samples from the websites of *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* respectively, striving to find out the differences in word choice and to gain a better understanding of the relationship between language and ideology. All the news samples are applied with the analytical tool of lexical classification in Halliday's Systemic-Functional Grammar, and a detailed contrastive analysis is made in these chosen word pairs from the news reports in *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*. The chosen words have different meanings and forms; however, in the news reports they are used to address the same person, depict the same object or describe the event and so on. The findings of the analysis are illustrated with typical word pairs as examples picked up from the news samples. And the explanations of the words' meanings are all referred to the definitions in the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008).

IV. Analysis

In the following part, word pairs are shown from the news reports on *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* respectively, which report the same accident. The words are analyzed according to the lexical classification theory.

A. 2011 Wenzhou Train Accident

In news reporting of the 2011 Wenzhou train accident, *China Daily* (CD) and *The Washington Post* (WP) adopt different ways to describe the train accident. Here, six pairs of words from the two reports in CD and WP respectively are compared and analyzed.

TABLE 2
PAIRS OF WORDS REPORTING WENZHOU TRAIN ACCIDENT

Pairs	In *China Daily*	In *The Washington Post*	Word Categories
(1)	accident	catastrophe	words used for defining the event
(2)	The Ministry of Railways	The communist party	
(3)	rear-ended	collided with	words used for describing the event
(4)	occurred	produced	
(5)	confirmed	promised	
(6)	plunge onto	plunge off	

China Daily (CD) and *The Washington Post* (WP) have adopted two different terms to name the train accident. Shown in word pair (1), CD calls it "an accident" while WP defines it as "a long-feared catastrophe". According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), "*accident*" refers to "something that happens unexpectedly and is not planned in advance". The word "*catastrophe*" also refers to great suffering and damage, but it implies terrible misfortune caused by latent factors and is hard to compensate. WP has exaggerated the accident by connoting that the railway accident may be caused by other factors, say, human factors which show China's incompatibility in high-speed railway construction. In CD's report, it is an unexpected accident. By using the world "*catastrophe*", the reporter from WP actually has doubted and criticized China's high-speed railway system.

Word pair (2) presents how the reports name the relative authorities. In CD, the reporter says "The Ministry of Railways deals with the accident in full efforts", telling the readers that the relative authorities have tried every effort to compensate for the accident, which shows the ministry's sense of responsibility towards the accident. In WP, the reporter says "the terrible collision is not only a human tragedy but also a major blow to the credibility of the communist government". In western countries, *communist* is an unpopular and unpleasant word and connotes the meaning of tyrannical and dictatorship. The following two sentences in the report from WP show the western reporter's attitude towards communist clearly:

Example 1 Communist party officials immediately undermined that pledge by instructing Chinese media not to report the matter aggressively but rather "to use 'in the face of great tragedy, there's great love'" as the major theme. (from *The Washington Post*, July 28,2011)

Example 2 Communist party officials instructs Chinese media that "Do not question. Do not elaborate. Do not associate." (from *The Washington Post*, July 28,2011)

By using the term "the Communist government" instead of the directly relevant authority, the WP reporter may want to seek resonance from other western capitalist countries and criticize communist leadership.

Word pair (3) shows how the accident happens. In CD, the reporter depicts the accident as "a train rear-ended by another train" while WP describes it as "two trains collide with each other". The word "collide" means two vehicles crashed into each other and usually on purpose. So the reporter from WP tries to deepen the readers' impression that the train incident is a catastrophe possibly caused by human factors.

Pair (4) lists two verbs to describe the cause of the accident. In CD "occurred" is used in the sentence "the accident occurred after the train was hit by lightning and lost drive" while in WP "produced" is used in "China's high-speed rail produced the long-feared catastrophe". "Occurred" means something happen that is not intended while "produced" means to create, to cause. The reporter from WP connotes that the Chinese government has created the accident, which shows the government's inefficiency.

Pair (5) shows the reaction of China's Ministry of Railways. In CD, the ministry "confirmed" the accident and then took effective measures after the accident. In WP, the reporter says "the Ministry of Railways in Beijing then promised a 'serious' and 'honest' investigation". The word "confirmed" makes readers believe that the ministry has shown its responsibility for the accident. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), "promised" refers that "to make something seem likely to happen; to show signs of something", which gives readers a feeling that the ministry may not seriously probe into the accident. The reporter from WP has purposely created a negative attitude of the Chinese authority in dealing with the accident.

Pair (6) depicts the train derailment. In CD the reporter uses "plunge onto the ground" to show that four cars of the train derail and falls to the ground. In WP the reporter describes the trains "plunge off the bridge" and gives no detailed description, leaving the terrible train-hanging image to the readers. Here the reporter from WP actually exaggerates the fact.

When analyzing the words in CD and WP, we find that CD defines the accident as an unexpected incident, and the Chinese government has took effective measures immediately to deal with the accident, trying to compensate for the lost. CD reports the accident seriously and discloses the accident in detail, and it shows a picture of people come to help each other at the accident site. In the accident report of WP, the reporter has expressed doubts on China's high-speed railway system and railway construction, criticizing the Chinese government. The report says "China's high-speed rail system epitomizes the inherent flaws of authoritarian governance, not its strengths". WP contributes the tragedy to China's lack of mature ability to develop the high-speed railway system, because they think that, under the leadership of a communist government, the communist party has boasted China's achievements. The reporter from WP says "the high-speed rail program operated pretty much as you would expect in a one-party state with a controlled media and no

effective checks and balances". Behind the word expressions chosen, the reporter shows his or her strong disapproval against China's leadership of the communist party, which creates catastrophic accidents like this.

B. 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square Attack

On 28 October 2013 a car crashed in Tiananmen Square, killing five people. To the same accident, *China Daily* and the *Washing Post* describe it in different choices of words. Here we pick up five pairs of words to analyze.

TABLE 3
PAIRS OF WORDS REPORTING BEIJING TIANANMEN SQUARE ATTACK

Pairs	In *China Daily*	In *The Washington Post*	Word Categories
(1)	suicide attack/attack	crash/car accident	words used for defining the event
(2)	terrorism	pro-democracy protest	
(3)	terrorist	ethnic group	
(4)	terrorist activities	tactic	
(5)	fight against	protest against	words used for describing the event
(6)	combat	safety precaution	

Pair (1) shows how CD and WP address the same accident in slightly different ways. In CD, the reporter names it "a suicide attack", and in WP, the reporter simply calls it "a car accident". Compared with the term "suicide attack", "car accident" is less serious and obviously causes less impact on the society. Here WP tries to defend for the terrorists, transforming their crimes into normal accidents.

Pairs (2), (3) and (4) are relevant terms in CD and WP. In CD, the attack is defined as "terrorism", the attackers are termed as "terrorists" and their behaviors are called "terrorist activities". While in WP, the western reporters call the attack "pro-democracy protest", name the attackers "ethnic group", and simply regard the attackers' behavior as a kind of "tactic" to protest against the government. The report in WP chooses the neutral words to describe the terrorists, trying to lessen readers' negative impressions on the terrorists. The reporter tries to fix a justified label for the terrorists and to defend the terrorists' crazy doings.

Word pairs (5) and (6) show two different descriptions to those kinds of attacks. In CD, the report says "Yang Yujun, a Defense Ministry spokesman, said on Thursday the Chinese army will <u>combat</u> various terrorist activities when necessary according to government instructions under the National Defense Law and Emergency Response Law of China." And experts say "This type of terrorist attack can happen anywhere, in any city, in any country. Therefore, we have to take effective and important action and cooperate to <u>fight</u> all types of terrorism". Obviously, the report in CD calls on international cooperation to fight against various terrorist activities. While in WP the reporter says "The square retains an illustrious status for many Chinese, including those who want to <u>protest against</u> the government [...]. In recent years, fire extinguishers have been placed throughout the square as a <u>safety precaution</u>". The former focuses on the combat against terrorism, but the latter regards the terrorists as protesters. So WP regards the behavior of the attackers as being justifiable, and shows in the report the behavior is like "Tibetans set themselves on fire since February 2009 protesting against Chinese rule in their homeland". WP assumes that it is the fault of Chinese government that cannot develop a good relationship with the protesters. WP has actually criticized the Chinese government instead of condemning the terrorists.

The report in CD has chosen the derogatory terms to describe the terrorists, depicting the cruel and crazy terrorists and the report says that "Many countries, including China, are under threat amid increasing global terrorist activities and China is more determined to fight against violence and terrorist crimes". The report in WP, on the other hand, has tried to weaken the terrorists' bad influence on society by adopting various neutral terms to describe them as "protesters". Report in WP says "Police flooded the historic square. It was the scene of a bloody crackdown on pro-democracy protests in 1989." Through its neutral report of the terrorists, WP actually connotes its attitude that Communist China is a country that lacks democracy, which awake people's awareness to protest against the government. So WP defines the terrorists as "ethnic group" and their terrorism activities the "tactic" to fight for democracy and in its report the reporter says "the case of self-immolation has been a widely used form of protest here [the square]". Instead of condemning the cruel terrorists, WP criticizes China's evil politics and defends the terrorists. The westerners have always regarded China as a nation under the control of an evil power, the dictatorship of communist party, which makes China a country lack democracy and human rights.

C. 2014 Kunming Attack

The 2014 Kunming Attack was a terrorist attack in Kunming, Yunnan, on 1 March 2014. The incident killed 29 civilians and 4 attackers, leaving more than 140 others injured. Table 4 shows five pairs of words in news reporting of the accident in CD and WP.

TABLE 4
PAIRS OF WORDS REPORTING 2014 KUNMING ATTACK

Pairs	In *China Daily*	In *The Washington Post*	Word Categories
(1)	terrorism	attack/ assault	words used for defining the
(2)	terrorist	Muslim extremist/ethnic minorities	event
(3)	report	censor	words used for describing
(4)	urged	ordered	the event
(5)	cruel	gruesome	

Just like the 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack, the 2014 Kunming attack also reflects difference in how CD and WP represent the accident. As pair (1) shows, CD describes the accident "terrorism", while WP simply calls it an "attack" or "assault". WP has not regarded it as a serious terrorist behavior, and the reporter thinks that in communist China behaviors like these are "tactics" for "pro-democracy protesters" to protest against the government. WP connotes that it is the Chinese government that should be criticized rather than the "protesters".

Pair (2) has a direct relation to pair (1), which concerns how the two different newspapers call the attackers. Like the 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack, CD calls the attackers "terrorists" while WP gives them a neutral name, "Muslim extremist" or "ethnic minorities". The report in WP has tried to lessen readers' bad and negative impressions on the terrorists, and the paper merely calls them ethnic minorities, the normal social group members of a society. It has defended the terrorists, and at the same time, criticized the Chinese government.

Word pair (3) shows the difference in news reporting of this accident. In CD, Chinese netizens hope the mainstream media could provide "immediate and transparent report", so here the readers and netizens are concerned with the speed of news reporting on site. However, the report in WP says that the attack on Chinese social media is "censored" and the accident news does not appear on the front pages of many Chinese newspapers. According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), the word "censor" means "to remove the parts of a book, film/movie, etc. that are considered to be offensive, immoral or a political threat". Through this word, the reporter from WP actually tries to portray the Chinese government as a dictator, and under the reign of Chinese government, Chinese people and media have no freedom of speech.

Pair (4) presents different verbs used to depict the same words said by President Xi Jinping. In CD, the reporter says "President. Xi Jinping has urged the law enforcement to investigate and solve the case of Kunming terrorist attack with all-out efforts and punish the terrorists in accordance with the law". While in WP, the reporter says "China's President. Xi Jinping ordered all-out efforts to punish the attackers". According to the *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), the word "order" means "to use one's position of authority to tell somebody to do something or say that something must happen". The reporter of WP again actually represents the Chinese president as China's dictator.

Pair (5) shows two adjectives adopted by CD and WP to describe the terrorists. In CD, the word "cruel" frequently appears in describing the terrorists, while in WP, the adjective "gruesome" appears. According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary* (2008), "cruel" means "having a desire to cause pain and suffering", and "gruesome" means "very unpleasant and filling one with horror, usually because it is connected with death or injury". Compared with "gruesome", the word "cruel" not only presents the horror scene but shows the terrorists' desire to conduct terrorist activities, which cannot be reflected by "gruesome" in the "attackers". The reporter from WP still tries to weaken the attackers' identities as terrorists.

Compared with WP, the report in CD adopts derogatory terms to describe the terrorists and condemns the terrorist activities. It suggests China's strong disapproval against the terrorists and determination to punish the criminals. Through the report, China has called on the international society to together fight against the terrorism. To the criminals, China holds the attitudes of anger, hatred, and zero tolerance. However, the report in WP uses neutral terms to describe the terrorists and adopts derogatory terms to describe the Chinese government. The reporter tries every effort to defend terrorists' behavior and fixes a justified label on the terrorists. The lexis and syntax strongly suggest that China is a country with no human rights, and reporter from WP says "many comments about the attack on Chinese social media were censored and the news did not appear on the front pages of many newspapers". So they think the Chinese people have no right of free speech, for the authorities will censor everything that appears in the media.

Applying the analytical tool of lexical classification, this part conducts a critical analysis of the six news reports, three of which are selected from *China Daily* and three are from *The Washington Post*. After a systematic contrastive analysis, it is found that different words have been chosen by *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* in news reporting the same accident. The reports in CD show China's solidarity, harmony and that the whole nation will work hard together to overcome the difficulties. The reporters from WP portray China as an evil country, and the communist government sacrifices people's interests to show off its achievements. China lacks democracy and human rights due to the dictatorship of its government, which results in the bad relation between the country and its people. WP defines terrorists as "protesters", which actually shows its disapproval and criticism against the Chinese government. The differences in word choice demonstrate that accident news reports, which seem objectively reported, are not as neutral as traditionally thought. Accident news reported by western countries reflects their ideologies and the western media exert their ideologies on readers.

V. CONCLUSION

Through the analytical tool of lexical classification, the present study has made a contrastive analysis of six news reports about the 2011 Wenzhou train accident, the 2013 Beijing Tiananmen Square attack and the 2014 Kunming attack from two different newspapers. After a detailed contrastive analysis of the six news samples in terms of lexical classification, answers to the research questions are as follows:

There are similarities and differences in the lexical choice in news reporting the same events. *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* have both reported those accidents but there are remarkably differences in word choice. In *China Daily*, the newspaper depicts the accidents seriously and chooses derogatory terms to portray the accident causers, the terrorists, and the reporters adopt commentary words to describe the government actions. In *The Washington Post*, the reporters purposely exaggerate the negative impact of the accidents and choose neutral terms to portray the accident causers, and the reporters use derogatory words to describe the government actions.

(2) The two newspapers depict China's image differently. In *China Daily*, reporters portray China as a place where individuals are free to say what they want to, the Chinese government will do its best to put people's interests on the top agenda and Chinese people are willing to help each other. It portrays a positive image of China. In *The Washington Post*, reporters depict China as a place where people have no right for free speech and Chinese government is inefficient, irresponsible and cares less for its people. It portrays a negative image of China.

(3) There are mainly three reasons contributing to the differences in news reporting the same accident. Politically, China is a communist country which has a different political system from the western countries. Western nations thus regard China as a threat to them and they are afraid of China's increasing mightiness, so they always catch every opportunity to attack China. Secondly, western nations' Christian culture makes them believe that they are sent by God to govern the world and help those who need help, so they think they should emancipate the victims of oppression from the dictatorship of communist China, thus to ignore the Chinese culture. Thirdly and finally, western countries have long held the prejudice against China. In their eyes, China is an unenlightened country with no human rights.

After the contrastive analysis of the six news reports from *China Daily* and *The Washington Post*, the present study proves that news reporters intentionally implant and invest ideologies into news reports by choosing words of their interests for the purpose of impacting on readers' perception about the accidents being reported. The study is significant in the following aspects. Firstly, the present study proves that word choices can be used by news reporters to convey their ideologies. This reminds teachers to pay more attention to word choices rather than simply focusing on the text meaning or sentence structures in their lecturing to language or journalist students. What is more, students ought to be encouraged to do some critical reading of news, which will help to develop their critical reading ability. Second, the contrastive study, analyzed by the tool of lexical classification in this study shows that social accident news reports which look neutral, but actually are not value-free. The study also proves that the analytical tool adopted by the authors is effective in analyzing accident reports from the perspective of CDA, which will provide followers with some useful references. Finally, the present study shows how American newspaper, *The Washington Post*, depicts China's image in a negative perspective, so it further suggests that Chinese government make every effort to sustain China's positive image on the international stage and try to satisfy people's needs to the maximum, and to reduce the opportunities for western reporters to negatively depict China's image.

Apart from the major findings and significances of the present study, the present study also has limitations. On the one hand, the present study is restricted to the analysis of six accident news reports selected from *China Daily* and *The Washington Post* respectively. The examples are few and limited in number, which means findings of the study may be limited. On the other hand, due to the design and purpose of the study, some other expressions of ideology, for example, some visual signs such as photos, layouts, typography were not analyzed, so it is hard to interpret the ideological assumptions in depth. For further study, it is suggested that the analytic data should be collected from more news samples, not just restricted to the same topic of accident news in two different newspapers but the similar accident news in more than two newspapers. Moreover, some more comprehensive framework should be employed to conduct exhaustive critical analysis on news discourse.

APPENDIX. NEWS REPORTS SELECTED FOR THE ANALYSIS IN THIS STUDY

Sample 1. *China Daily*
Headline: Train accident kills 22; over 100 hospitalized
From: http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/china/2011-07-24/content_12969133.htm
Sample 2. *The Washington Post*
Headline: The politics of China's high-speed train wreck
From:http://www.washingtonpost.com/opinions/the-politics-of-chinas-high-speed-train-wreck/2011/07/27/gIQAGedXdI_story.html
Sample 3. *China Daily*
Headline: ETIM terror group 'behind Tian'anmen suicide attack'
From: http://www.chinadaily.com.cn/china/2013-11/02/content_17075494.htm
Sample 4. *The Washington Post*
Headline: China censors news of an SUV plowing into a crowd in Tiananmen Square, killing five

From: http://www.washingtonpost.com/world/china-censors-busy-as-jeep-plows-into-crowd-in-tiananmen-square-killing-five/2013/10/28/768f7b88-3fc2-11e3-b028-de922d7a3f47_story.html

Sample 5. *China Daily*

Headline: At least 29 dead, 130 injured in Kunming violence

From:http://europe.chinadaily.com.cn/china/2014-03/02/content_17315118.htm

Sample 6. *The Washington Post*

Headline: Knife-wielding attackers kill 29 at Chinese train station; more than 100 injured

From: http://www.washingtonpost.com/world/knife-attack-at-chinese-train-station-leaves-28-dead-more-than-100-injured/2014/03/01/0b20ed8e-a195-11e3-9ba6-800d1192d08b_story.html

REFERENCES

[1]   Bell, A. (1991). The Language of news media. Oxford: Blackwell.
[2]   Chen, Z., Yang, C., & Zhao, M. (2002). Critical discourse analysis review. *Foreign Language Research*, *2002* (1), 82-86
[3]   Chen, Z. (1995a). A survey of critical linguistics. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research, 1*, 21-27.
[4]   Chen, Z. (1995b). Discourse and ideology: Critical discourse analysis of two pieces of news of strike. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, *97*(3), 42-45.
[5]   Dai, W., & Gao, J. (2002). Critical discourse analysis: Theoretical review and a case study. *Journal of Foreign Languages*, *142*(6), 42-48.
[6]   Fairclough, N. (1989). Language and power. London: Longman.
[7]   Fang, Y. (2001). Reporting the same events? A critical analysis of Chinese print news media texts. *Discourse & Society*, *12* (5), 585-613.
[8]   Fowler, R., Hodge, B., Kress, G. R., & Trew, T. (1979). Language and control. London: Routledge.
[9]   Fowler, R. (1991). Language in the news: Discourse and ideology in the press. New York: Routledge.
[10] Gu, X. (2007). Critical discourse analysis on international political news. MA dissertation. Nanjing Normal University.
[11] Halliday, M.A.K. (1994). An introduction to functional grammar (2nd edition). London: Edward Arnold.
[12] Ji, W. (2006). 25 years of development: A general review of critical discourse analysis both abroad and home. *Journal of Liaocheng University (Social Science Edition)*, 5, 113-122.
[13] Kress, G. R., & Hodge, B. (1979). Language as ideology. London, Boston and Henley: Routledge & Kegan Paul
[14] Lee, J.. and Craig R.L. (1992). News as an ideological framework: Comparing US newspapers' coverage of labor strikes in South Korea and Poland. *Discourse & Society*, *3*(3), 341-363.
[15] Li, J. (2010). Transitivity and lexical cohesion: Press representations of a political disaster and its actors. *Journal of Pragmatics, 42*, 3444-3458
[16] Oktar, L. (2001) The ideological organisation of representational processes in the presentation of us and them. *Discourse & Society*, *12*(3): 313-346.
[17] Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary (7th ed.). (2008). London: Oxford University Press.
[18] Reah, D. (2007). The language of newspapers. London & New York: Routledge.
[19] Richardson, J. E,. (2007). Analysing newspapers. New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
[20] Teo, P. (2000). Racism in the news: A critical discourse analysis of news reporting in two Australia newspapers. *Discourse & Society*, 11(1), 7–49.
[21] Trew, T. (1979). "What the Papers Say": Linguistic Variation and Ideological Difference. In R. Fowler, B. Hodge, G. Kress and T. Trew (eds.), *Language and Control*, pp. 117–56. London: Routledge & Kegan Paul.
[22] Van Dijk, T. A. (1987). Communicating racism: ethnic prejudice in thought and talk. Newbury Park, CA: Sage publications.
[23] Van Dijk, T.A. (1995). Discourse Analysis as Ideology Analysis. In Christiina Schaffner and Anita L. Wenden (Eds.). *Language and Peace*. Dartmouth: Aldershot. pp.17-33
[24] Wang, S. (1993). The New York Times' and Remin Ribao's news coverage of the 1991 Soviet coup: A case study of international news discourse. *Text*, *13*(4), 559–598.
[25] Wikipedia. (2014). The Washington Post. Accessed December 22, 2014 at http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Washington_Post.
[26] Xin, B. (1996). Language, power and ideology: Critical linguistics. *Modern Foreign Languages, 71*(1), 21-26.
[27] Xin, B. (2005). Critical linguistics: Theory and application. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[28] Xu, L. (1999). Ideology reflected by language: Discourse analysis of India nuclear test reports from four newspapers. *Foreign Language Teaching, 20(2)*, 12-16.
[29] Xiang Y. (2006). Critical analysis of power asymmetry in political discourse. *Foreign Language Research, 2006*(2), 25-28.
[30] Yuan, C., & Tian, H. (2001). Contrastive and critical analysis of English and Chinese political discourse. *Journal of Tianjin University of Commerce, 21*(5), 51-53.
[31] Zhang, X. (2011). Critical discourse analysis of news reports of China—Japan ship collision incident on *New York Times* and *The Wall Street Journal*. MA dissertation of Ocean University of China.

Xianzhong He is the corresponding author. He is Associate Professor of Applied Linguistics and dean of English Department of School of Foreign Studies, Chang'an University, Xi'an, Shaanxi, China. His research interests include critical discourse analysis, corpus linguistics, multimodal discourse analysis and visual social semiotics. He has conducted researches on the news media representation of migrant workers in China, cultural issues in textbooks, multimodal and transitivity analysis in typography in public service advertisement.

Xulu Zhou is a staff member of Noblelift China in Huzhou, Zhejiang Province of China. Her research interest is discourse studies and critical discourse analysis. After she graduated from Chang'an University, she is still interested in CDA and conducts researches in this field.

Self-efficacy and Prediction of Note-taking Inclination among Undergraduate Translation Students

Habibollah Mashhady
University of Zabol, Iran

Moslem Fatollahi
University of Zabol, Iran

Maryam Pourgalavi
University of Zabol, Iran

Abstract—Self-efficacy is the self-perceived ability of an individual in performing the tasks assigned to him/her. Self-efficacy and its implications have been widely studied in the field of language teaching and learning. Yet, few studies have explored the relationship between self-efficacy and various aspects of interpreting ability. This article aims at investigating the role of self-efficacy in predicting the note-taking inclination of undergraduate translation students. In this regard, a total number of 53 junior and senior undergraduate translation students at the University of Zabol completed the Schwarzer's General Self-efficacy Questionnaire, and took the note-taking ability test in which test-takers were supposed to listen to VOA Special News tracks (five 30-45 second audio tracks at lower-intermediate level of difficulty) and take notes. Prior to administration, test takers received a brief instruction of seven main note-taking skills, based on the guidelines proposed by Mazzei (noting the idea, abbreviation, links, negation, emphasis, verticality, and shift). Finally, the students' notes were scored by two raters at a 0-35 point basis, according to the Mazzei's note-taking skills; and a high inter-rater reliability was achieved. The obtained Pearson results revealed a significant positive relationship between the self-efficacy of the test-takers and their note-taking inclination. Our findings imply that learners' self-efficacy should be more considered in interpreter training programs at B.A. level.

Index Terms—self-efficacy, note-taking inclination, interpreting, translation students

I. INTRODUCTION

A. The Notion of Self-efficacy

Self-efficacy is "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (Bandura, 1986: p. 391). In this regard, self-efficacy is the answer to the question; can I fulfill this task in this condition? This definition is near to individuals' perceptions of their ability and self-image (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Self-efficacy attitudes are more explicit and context-based perceptions of abilities: a self-efficacy perception in an advanced reading course can be uttered as "I am confident". Self-efficacy relates to basically cognitive perceptions of one's own abilities on the basis of one's mastery of the subject, whereas self-image appears as a more complicated variable using both cognitive and affective reactions toward oneself. Academic self -perception and self-efficacy are first contrasted from the following three mental viewpoints: variable composition, essence of comparison, and generality and structure (Pintrich & Schunk, 1996).

Self-efficacy theory persists on the fact that general competence or self-image attitudes should be distinguished from specific perceptions. A second specific characteristic (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003) is that it is applied in relation to some type of purpose, which can be realized by the individual, task context, or situation. In an academic situation, a student's self-efficacy for learning and performing vocabulary tasks in a reading class might be lower than ordinary level because the teacher applies a grading curve and the student supposes the others are more successful in reading. Self-efficacy is thought to be concerned with student engagement and learning.

According to Linnenbrink & Pintrich (2003), the role of self-efficacy in commitment and behavior is that learners who do not have self-confidence in themselves are less tenable to make effort, and are more inclined to giving up quickly. If students receive exercise and tips in how to do tasks better, their capability can be enhanced. There is another variable "learned helplessness" - which refers to students' ideas that they cannot master their own actions and there is no relationship between a behavior and its result.

B. Self-efficacy in Translation

Self-efficacy is a quite new topic in translation research, and is primarily focused on instruction and aptitude. There also seems to be a connection between self-efficacy and subjective task complexity which mainly refers to "the perceived difficulty of source texts, post-editing and mental load in translation" (Schwieter & Fereira, 2014: p. 36).

Bolanos Medina (2014) introduced the notion of self-efficacy from a sociological and mental viewpoint, and explored its possible implications for translatology. He conducted an exploratory correlational study, based on self-report measures on the subject. The results of this pioneer research revealed that self-efficacy is an important variable for translation process-oriented studies, advanced source language reading comprehension, ambiguity tolerance, and documentation capability.

Besides its novelty in the field of translation and interpreting, self-efficacy has never been investigated regarding its implications for note-taking ability of consecutive interpreters. In order to make the act of consecutive interpreting easier, professional interpreters usually apply a special system of note-taking. In the methods proposed on the basis of professional interpreting experience, notes are often considered as a note-taking technique, and in relevant academic literature they are mostly regarded as a language-independent tool (Kuhn & Albl-Mikasa: p. 257).

Based on Gile's Effort Model (1995), note-taking is considered as a mediating step filling the distance between information encoding and decoding in the act of consecutive interpreting. Unsuitable notes, however, may distract the interpreter's concentration and mostly lead to interpretation errors. Without the development of a simple and easy mode of note-taking system, note-taking in consecutive interpreting can lead to cognitive load, and is likely to overload the interpreter's cognitive ability. The appropriate training of note-taking is widely regarded as a basic challenge-coping tactic in the interpreting action.

Siantova (2015) believes that in the act of instructing consecutive interpretation and developing note-taking, it is crucial to acquaint the learners – future interpreters- with some common notions. Although it is not feasible to urge them use these concepts in practice as each student corresponds his or her note-taking manner to individual needs and situational contexts which depends on the text or his or her own knowledge, environmental factors, background knowledge, the ability to distinguish obligatory or optional data, and etc. furthermore, the choice of language in which note-taking takes place is very idiosyncratic (see also Chuang, 2011; Sakamoto, 2011).

C. Aims of the Present Study

The notion of self-efficacy has been widely studied in the field of language teaching/learning. Yet, few studies have explored implications of self-efficacy for translator/interpreter-training programs. More specifically, the role of self-efficacy in forming note-taking ability of consecutive interpreters has not been seriously studied. That is while there might be a relationship between the two mentioned constructs.

This article aims at investigating the role of self-efficacy in predicting the note-taking ability of consecutive interpreters. Based on the main elements and requirements of note-taking skill, which will be elaborated on in "Methodology" section; a main question might be brought forward as follows:

• Q: is the any relationship between the self-efficacy of interpreting trainees and their ability in performing systematic note-taking skills?

To answer the above question, authors propose the following hypothesis:

• H1: there is a significant positive relationship between the self-efficacy of interpreting trainees and their ability in performing systematic note-taking skills.

Furthermore, authors seek to investigate the following subsidiary hypothesis:

• H2: the variable of "Gender" has no mediating effect on the relationship between the self-efficacy of interpreting trainees and their ability in performing systematic note-taking skills.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Self-efficacy is a widely studied psychological concept. Most of the studies are mainly based on the pioneer works of Bandura (e.g. Bandura 1982, 1994). In this regard, numerous researchers have applied this concept in language teaching/learning context. Cubukcu (2008) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and foreign language anxiety. His study investigated whether the anxiety level of foreign language learners is related to their self- efficacy or not. To this end, 100 test-takers participated in the study and two different scales- "Foreign language Learning Anxiety Scale" and "The Self Efficacy Scale"- were applied. The obtained results of his study revealed that both aspects are unrelated and gender has no significant role regarding the anxiety level and self-perception scores of the junior students.

Coronado-Aliegro (2008) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and self-assessment in foreign language education through a pilot study. This study explored the correlation of students' self-efficacy beliefs about learning a foreign language with self-assessment scores concerning cognition of study habits and the significance of classroom subjects. His findings revealed a significant positive relationship between students' self-assessment scores and their global self-efficacy attitudes about future foreign language achievement.

Nasrollahi & Barjasteh (2013) investigated the relationship between Iranian students' language achievements and their self-efficacy. It also studied the levels of Iranian students' self-efficacy and their majors. This study also explored the differences between students' majors and their language achievements. They found that students' major affects both language proficiency and self-efficacy (see also Joo, Bong & Choi, 2000; Pajares, 2003; Jungert & Rosander, 2010).

Chan & Lam (2010) explored the effects of different evaluative feedback on students' self-efficacy in learning. Their findings showed that self-referenced feedback was more helpful to students' self-efficacy than norm-referenced feedback. The effects of teachers' assessment and feedback on students' self-efficacy were also studied in their study. The results revealed that students who received summative feedback experienced a larger decrease in their self-efficacy than those who received formative feedback (see also Chyung, Moll & Berg, 2010; Denoyelles & Hornik, & Johnson, 2014; Shakarami, Khajehei, & Hajhashemi, 2013).

On the other hand, self-efficacy has been widely studied in the Iranian TEFL context. Rahimi and Abedini (2009) explored the connection between EFL learners' self-efficacy concerning listening comprehension and listening proficiency. The findings of their statistical analyses showed that listening comprehension self-efficacy was significantly correlated with listening proficiency.

Hamedani (2013) investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation in vocabulary acquisition of Iranian EFL learners. In her study; first, the VLT was administered to a group of 132 intermediate university students to homogenize them in term of their vocabulary knowledge. Then the Self-efficacy and SRCvoc surveys were administered to determine self-efficacy belief and self-regulation in their vocabulary acquisition. Her findings showed that there is a significant relationship between self-efficacy and self-regulation in terms of vocabulary acquisition.

III. Methodology

As mentioned earlier, this article aims at investigating the role of self-efficacy in predicting interpreting learners' inclination to apply systematic note-taking skills. In this regard, a self-efficacy scale was completed and a note-taking test was administered.

A total number of 53 junior and senior undergraduate translation students (38 females and 15 males) at the University of Zabol completed the General Self-efficacy Scale, already developed and validated by Schwarzer & Jerusalem (1995)(see appendix). This scale consisted of ten items measured on four-point Lickert scale, and was scored at a 10-40 point range). This scale measured the general self-perceived self-efficacy scale of individuals. It is worth mentioning that there exist learners' self-efficacy scales, but as the main focus of this study was on interpreters, authors preferred to apply a general scale.

Besides the self-efficacy scale, the same participants took the note-taking ability test specifically intended for this study. Test-takers were supposed to listen to VOA Special News tracks (five 30-45 second audio tracks at lower-intermediate level of difficulty) and take notes. Prior to administration, test takers received a brief instruction of seven main note-taking skills, based on the guidelines proposed by Mazzei (2009) (noting the idea, abbreviation, links, negation, emphasis, verticality, and shift).

Based on Mazzei's guidelines, students were recommended to grab the main idea of each chunk (meaning unit) rather than attempting to transcribe the whole track. Students were instructed to use abbreviations for noting down the ideas and refrain from writing down words longer than three letters. Students were supposed to clearly depict the semantic connection among various chunks, demonstrate the notion of "negation", and put emphasis on important parts of track. Finally, students were recommended to write down their notes in vertical or diagonal manner so that they can use the whole space of the paper, and to clearly demonstrate the change of subject on their note papers.

Finally, the students' notes were scored by two raters at a 0-35 point basis, according to the Mazzei's note-taking skills; and the inter-rater reliability of the two sets of scores was calculated. On the other hand, to investigate the research hypothesis, Pearson Correlation Coefficient was applied to determine the relationship between the two sets of interval data (self-efficacy and note-taking). The obtained data were analyzed by the newest version of SPSS, and results were discussed.

IV. Results and Discussion

As mentioned earlier, participants of the present study completed the General Self-efficacy Scale and took the note-taking ability test. The descriptive statistics for the two tests are demonstrated in Tables (1) and (2), respectively. Furthermore, the overall descriptive results for the two genders are shown in Table (3).

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GENERAL SELF-EFFICACY SCALE TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Student Efficacy Valid N (Listwise)	53 53 53	1 9	53 40	27.00 26.25	2.121 1.201	15.443 8.742	238.500 76.419

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR NOTE-TAKING ABILITY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean		Std. Deviation	Variance
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Statistic
Student	53	1	53	27.00	2.121	15.443	238.500
Note	53	11	32	21.45	.884	6.435	41.406
Valid N (listwise)	53						

TABLE 3
OVERALL DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BASED ON GENDER

	Gender		Statistic	Std. Error
Efficacy	Female	Mean	25.84	1.414
		Variance	76.028	
		Std. Deviation	8.719	
		Minimum	10	
		Maximum	40	
	Male	Mean	27.27	1.618
		Variance	78.547	
		Std. Deviation	8.863	
		Minimum	9	
		Maximum	40	
Note	Female	Mean	21.11	1.014
		Variance	39.070	
		Std. Deviation	6.251	
		Minimum	11	
		Maximum	31	
	Male	Mean	22.33	1.261
		Variance	47.678	
		Std. Deviation	6.905	
		Minimum	13	
		Maximum	32	

As it can be seen in Table 1, the self-efficacy scores ranged from 9 to 40, with an average of 26.25. Further, a standard deviation of 8.74 was reported. On the other hand, Table 2 shows that Note-taking scores ranged from 1 to 32, with an average of 21.45. Furthermore, a standard deviation of 6.43 was reported.

As Table 3 clearly indicates, male and female participants expressed almost the same minimum and maximum amounts of self-efficacy, however, the average self-efficacy score for males (27.27) was a bit higher than that of females (25.84). On the other hand, the average note-taking ability score for males (22.33) was a bit higher than that of females (21.11).

As mentioned earlier, two raters scored test-takers' notes so that we could determine inter-rater reliability of the two sets of scores. The obtained correlation results are demonstrated in Table 4.

TABLE 4
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY RESULTS FOR THE TWO SETS OF NOTE-TAKING SCORES

		Rater1	Rater2
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.945[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.945[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As observed in Table 4, a high correlation (0.945) was found between the two raters' dedicated scores, revealing the inter-rater reliability of the scores. Validity of the note-taking test might be assumed as participants' notes were based on an explicit set of sub-skills, as mentioned in "Methodology". The average of two scores was considered as the final note-taking score for each participant.

Regarding the main research question, we investigated the relationship between self-efficacy and note-taking scores of the participants. The obtained Pearson results are shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
THE OBTAINED PEARSON RESULTS FOR SELF-EFFICACY AND NOTE-TAKING TESTS

		Efficacy	Note
Efficacy	Pearson Correlation	1	.838**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	68	68
Note	Pearson Correlation	.838**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	68	68

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As seen in Table 5, a highly significant Pearson Correlation (0.838) exists between self-efficacy of participants and their inclination to apply note-taking techniques in their consecutive interpreting exercises. These results prove the first research question at a high level of significance (0.01). In other words, our findings prove the highly significant role of self-efficacy in predicting the note-taking inclination of undergraduate translation students. Our findings clearly confirm the qualitative contemplation of several translation and interpreting scholars (Angelelli, 2004; Pochhacker, 2004; Corsellis, 2008); who had already predicted the role of self-efficacy in predicting interpreting ability of students which consists of note-taking ability as one of its components.

Concerning the second research question, a Two Independent-Samples T-Test was run to investigate the difference between the note-taking abilities of male and female test-takers. The obtained statistical results are demonstrated in Table 6.

TABLE 6
TWO INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
							Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)			Lower	Upper
EFFICA	Equal variances assumed	1.905	.172	-.768	66	.445	-1.228	1.599	-4.420	1.964
	Equal variances not assumed			-.759	59.230	.451	-1.228	1.618	-4.465	2.009

As Table 6 indicates, the null hypothesis is confirmed, and it might be claimed that no significance difference is observed between males and females in terms of applying note-taking skills in their tests. To put it more simply, males and females have revealed almost similar inclination toward using note-taking skills. These findings are in line with qualitative contemplations of many translation and interpreting experts who had denied the existence of any significance difference between genders in terms of interpreting sub-skills (Chernov, 2004; Salama-Carr, 2007; Angelelli & Jacobson, 2009; Monacelli, 2009).

V. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

In this study, the role of self-efficacy in predicting the note-taking inclination of undergraduate translation students was investigated. Further, the mediating role of gender was explored, as the second hypothesis of the study. our findings revealed the significant role of self-efficacy in predicting the note-taking inclination of undergraduate translation students at the University of Zabol, but found no significant difference between the two sexes regarding their note-taking inclinations.

Based on the findings of the present study, it might be concluded that interpreting learners' self-efficacy can help them overcome their doubts when they want to choose appropriate note-taking guidelines. As was seen in this study, although all of the participants were given preliminary instructions about the appropriate method of note-taking, those with higher self-efficacy were more willing to apply these skills in their actual note-taking exercises. So, enhancing interpreting learners' level of self-efficacy can improve their courage to use appropriate note-taking skills, and as a result, can improve their note-taking ability.

Like any other research, this study was limited in some aspects. This present study as mainly focused on one aspect of consecutive interpreting ability. Future studies can investigate the relationship between self-efficacy and the other sub-skills of translation or interpreting. On the other hand, future studies can explore the roles of some other related psychological variables, such as self-confidence or self-esteem, in enhancing interpreters' professional ability and success.

REFERENCES

[1]   Angelelli, C. V. (2004). Medical Interpreting and Cross-Cultural Communication. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

[2]   Angelelli, C. V., & Jacobson, H. E. (2009). Testing and Assessment in Translation and Interpreting Studies. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: Benjamins.

[3]   Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy Mechanism in Human Agency. *American Psychologist, 37(2):* 122-147.

[4]   Bandura, A. (1986). Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

[5]   Bandura, A. (1994). Self-Efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press.

[6]   Bolanos-Medina, A. (2014). Self-efficacy in Translation. *Translation and Interpreting Studies, 9(2),* 197-218.

[7]   Chan, J., & Lam, S. F. (2010). Effects of Different Evaluative Feedback on Students' Self-Efficacy in Learning. *Instruction Science, 38,* 37-58.

[8]   Chernov, G. V. (2004). Inference and Anticipation in Simultaneous Interpreting. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: Benjamins.

[9]   Chuang, L. L. (2011). Note-taking Know-how: A Processing Perspective on Consecutive Interpreting. *Spectrum: Studies in Language, Literature, Translation, and Interpretation, 2,* 93-101.

[10]   Chyung, S. Y., Moll, A. J., & Berg, S. A. (2010). The Role of Intrinsic Goal Orientation, Self-Efficacy, and E-Learning Practice in Engineering Education. *The Journal of Effective Teaching, 10(1):* 22-37.

[11]   Coronado-Aliegro, J. (2008). The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Self-Assessment in Foreign Language Education: A Pilot Study. *Journal of literature, language and linguistics, 2(1):* 1-4.

[12]   Corsellis, A. (2008). Public Service Interpreting: the First Steps. Surrey: Palgrave.

[13]   Cubikcu, F. (2008). A Study on the Correlation between Self Efficacy and Foreign Language Learning Anxiety. *Journal of Theory and Practice in Education, 4(1):* 148-158.

[14]   Denoyelles, A., Hornik, S. R., & Johnson, R. D. (2014). Exploring the Dimensions of Self-Efficacy in Virtual World Learning: Environment, Task, and Content. *MERLOT Journal of Online Learning and Teaching, 10(2):* 255-271.

[15]   Gile, D. (1995). Basic Concepts and Models for Interpreter and Translator Training. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

[16]   Hamedani, S. (2013). The Relationship between Self-Efficacy and Self- Regulation in Vocabulary Acquisition of Iranian EFL Learners. *Journal of Academic and Applied Studies, 3(1):* 20-31.

[17]   Joo, Y. J., Bong, M. & Choi, H. J. (2000). Self-Efficacy for Self-Regulated Learning, Academic Self-Efficacy, and Internet Self-Efficacy in Web-Based Instruction. *ETR&D, 48(2):* 5-17.

[18]   Jungert, T., & Rosander, M. (2010). Self-Efficacy and Strategies to Influence the Study Environment. *Teaching in Higher Education, 15(6):* 647-659.

[19]   Kohn, K. & Albl-Mikasa, M. (2002). Note-Taking in Consecutive Interpreting. On The Reconstruction of an Individualized Language. *Linguistica Antverpiensia, 1,* 257-272.

[20]   Linnenbrink, E. A. & Pintrich, P. (2003). The Role of Self-Efficacy Beliefs in Student Engagement and Learning in the Classroom. *Reading and Writing Quarterly, 19,* 119-137.

[21]   Schwieter, J. W., & Ferreira, A. (2014). The Development of Translation Competence: Theories and Methodologies from Psycholinguistics and Cognitive Science. Cambridge: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

[22]   Mazzei, C. (2007). Note-Taking for Consecutive Interpreting. Available at: www.imiaweb.org/uploads/pages/228_4.pdf. (May 6, 2015)

[23]   Monacelli, C. (2009). Self-Preservation in Simultaneous Interpreting. Amsterdam and Philadelphia: Benjamins.

[24]   Moradian, M. R. & Elahi, M. (2005). Media Discourse: Listening to the VOA (The Voice of America). Tehran: Arad.

[25]   Nasrollahi, A., & Barjasteh, H. (2013). Iranian Students' Self Efficacy and Their Language Achievements *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 3(10):* 1837-1843.

[26]   Pajares, F. (2003). Self-Efficacy Beliefs, Motivation, and Achievement in Writing: A Review of the Literature. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 19:* 139-158.

[27]   Pintrich, P., & Schunk, D. (1996). Motivation in Education: Theory, Research and Applications. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall Merrill.

[28]   Pochhacker, F. (2004). Introducing Interpreting Studies. London and New York: Routledge.

[29]   Rahimi, A. & Abedini, A. (2009). The Interface between EFL Learners' Self-Efficacy concerning Listening Comprehension and Listening Proficiency. *Novitas-Royal, 3(1):* 14-28.

[30]   Sakamoto, A. (2011). An Empirical Study on the Use of Note-Taking for Consecutive Interpreting in the Teaching of Written Translation. *The Journal of Specialised Translation, 16, 203-223.*

[31]   Salama-Carr, M. (2007). Translation and Interpreting Conflict. Amsterdam & New York: Approaches to Translation Studies.

[32]   Schwarzer, R., & Jerusalem, M. (1995). General Self-efficacy Scale. Available at: http://userpage.fuberlin.de/~health/selfscal.htm. (May 6, 2015).

[33]   Shakarami, A., Khajehei, H., & Hajhashemi, K. (2013). Digital Self-Efficacy and Language Learning Enhancement in an Online Setting. *Journal of Basic and Applied Scientific Research, 3(11):* 80-84.

[34]   Siantova, G. (2015). Consecutive Interpretation and Note-Taking from the Perspective of Some Translatology Schools and Researchers. *International Journal of Scientific Research and Innovative Technology, 2(1):* 44-51.

Habibollah Mashhady is a Ph. D. in TEFL and an associate professor with the English department of the University of Zabol. He got his Ph.D. at Tehran University. He has been teaching various English language teaching and translation courses at BA and MA levels. His fields of interest and research include teaching methodology, language testing, curriculum design, literary translation studies, translation testing, and comparative linguistics.

Moslem Fatollahi is an MA in Translation Studies and an instructor with the English department of the University of Zabol. He got his BA at Ferdowsi University of Mashhad in 2011. He has been teaching various English language teaching and translation courses at BA level. His fields of interest and research include literary translation studies, Polysystem literary studies, sociology of translation, diachronic translation studies, and interpreting theory and practice.

Maryam Pourgalavi is an MA in Translation Studies and an instructor with the English department of the University of Zabol. She has been teaching various English language teaching and translation courses at BA level. Her fields of interest and research include literary translation studies, Polysystem literary studies, sociology of translation, diachronic translation studies, and interpreting theory and practice.

The Difference between Field Independent and Field Dependent Cognitive Styles regarding Translation Quality

Masoud Seid Motahari
Central Tehran Branch of Islamic Azad University, Iran

Mehrnoush Norouzi
Central Tehran Branch of Islamic Azad University, Iran

Abstract—Cognitive translation studies are one of the assorted fields under research in translation studies trying to deal with the complex cognitive process of translator while rendering. This study investigated the difference between field independent (FI) and field dependent (FD) English translation students in Iran concerning translation of an English literary text. 297 female and male undergraduate students at Islamic Azad University of Tehran participated in this study. The researcher administered two main tests in order, the piloted TOEFL test for homogenizing the participants in terms of English language proficiency and then GEFT test to recognize FI and FD students. Afterwards, FI and FD groups translated the same text. As a result of the statistical analysis it was signified that FI students outperformed the FD ones regarding translation of a literary text.

Index Terms—cognitive style, field dependent, field independent, translation quality assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

"Translation is a multidisciplinary process and that a multidisciplinary viewpoint is necessary for the understanding of the translation process" (Wilson, 2009, p.3).Translation scholars have attempted to understand translation phenomenon from three main perspectives as Bell (1991) classified: translation, translator and translation theory. Garcia-Peinada. et al., (2012) verify new ideas from cognitive positions to deal with translation issues lately. Translation process and product are particularly investigated through Cognitive Translation Studies (Hurtado-Albir & Alves, 2009). Halverson (2010) more specifically proposes that translation scholars use many ways within translation studies` sister disciplines of bilingualism, psychology, cognitive science, etc. to answer questions about translational phenomena. From another perspective, Shreve (2006) describes individual needs to go through a certain organization and range of cognitive resources to translate a text and these multiple translation-relevant cognitive resources are referred to Translation Competence. Nevertheless, what happens in a translator`s mind during translation process has been a drastic question. Robinson (2003) points to translation as an intelligent activity, requiring problem solving. Hurtado-Albir (2001) emphasizes the process of translation as a complex process, which requires processes of problem-solving, decision-making and the use of strategies.

Literary translation is possibly the most significant type of translation as it "is the most demanding type of translation" (Fonseca, cited in Landers, 2001, p.7). However, large number of particular problems may be said include in literary translation comparing to the other types of translation and these problems mainly depend on who is translating and what he/ she knows. Literary translators tackle many problems to perform appropriately. Literary texts contain great number of ambiguities, homonyms and arbitrariness, which are distinct from the texts written in administrative or scientific language (Kolawole & Salawu, 2008).

Munday (2009) highlights two basic phases of comprehension and re-expression in translation process, which are similar to functioning comprehension, and expression processes in monolingual communication. Literary comprehension in translation involves aesthetic experience in addition to cognitive activities (Lopez Folg, 2012).

On the other hand, a successful production in translation does not rise from equivalence finding of individual words or sentences, but is accomplished by means of a mentally formulated image gestalt, which is an integrated entity of both linguistic organization and visualized scene (Jiang, 2008). Robinson (2003) explains the sublimated intelligence that makes it possible for individuals to translate reliably, rapidly, and enjoyably is the product of learning which is to say of experience stored in memory ; and the role of translator`s learning style like field independence and field dependence is as dominant as translator`s intelligence and memory. Cognitive style "is defined nowadays as one`s preferred way to think, perceive and recall, in short, to cognize. It reveals itself, for instance, in problem solving" (Soto-Andrade, 2007, p.3). Brown (2000) states " The way we learn things in genral and the way we attack a problem seem to hing on a rather amophous link between personality and cognition;this link referred to as cognive style"(p,113).

A. Characteristics of FI and FD Individuals

Individuals utilize FI cognitive style are described in terms of some characteristics such as: having tendency to approach things analytically; being likely to either analyze a field when it is organized or impose a structure on a field when it lacks organization of its own; being prone to be impersonal; having tendency to have self-defined goals and reinforcement. On the other hand, those own FD cognitive style: are tend to approach things in a global way; are interested in interacting with other people; prefer to be guided and to rely on external referents (Dufresne et al., 1997; Hsiao, 1997; Kearsley, 2002 cited in Rumetshofer & Wob, 2003). Jonassen (2010) believes analytical reasoning as one of the important cognitive process is most often described as field independence, which described as the extent of which the surrounding perceptual field influences a person`s perception of items within it. Non-analytical people (FD) find it difficult to locate the information they are seeking because the surrounding field covers what they are looking for.

Analytical reasoners (FI) are more skillful at disambiguating information from its surrounding field and therefore are better problem solvers because they are better able to isolate task-relevant information. Saville-Troike (2012) adds FD individuals apply deductive process to interpret inputs, use deductive reasoning, and focus on meaning. On the other side, FI perceivers use inductive reasoning and inductive process to interpret inputs besides they focus on form.

B. Translation Competence

A number of researchers have addressed the complex concept of Translation Competence in the field of Translation studies. Ezpeleta (2005) stated:

Reflection on the matter is a relatively recent development and results from empirical studies are still scarce. Some authors talk of translation abilities or skills (Pym, 1992; Hatim and Mason, 1997) while others refer to translation performance (Wilss, 1982). The term competence - translational competence - was first used by Toury (1980, 1995), because of its similarity to Chomsky's (1965) famous distinction between linguistic competence and performance, to explore certain aspects of translation practice. Nord (1991) employs transfer competence and Chesterman (1997) called it translational competence. (cited in Montalt- Ressurreccio, et al,.2008, p.136).

Schaffner and Adab (2000) believe that "competence" involves any number of other terms, and it is accepted as "a cover term and summative concept for the overall performance ability which seems so difficult to define" (p.10). Kelly (2005) reviewed the different definitions of translation competence that had been put forward to 2002 and then proposed her own definition. In her opinion:

Translation competence is the macro competence that comprises the different capacities, skills, knowledge, and even attitudes that professional translators possess and which are involved in translation as an expert activity. It can be broken down into the following sub-competencies, which are all necessary for the success of the macro competence (pp.14-15).

Kelly pointed out 7 sub-competencies: communicative and textual, cultural, thematic, professional instrumental, psycho-physiological, interpersonal and strategic which are intimately related to each other and, when developed in a particular way, allow translation competence to be acquired.

Translation competence is defined by Process of Acquisition of Translation Competence and Evaluation (PACTE) team (2003, p.58) as "the underlying system of declarative and predominantly procedural knowledge". According to PACTE (2005) the group proposed a model of translation competence that they considered to be the underlying system of knowledge that is required to be able to translate .In fact, the translation competence model proposed in 2003 is made up of five sub-competencies and psycho-physiological sub-competence that overlap each other as they operate. According to PACTE (2011, pp. 4-5) the model of translation competence includes the following components

-The bilingual sub-competence
-The extra-linguistic sub-competence
- Knowledge about translation
- Instrumental sub-competence
- Strategic sub-competence
- Psycho-physiological components

Translation competence like all expert knowledge is applicable to problem solving. The solution of translation problems involves different cognitive operations within the translation process and requires constant decision-making on the part of the translator (PACTE, 2011, pp. 4-5).

Vandepitte (2008, para 21) also adds "in Translation Competence research, translators are seen as individuals going through the translation process and taking many decisions". Williams and Chesterman (2002) explain decisions are taken consciously or unconsciously and they may involve translation strategies.

How to improve students' translation competence is a very frequent subject in translation studies specifically in teaching translation that forms a fruitful field of study. The area includes issues such as translation curriculum design, program implementation, translation assessment or evaluation, translator training institutions and the place of technology in translation training. (Williams and Chesterman 2002 cited in Vanderpitte, 2008, para 22)

Much work in the field of translation studies reported dissatisfaction about the way translation had been treated or not treated at all by translation theorists, linguists and psychologists before, despite the fact that a theory of translation process would draw heavily on psychology and on psycholinguistics (Bell, 1991). Despite the need of Translation

Competence studies and Empirical Cognitive translation studies raised by translation scholars such as Spanish group of Pericia y Entorno de la Traduccion (PETRA, 2000, cited in Munoz-Martin, 2009), few studies have concerned about the cognitive aspects of literary translation as one of the most challenging genres for translators. For instance, Lopez-Folgado (2012) investigates the nature of literary translation from a theoretical point of view, assuming that translation is a secondary form of human linguistic communication, and that is guided by the cognitive principle of relevance in an article namely *"Aspects of Literary Translation."* In addition, Rivas-Carmona (2012) approaches the problem of translation sociological and dialectical variation in literary texts posed in an article called *"A Pragmatic-Cognitive Approach to Register in Literary Translation."* Therefore, the purpose of this study was to answer the following question.

Q: Is there any significant difference between field dependent and field independent cognitive styles regarding translation quality of an English literary text?

To fulfill the objective of the study the following hypothesis was raised:

H0: There is no significant difference between field dependent and field independent cognitive styles regarding translation quality of an English literary text.

II. METHOD

A. Participants

A total of 297 undergraduate students participated in this study and following a quantitative research procedure, the number was reduced to128 later. The range of the participants` age was 20 to 46 and they were selected from among English translation students studying at Central and North Branches of Tehran Islamic Azad University. The participants were both female and male senior students and they had specifically passed Literary Translation course. The logic was to choose the participants who had the least experience in translation practice and acceptable knowledge of translation studies theories as a result of their academic instruction. It is worth mentioning the selected participants also were considered as *advanced students* in cognitive translation studies according to Munoz Martin `s (2009) group categorization of possible participants for translation cognitive studies.

Moreover, three raters contributed to assess and score the translations of participants. The raters were postgraduate students of English translation with bachelor degrees in the same major.

B. Instrumentation

Two sets of tests, an English literary text, and one scale for rating the translated texts were used as instrumentations in this study.

a. Language Proficiency Test

The participants were homogenized by application of English as a Foreign Language Examination Test (commonly branded as TOEFL) which measures individuals` capacity to understand and use English at a college level (Geseo, 2011). The TOFEL (ETS, 1991) test used in this study was a paper-based test and the researcher applied two parts of that named structure and written expression, reading comprehension and vocabulary. The number of multiple-choice items in the original test paper was 40 for structure and 60 for reading comprehension, which was reduced to 39 for structure and 57 for reading comprehension as a result of the pilot study. Test-takers were supposed to answer the test in the standard time limits of 25 and 55 minutes.

b. Cognitive Styles Recognition Test

In order to recognize and measure the participants` cognitive style, and to separate FD, FI and field-mixed participants, Group Embedded Figures Test (GEFT) (Witkin et al.,1971) was used since it was psychological research made (Witkin, et al.,1977) and one of the best known cognitive styles tests . This standardized instrument (Guild & Garger, 1985) has been used worldwide to differentiate adults in terms of their cognitive/learning styles, personality, psychological differences and other various related characteristics mostly in psychological and instructional studies since the 1960`s (Zhang, 2004) as well as analytical ability, social behavior, and problem solving style (Yoo, 2006). This is a valid and reliable test to measure Field dependency /independency according to Witkin et al., (1977). An average split-half reliability of 0.82 both for females and males and a three-year test-retest reliability of 0.89 are reported in the manual (Witkin et al., 1971)

It is a timed pencil-and-paper recognition test in which the participants were supposed to outline a geometric shape within a complex design. The test contains 25 figures or items, presented in three sections and total testing time is about 20 minutes. Section one contains seven figures with a time limit of two minutes, this section is only for practice and the scores are not counted in the total scoring. Section two and three, each contains nine figures with a time limit of five minutes. The remaining eight minutes are intended for giving instructions, distribution and collection of test materials ,etc. (Witkin et al.,1971). Items in various sections are arranged in order of increasing difficulty. The difficulty level of the items increase by light shading of similar sections in the figures (Dani, 1989).

The researcher used Portis, Simpson & Wieseman (1993) coding system to score GEFT test. The total test score is ranging from 0 to 18. According to designers of the mentioned scale and Witkin et al., (1971), Rush & Moore (1991) and Weller et al.,(1995), test takers whose scores fall at or near the center of the continuum are field neutral/mixed, meaning these test takers vary in their preference depending on the context. Participants whose scores ranged from 0 to

5 were categorized as FD, 6 to 12 as field- mixed, and 13 to 18 as FI students. Moreover, the test score is based on preference, 18 score indicates the most FI test taker and 0 score indicates the most FD one.

c. Text to Translate

Three paragraphs were selected from an English literary text, to translate by the participants within specified time . The researcher selected the paragraphs from a novel, namely "*To the Lighthouse*", written by Virginia Woolf (1927) as a literary text. The chosen paragraphs were three descriptive following paragraphs of the seventeenth part of the first chapter, *The Window*. The assessment text was selected from a part of the book, which was not related to the rest in terms of meaning, context, and structure.

The researcher used Readability Statistics information estimated by world office software to gain the detailed specification of the text. The whole text, selected by the researcher, contained 1000 words, six paragraphs and 45 sentences of which 532 beginning words of the text, gave to the subjects as Opening section, and they were not supposed to translate this part. Conde-Ruano (2005) believes participants disregard some phenomena in opening sections, probably because they use those sections to contextualize their activity; it is an influence of their usual behavior as regular readers. The next part of the text, which was used as a mean of translation quality evaluation in this study, contained three paragraphs and 468 words. Its Flesch_Reading Ease number was 68.0, which was interpreted that the readability of the text was standard. The order of these following paragraphs in terms of readability was arranged from easy to difficult.

d. Rating Rubric

In order to assess the quality of translation, Christopher Waddington`s (2001) rubric was applied. This empirical rubric considers almost all the descriptive and theoretical contributions in translation quality assessment by some famous scholars such as: the criteria for a good translation, the nature of translation errors, quality assessment base on text linguistic analysis, various textual levels and the link between mistakes and these levels, assessment based on the psycholinguistic theory of "scenes and frames" (Waddington, 2001). The rubric includes four methods to assess the quality of translation. Method A is based on error analysis and possible mistakes, method B is based on error analysis and designed to take into account the negative effect of errors on the overall quality of the translations. Method C is a holistic method of assessment, which includes a unitary scale and treats the translation competence as a whole and method D which consists of combining method B and method C in a proportion of 70/30. The raters applied method D to assess the translations of the participants in this study.

C. Procedure

To conduct this study some general phases were followed. In the beginning, TOEFL test was piloted. Then participants took the TOEFL test and in result of homogenization process of English language proficiency, sufficient qualified ones took GEFT test in the next phase.

The researcher followed the sequential instruction presented in the manual to administer GEFT test and the cognitive style of participants was identified by scoring the test.

Following the procedure of the study, FD and FI students were supposed to translate the literary text. Primarily the participants answered a written question on top of the text. In this way, the researcher ensured that none of the participants had read the novel and its Persian translation before of which the assessment text was chosen to translate. Therefore, the participants could not be aware of the other parts of the book and exposed to a separate piece of literary text, and they did not have any presupposition about the characters, content, even the writing style of the writer. Then, the participants translated the text within the time limit of 45 minutes in class environment. They were allowed to use any types of dictionary in addition to English to Persian glossary provided by test administrator. It is worth mentioning the proper time limit for rendering and the vocabulary glossary had been provided according to the performance of 15 undergraduate students with the same characteristics of the participants and their choices of unknown vocabulary of the text besides the researcher's supervision. Afterwards, the translated texts were supposed to score by the raters. In order to achieve a reliable assessment of the quality of translation, raters participated in a training session for 90 minutes and at the end of the session, three raters conducted a pilot assessment on 25 samples. Then, the raters scored the translations of FD and FI participants. In the final phase, the collected data were analyzed and the conclusion came up about the difference between the variables.

III. RESULTS

As the first step in data analysis, English language proficiency test was piloted on 40 samples prior to its actual administration and the index of 0.79 achieved by Cronbach`s Alpha formula indicated TOEFL test was reliable. All items also went through item analysis procedure and the criteria of Item Discrimination (ID) and Item Facility (IF) were checked for each item. One item from structure part and three items from reading comprehension part were discarded as they did not enjoy an acceptable range.

In the next step the researcher, performed homogenization procedure in terms of English language proficiency. Two parts of a paper-based TOEFL were administered to 297 participants. The obtained amount of Cronbach`s Alpha 0.88 in Table 1 expressed the test was reliable for 297 participants.

TABLE 1
RELIABILITY STATISTICS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TEST

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.880	.880	96

Then, those participants whose scores fell one standard deviation *(SD=14.83110)* above and below the mean *(M=41.9630)* were chosen as the homogeneous participants in this study. Hence, 204 ones were known as homogeneous participants in terms of English language proficiency. The related descriptive statistics are printed in Table 2.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GENERAL ENGLISH PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
TOEFL	297	68.00	6.00	74.00	42.1852	14.44313	208.604
Valid N (listwise)	297						

As it was mentioned before to recognize FD and FI cognitive styles of translation students, GEFT test was administered. Thus, out of 204 participants, there were 64 FD, 71 field-mixed and 69 FI participants, of whom two groups of FD and FI were used in the study. The researcher randomly omitted five FI participants to equalize the numbers of FD and FI groups. Therefore, there were 64 FD participants including 46 females and 18 males and 64 FI ones including 51 females and 13 males.

A training and briefing, session was hold to train the raters for scoring the participants` translations according to the assessment rubric. At the end of the session, the raters conducted a pilot assessment on 25 samples and inter-reliability and Pearson correlation between the raters were calculated. The obtained index of .90 showed acceptable inter-reliability between raters. To use Pearson Correlation, normality distribution of each rater`s scores, was calculated by skewness ratio. The index of skewness ratio for each rater *(R (1) = -0.148, R (2) = -0.009, R (3) = -1.118)* fell in the acceptable range of *-1.96* to *+1.96*, thus, the distribution of the scores was normal. According to the figures depicted in Table 3, the correlation between each two raters was significant. Hence, the raters did not need more training session and they were prepared to score the translations of the participants.

TABLE 3
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN RATERS FOR SAMPLES ASSESSMENT

		Rater1	Rater2	Rater3
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.735**	.792**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	25	25	25
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.735**	1	.745**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	25	25	25
Rater3	Pearson Correlation	.792**	.745**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	25	25	25

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

The same statistical procedure was followed to examine the authenticity of translation scores of FD and FI groups. The descriptive data of translation scores of the two groups is presented in Table 4.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TRANSLATION SCORES

	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Scores	128	19.00	8.00	27.00	16.4375	4.74674	22.531
Valid N (listwise)	128						

The obtained data from computing Cronbach`s Alpha with the amount of 0.93 indicated there was acceptable inter-reliability between raters. Normality distribution of each rater`s scores was also checked prior to running Pearson Correlation. The result of skewness ratio calculation *(R(1=0.63, R(2) = -0.341, R(3)= 0.78)* for raters indicated the achieved figures were within the acceptable range of *-1.96* to *+1.96* and all the distribution of the scores were normal. The figures in Table 5 showed Pearson correlation between each two raters was significant. Thus; the gained translation scores of the participants were reliable in this study.

TABLE 5
PEARSON CORRELATION COEFFICIENT BETWEEN RATERS FOR TRANSLATIONS

		Rater1	Rater2	Rater3
Rater1	Pearson Correlation	1	.867[**]	.803[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000	.000
	N	128	128	128
Rater2	Pearson Correlation	.867[**]	1	.842[**]
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000		.000
	N	128	128	128
Rater3	Pearson Correlation	.803[**]	.842[**]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.000	
	N	128	128	128

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

To test the null hypothesis, the researcher sought the difference between variables. In order to use Independent-Sample test, normality distribution of the translation scores was examined in advance by skewness ratio computation.

The results demonstrated the obtained figure (*SR=0.294*) fell within the acceptable range of *-1.96* to *+1.96*. Hence, the translation scores were normally distributed and had the required condition for further statistical analysis. The related data to skewness are printed in Table 6.

TABLE 6
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF SKEWNESS AND THE RESULT OF COMPUTING SKEWNESS RATIO

	N	Skewness		
	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Skewness Statistic / Std.Error of Skewness
Translation Scores	128	.063	.214	0.063 / 0.214 = 0.294
Valid N (listwise)	128			

The results of Independent-samples test were gained from comparing the means of translation performance for FI group (*M=19.5313, SD = 4.03543*) with that for FD group (*M=13.3438, SD =3.11279*).

According to the *t*-test results (*t* = 9.713, *df* =126, *p* = 0.000 < 0.5), there was a significant difference between the means of translation scores of the two groups with 95% confidence interval. In the other words, the null hypothesis was rejected. More specifically the mean value of translation scores of FI group was higher than the mean value of translation scores of FD group. The *t*-test results are depicted in Table 7.

TABLE 7
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST RESULT FOR TRANSLATION SCORES

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Translation Scores	Equal variances Assumed	1.689	.196	9.713	126	.000	6.18750	.63706	4.92677	7.44823
	Equal variances not assumed			9.713	118.368	.000	6.18750	.63706	4.92599	7.44901

The difference between the two variables is illustrated in Figure 1.
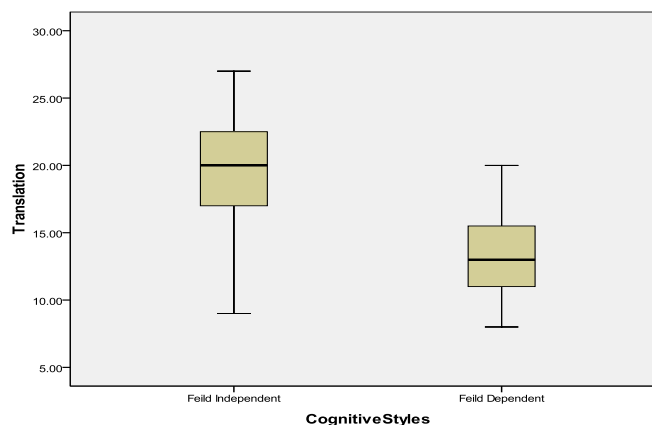
Figure.1- Box plots of Translation Scores for FI and FD groups

IV. CONCLUSION

It was concluded that FI and FD English translation students performed differently in rendering a prose literary text and FI students outperformed FD ones. It is worth pointing out many theorists and researchers such as Larson (1984) and Munday (2009) have known the translation process as a complex cognitive process, which has basic phases related to the processes of comprehension and re-expression.

Behnam and Fathi (2009) examined the relationship between field dependence/field independence cognitive styles of EFL learners and their performance on reading comprehension test and it was denoted that those with field independence style outperformed the ones with field dependence style.

Regarding the re-expression process phase of translation Nilforooshan and Asghari (2007) found significant difference between field independence and field dependence styles of translation students in writing skill in general and narrative writing in particular. However, they didn't find any significant difference between field independents and field dependents in argumentative writing.

It was pointed out by Witkin et al., (1077) and Brown (2000), Mancy and Reid (2004), that FI persons are more successful to break a complex stimulus into separate elements and to separate individual items from an organized field or context, both in perception and restructuring processes. This mind ability to analyze and focus on details in FI person is stronger comparing with the ability in FD ones. This advantage of FI mind ability has been mentioned to involve features of mind processing in view and language (Brown, 2000), information and experience (Mancy & Reid, 2004), reasoning (Saville-Troike, 2012)

On the other side, translation process requires perception, analysis and reconstruction. Literary translation is also a complex performance deals with problem-solving or puzzle-solving (Landers, 2001). Therefore, the findings of this study, revealed FI translation students with all characteristics of field independency cognitive style, were more successful in translating the selected literary text with at least some complex grammatical structures and some parts which needs stronger abstraction process.

Knowing about their cognitive style types and the related specifications of FD and FI styles, translators can apply strategies to make performance that is more efficient as well as developing their own cognitive styles.

In a wider perspective, translating literary text in its cognitive dimension can help translators to enhance cognitive skills and abilities besides the skills and abilities related to Translation Competence, more specifically the psycho - physiological competence (Montalt-Ressurreccio, et al., 2008)

In respect to the pedagogical implications of this study, the identification of translation students` cognitive styles highlights the requirement of providing an appropriate learning environment which respects different learning styles such as FD and FI learning styles at least in literary translation and reading comprehension classes. In addition, translator trainers could plan their teaching methods of literary translation based on students` mentioned learning styles to gain better achievement. On the other hand, results of this study include the Cognitive Translation Studies, which there has not been any related material or course to this category of translation studies in Central and North branches of Islamic Azad University. Besides, considering the importance of Cognitive Translation Studies and the interest that students showed in knowing about their GEFT test results and the purpose of this study throughout this research, it could be utilizable to provide related materials and add relevant courses to academic syllabus designing.

Furthermore, since the participants of this study were the advanced students who were going to work as translators in the near future, FI students would be more successful in rendering literary texts comparing to FD students more specifically in translating Virginia Woolf`s works.

REFERENCES

[1]   Bell, R. T. (1991). Translation and Translating: Theory and Practice. London and New York: Longman.
[2]   Behnam, B., & Fathi, M. (2009). The Relationship between Reading Performance and Field Dependence/Independence Cognitive Styles. *Journal of Teaching English as a Foreign Language and Literature,* 1 (1), 49-62.
[3]   Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. (4th ed.). New York: Longman.
[4]   Conde-Ruano, T. J. (2005). It doesn't look bad: Behavior and results of students at evaluating translations. Unpublished monitored research. University of Granada.
[5]   Dani , N. D., (1989). Scientific Attitude and Cognitive Styles. New Delhi: Northern Book Centre.
[6]   Educational Testing Service. (1991). Reading for TOEFL. ETS.
[7]   Ezpeleta, P. (2005). La noción de género en la planificación de la traducción de la primera lengua extranjera. In I. Garcia Izquierdo (Ed.).en El genero textual y la traduccion:Reflexiones teoricas y aplicaciones pedagogicas, (p. 135).
[8]   Garcia-Peinada, M. A, Para-Membrives, E., & Calssen .A. (Eds.). (2012). Aspects of Literary Translation Building Linguistic and Cultural Bridge in Past and Present. Germany: Deutsche Nationalbibliothek.
[9]   Geseo, T. (2011). Free Sample TOEFL Practice Tests - Just The Facts. Retrieved on August 4, 2011 from http://www.authorpalace.com.
[10] Guild, P. B., & Garger, S. (1985). Marching; to different drummers, Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
[11] Halverson, S. L. (2010). Cognitive Translation Studies Developments in Theory and Method. Norway: University of Bergen.
[12] Hurtado- Albir, A. (2001). Traducción y Traductología. Madrid: Catedra.
[13] Hurtado- Albir, A., & Alves, F. (2009). Translation as a cognitive activity. In J. Munday. (Eds.). *The Routledge companion to translation studies*, (pp.54-74). London: Taylor and Francis Routledge.
[14] Jiang, Q. (2008). Aesthetic Progression in Literary Translation. Retrieved on July 24. 2012 from http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2008/v53/ n4/019651ar.pdf.
[15] Jonassen, H. D. (2010). Learning to Solve Problems: A Handbook for Designing Problem-Solving Learning Environment: Routledge.
[16] Kelly, D. (2005). A Handbook for Translator Trainers, Translation Practices Explained Series. Manchester: St. Jerome.
[17] Kolawole, S. O., & Salawu, A. (2008). The Literary Translator and the Concept of Fidelity. Retrieved on November 5,2010 from. http:// translation journal .net /journal//46lit.htm.
[18] Landers. C. E. (2001). Literary Translation: A Practical Guide. Great Britain: Multilingual Matters.
[19] Larson, M. L. (1084). Meaning-based translation: A guide to cross-language equivalence. New York: University Press of America.
[20] Lopez-Folgado. V. (2012). Literary Translation as a Cognitive Activity .In M. A., Garcia-Peinada. & E. Para-Membrives & Calssen .A. (Eds.). *Aspects of Literary Translation Building Linguistic and Cultural Bridge in Past and Present* (pp.101-120): Deutsche Nationalbibliothek.
[21] Mancy, R., & Reid, N. (2004). Aspects of cognitive style and programming. 16th Workshop of the Psychology of Programming Interest Group. Retrieved on July 4, 2012 from: www.ppig.org.
[22] Montalt -Ressurreccio. V., Ezpeleta Piorno. P., & Garcia Izquierdo. I. (2008). The Acquisition of Translation Competence through Textual Genre. Retrieved on September 17, 2010 from http://translationjournal.net/.
[23] Munoz-Martin, R. (2009). Expertise and Environment in Translation *Mutatis Mutandis*. 2(1). 24–37.
[24] Munday, J. (Ed.). (2009). The Routledge Companion to Translation Studies. London /New York: Routledge.
[25] Nilforooshan, N.,& Asghari, A. (2007). The Effect of Field Dependence Independence as a Source of Variation in EFL Learners' Writing Performance. *Iranian Journal of Language Studies (IJLS),* 1(2), 103-118.
[26] Rush, M. G., & Moore, D. M. (1991). Effect of restructuring training and cognitive style. *Educational Psychology*, 11, 309-321.
[27] Pacte. (2003). Building a Translation Competence Model. In Alves, F. (Ed.): *Triangulating Translation: Perspectives in Process Oriented Research*, (pp. 43-66). Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
[28] Pacte. (2005). Investigating Translation Competence: Conceptual and Methodological Issues, *Meta, 50* (2), 609-618.
[29] Pacte. (2011). Results of the Validation of the PACTE Translation Competence Model: Translation Project and Dynamic Translation Index. Retrieved on May 2, 2012 from http://grupsderecerca.uab.cat/ pacte/sites/grupsderecerca.uab.cat.pacte/files/2011_PACTE_Continuum. pdf.
[30] Portis, S. C., Simpson, F. M., & Wieseman, R. A. (1993). Convergence or divergence? Perspectives on experience and cognitive styles of prospective teachers. Montgomery, AL: Auburn University Montgomery. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 354 236).
[31] Rivas-Carmona, M. (2012). A Pragmatic-cognitive Approach to 'Register' in Literary Translation in M. A., Garcia-Peinada. & E. Para-Membrives & Calssen .A. (Eds.). *Aspects of Literary Translation Building Linguistic and Cultural Bridge in Past and Present* (pp.121-140), Deutsche Nationalbibliothek.
[32] Robinson, D. (2003). Becoming a Translator: An Introduction to the Theory and Practice of Translation. (2nd ed.). New York: Rutledge.
[33] Rumetshofer, H., & Wob, W. (2003). XML- based Adaptation Framework for Psychological-driven E-learning Systems. *Educational Technology & Society*, 6 (4), 18-29. Retrieved on June 11, 2011 from http://ifets.ieee.org/periodical/6_3/4. pdf.
[34] Saville-Troike. M. (2012). Introducing Second Language Acquisition. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[35] Seid Motahhari,M & Norouzi, M. (2013). Comparison between Field Dependent and Field Independent Cognitive Styles Concerning Translation of a literary Text. In *General and Specialist Translation / Interpretation: Theory, Methods, Practice 6th International Conference Proceedings* (pp.280-283), Ukraine: Siberian Federal University.
[36] Shreve, G. (2006) .The Deliberate Practice: Translation and Expertise. *Journal of Translation Studies,* 9(1), 27-42.
[37] Schaffner. C., & Adab. B. (2000). Developing Translation Competence. John Benjamins.B.V.

[38] Soto-Andrade. J. (2007). Metaphors and Cognitive Modes in the Teaching-Learning of Mathematics. Retrieved on April 6.2012 from https://doc-0k-94-docsviewer.googleusercontent.com.

[39] Vandepitte, S. (2008). Remapping Translation Studies: Towards a Translation Studies Ontology. Retrieved on September 17, 2010 from http://www.erudit.org/revue/meta/2008 /v53/n3/019240ar.html?vue =resume.

[40] Waddington, C. (2001). Different methods of evaluating student translation: The question of validity. *Meta: Translator`s Journal*, 46(2), 311-325.

[41] Weller, H. G., Repman, J., Lan, W., & Rooze, G. (1995). Improving the effectiveness of learning through hypermedia-based instruction: The importance of learner characteristic. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 11, 461-465.

[42] Williams, J., & Chesterman, A. (2002). The Map. A Beginner's Guide to Doing Research in Translation Studies. Manchester: St. Jeroteme.

[43] Willson, F.C. (2009). A Model Translating Metaphors In Proverbs (French To English): A Cognitive Descriptive Approach. Unpublished Master thesis. University of British Columbia.

[44] Witkin, H. A., Oltman, P. K., Raskin, E., & Karp, S. A. (1971). Manual for embedded figures test, children's embedded figures test, and group embedded figures test. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

[45] Witkin, H. A., Moore, C.A., Goodenough, D.R., Cox, P.W. (1977). Field Dependent and Field-Independent Cognitive Styles and Their Education Implications. *Review of Educational Research*, 47(1), 1- 64.

[46] Woolf, V. (1927). To the lighthouse. In M. Drabble (Ed.), *To the lighthouse*. Canada: Oxford University Press.

[47] Yoo, w. s. (2006). Group Embedded Figures Test. Retrieved on November 7, 2010 from http://www.mendeley.com/research-papers.

[48] Zhang, L. (2004). Field dependence /independence: Cognitive style or perceptual ability – validating thinking styles and academic achievement. *Personality and Individual Differences, 37*, 1295-1311.

Masoud Seid Motahari is an assistant professor of TEFL at Central Tehran Branch of Islamic Azad University. He teaches courses in both the graduate Translation Studies and TEFL programs. His primary research interests are philosophy, linguistics, and translation studies.

Mehrnoush Norouzi holds an MA degree in Translation Studies from Islamic Azad University, Central Tehran Branch. She is currently an English teacher and works as a freelance translator. Her major areas of research interest are translators, Cognitive Translation Studies, TQA, and Teaching Translation.

Professional Development of English Teachers in Second Language Teaching

Jinghua Zhang

College of Foreign Languages, Yanbian University, China

Abstract—**English education is an integration of many factors such as teaching methods, curriculum design etc. In particular, teachers' ability plays an important role in English education. This paper discusses the development of teachers' teaching ability and proposes a series of basic requirements for more effective English education. It is argued that adoption of scientific and appropriate teaching methods, effective curriculum design, development of teachers' language skills, scientific research ability and application of modern teaching facilities etc. are the necessary abilities required by the English teachers in modern English education.**

Index Terms—**professional development, teaching approach, curriculum design**

I. INTRODUCTION

In the research of language teaching and learning, the ability of English teachers plays an important role. In general, the higher the teachers' teaching ability is, the better the teaching effect will be. The role of the language teacher has taken great changes in recent years. In traditional English teaching framework, he/she tries to control the learners and deliver language knowledge to the learners. Nevertheless, this kind of teacher-centered teaching mode restricts learners' language learning. Therefore, professional development of English teachers is required for the better English education in the new century. A teacher, as the main organizer and guide in the teaching process should be familiar with various factors that influence ultimate teaching result. Precisely speaking, English education is an organic integration of many factors and development of teachers' ability plays an important role in the whole process of English education. This paper focuses on the professional development of teachers in Second Language Teaching (SLT) in order to meet the challenges as a non-native English teacher. It is argued that application of effective teaching methods, development of curriculum design, conversion of teachers' role, expansion of major knowledge, development of language skills and scientific research ability etc. are the major fields related to the development of teachers' ability.

II. LANGUAGE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

Language teaching methods have undergone many years since 18th century. Nevertheless, many non-native English teachers are not so familiar with those teaching methods, especially the teachers whose major research field is not related to the English education do not care much about application of teaching methods. As a matter of fact, language teaching should depend upon appropriate language teaching methods so that it can lead to a satisfactory and effective teaching result.

A. Overview of Language Teaching Methods

Language teaching theories have undergone a long history. Some of them have been very popular in particular period of time. For example, grammar-translation method was one of the most popular teaching methods in 1920s to 1930s. Communicative Language Teaching approach becomes the mainstream of modern English language education. In view of better understanding to the teaching theories, we will make a brief overview to the language teaching theories from historical perspective so that non-native English teachers may apply them in the practical language teaching process.

First of all, grammar-translation method which is known as the earliest language teaching method has influenced English teaching for a long period of time. Teachers' teaching focuses on the translation from target language texts to native language. Oftentimes it is applicable at beginner's stage. One of the features of the direct method is to use spoken language in situations without native language translation. It creates a good chance to the learners for language learning, while at the same time it also creates challenges for the teachers' ability to express their ideas. Audio-Lingual method which attaches more importance to the oral and listening skills of the learners also emphasizes use of target language. In silent way method, a teacher remains to be silent so that learners can focus their attention on what they learn. This method provides a good chance for the learners, but on the other side, it neglects positive roles of teachers in the class. Communicative language teaching which is well known to all has been popular since 1980s in China. In CLT framework, teachers and learners interact with each other and negotiation is often conducted during the course period. Class activities including information gaps, role play and games not only make learners interested in the contents concerned, but also increase teaching effect. Since communicative competence is the ultimate goal, grammar and

sentence analysis etc. are not emphasized that much. Content-based language teaching and task-based language teaching are two of the effective teaching methods often adopted in contemporary language teaching. In CBLT or TBLT, learners learn a language by studying other subjects or fulfilling specific tasks in the class. In addition, cooperative learning methods, multiple intelligence methods etc. are also applied to language teaching. The period that various teaching methods coexist is called "method era".

Various types of teaching methods have been explored and each of them has its own merits and unique features. The problem is how to apply them effectively in language teaching. Teaching experience proves that no single teaching method can lead to the completely satisfactory teaching effect. This being so, are there any solutions to this problem?

B.   Development in Language Teaching Theories

Research on the language teaching methods enters a new era called "post-method era" in late 1990s which emphasizes collaboration of teaching methods rather than focusing on a specific teaching method. Eclecticism is one of the possible answers to this problem. Eclecticism means to select good teaching methods from various teaching methods. Rivers argues that "eclectics try to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known language-teaching methods into their classroom procedures, using them for the purpose for which they are most appropriate" (Rivers, 1981). Nevertheless, not all the good teaching methods are applicable in each language class. It implies that there should be a set of principles in applying these methods. This teaching method framework is defined as principled eclecticism. Precisely speaking, principled eclecticism is different from previous eclecticism or mere integration of those teaching methods. Principled eclecticism which means a "coherent and pluralistic teaching method" was firstly used by Larsen-Freeman (2000) and Mellow (2000). It is "a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. Eclecticism involves the use of a variety of language learning activities, each of which may have very different characteristics and may be motivated by different underlying assumptions" (Mellow, 2002).

Application of principled eclecticism largely depends on the ability of the teachers. In this sense, it is positive that selection of the appropriate teaching methods is a challenge for the English teachers. Tarone and Yule argue that "eclectic method places a great deal of responsibility on the individual teachers' ability to choose appropriate procedures and materials according to some principles or some set of principles" (Tarone and Yule, 1989). In brief, it is teachers' ability that decides effective use of teaching method. At the same time, teachers' responsibility also increases in the principled eclecticism framework. Therefore, teachers should not only be familiar with various types of teaching methods but also use them flexibly and effectively.

C.   Curriculum Design

As to the definition of curriculum design, different scholars have different perspectives on the basis of its purposes. Some scholars argue that curriculum design is an aspect of education profession which focuses on developing curricula for students. Curriculum design is equivalent to the whole arrangement of the class. Hence, it reflects the whole teaching procedure in detail. Others believe that the curriculum is an academic plan, which should include the purpose of the curriculum, content, sequence, instructional methods, resources, evaluation approaches, and how adjustments to the plan will be made based on experience or assessment data. (Lattuca, L. & Stark, J., 2009) Teachers are required to make scientific and flexible application of teaching methods discussed previously, especially the principled eclecticism.

Curriculum design is closely related to many aspects. In addition to the learners in the class, teachers are also required to get prepared. Generally speaking, the following three requirements should be taken into consideration by the teachers in order to reach better teaching quality (CIDR, 1999). Firstly, teachers can ask questions about the students who will take the course. This is the process to understand the learners. Teachers can make proper teaching plan in advance on the basis of practical level of the learners. This includes preparation of teaching materials, adoption of appropriate teaching methods, arrangements of classroom activities and so on. Secondly, teachers can determine what they want students to learn and how they will know students are learning it. Last but not least, teachers can design a set of activities, assignments, and materials that will help them lead those students in their learning. As a teacher, he/she should know who will listen to your lecture. In other words, teachers should understand their counterparts' needs in the class as much as possible including all possible information about learners.

What's more, the teachers should know what and how to do during the course period, i.e., concrete teaching plan. Establishment and implementation of an effective teaching plan depends on the teachers' individual ability to a large extent. In addition, organization of class activities such as group discussion and learners' individual presentation etc. should be properly planned so that class atmosphere can be more active and learners will feel relaxed when they learn English in the class. In a word, a well-prepared class will lead to a satisfactory and effective teaching result.

III.   Professional Development of English Teachers in Second Language Teaching

English is an international language widely spoken and used throughout the world in different fields of society. Most countries using English as a second language or a foreign language put great emphasis on the professional development of English teachers ability because language teachers play an important role in the whole language teaching process. One of the reasons for this phenomenon is that learners lack authentic language environment. For the sake of better development of English teachers in non-native countries, the following elements should be carefully concerned.

A. Significance of Professional Knowledge

One of the basic requirements for a qualified English teacher is to acquire a good understanding of major knowledge, especially the English linguistic knowledge such as basic English language knowledge (vocabulary, grammar etc.), phonetics, syntax, semantics etc., British and American literature, teaching methodology, course design and academic writing ability etc. In addition, it proves that contemporary English teaching concerns more complicated transcultural and interdisciplinary knowledge. Many articles in the English textbooks are related to the knowledge from other research fields. Therefore, English teachers should face the challenges actively and improve their abilities to be a qualified English teacher. Generally speaking, English major knowledge is regarded as the most essential requirement for an English teacher. In addition to the language knowledge, an English teacher also needs knowledge of other fields. Here is one example. A text about Martin Luther King concerns historical, political and social issues. As the learners, they may not be familiar with the topic, particularly some significant historical events. For the sake of better understanding, teachers may offer necessary information about the topic to the learners by showing relevant information such as video clips, PPT presentation etc. Then the learners will grasp the gist more promptly and effectively. In order to reach this goal, teachers should make a clear understanding of their major knowledge and relevant interdisciplinary knowledge. To put it simply, teachers' research scope should not be restricted within their own majors.

B. Development of Comprehensive Language Skills

As known to all, language is a tool for communication. Language skills are not separate single identities though we differentiate various language skills for the sake of language study such as listening, speaking, reading, writing and translating etc. However, in the real communication situation, it is not hard to recognize that different language skills are often interrelated in the output although the individual input seems to be independent. For instance, one should read and write in order to translate written materials and listen and speak when he/she works as an interpreter in the case of international conferences. Likewise, teachers of English are required to give a clear statement or explanation (i.e., speaking) to the learners so as to make the learners understand what they learn in the class. Teachers also need to read relevant text when they explain it. In order to provide feedback or suggestions to the learners, teachers need to listen to the learners and then talk to them. Therefore, development of comprehensive language skills is not only the basic requirement for the English learners but also the premise for the English teachers to teach effectively.

As a non-native speaker, an English teacher in SLT environment meets great challenges in the language teaching process since language teaching needs various language skills such as reading, listening, speaking, writing and translating etc. Hence, to be a qualified English teacher, one should reach proficiency, accuracy and fluency in the use of English language. Teachers can expand their knowledge through making further study and relevant scientific research.

Frankly speaking, listening and speaking skills need to be consolidated periodically. Nevertheless, in many cases teachers have less opportunity to practice their listening and speaking. As two of the basic language skills required by English teachers, speaking and listening are often neglected by the non-native English teachers. It is not rare to see that a certain proportion of the non-native English teachers give lectures in their native languages, but not in English. If this is the case, learners will have less time to contact with English except for their textbooks. In other words, learners will never have possible foreign language environment. In this sense, improvement of teachers' own language ability is the most essential problem to be solved in the course of English teaching. The best choice for non-native English teachers is to teach English through English. Teachers can improve their language skills and provide more authentic language environment for the learners. Therefore, improvement of English teachers' own language ability is the premise to teach the learners English. Other language skills, i.e., reading, writing and translating etc. need to be improved as well. In a word, comprehensive language skills including speaking, reading, listening, writing and translating of English teachers should be developed for the higher teaching levels and more satisfactory teaching effect.

C. Teaching Based on Research

Improvement of teaching and scientific research ability is one of the effective ways to develop teachers' overall teaching ability. Research ability of a teacher reflects teaching levels to some extent. Nevertheless, research ability of English teachers proves to be unbalanced in the advanced and backward areas in China. English teachers in developed areas like Beijing and Shanghai have more chances to make direct contact with latest academic information and corresponding teaching and research materials. In comparison with previous case, English teachers in the economically and educationally backward areas have less opportunity to know about the latest teaching and research information. Notwithstanding the gap in the research ability between the developed and less developed, it is an inevitable choice for the teachers in both areas to improve their research ability. Only by keeping pace with advanced scientific research can we improve our research ability and teaching level.

Some possible suggestions are followed for the improvement of scientific research ability of non-native English teachers. First, we can increase academic communication with other English teachers and scholars to keep up with the latest research level. If possible, we can invite prestigious scholars to give lectures on the topics of common concern. Second, we can organize various academic workshops, seminars and conferences to enhance interaction and exchange of academic information and know more about current tendency of scientific research. Except for some developed cities like Beijing and Shanghai, most areas have rather poor conditions in providing English teachers with latest teaching and

research information. However, with development of internet and multimedia, communication between areas has been improved to some extent. Third, we can publish relevant academic articles and participate in major-related academic seminars and conferences to expand knowledge of English including linguistics, literature and education etc.

D.   Application of Modern Technical Means

Modern English teaching requires more diversified means of teaching. In addition to the basic means of teaching i.e., giving lectures in the class, English language teaching requires application of modern multimedia facilities such as computers, internet, projectors and audio-lingual equipment to improve learners' basic language skills particularly listening and speaking abilities. Multimedia is regarded as one of the symbolic means of language teaching in the 21st century. Recently, most of the English majors in China encourage English teachers to use multimedia in the class. One of the benefits from this type of class is that learners have more chances to make contact with authentic language materials.

Application of advanced teaching facilities is inevitable. Teachers, as the main users of those teaching facilities need to be familiar with those facilities and take advantage of them. One more representative way of language teaching in the 21st century is via network. In some universities, most of the class files are sent to the learners through internet.

Some particular teaching methods have already been formed on the basis of advanced network techniques such as web-based language teaching. This type of language teaching largely depends on the network environment. Both teachers and learners have their classes on the internet. Teachers assign and check the learners' homework in front of their computers. It not only saves the teacher's time, but increases teaching effect. No matter what kinds of teaching methods we adopt, teachers should know how to use them for more effective English teaching.

E.   Establishment of Cooperative Teaching and Learning Relations

Language teaching is a bilateral cooperative process which requires both teachers' and learners' attention. In traditional language teaching framework, teachers are the main controller in the language class, while the learners are passively accepting what they hear whether they understand it or not. It will inevitably affect normal language learning result. Current English teaching focuses on the interaction between the learners and teachers. This trend started from early 1990s in China with development of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approach. Teachers and learners cooperate together to find out problems and solve them. Hence, the learners can become the main body of the teaching activities, whereas teachers become the guide providing appropriate suggestions to the language learners as well as delivering necessary language knowledge. As a result, the whole class gradually forms learner-centered, teacher-guided autonomous teaching atmosphere. In a word, teachers need to pay more attention to the interaction between teachers and learners so as to form mutual communication and interaction during the teaching process rather than teachers' unilateral teaching behavior.

In addition to the mutual cooperation in the class, teachers should try to understand more about learners. Modern language teaching encourages learner-centered education or learner autonomy. Since 1980s focus of language teaching has been converted from teachers to learners. Various factors related to the learners are more closely focused on, for instance, learners' motive, learning styles and strategies, learners' personality features and other social and cultural factors possibly affecting language learning. On the basis of the analysis above, we conclude that teachers in current English teaching framework have multiple characters, namely, teaching languages, guiding learners and understanding learners.

F.   Significance of Culture Input

Culture input proves to be very necessary in foreign language teaching and learning. It is well tested that cultural competence plays a critical role in successful language learning (Ellis, 1994; Terry, R.M., 2000). In terms of English language teaching and learning, the culture of the English-speaking countries, the American or British culture as idealized model, has become an inseparable component in the second language teaching context. McKay (2003) identified two important ways that culture can play in language teaching: linguistic dimension of culture and pedagogical dimension of culture, the former involving semantic, pragmatic and discoursal features and the latter the option of the teaching material and methodology in teaching. The task of the language teacher is not to teach cultural contents word by word, but "to facilitate learners' interaction with some small part of another society and its cultures, with the purpose of relativising learners' understanding of their own cultural values and behaviors, and encouraging them to investigate for themselves…" (M. Byram, A. Michols and D. Stevens, 2001).

English teachers in SLT environment can adopt two different means to introduce cultural background to the learners. One is to teach cultural characteristics and differences through teaching materials such as course books or reference materials, the other is to create effective language learning atmosphere by using multimedia means. Modern language teaching demonstrates various features compared with traditional language teaching. Culture input proves to be one of the salient features in current language teaching.

IV.   CONCLUSION

English teaching concerns many factors such as teaching methods, curriculum design and teachers' ability etc. In this

paper, we discussed some basic problems related to the professional development of teachers' ability in English teaching. We analyzed various language teaching methods from historical perspective in order to find out the most appropriate method to the English teachers. As a result, principled eclecticism proved to be the best choice. We also made some proposals for the teachers' professional development. Improvement of professional knowledge, comprehensive language skills, and competent research ability in specialized field etc. were mainly concerned. Conversion of teachers' role is also necessary in improving teachers' ability as well as establishing learner autonomy. Furthermore, development of comprehensive language skills and application of advanced teaching facilities such as multimedia were indicated as the necessary conditions of improving teachers' ability. Teachers' ability plays an important role in the process of English teaching. To be a professional, energetic, resourceful and creative teacher will be our common goal to strive for in the future. We hope that research done here will make contributions to the professional development of teachers and further to the development of English education.

REFERENCES

[1]   Brown, H. D. (2000). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. New York: A Pearson Education Company.
[2]   Brown, H. D. (2007). Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy, 3rd Edition. New York: Pearson ESL.
[3]   Byram, M., A. Michols and D. Stevens. (2001). Developing Intercultural Competence in Practice. Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.
[4]   CIDR. (1999). Designing a Course, *CIDR Teaching and Learning Bulletin,* Vol. 2 No.1. 1-2
[5]   Ellis, R. (1994). The Study of Second Language Acquisition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[6]   Hedge, T. (2000). Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[7]   Larsen-Freeman, D. (2000). Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching, Second Edition. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[8]   Lattuca, L. & Stark, J. (2009) Shaping the college curriculum: Academic plans in context. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
[9]   McKay, S.L. (2003). The cultural basis of teaching English as an international language. *TESOL Matters*. 13/4: 1-4.
[10] Mellow, J. Dean. (2002). Toward Principled Eclecticism in Language Teaching: The Two-Dimensional Model and the Centring Principle. *TESL-EJ*, Vol. 5. No. 4. 1-19.
[11] Richards, Jack C. and Theodore S. Rodgers. (2001). Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching. New York: Cambridge University Press.
[12] Rivers, W. M. (1981). Teaching Foreign-Language Skills. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press.
[13] Tarone, E.and Yule, G. (1989). Focus on the Language Learner. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[14] Terry, R.M. (2000). Review. *The Modern Language Journal*. Vol. 84: 444-464.

Jinghua Zhang was born in Jilin, China in 1974. She received her PH.D. degree in linguistics from Chungnam National University, Korea in 2008.

She is currently an associate professor in the College of Foreign Languages, Yanbian University, Yanji, China. Her research interests include linguistics and language education.

On the Relationship between Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety, Willingness to Communicate and Scholastic Success among Iranian EFL Learners

Mina Rastegar
English Dept, Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Iran

Maliheh Karami
English Dept, Shahid Bahonar University of Kerman, Iran

Abstract—The present study aimed at investigating the relationships among foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, and the scholastic success of Iranian EFL learners. To this end, 74 senior and junior students majoring in English Literature and English Translation at Shahid Bahonar university of Kerman participated in this study. To collect the required data, the following questionnaires were applied: Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) developed by Horwitz et al. (1986) and the Willingness to Communicate Scale (MacIntyre et al., 2001) to measure the participants' frequency of time chosen to communicate in English. The participants' GPAs were also used as a measure of their scholastic success. The results of this study revealed that there was a significant negative relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and willingness to communicate. The relationship between foreign language classroom anxiety and scholastic success was also found to be significantly negative. However, a significant positive relationship was found between willingness to communicate and scholastic success. This study recommends that language teachers identify the causes of language anxiety and try to avoid being one of them. They should also help their students boost their language achievement by increasing their willingness to communicate and decreasing their anxiety in language classes.

Index Terms—Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety (FLCA), Willingness to Communicate (WTC), scholastic success, English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

I. INTRODUCTION

Research in the area of second or foreign language learning has acknowledged that many language learners face intrapersonal difficulties. Anxiety and lack of willingness to communicate in the L2 are two of them. As a matter of fact, foreign language anxiety prevents many people from achieving their desired goal in language learning.

Despite the fact that foreign language classroom anxiety and willingness to communicate are two important affective factors in determining one's L2 learning success, no study has focused specifically on the relationship among Iranian EFL learners' foreign language classroom anxiety, their willingness to communicate, and their scholastic success. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to bridge this gap by discovering the situation of language learning anxiety and its relationship with willingness to communicate and scholastic success among Iranian EFL students.

A. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety

Anxiety as a psychological construct has been defined as "a state of apprehension, a vague fear that is only indirectly associated with an object" (Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, 1971, as cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 3). Psychologists make a distinction between three categories of anxiety: trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989). According to Zheng (2008), the differences between these three categories can be identified on a continuum from stability to transience. In other words, trait anxiety, which is related to a generally stable tendency to be nervous in a wide range of situations, forms one end, and "a moment-to-moment experience of transient emotional state" (Zheng, 2008, p. 2) forms the other.

Situational anxiety, representing the probability of becoming anxious in a particular type of situation, falls in the middle of the continuum. According to MacIntyre (1998), language anxiety is a form of situation-specific anxiety. Also, Horwitz et al. (1986) recognized that language anxiety is a situation-specific anxiety construct, "largely independent of the other types of anxiety" (p. 127).

Brown (2007) has defined language anxiety as "a feeling of worry experienced in relation to a foreign language, either trait or state in nature" (p. 384). MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined foreign language anxiety as "the feeling

of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 283).

The study of L2 anxiety began more than three decades ago, in the 1970s. From the beginning, there have been two different approaches to the study of anxiety in language learning: (1) the "anxiety transfer" approach, and (2) the "unique anxiety" approach (Toth, 2010, p. 15). These two approaches are based on different conceptualizations of L2 anxiety.

Based on Toth (2010), the assumption underlying the first approach is that L2 is the transfer of other forms of anxiety into the L2 learning context, in other words, it is assumed that those who are generally anxious or experience anxiety in certain situations tend to also feel anxious when learning or using a foreign language (Toth, 2010).

In contrast, the assumption behind the second approach is that language learning produces a unique type of anxiety. In this assumption, L2-related anxiety is seen as a situation-specific anxiety aroused by the experience of learning and using a second language. Of these two contrasting perspectives, the unique anxiety approach has turned out to be the more fruitful one.

B. Willingness to Communicate

A recent addition to the list of factors that have been identified as having an impact on learning a foreign language is the extent of learners' willingness to communicate (WTC). Willingness to communicate can be defined as "an underlying continuum representing the predisposition toward or away from communicating, given the choice" (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2001, p. 538). Or, more simply put, a learner's "readiness to enter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using a L2" (MacIntyre, Clement, Dornyei, & Noels, 1998, p. 547). Willingness to communicate has also been defined as "the intention to initiate communication, given a choice" (Brown, 2007, p. 157).

In 1998, MacIntyre et al. proposed a multi-layered pyramid model of WTC. Their model distinguishes between stable factors (such as personality traits) and situation specific factors influencing communicative behavior such as desire to communicate with a specific person (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 547). So, the authors suggested that WTC depends on some factors such as "the degree of acquaintance between communicators, the number of people present, the formality of the situation, and the topic of discussion" (MacIntyre et al.,1998, cited in Leger & Storch, 2009, p. 270).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Willingness to Communicate

Horwitz et al. (1986) identified three components of FL anxiety: communication apprehension (CA), test anxiety, and fear of negative evaluation. They defined CA as "a type of shyness characterized by fear or anxiety about communicating with people" (p. 128). One of the most studied topics in the field of communication is the tendency of some people to avoid communicating orally (Toth, 2010). In fact, Many researchers have pointed out that "the skill producing most anxiety is speaking" (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1991, cited in Tanveer, 2007, p. 11).

Philips (1992) carried out a research to study the relationship between language anxiety and oral performance. He found that the more anxious the students were, the lower performance they had in oral tests. So, language anxiety can have an effect on learners' willingness to communicate and their oral performance.

Park and Lee (1995) in their study of 132 Korean college students reported that "The higher anxious the students were about speaking English, the lower scores they gained on their oral performance" (p. 197).

Liu and Jackson (2008) investigated the relationship between Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and their FL anxiety. For this purpose, 547 first-year undergraduate non-English majors were studied. The following conclusions were reached from this study:

First, "a learner who feared being negatively evaluated more tended to be more apprehensive about speaking and more anxious about tests" (Liu & Jackson, 2008, p. 10).

Second, most of the students were willing to participate in interpersonal conversations; however, because of some reasons such as anxiety or low English proficiency, many of them did not like to speak English in class and were apprehensive of speech communication. They also reported that there was a positive correlation between the students' unwillingness to communicate and their FL anxiety. Moreover, "their unwillingness to communicate and their FL anxiety were significantly correlated to their self-rated English proficiency and access to English" (Liu & Jackson, 2008, p. 12).

B. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety and Scholastic Success

The effect of FL anxiety on L2 students' scholastic success has been widely explored. Atef-Vahid and Fard Kashani (2011) explored English language learning anxiety and its relationship with overall English achievement among 38 high-school students. The results of this study showed that "English learning anxiety has a significant moderate negative correlation with the English achievement of the students in this study" (Atef-Vahid & Fard Kashani, 2011, p. 37). Therefore, it can be maintained that "anxiety plays a debilitative role in language learning" (p. 37). Also, Kao and Craigie (2010) in their study of the relationship between foreign language anxiety and English achievement in

Taiwanese undergraduate English-major students "ascertained a negative relationship between anxiety and achievement" (p. 61).

Despite the fact that a large number of studies have shown that anxious language learners are less successful at language learning, in several other studies anxiety has been found to help improve performance in language learning (Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Young, 1992). Neutral relationships have also been found. In a study by Chastain (1975), it was shown that the directions of the correlations between anxiety and language learning in three languages (French, German, and Spanish) were not consistent. Three levels of correlation, positive, negative, and near zero were found. Many researchers have attributed these inconsistent results to "the discrepancy of measurements used to assess second language anxiety and imprecise definitions of second language anxiety that do not take the uniqueness of second language learning into consideration" (e.g., Horwitz, 1986; Horwitz et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989, cited in Chu, 2008, p. 28). In order to prevent such inconsistencies, Horwitz et al. (1986) defined foreign language anxiety as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the language learning process" (p. 128). They developed the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) in order to provide researchers with a standard instrument to measure foreign language anxiety, thus bringing about a clearer picture of its nature.

C. Willingness to Communicate and Scholastic Success

One of the researchers in this area has contended that "language learning is facilitated through meaningful interactions" (Chu, 2008, p.67). So, it is assumed that more interaction leads to more language development. Such a result was confirmed by Riasati and Noordin (2011). According to them, "the goal of modern language learning and teaching is to encourage learners to use language for meaningful and effective communication not only inside but also outside classroom" (Riasati & Noordin, 2011, p. 74). Some researchers (e.g., MacIntyre et al., 1998) have asserted that a basic objective of L2 teaching should be to develop learners' willingness to communicate, "because WTC is expected to facilitate the language learning process so that higher WTC among students leads to increased opportunity for practice in L2 and authentic language use" (Riasati & Noordin, 2011, p. 75). Dornyei (2003) argued that competence in the L2 is necessary but not sufficient. To wit, learners should be not only *able* to communicate but also *willing* to communicate in the L2 (Dornyei, 2003). Research has shown that learners' WTC influences how frequently they actively engage in communication in the L2 (Clement, Baker, & MacIntyre, 2003; Yashima, Zenuk-Nishide, & Shimizu, 2004). In addition, Chan and McCroskey (1987) found that higher scores on WTC scale were associated with students' more tendency to participate verbally in class.

Some other researchers (e.g. Baker & MacIntyre, 2000; MacIntyre, 1994; MacIntyre et al., 2001) showed that communicative competence and communication anxiety are two important predictors of WTC. In other words, high levels of competence together with low levels of anxiety would lead to greater WTC and consequently more communication in the L2. Also, other individual differences such as sex and age (MacIntyre, Baker, Clement, & Donovan, 2003), and attitude toward the international community (Yashima, 2002; Yashima et al., 2004) have been found to influence WTC.

The following research questions were posed to be answered:

1. Is there any significant relationship between students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their willingness to communicate?

2. Is there any significant relationship between students' foreign language classroom anxiety and their scholastic success?

3. Is there any significant relationship between students' willingness to communicate and their scholastic success?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The sample used in this study consisted of 74 EFL students (50 females and 24 males) with an age range of 20 to 25 majoring at English literature and English translation at Kerman University. The rationale behind doing the study in an academic setting was due to its aim at finding out the relationship between EFL students' foreign language classroom anxiety, their willingness to communicate, and their scholastic success.

B. Instruments

The following questionnaires were utilized to obtain the required data:

1. Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS)

Students' foreign language classroom anxiety level was measured through using the FLCAS (see Appendix A) designed by Horwitz et al., (1986) to assess the degree to which a respondent feels anxious in a foreign language classroom. The questionnaire consists of 33 statements in the form of a Likert scale, ranging from *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. In this scale 8 items are negative; therefore, their points were counted reversely. The sum of the points ranges from 33 to 165. The higher the total scores were, the more anxious the participants were considered to be. The internal consistency of the FLACS, as measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient, was found to be .93, with the test-

retest reliability of .83. According to Horwitz et al. (1986), this scale can measure foreign language anxiety reliably and validly.

2. Willingness to Communicate Scale

L2 willingness to communicate was measured with the WTC scale (see Appendix B) adapted from MacIntyre, et al. (2001). The scale consists of 27 items assessing the frequency of time that students will choose to communicate in English in the classroom. The reliability coefficient for this questionnaire was found to be .92. Responses to the items were anchored on a 5-point Likert scale, at one end by *almost always willing* and at the other end by *almost never willing* and the scores range between 27 to 135. Higher scores indicated higher levels of WTC in English.

C. Data Collection Procedures

To gather data the FLCAS and the WTC scale were handed in to the participants simultaneously. Also, as the measurement of their scholastic success, the researchers asked them to write their GPAs. Moreover, to assure the exactitude of their self-reported scores, their GPAs were also extracted from their records. The participants were made certain that the collected data would be used only for research purposes. Finally, to explore any significant relationships among the sample's foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, and their scholastic success, the collected data was entered into the SPSS software Version 15.0 to undergo Pearson product-moment correlation analysis.

IV. Results

To answer the research questions of this study, Pearson Product Moment Correlation was used. The analysis of the collected data revealed that there are significant correlations between the variables of the study, namely foreign language classroom anxiety, willingness to communicate, and scholastic success. Tables 1 and 2 below present the descriptive statistics of the variables and the correlation matrix, respectively.

TABLE1.
THE DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE VARIABLES

	N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Variance
FLCA	74	87.00	47.00	134.00	84.13	17.44	304.36
WTC	74	84.00	51.00	135.00	85.32	18.83	354.66
GPA	74	6.04	13.46	19.50	16.38	1.31	1.73

TABLE2.
CORRELATION MATRIX OF THE VARIABLES

	FLCA	WTC	GPA
FLCA	1.00	-.360**	-.573**
WTC	-.360**	1.00	.399**
GPA	-.573**	.399**	1.00

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

As can be seen in Table 2, the Pearson's correlation coefficient between students' FLCA and their WTC is -0.36. Pearson's correlation coefficient between FLCA and GPA is -0.57. Moreover, Pearson's correlation coefficient between learners' WTC scores and their GPAs is 0.39.

According to the results, it can be concluded that there were statistically significant negative correlations between students' foreign language anxiety and their willingness to communicate, on one hand, and foreign language anxiety and their scholastic success, on the other hand. However, a significant positive relationship was found between the participants' willingness to communicate and their scholastic success.

V. Discussion

The first research question of this study probed the relationship between EFL students' language anxiety and their willingness to communicate. The results indicated a significant negative correlation between learners' foreign language classroom anxiety and their willingness to communicate. Based on the present research results, if EFL learners' language anxiety is high, they are less willing to communicate in the L2 and if their anxiety decreases, their willingness to communicate increases. These findings are in line with those of the previous studies (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Liu & Jackson, 2008) which stated that learners who were more anxious about language classroom tended to be more apprehensive about communicating in the L2. Similarly, Liu and Jackson's (2008) study found a positive correlation between students' FL anxiety and their unwillingness to communicate. They also reported that the participants' unwillingness to communicate and their foreign language anxiety were significantly correlated to their English language proficiency. Moreover, Atef-Vahid and Fard Kashani (2011) confirmed these findings, reporting that high levels of anxiety discourage students from participating in classroom activities such as oral communication.

The second research question asked whether there were any correlation between learners' foreign language anxiety and their scholastic success. As the results revealed, foreign language classroom anxiety does exist among EFL learners who participated in this study. The findings of the present study are in line with those found in previous studies (e.g.,

Atef-Vahid & Fard Kashani, 2011; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kao & Craigie, 2010) stating that those learners who have higher foreign language anxiety scores show less scholastic success than those who have lower anxiety scores. Many of the studies focusing on the construct of language anxiety show an inverse relationship between language anxiety and various measures of language achievement (e.g., Horwitz et al., 1986; Phillips, 1992). Similarly, the results of this study showed that foreign language anxiety has a significant negative correlation with the academic achievement of the participants. Therefore, it can be said that high levels of foreign language anxiety impede language learning and less anxious students have the tendency to be more successful language learners. This finding confirms MacIntyre and Gardner's (1991) claim that "as experience and proficiency increase, anxiety declines in a consistent manner" (p. 92).

Finally, regarding the relationship between EFL learners' willingness to communicate and their scholastic success, the participants' WTC and their academic achievement were found to be significantly correlated. It means that the EFL learners who were more willing to communicate in the L2 were more scholastically successful, and as their achievement increased their willingness to communicate also augmented. These findings are confirmed by the results reported by previous researchers. Chu (2008), for example, maintained that more meaningful interaction leads to more language achievement. Also, MacIntyre et al. (2003) asserted that willingness to communicate facilitates the language learning process, so that higher levels of willingness to communicate among learners bring about more opportunity for them to practice in the L2, thus more language development.

So, based on the results of both the present study and the previous researches, it can be concluded that (1) an increase in learners' foreign language classroom anxiety leads to decreased willingness to communicate, (2) higher levels of foreign language classroom anxiety are associated with lower levels of scholastic success, and (3) learners with more willingness to communicate are found to have higher levels of language achievement.

VI. Conclusion

The present study tried to determine how foreign language anxiety influences EFL students' willingness to communicate and their scholastic success. The relationship between learners' willingness to communicate and their academic achievement was also examined. It was concluded that a significant negative relationship exists between foreign language classroom anxiety and willingness to communicate, on the one hand, and foreign language classroom anxiety and scholastic success, on the other. Regarding the learners' willingness to communicate and their scholastic success, a significant positive relationship was found. Based on the findings of this study, it can be claimed that most of the EFL students of Bahonar University get nervous whenever they are in a situation that requires them to communicate in English in the classroom, implying that in educational contexts a great deal of attention should be paid to the construct of anxiety. In the same way, by paying attention to their anxiety, learners can boost their willingness to communicate and their ultimate success. In order to achieve such a goal, English teachers should get familiar with the construct of language anxiety; besides, they should try to identify the factors that create language anxiety for foreign language learners and find strategies that help the learners reduce their anxiety level. In this way, the students can increase their willingness to communicate and thus their eventual academic achievement will augment.

Although this research does not put forth generalizable results, it surely draws attention to the constructs of foreign language classroom anxiety and willingness to communicate. Language learning anxiety can be realized in every English classroom in Iran, so important measures should be taken to try to minimize its negative effects.

APPENDIX GRAPHS
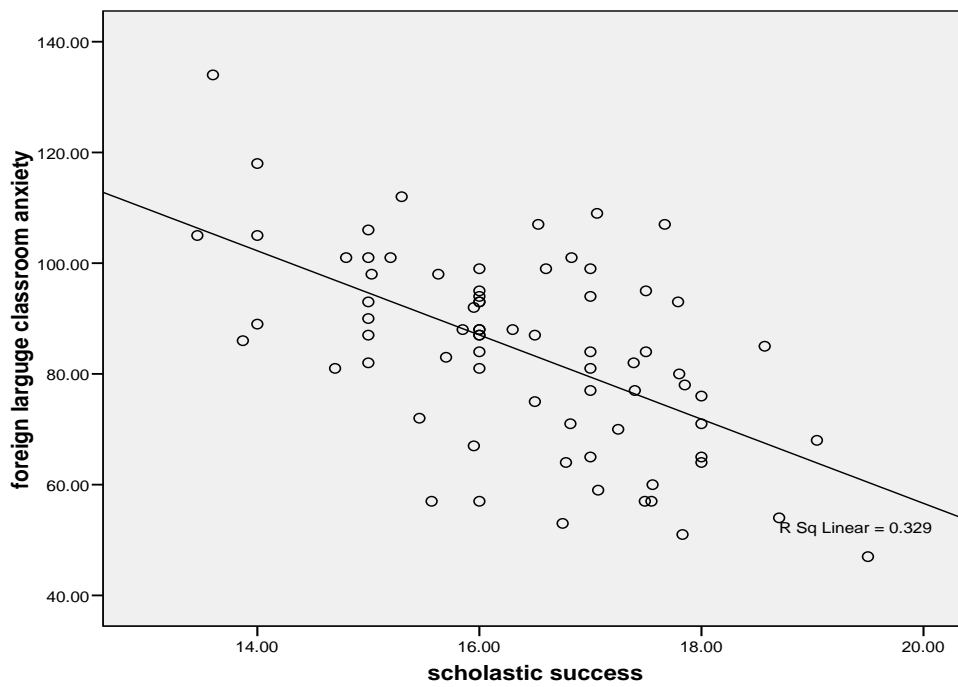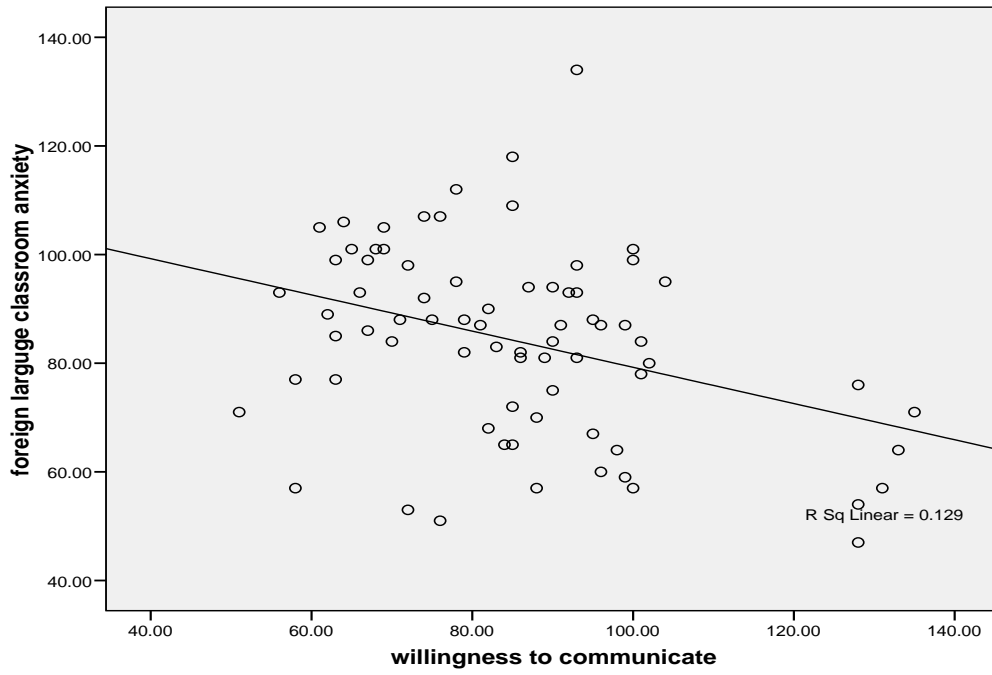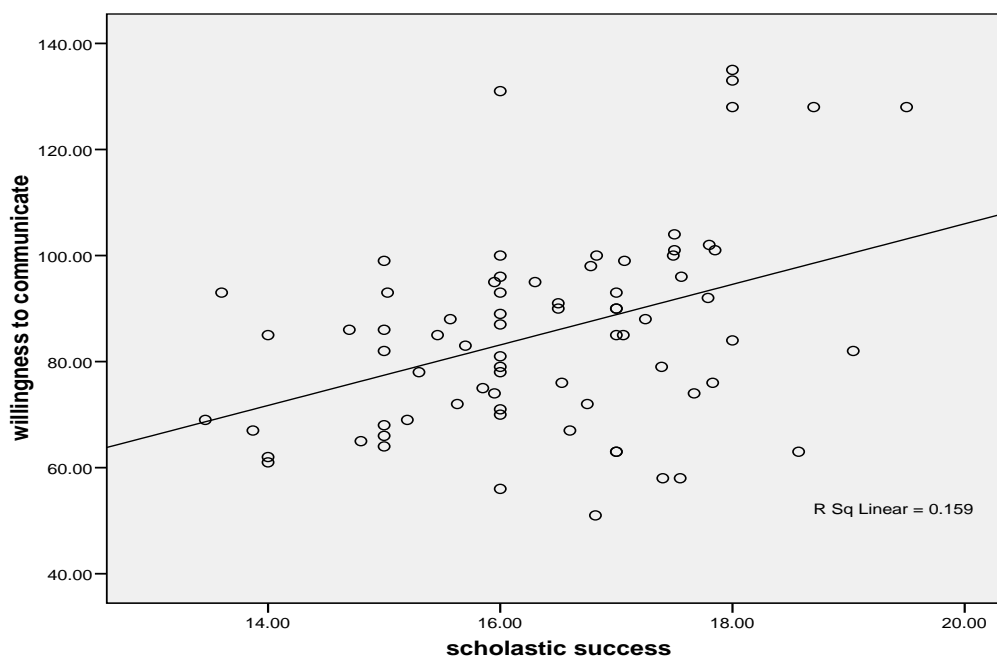
REFERENCES

[1] Atef-Vahid, S., & Fard Kashani, A. (2011). The effect of English learning anxiety on Iranian high-school students' English language achievement. *BRAIN. Broad Research in Artificial Intelligence and Neuroscience, 29*(3), 29-44.

[2] Baker, S. C., & MacIntyre, P. D. (2000). The effects of sex and immersion on communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning, 50,* 311-347.

[3] Brown, H. D. (2007). Principles of language learning and teaching (5th ed.). New York, NY: Pearson Education.

[4] Chan, B., & McCroskey, J. C. (1987). The WTC scale as a predictor of classroom participation. *Communication Research Reports, 4,* 47-50.

[5] Chastain, K. (1975). Affective and ability factors in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 25*, 153-161.

[6] Chu, H. N. (2008). Shyness and EFL learning in Taiwan: A study of shy and non-shy college students' use of strategies, foreign language anxiety, motivation, and willingness to communicate. (Doctoral dissertation). Faculty of the Graduate School, Texas University, Austin.

[7] Clement, R., Baker, S.C., & MacIntyre, P.D. (2003). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The effect of context, norms and vitality. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology, 22*, 190–209.

[8] Dornyei, Z. (2003). Attitudes, orientations, and motivations in language learning: Advances in theory, research, and applications. *Language Learning, 53,* 3-32.

[9] Ehrman, M., & Oxford, R. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of adult language proficiency. *Modern Language Journal, 79*, 67-89.

[10] Horwitz, E. (1986). Preliminary evidence for the reliability and validity of a foreign language anxiety scale. *TESOL Quarterly, 20*, 559–562.

[11] Horwitz, E., Horwitz, M., & Cope, J. (1986). Foreign language classroom anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 70*, 125-132.

[12] Kao, P., & Craigie, P. (2010). Foreign language anxiety and English achievement in Taiwanese undergraduate English-major students: An empirical study. *Language Learning, 38*, 49-62.

[13] Leger, D. S., & Storch, N. (2009). Learners' perceptions and attitudes: Implications for willingness to communicate in an L2 classroom. *System, 37*, 269-285. doi:10.1016/j.system.2009.01.001.

[14] Liu, M., & Jackson, J. (2008). An exploration of Chinese EFL learners' unwillingness to communicate and foreign language anxiety. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 71–86. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4781.2008.00687.

[15] MacIntyre, P. D. (1994). Variables underlying willingness to communicate: A causal analysis. *Communication Research Reports, 12*, 241-247.

[16] MacIntyre, P. D. (1998). Language anxiety: A review of the research for language teachers. In D. J. Young (Ed.), *Affect in foreign language and second language learning* (pp. 24-45). Boston: McGraw-Hill.

[17] MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2001). Willingness to communicate, social support, and language-learning orientations of immersion students. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 23, 369-388.

[18] MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clement, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2003). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning*, 53, 137-165.

[19] MacIntyre, P.D., Clement, R., Dornyei, Z., & Noels, K.A. (1998). Conceptualizing willingness to communicate in a L2: A situational model of L2 confidence and affiliation. *Modern Language Journal, 82*(4), 545–562.

[20] MacIntyre, P.D. and R.C. Gardner. (1989). Anxiety and second language reading and listening comprehension. *Modern Language Journal, 73*, 32-40.

[21] MacIntyre, P.D., & Gardner, R. C. (1991). Investigating language class anxiety using the focused essay technique. *The Modern Language Journal,* 75, 296-313.

[22] MacIntyre, P. D., & Gardner, R. C. (1994). The stable effects of language anxiety on cognitive processing in the second language. *Language Learning, 44*(2), 283- 305.

[23] Park, H., & Lee, A. R. (1995). L2 learners' anxiety, self-confidence and oral performance. *Electronic Journal of Research in Educational Psychology, 5*, 197-208.

[24] Phillips, E. (1992). The effects of language anxiety on students' oral test performance and attitudes. *The Modern Language Journal*, 76, 14-26.

[25] Riasati, M. J., & Noordin, N. (2011). Antecedents of willingness to communicate: A review of literature. *Studies in Literature and Language, 3*, 74-80. doi:10.3968/j.sll.1923156320110302326.

[26] Tanveer, M. (2007). Investigation of the factors that cause language anxiety for ESL/EFL learners in learning speaking skills and the influence it casts on communication in the target language. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved March 19, 2014, from http://proquest.com.

[27] Toth, Z. (2010). Foreign language anxiety and the advanced language learner: A study of Hungarian students of English as a foreign language. Newcastle: Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

[28] Yashima, T. (2002). Willingness to communicate in a second language: The Japanese EFL context. *Modern Language Journal*, *86*, 54-66.

[29] Yashima, T., Zenuk-Nishide, L., & Shimizu, K. (2004). The influence of attitudes and affect on willingness to communicate and second language communication. *Language Learning*, *54*(1), 119-152.

[30] Young, D. J. (1992). Language anxiety from the foreign language specialists' perspective: Interview with Krashen, Omaggio Hadley, Terrell, and Rardin. *Foreign Language Annals, 25*, 157-172.

[31] Zheng, Y. (2008). Anxiety and second/foreign language learning revisited. *Canadian Journal for New Scholars in Education*, *1*(1), 1-12.

Mina Ratsegar is an Associate Professor of Language and Applied Linguistics. She has been teaching in the language department of the University of Kerman for the last 27 years. Her professional expertise lies in the area of Psycholinguistics. Her research focuses on L2 learner factors - affective, cognitive, and personality. She is currently teaching research methods, methodology, testing, and advanced writing at both B.A and M.A levels.

Maliheh Karami received B.A. in English literature from Shahid-Bahonar University, Kerman, Iran, in 2011 and her M. A. in TEFL from the same university in 2013. Her research interests include the psychological, social, and cultural aspects of English teaching and learning.

Collaborative Method and Vocabulary Retention of Teenage EFL Learners

Ali Shokouhi
Islamic Azad University, Bandar Abbass Branch, Iran

Kian Pishkar
Islamic Azad University, Jieroft Branch, Iran;
University of Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—**Nowadays most researchers argue that incorporating vocabulary in classroom tasks can facilitate vocabulary teaching. The goal of the study was to investigate the impact of collaboration on vocabulary development of teenage EFL learners in a language institute in Kahnouj. To this purpose and as an experimental method of research, two intact groups of learners were chosen to participate in the experiment. The population of the study was made up of 85 EFL learners in a language institute in Kahnouj. To homogenize the study subjects, an Oxford Placement Test was administered and only those subjects whose scores fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the study. The other instrument was using two sets of vocabulary tests which were used to tap the initial vocabulary knowledge of the learners in both groups: pre and post vocabulary tests. The same type of material was used for both experimental group (EG) and control group (CG). In other words, the learners in both groups were instructed through the same sources, the same teacher, and the same teaching hours. Based on the achieved data, the participants in the CG did not benefit from the individual teaching processes as much as the learners in EG.**

Index Terms—**collaboration, learner-based, vocabulary, language learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Since L2 learners need a large number of words to successfully use the target language, one of the main issues for L2 learners is the great number of activities that they have to follow for learning the L2they study. They may include activities such as finding meaning, taking notes, making sentences, asking questions, etc. This shows the role of teachers in classrooms where the teacher should consider different things in the field of L2 teaching because not only the ability of the students but also the teaching method is important. In order to have a successful language learning situation, the teacher should consider the language learning process including methodological approach, learning environment, and utilized pedagogical tools, all of which are pertinent to vocabulary acquisition.

Learning lexical items and meaning-bearing items is far more important than other components of language. Thus, nowadays there is an attempt give enough emphasis to the presentation and practice of the second language lexicon in an appropriate and logical manner.

Teachers should know that language learners enjoy learning vocabulary that they need in speech and writing. This can be undertaken in parallel with the selection of the approaches and procedures that may facilitate the acquisition of the appropriate load of vocabulary they need. In other words, teaching new words has to happen in contrast with approaches that try to teach a language by referring to an out-of-context approach. We cannot ignore the role of context in teaching the new words. Besides, "Teachers have to refrain from emphasizing linguistic rules and grammar forms which do not serve any functional and immediate need for the rather novice learner in contrast with teaching L2 lexical items" (Ellis, 2003, p. 144).

Since Vocabulary learning is an important part of EFL curriculum in Iran, this thesis explores the role of collaboration in VL in a secondary school in Kerman (Kahnouj), in Iran. Specifically, this thesis is an experimental study that uses a special treatment for one group of learners, whose goal is learning new vocabularies of their school books with partners and the other group who follow the activity in isolation. The research seeks to determine if individual learning versus collaborative learning of the vocabularies have any serious impact on the vocabulary retention of the secondary school learners.

There are different traditional and non-traditional teaching methods and approaches (in the post method era which methods and approaches are combined eclectically) frequently used in l2 instructions which implement old and out of date techniques in order to present new vocabularies.

For this study, two frameworks have been utilized. It first of all uses the ideas about the collaborative approach in language teaching. A core aspect of Vygotskian theory is the concept of *zone of proximal development* (ZPD).

The **zone of proximal development** (ZPD) has been defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem

solving under adult guidance, or in collaboration with more capable peers" Lev Vygotsky views interaction with peers as an effective way of developing skills and strategies. He suggests that teachers use cooperative learning exercises where less competent children develop with help from more skillful peers - within the zone of proximal development. Vygotsky believed that when a student is in the ZPD for a particular task, providing the appropriate assistance will give the student enough of a "boost" to achieve the task. (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86).

Research Questions and Hypothesis

To undertake the study, first we start by asking the following questions that consider the method and the approach having been incorporated in this study:

1. To what extent collaboration facilitate vocabulary retention of the EFL learners?

2. To what extent can collaboration increase learners' participation in learning activities?

The population of the study was made up of 85 EFL learners in a language institute in Kahnouj. To homogenize the study subjects, an Oxford Placement Test was administered and only those subjects whose score fell one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected for the study. They made a population of 40 subjects who were randomly classified into two groups, each group included 20 female students, aged 15 to 18. They constituted the experimental and control group for the study.

II. METHODOLOGY

Primarily, an Oxford Placement Test was administered to homogenize the study subjects. This test contains 100 items on basic and elementary grammar, vocabulary, and reading comprehension in the form of multiple choice tests and limited completion tests.

The other instrument was using two sets of vocabulary tests which were used to tap the initial vocabulary knowledge of the learners in both groups: pre and post vocabulary tests. All tests were constructed based on the glossary of the new words that appear at the end of each lesson of theirEnglish Books, and they were chosen from the test collection of the textbooks which are normally taught in the language institute. They are supplementary sources that tend to improve the vocabulary knowledge of the learners of English by providing a lot of multiple choice test items.

Each pre and posttest contained 50 items which were constructed in the form of multiple choice tests and were accompanied with an answer sheet, the technique which made the scoring reliable, easy and economical. Also to make sure of the validity of the questions, the tests were given to three colleagues of the researcher. They were asked to read them and tick any irrelevant questions. No irrelevant ones were found. To ensure the test reliability, the researcher used test-retest method. To do so, ten similar learners were asked to answer the questions of the intended tests. After two weeks, the test was repeated with the same learners. Using Karl Pearson mathematical parameter, the test was proved to be reliable at 0.78.

Materials

The teaching system of the language institute in Kahnouj uses Touchstone series in the language courses. It is a four volume series of books that begins with beginner and continues to book 4 for intermediate learners. For the present study, book 2 was chosen that is designed for elementary language learners. Each section of the book contains topics on listening, reading, writing, vocabulary, and finally free talk. The focus of the study was on the last two parts: vocabulary and free talk. In the first part the learners became familiar with the new words and in the free talk section, they practiced how to use the words in context and in collaboration with others in their conversation with each other. They used their own text books that contained both free talk activities as well as vocabulary to be learned. Therefore the same type of material was used for both EG and CG. In other words, the learners in both groups were instructed through the same sources, the same teacher, and the same teaching hours.

Design of the Study

The study, being a true experimental study, started with two intact elementary groups of EFL learners in a language institute in Kahnouj. As the nature of experimental studies indicates, two groups of subjects, the pre and posttests as well as the treatment were the most important qualities for the present study. A pre-test including test of vocabulary was taken at the beginning of the course to determine the level of the learners. Subsequently, for the EG, learning began in groups and in cooperation between and among the learners. As an example of the teaching processes, the following steps were taken for the EG:

1. Classifying the subjects in groups and pairs based on certain procedures meaning that higher and more motivated learners were chosen as the head of each group.

2. Stimulating the learners schematic knowledge by the teacher

3. Introducing the new vocabularies by the teacher and discussing their meanings among the group members

4. Beginning free discussion and using the words in the conversation on the given topics

5. Using the new words in the group and in free discussions

6. Checking the subjects understanding of the new words in the group and by the teacher

7. Discussing the meaning of the new words by the teacher and with the help of the groups and individuals

As the teaching processes indicate, the sense of cooperation and cooperative language learning is fostered among the language learners. The learners were encouraged to cooperate closely during the processes of new words teaching and

learning. However, as it can moreover be observed, the role given to the teacher is reduced to a coordinator, organizer of the activities and facilitator.

On the other hand, the teaching processes for the CG who tend to learn vocabularies traditionally followed the following steps:

1. The teacher introduced the topic
2. He wrote a list of presumably new words on the board with synonyms and or definitions following each
3. The learners wrote the meanings and later on tried to memorize them
4. Asking questions by the teacher to check the learners knowledge of the new words

As the teaching processes indicate with the CG, this group receives instruction from the teacher. In fact, the teacher is viewed to be the class manager, organizer, and the coordinator. He also monitors the learners in various ways and tries to describe the points, discuss ideas on his own, and provide the learners with any idea belonging to the teaching of the new words.

The experiment for both groups last two months, all together 15 sessions. The same instructor, materials and teaching hours were used for both EG and CG.

Data collection and Analysis Procedures

The data of the experiment was based on the pre and post test scores. The researcher applied T-student test as a parameter to discover any difference between the performances of the two groups from pre to post test and if any of the groups had outperformed the other. The other parameter, reliability of the test, was also estimated. Besides, the Spearman Correlation (In statistics, Spearman's rank correlation coefficient or Spearman's rho, named after Charles Spearman and often denoted by the Greek letter (rho) or as , is a nonparametric measure of statistical dependence between two variables.) was implemented to discover any meaningful relationship between the two pre and posttest of each group.

In order to examine the research hypotheses, the researcher used both descriptive and inferential statistics (Mathematical methods that employprobability theory for deducing (inferring) the properties of a population from the analysis of the properties of a datasample drawn from it. The researcher used an independent T-student test to analyze the difference between the means of the two groups regarding their score on vocabulary retention.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

This part reflected all of the qualities necessary for an experimental research. The type of participants in terms of their age, gender, and size were reflected. In the same way, the instruments having been used here were discussed and presented. The research procedure, moreover, was discussed in detail. The next section will present the data of the study by data analysis of the data of the study.

As it was stated before, the goal of the study was to investigate the influence of incorporating a collaborative approach to improve and facilitate the vocabulary acquisition of the EFL learners of the study. To this purpose, two groups of EFL learners participated in the experiment being instructed using two different approaches. All conditions for teaching the learners were controlled and treated almost in the same way. This chapter presents the required information about the pre and posttests of vocabulary for both EG and CG groups. It will also present the T-value tests and the coefficient correlation of the two pre and posttests.

One-tailed Tables

The one-tailed test gets its name from testing the area under one of the tails (sides) of a normal distribution, although the test can be used in other non-normal distributions as well. Table 1 demonstrates the information about the pretest for CG. As it can be understood, the students participated in the examination is 20 for both pre and posttest. On the other hand, as the means of the two tests indicate, the mean for the pretest CG is calculated to be 12.80 while this changes to 14.20 for the posttest. Here the mean of the final score increases. It can potentially reveal the effect of the procedure used by the teacher. Besides, the similar standard deviations of the two tests can be an indication of homogeneous scoring and level of the group from pre to posttest of CG.

TABLE 1:
ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST CG

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretestcg	20	12.8000	1.10501	.24709
posttestcg	20	14.2000	1.60918	.35982

Table 2 demonstrates the information about the pretest for EG. As it can be understood, the number of the students participated in the examination is 20 for both pre and posttest of EG. On the other hand, as the means of the two tests indicate, the mean for the pretest EG is calculated to be 12.95 while this changes to 15.95 for the posttest. Here the mean of the final score increases significantly. It can clearly reveal the effect of collaboration on the vocabulary improvement of the EFL learners of the study who were exposed to this type of procedure. The standard deviation for the two tests is almost similar without much difference. In other words, the two groups benefitted from homogeneity in the scoring procedures.

TABLE 2:
ONE-SAMPLE STATISTICS FOR PRETEST EG

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretesteg	20	12.9500	1.87715	.41974
posttesteg	20	15.9500	1.66938	.37329

On the other hand, table 3 presents the information about the t-value test, or the significance of the study. As it can be seen, the table t for the two pre and posttest is calculated to be 51.8 and 39.46 respectively at 19 degree of freedom. The relative significance of the two tests is .000 for both tests that is an indication of perfect relationship between the two tests.

TABLE 3:
TWO-TAILED TEST FOR PRETEST CG

	Test Value = 0				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
pretestcg	51.803	19	.000	12.80000	12.2828	13.3172
posttestcg	39.464	19	.000	14.20000	13.4469	14.9531

Moreover, table 4 presents the information about the t-value test, or the degree of significance of the two tests. As it can be seen, the table t for the two pre and posttest is calculated to be 30.85 and 42.72for both pre and posttest of EG at 19 degree of freedom. The relative significance of the two tests is .000 for both tests that is an indication of perfect relationship between the two tests since Sig= .000< .05.

TABLE 4:
ONE-SAMPLE TEST FOR PRETEST EG

	Test Value = 0				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
pretesteg	30.852	19	.000	12.95000	12.0715	13.8285
posttesteg	42.729	19	.000	15.95000	15.1687	16.7313

Table 5 below shows the overall information about the means and SD of all tests of both groups. The difference between the means of the two groups in terms of their pretest that was taken before the instruction had begun and the posttest which started after the instruction had come to an end. Besides, the SD for all tests circles around the unity, 1.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The purpose of doing the research was to investigate the influence of incorporating a collaborative approach to improve and facilitate the vocabulary acquisition of the EFL learners of the study. To this purpose, two groups of EFL learners participated in the experiment being instructed using two different approaches. All conditions for the experimental method of research were met.

Examining Research hypothesis

For the study the two following research question were offered:

H0: Collaboration cannot facilitate vocabulary retention of the EFL learners.

H0: Collaboration cannot increase learners' participation in learning activities.

Based on the data in chapter four, the first hypothesis is rejected. The data in the previous section and the difference between the mean scores of the pre and posttest proved that the EG improved more satisfactorily in the collaborative and group-work. Based on the total mean score for the pretest of the EG, it was estimated to be 12.95 while it increased to 15.95 for the posttest of the same group. However, the standard deviation of the two groups did not change significantly. This is the criterion that signals more homogeneity of the group from pretest to posttest. In other words, the subjects performance from pre to posttest approaches homogeneity. The standard error of measurement has also decreased to .373 from .419. On the other hand, the estimated coefficient correlation of the two tests is estimated to be .772, with degree of significance of .000. The relevant correlation is not very high but somehow acceptable but the sig= .000< .05. The equation shows the meaningful relationship between the two pre and posttests for the EG.

It can be confirmed that more participation can lead to more learning and improvement in the acquisition of the L2 vocabulary. To support the idea, the above discussion can be attributed to this claim, too. In other words, it can be confirmed that based on the achieved data mentioned in the previous chapter, the participants in the CG did not benefit from the individual teaching processes as much as the learners in EG. In other words, the learners in the CG in spite of depending on the teacher and his assistance in various level of vocabulary presentation did not improve as satisfactorily as the EG and thus were left behind the EG.

Data from this study showed that the difference in growth in vocabulary knowledge was statistically significant, because the collaborative group showed a significantly higher amount of growth in vocabulary knowledge compared to

the individual group. Working together in a collaborative environment and creating an interactive process in the vocabulary learning can cause better retention of vocabularies among the students.

This is true for the participants of this research but can be the same for other students in other schools at the same age too. It's better for the second year language instructors to consider making use of collaborative techniques in order to enhance their own students' development in knowledge of the vocabularies.

Based on the achieved results, it was proved that collaborative language learning can facilitate the process of vocabulary acquisition. Regarding the goal of the study, enough emphasis was given to the role of the learners by exposing them to group and collaborative work. The result showed improvement in the vocabulary development of the learners in the EG more than that of the CG.

In the traditional teaching methods, the role and basic qualities of the learners are ignored and the teacher role is emphasized over the learners. Based on the achieved results, regarding the goal of the study, the required focus was given to the active role of the learners in order to use their cognitive mental abilities to learn the L2 vocabularies more feasibly than the traditional methods (Laal & Ghodsi, 2011; Nemati, 2010).

As discussed before, research findings have so far shown numerous individual benefits resulting from an integration of collaborative learning into pedagogical approaches. "The individual learner who transitions into a collaborative learning environment experiences more control over his/her learning", (Sharan 1990, p 20). In the present study, it was concluded when the individual learner transitions into a collaborative learning environment, he was given a complete responsibility to deal with the problem posed to him, whether learning a single new word or getting him to make a novel sentence with the learned words. Besides, it can be discussed that collaborative learning obviously encouraged the learners to ask the questions they didn't know without feeling shy in front of the teacher or the class, explain and justify their opinions to the extent they could, articulate their reasoning as far as they had the required knowledge to do it, and elaborate and reflect upon their knowledge.

The achieved results are in line with the new teaching approaches such as community language learning, communicative language learning, the total physical response and other recent methods where learners are regarded as independent in nature and to learn better, they have to develop this own self criteria.

Besides, the results of the study are compatible with the similar studies carried out in other countries and other similar context for the same purposes, some of which are Gokhale (1995), Stacey (1999), Slusser& Erickson (2006),Slusser& Erickson (2006), Jones (2000, 2006) and Lin, Chan & Hsiao (2011). All of the cited studies confirmed strongly that collaboration can suitably lead to more and effective vocabulary acquisition as well as developing the motivational level of the earners for more classroom participation.

The intent of this study has been to examine the impact of two different learning styles on the development of vocabulary knowledge. Because the data were derived from a representative sample of learners in an EFL secondary school setting, inferences could be made about the potential effects of the two learning styles on larger populations of second language learners studying in higher educational EFL contexts. It is the goal of this section to suggest how findings from this research may be used to generate real-world applications in second language vocabulary instruction.

One important implication that can be drawn involves the selection of an appropriate learning style to yield increased development of vocabulary knowledge. Data from this study show that the difference in the growth of vocabulary knowledge was statistically significant based on the learning style in which the participants completed the collaborative tasks.

It should be mentioned that the interactive communicative process involved in completing the task may not have been the sole source of increased vocabulary knowledge among collaborative learners. The growth in vocabulary knowledge may have been brought about by a range of other relevant contributing factors. Perhaps one reason for the increased growth in vocabulary knowledge among collaborative learners was learners' sense of shared responsibility to complete the task, possibly causing an increased degree of engagement with and internalization of the target vocabulary.

Whatever the reason for the increased growth in the collaborative treatment group, second language instructors should consider incorporating cooperative learning activities into their vocabulary instruction to provide greater engagement with the language.

The other implication relates to task design. One implication for second language teachers is to create tasks which are suitably challenging for the learners. Because collaborative learning environments involve partners in brainstorming, planning, negotiating, developing and revising content related to the assigned task, learners are capable of accomplishing more challenging tasks than they would if completing the tasks alone.

As a consequence, instructors using collaboration in the classrooms should create activities that have higher expectations.

Though the specific implications from this study will be best applied to higher educational EFL settings with advanced language learners, adaptations could be made to suit the needs of learners of varying levels of English language proficiency, native language backgrounds, ages and environments of study (ESL or EFL) to effectively promote vocabulary knowledge.

REFERENCES

[1] Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996).*Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests* (Vol. 1). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[2] Brown, H. D. (1994). *Teaching by Principles: Interactive language teaching methodology*. NY: Prentice-Hall Regents.
[3] Bruffee, K. A. (1984). Collaborative Learning and the Conversation of Mankind.*College English, 46*(7), 635-652.
[4] Chodkiewicz, H. (2001). The acquisition of word meanings while reading in English as a foreign language.*Eurosla Yearbook, 1*(1), 29-49.
[5] Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In J. P. Lantolf and G. Appel (Eds.), *VygotskianApproaches to Second Language Research* (pp. 33-56). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
[6] Donato, R. (2000). Sociocultural contributions to understanding the foreign and second language classroom. In J. P. Lantolf(Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 27-50). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[7] Goldstein, Z. &Laufer, B. (2004).Testing Vocabulary Knowledge: Size, Strength, and Computer Adaptiveness.*Language Learning, 54*(3).399-436.
[8] Gu, P. Y. (2003). Vocabulary learning in a second language: Person, task, context and strategies. *TESL-EJ, 7*(2), 1-25.
[9] Gu, Y., and Johnson, K. R. (1996). Language learning strategies and language learning outcomes. *Language Learning*, 46(4), 643-679.
[10] Hedge, T. (2000). *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom: A Guide to Current Ideas About the Theory and Practice of English Language Teaching*. UK: Routledgefalmer.
[11] Jones, L. C. (2006). Effects of collaboration and multimedia annotations on vocabulary learning and listening comprehension.*CALICO Journal, 24*(1), 33-58.
[12] Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development* (Vol. 1). Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
[13] Laal, M., & Ghodsi, S. M. (2011).Benefits of collaborative learning.*Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 31*, 486-490.
[14] Laufer, B., & Nation, P. (1995). Vocabulary size and use: Lexical richness in L2 written production. *Applied linguistics, 16*(3), 307-322.
[15] Laufer, B., & Nation, P. (1999).A vocabulary-size test of controlled productive ability.*Language Testing, 16*(1), 33-51.
[16] Lawson, M. J., & Hogben, D. (1996).The Vocabulary Learning Strategies of Foreign Language Students.*Language learning, 46*(1), 101-135.
[17] Lightbown, P. M., & Spada, N. (2006).*How languages are learned*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[18] Liumei Wang, L.W. (2009). An Empirical Study of Differences in the Use of English Vocabulary Learning Strategies.*The Journal of Asia TEFL, 6*(4), 151-192.
[19] Long, M. H., & Crookes, G. (1991). Three approaches to task based syllabus design. *TESOl Quarterly, 26*(1), 27-56.
[20] Ma, Q. (2009).*Second language vocabulary acquisition* (Vol. 79).Bern, Switzerland: Peter Lang AG.
[21] Martin, R., & Williams, J. (2012). "I Feel I'm Important": Successful Collaborative Teaching and Learning in a New Zealand Intermediate School. *RMLE Online, 36*(2).
[22] Meara, P., & Buxton, B. (1987).An alternative to multiple choice vocabulary tests.*Language Testing, 4*(2), 142-154.
[23] Melka, F. (1997).Receptive Versus Productive Aspects of Vocabulary. In N. Schmitt, &M.McCarthy (Eds.).*Vocabulary: Description, Acquisition and Pedagogy.* (pp. 84-102).Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[24] Mondria, J.-A., & Wit-de Boer, M. (1991).The Effects of Contextual Richness on the Guessability and the Retention of Words in a Foreign Language1.*Applied linguistics, 12*(3), 249-267.
[25] Nagy, W. E., Herman, P. A., & Anderson, R. C. (1985). Learning words from context. *Reading research quarterly*, 20(2), 233-253.
[26] Nation, I.S.P. &Waring, R. (1997). Vocabulary Size, Text Coverage and Word Lists.In N. Schmitt & M. McCarthy (Eds.).*Vocabulary: Description, acquisition and pedagogy.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[27] Nemati, A. (2010). Active and passive vocabulary knowledge: The effect of years of instruction. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly, 12,* 30-46.
[28] Nunan, D. (1989). *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom.*Cambridge:Cambridge University Press.
[29] Nunan, D. (2006). *Task-based language teaching*. Koln, Germany: Ernst KlettSprachen.
[30] Otha, A. S. (1995). Applying sociocultural theory to an analysis of learner discourse: Learner-learner collaborative interactionin the zone of proximal development.*Issues in Applied Linguistics* 6(2): 93-121.
[31] Otha, A. S. (2000). Rethinking Interaction in SLA: Developmentally Appropriate Assistance in the Zone of ProximalDevelopment and the Acquisition of L2 Grammar. In J. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning,* (pp. 51-78). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[32] Palmberg, R. (1987). Patterns of Vocabulary Development in Foreign Language Learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition* (9), 201-220.
[33] Panitz, T. (1997). Colaborative versus Coopertative Learning: Comparing the two definitions helps undersatand the nature of interactive learning. *Cooperative Learning and College Teaching, 8*(2).124-139.
[34] Pattanpichet, F. (2011).The effects of using collaborative learning to enhance students' English speaking achievement.*Journal of College Teaching & Learning (TLC), 8*(11), 1-10.
[35] Pica, T. (2005). Classroom Learning, Teaching, and Research: A Task Based Perspective. *The Modern Language Journal, 89*(3), 339-352.
[36] Raugh, M. R., & Atkinson, R. C. (1975). A Mnemonic Method for Learning a Second-Language Vocabulary.*Journal of Educational Psychology, 67*(1), 1-9.
[37] Read, J. (2000). *Assessing vocabulary*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[38] Richards, J. C. (1976). The role of vocabulary teaching.*TESOlQuarterly*, 10(1), 77-89.

[39] Richards, J. C., Platt, J., Platt, H., & Candlin, C. N. (1992*). Longman dictionary of language teaching and applied linguistics.* London*:* Longman.

[40] Rodriguez, M., & Sadowki, M. (2000). Effects of rote, context, keyword, and context/keyword methods on retention of vocabulary in EFL classrooms. *Language learning, 50*(2), 385-412.

[41] Saba'Ayon, N. (2013). Collaborative learning in English for specific purposes courses: Effectiveness and students' attitudes towards it. *American Academic & Scholarly Research Journal (AASRJ), 5*(3), 62-75.

[42] Sagarra, N. and Alba, M. (2006). The key is in the keyword: L2 vocabulary learning methods with beginning learners of Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 90(2), 228-243.

[43] Sarani, A., & Sahebi, L. F. (2012). The Impact of Task-based Approach on Vocabulary Learning in ESP Courses. *English Language Teaching, 5*(10), 118-128.

[44] SARIÇOBAN, A., & BA IBEK, N. (2012). Mnemonics Technique versus Context Method in teachingVocabulary at Upper-Intermediate Level. *Education and Science, 37*(164), 251-266.

[45] Schmitt, N. (2000). *Vocabulary in Language Teaching.* J.C.Richards (Series Ed.). New York: Cambridge University Press.

[46] Schmitt, C. (2008). *Constitutional theory*. Durham, NC: Duke University Press.

[47] Sharan, Y., &Sharan, S. (1990). Group investigation expands cooperative learning. *Educational leadership, 47*(4), 17-21.

[48] Shetzer, H., & Warschauer, M. (2000). An electronic literacy approach to network-based language teaching. In M. Warschauer & R. Kern (Eds.), *Network-based language teaching: Concepts and practice*, (pp171-185). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

[49] Skehan, P. (1996). A framework for the implementation of task-based instruction. *Applied linguistics, 17*(1), 38-62.

[50] Slusser, S. R., & Erickson, R. J. (2006). Group quizzes: an extension of the collaborative learning process. *Teaching Sociology, 34*(3), 249-262.

[51] Soller, A. (2001). Supporting social interaction in an intelligent collaborative learning system. *International Journal of Artificial Intelligence in Education (IJAIED),* 12(2001), 40-62.

[52] Spada, N. (2007). Communicative Language Teaching *International handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 271-288): Springer.

[53] Stacey, E. (1999). Collaborative learning in an online environment. *The Journal of Distance Education/Revue de l'Éducation à Distance,* 14(2), 14-33.

[54] Strijbos, J.-W., & Fischer, F. (2007). Methodological challenges for collaborative learning research. *Learning and Instruction,* 17(4), 389-393.

[55] Stump, G. S., Hilpert, J. C., Husman, J., Chung, W. t., & Kim, W. (2011). Collaborative learning in engineering students: Gender and achievement. *Journal of Engineering Education, 100*(3), 475-497.

[56] Vriend, N. J. (2000). An illustration of the essential difference between individual and social learning, and its consequences for computational analyses. *Journal of economic dynamics and control, 24*(1), 1-19.

[57] Vygotski, L. L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes.* Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University press.

Ali Shokouhi is from Kahnouj city. He is head of Teaching and training organization in southeast of Iran. He is BA and MA of English teaching. He is teaching English Language and M.A Student of English language Translation, Islamic Azad University Bandar Abbass Branch and literature in the different universities

Kian Pishkar (1969) was born in Ardabil from the north of I.R. Iran. He is BA and MA of English Literature and PhD candidate of ELT in University of Isfahan. He is teaching English Language and literature in the different universities and he is the lecturer of Islamic Azad University Jieroft Branch in the south of Kerman Province of I.R. Iran .He is the author ,compiler and translator of more than 23 books about English language and literature and more than 28 articles about English language teaching and literature (modern, postmodern and comparative) He had lectures in several international conferences about English language and literature (Shanghai, Solo, Bali,...) He is living in Bandar Abbas and working in Jieroft city. He is in editorial board of several international scientific and literary journal. He is trying now to write some new books about criticism of Modern and Post modern English and American poetry.

Culture Teaching in English Teaching in Secondary Education

Qian Chen

Dept. of Foreign Language, Dezhou University, Dezhou, China

Abstract—**For a long time there is consensus that in order to improve English teaching, teachers should put great emphasis on grammar, diction, sentences, etc. Influenced by this, students put all their efforts in remembering words, grammar, etc. and are made to understand English in their own cultural background mechanically. Language is a key component of culture and it is the carrier and container of culture. With the development of economy, technology and society, cross-cultural communication is necessary for every country. As a result, English teaching aims at not only helping students master the language itself, but cultivate their cross-cultural communication abilities. So culture teaching in English teaching is drawing more and more attention, especially for student in secondary education, who are being in adolescence. Necessary culture education will make them understand the difference between Chinese and English and cultivate their civic awareness, which is important to help form healthy cross-cultural awareness. The paper demonstrates the relationship between language and culture. Then it illustrates the necessity and the contents of culture teaching in English teaching. At last, some suggestions for English teachers are provided in order to help achieve the teaching effect.**

Index Terms—**language teaching, culture teaching, cross-cultural communication**

I. INTRODUCTION

For a long time in English teaching in secondary education, influenced by traditional teaching, it's common to emphasize teaching of language form and neglect teaching of cultural factors. As a result, a large number of teachers form quite fixed mode of thinking and teaching pattern. They lay stress on whether the students have properly grasped the language form or whether they can use language fluently. On the other hand, they don't pay enough attention to cultivating students' language application competence in cross-cultural circumstance. It should be noted that one of the important goal of English teaching is to cultivate students' English communication competence. In order to enable the students to use English appropriately, it's necessary to let them learn some necessary knowledge about English culture. In English teaching, culture teaching should be combined with language teaching to help achieve the goal of improving students' communication competence.

II. THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LANGUAGE AND CULTURE

Language is created during the long time of labor, daily life and cultural creation. It is the product of culture and also the media to form and link up cultural components (Deng & Liu, 1989). Language is very essential to culture. It is the foundation of culture ---culture couldn't exist without language. During its process of creation, development and change, language is naturally restricted and influenced by its own cultural system, and embodies deep humane property. It is filled with national cultural consciousness and represents national world outlook. It reflects the history and cultural background of a nation and embodies a nation's life style, thinking mode and point of view toward life. So language couldn't be expounded without mentioning its cultural background and knowledge in foreign language teaching.

Language provides a communication system for people. On the other hand, since every nation has its own tradition, value system and custom, language restricts people's communication mode. Because of the difference on custom, social culture and tradition, each nation differs a lot on the way one gets along with people, language usage and logic thinking, etc (Hu & Gao, 1991). It occurs that when a person uses a foreign language, what he says may be grammatically right, but quite inappropriate. He may be even misunderstood by native speakers and this may lead to unexpected consequence. This is the reason why learning a foreign language needs to grasp nit only the rule of its structure, including phonetics, vocabulary and grammar, etc, but the rule of its usage, including the related factors that determine the appropriateness of the language being used. The rule of language usage includes all the influential cultural factors (Wang & Hu, 1994). For example, Chinese and English differ a lot on greetings. When Chinese meet they usually ask "吃了吗", which is just verbal greeting and has no deep connotation. It doesn't mean the speaker does care about whether the listener has had his lunch (or the speaker wants to invite the listener to dinner). Expressions like "上哪儿去" "干什么去?" are verbal greetings frequently used by Chinese. If a Chinese greets an English speaker with the translated version of the expression mentioned above, such as "Where are you going?", it would certainly lead to misunderstanding or make the native speaker uncomfortable. The native speaker may react like this: "You are meddlesome! "

In English there're various kinds of greetings, among which "Hello, Hi, How are you, (Good) Morning" are frequently used. But it doesn't mean these expressions could be used in any occasion. There used to be a TV commercial advertisement broadcasted by Dezhou Television Station which introduces the dining tables produced by Ningjin Dining Table factory. At

the end of the advertisement it says Ningjin Dining Table, How are you!" The designer of the advertisement wants to end it with "Ningjin Dining Table shows best regards to you". But the translator fails to grasp the rule of English language usage and just arrange the English words according to Chinese word order. So the original meaning is turned into "How are you, Ningjin Dining Table", which is not in accordance with the original intention of the designer of the advertisement. The examples listed above shows the importance of the rule of language usage in foreign language learning.

III. NECESSITY FOR CULTURE TEACHING IN ENGLISH TEACHING

Through the discussion on the relationship between language and culture, it could be concluded that it's impossible for a person to learn English well without learning about the culture of English speaking countries. Students' language competence is determined by not only how much English language knowledge they have grasped but how much necessary cultural knowledge he has learned.

A. Culture Teaching Is a Necessity of Social Development

With China's entrance of the WTO, China and other countries are becoming closer and closer in politics, economy and culture. It is undoubted that cross-cultural communication will play an important role in this process. With China's reform and opening-up, a large amount of western culture gets into our country. People can easily contact various kinds of absurd western culture from network, pop music, American movies, fashion magazines. For language learners such as middle school students, who are being in adolescence, how should they be properly guided to view western culture and promote their communication ability? This is an important aspect of secondary education.

B. Culture Teaching Is a Necessity of Cultivating Students' Cross-cultural Communication Ability

To combine cultural teaching with English class teaching aims to make students realize deeply that they must learn about English speakers' thinking mode, behavior style and speech habits, etc. in order to communicate successfully with native speakers (Deng & Liu, 1989). If a Chinese student ask a foreign teacher "How much do you earn?", the foreigner would certainly think the speaker is crazy. Chinese people permit others to ask about their salary or age, but this kind of subjects is forbidden for foreigners. They think these subjects are their privacy which cannot be violated. What's more, teachers should also let students learn about the speech features of people with different social background, social status or occupation. Please see the following:
Professor: Good Morning, Mike.
Student: Hi, Professor Wilson.
This happens between a professor and his Chinese student. It's improper for Mike, a student, to adopt the informal form of greeting "Hi" to greet the professor. It's quite necessary for this student to grasp the function of language in order to avoid misunderstanding. Teachers should help students establish direct link between English speech form and communication mode and learn them by heart in order to improve their communication ability. English teaching should make students understand what kind of language style and language form should be adopted in a certain circumstance, how to express their feeling properly, etc. in order to communicate successfully in cross-cultural communication.

C. Culture Teaching Contributes to Cultivate Students' Civic Awareness

Culture introduction in foreign language teaching is necessary and unavoidable for learning well a language. Moreover, cultivating healthy cross-cultural awareness of students plays the most important role in culture teaching, because good and healthy cultural awareness of citizens is inseparable to the prosperity of a nation. Culture is the soul and spiritual sustenance of a nation and a nation needs culture to condense. China has a long history and is the most populous nation in the world. Chinese should take on corresponding responsibilities and obligations that China should have in the world peace and development. It is the responsibility of contemporary Chinese to make China part of the world in order to let the world share China's advanced culture and China share the world's advanced culture. It is also the needs of the world.

D. Culture Teaching Is a Clear Requirement of the Existing English Curriculum Standard

When setting up curriculum contents and objectives, *English Curriculum Standard* puts the cultivation of students' cross-cultural awareness as one of teaching objectives and views cultural awareness as an integral part of language competence. The Standard requires students to have certain cultural awareness. It means that teachers should make students learn and use English to solve practical problems on the basis of understanding western culture and the differences between Chinese and western cultures. In a word, as the Standard points out, cross-cultural teaching plays an important role in effective international communication. It's no doubt that culture introduction is very necessary to improve students' communication ability.

IV. CONTENTS OF CULTURE TEACHING IN ENGLISH TEACHING

Linguistic competence alone is not enough for learners of a language to master that language. Cultural competence is indisputably an integral part of foreign language learning (Lin, Gu & Lu, 1990). It is goal for teachers to incorporate teaching of culture into English curriculum. Teachers should teach both language knowledge and cultural knowledge. Teaching of cultural knowledge should be combined with teaching of language points, language structure and background knowledge, etc.

This could help students grasp the standard of their language and behavior during language usage and understand native speakers' thinking mode, etc. All these would encourage students to observe the cultural difference between different languages.

The following aspects are provided to combine culture teaching into English teaching:

A.   Geography, Living Environment and Life Style

The learner should know the location to which to relate the target language. They also should know the geography of the country as a whole. In choosing a target area, our main concern will be to describe how the geography is perceived by native speakers. For example, in Canada, it is the narrow fringe closest to the United States which is the most inhabited. "Going up north", as might be said by a person living in Toronto, suggests not only travel in a north direction but a trip to less inhabited parts of the country. "up north" is also 'cottage country', or it might also be expressed as "going to the cottage. Therefore, students must understand that native speaker's "cottage". "going to the cottage" or "going up north" have a specific meaning that would not necessarily be the same in London or New York. It is part of the psychological geography of Canada which an English learner who wants to familiarize himself with the social setting needs to know about.

Many English-speaking countries lie on the sea, so fishery and seafaring become the pillar industry of their economy. English language is characterized by ocean culture. There are lots of idioms related to sea, boat and so on. For example, drink like fish (狂喝), be all at sea (不知所措) and so on. The Great Britain is situated in North Temperate Zone, so animal husbandry has held the first place in agriculture and the main crop is wheat. So British live on bread and milk. As a result, there appear the idioms "to earn one's bread", "Don't quarrel with your bread and butter", etc.

By knowing the information about location, students can know about geographical conditions and weather conditions. Such information is useful for them to know about some aspects of character of native speakers and certain life habits of the native speakers.

B.   Historical Culture

History is a mirror of one nation. The teachers should let their students know the significant historical developments of the country. Students should have an opportunity to know the historical important symbols, notable events and the main personalities as well as critical issues, past and present. But it needs to be looked at from the point of view of native speakers. History cannot be changed, and it reflects the process of a nation's growth. By knowing about the important persons in its history, the historical issues of it, students can not only get a rough idea about its past, but also explain the present issues or even anticipate the future of the country. So they can get a deep understanding about the culture of the nation.

Language comes into being through the long history with people's wisdom and efforts. Historical allusions are the treasure of a nation's history and culture with strong national features. Capitalism began to develop since the 16th century in Britain, which promoted the economic development and social progress in all-round way. Britain began its oversea expansion to plunder raw materials for the first capital accumulation. The proverb "Shoe-maker's wife goes bare feet" was born in that period. In order to scrape money, the shoe-maker even hesitates to make a pair of shoes for his wife. Historical allusions in English mainly come from Greek mythology, Holy Bible and Shakespeare's plays. People in English-speaking countries may say "That's all Greek to me", "He met his waterloo" and so on. The proverb or allusion has profound historical and cultural connotation.

C.   People and Institutions

About culture teaching, the focus should be mainly on people, how people live, and what they think, value and do. By personal contacts, visits with, such as foreign teachers etc, students can know something about the local life-style. Getting to know one individual can give the student an entry into this aspect of a culture, for every person is a member of the society. Teachers should give their students information about people of target country in order to increase the cultural knowledge of the students.

Next, institutions. Students should have a rough idea about the symbol of the government---central, regional and local educational system, social welfare, economic institutions, the military and the police, religious institutions (Hu, 1995). It's necessary for students to understand the cultural knowledge of the target country. It is also useful for them to analyze some political or some other important issues. Without such kind of information, learners cannot understand some issues happened in target countries. Different nations have different managing mode and different regulations. Foreign language learners should not analyze political issues of target country under their own cultural background. Teachers should introduce the information about institutions to students to help them deeply understand the target culture.

D.   Religious Belief

Religion comes into being after human society and human mind developed to a certain level. And it has played a significant role in all aspects of social and cultural anthropology.

As we all know, the influence of religion to the western world is very profound, permeating every aspect of society. And Christian culture has a predominant position in the English-speaking countries. The basic spirit of Christian is industriousness, frugality, materialism and the pursuit of individualism which places much emphasis on the equal rights of individual, laissez-faire, equal opportunities and moral improvement. What's more, the Christian culture also has a great influence on their daily life and practice. For example, people in western world will not go out to take part in any activities in the date of 13.

According to Bible, Judah who kills Jesus is the 13th disciple of Jesus and the date of that dinner is also 13. So this number is very ominous in western world. Many words that appear in the Bible have been given specific culture connotations. For example, olive branch is the symbol of peace. And Friday is an unlucky day. Some people believe so because Jesus was killed on Friday. Some others believe so because Adam and Eve were expelled from the Garden of Eden for eating the forbidden fruit on the Friday. All the taboo reflects the cultural psychology that people expect peace and good luck under the restriction of the religious belief.

E.   Art, Literature, Music and so on

Art, Literature, Music, etc. are valuable wealth of the target country. They also reflect the culture of target country. For students, they should be able to have an appreciation of some artists, musicians, and writers and their works, and know about other great figures and their contributions, which are common knowledge of the target country. All these are real reflection of people's life. For example, the music of American black people can express the feeling or mood of black people. By listening to the music, students can not only enjoy the music, but also get some information about their culture.

V.   Suggestions for Language Teachers

How to improve culture teaching is a heated topic. The following suggestions are provided...

A.   Adopting Role-play

The way of role-play is often used in culture teaching. After learning a conversation of foreign language, teachers can let students practice it in real communication. Teachers can divide the students into small groups, then let them practice the conversation one by one. By this way they can use what they have learned flexibly, and adjust to the foreign culture. In this way, students can be familiar with the cultural context of the conversations.

B.   Establishing Target Culture Atmosphere

Try best to establish a teaching environment filled with target culture in order to let the students know well what appropriate expression should be used in a certain situation (Shu, Wang & Wu, 1994). This method can help prevent students from being interfered by their native culture during the process of foreign language learning. Authentic sources from the native community help to engage students in authentic cultural experiences. The sources include films, news broadcast, television shows, photographs, magazines, newspapers, restaurant menus, trip brochures, and other printed materials (Shen, 1990). The teachers can supply students with a detailed translation or give them explanation to help them understand. After they have viewed the relevant segments, teachers can engage the students in discussion of the cultural norms represented in the segment. Students can compare the behaviors they observe with their native culture.

English teaching programs on TV or Internet are suggested for the colorful cultural information and language material they provide. Usually, these programs not only teach appropriate language but present non-verbal communication, such as appropriate gesture, posture, movement, etc. Here an important step should be suggested for the teachers. After students have viewed the English teaching program, it's better for teachers to give students some guide and let them discuss on certain topic based on the contents in the program. This can help them understand the cultural difference between English and Chinese. For example, let them tell the difference about the way of apologizing between English and Chinese. At last teachers can give a certain topic and let the students make a conversation. They should design the plot and assign each partner's role. After students' presentation, teachers should make comments, point out the formally right but inappropriate expressions and give the right expression. This way can help make students be responsive to foreign culture.

C.   Exposure to the Target Culture

It is an effective way of culture teaching. For English learning beginners, there is no doubt that it is a hard task. It needs the students to have some basic linguistic knowledge about the target countries. The exchange of letters is one of the simplest techniques by which a student can gain a sense of reality. Correspondence ranges over many aspects of personal concern. Pen-friends can compare notes on various aspects of their lives and in this way build up a picture of life in the target community.

Visit from native speakers to the target speech community is also very helpful for students. The native speakers provide a sense of authenticity, and move the foreign language from the textbook page into concrete reality. By listening to the native speaker's own experience, the students can enjoy their culture vividly. Foreign teachers are good partners for students to learn English. Through daily contact with foreign teachers, students can get vivid information that couldn't be obtained in the classroom. From their personal conversation with foreign teachers students can realize what kind of expression or behavior is appropriate and what isn't, and sense the cultural difference directly. Foreign teachers, as intermediary and explainer between two cultures, they can give lively explanation about the difference between students' native culture and target culture. This way can help prevent students from evaluating foreign culture in terms of the criteria of their native culture. From the foreign teachers' personal experience in China, students' cultural awareness can be cultivated to a large extent.

D.   Organizing Activities

English teachers can organize some activities to create linguistic environment. They can organize English corner, English party, or English contest. Such activities can stimulate the interest of students. Through these activities, students can not only

deeply understand what they have learned at class, but also practice it in the real communication. For example, by organizing English party, students can get chances to enjoy the target culture in a relaxing way. English party can also improve students' oral English level and language communication competence. The repeated rehearsal before the presentation can be seen as a process to develop their language learning and culture learning. In this way, their interest for learning English language and English culture can be greatly aroused. Teachers' guidance is sometimes necessary in these activities

E. Guiding Students in Reading

Nowadays in English learning, for most English learners, to learn about the English society mainly depend on reading material, such as novels, magazines, newspapers, etc. Literary readings have an important place in culture teaching. In many cultures literature performs an important role in society. Literary works sometimes epitomize the thoughts, feelings, and values of the target culture in memorable ways. By enjoying literature, students can know many aspects of the English countries, including the cultural aspects. Magazines and newspaper give abundant information about current English society. When students read these materials, teachers should guide them collect the information about cultural background, customs, social relations, etc reflected in the material. It should be noticed that some students read only for fun or to enlarge their vocabulary while paying little attention to the cultural information embodied in the material. Guide the students to read in a correct way with necessary analysis and comparison is very helpful to enrich their knowledge about foreign culture.

VI. Conclusion

Culture must be fully incorporated as a vital component of language. Culture teaching plays an important role in fulfilling the goal of cultivating the cross-cultural communication abilities. English teaching should enable students to function effectively in another language and understand cultural context, including day-to-day conventions, giving or receiving presents, paying visits, etc (Hu & Gao, 1997). Teachers should identify the relationship between culture teaching and language teaching and realize the key culture items in English. They also should try to find out more useful strategies for culture teaching in the process of English teaching.

References

[1] Deng Yanchang & Liu Runqing. (1989). Language and Culture: a comparison between English and Chinese. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[2] Hall, E. T. (1959). The Silent Language. New York: Doubleday & Company, Inc.
[3] Hu Wenzhong. (1995). A Dictionary on English and American Culture. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[4] Hu Wenzhong & Gao Yihong. (1997). Foreign Language Teaching and Culture. Changsha: Hunan Education Press.
[5] Lin Jicheng, Gu Jiazu & Lu Sheng. (1990). Comment on Language and Culture. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[6] Lennebery, E. (1964). A Study of Cross-cultural Communication. England: National Center for Industrial Language Training.
[7] Liu Runqing. (1994). A Course Book on Linguistics. Beijing: Beijing University Press.
[8] Liu Runqing. (1992). Language and Culture. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[9] Salzmann, M. (1993). Language, Culture & Society. New York: West View Press. Inc.
[10] Samovar, L.A & Porter, R.E. (2000). Communication Between Cultures. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[11] Scollon, R& Scollon, S.W. (2000). Intercultural Communication: A Discourse Approach. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[12] Shen Anping. (1990). On the Associated Meaning of Social Culture and Language. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.
[13] Shu Dingfang, Wang Fuxiang & Wu Hanying. (1994). Language Culture · Foreign Language Teaching. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[14] Wang Cairen. (1995). Linguistics on Foreign Language Education. Guangxi: Guangxi Education Press.
[15] Wang Songping. (1993). A Course Book on Modern Linguistics. Shanghai: Shanghai University of Communications.
[16] Wang Zuoliang & Hu Wenzhong. (1994). Comparison on Culture in Translation. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Qian Chen was born in Leling, China in 1974. She received her M.A. Degree in English language teaching from He Bei Normal University, China in 2002.

She is currently an associate professor in English Department, De Zhou College, Dezhou, China. Her research interests include English language teaching and American literature.

A Description and Evaluation of Hot Potatoes Web-authoring Software in Educational Settings

Nabiollah Sadeghi
Payam Noor University, Tehran, Iran

Hassan Soleimani
Payam Noor University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—In the late twentieth century, information and communication technologies (ICTs) came to the service of education in order to change and facilitate the learning process in pedagogical settings. In order to support the learning process of children and/or students, teachers –along with implying effective teaching principles and techniques in their classrooms −may benefit the potential of the computer and the web-based programs. The educational program Hot Potatoes, innovated by Half-Baked Software, Inc., was designed to allow educators to create interactive, Web-based exercises that can be used by learners at any Internet terminal with a standard Web browser. The software favors six different applications, namely: J Quiz, J Cloze, J Match, J Mix, J Cross and Masher; Moreover, Hot Potatoes program has also the capability to create interactive Web exercises without programming knowledge. With the help of the above mentioned six modules, educators are able to create different interactive web-based exercises and to combine them into one unit and publish them as Web Page. As such, the current study sheds more light on the use and application of Hot Potatoes software and discusses the strengths and weaknesses of this interactive, Web authoring, pedagogical program.

Index Terms—information and communication technologies (ICTs), internet terminal, modules, Hot Potatoes program

I. INTRODUCTION

The invention and dispersion of new and advanced knowledge and technologies for a long time has been considered as a main contributor to productivity and economic development and growth. While developed countries move toward economic activities that are mostly knowledge-based, Information and technology play increasingly important roles in learning process.

Meanwhile, preparing learners for lifelong learning needs a new look to education that incorporates technologies dramatically as a part of learners' everyday lives. As the importance of reading, writing, and other learning skills still comes true, teachers require to look at these and other subject areas in new ways, employing new educational technologies web-based activities in order to involve learners to take an part and role in the process of learning.

Further, it's now accepted by scholars and educators that a well-rounded education is a path to personal success. Also, the technology based education moves students on a path to a sort of learning that enables learners to succeed in the changing world. Through technology-based education, individuals can expand their minds as wide as the world in which they are living in and embrace new opinions and opportunities, and at the same time, make better lives for themselves and their societies. More, in a world where geographic boundaries are being blurred and the global village is being formed, learners require flexibility and change in order to connect and cooperate with people anywhere at any time.

Furthermore, the role and effect that education plays in developing and competitive economies −where local firms and industries compete on a universal scale− should be taken into consideration. The growth of the present educational system in developed countries dates back to the Industrial Revolution, when farm workers required to be educated in order to be prepared for factory jobs. Former rigid and monotonous educational and teaching principles no longer allow students to compete and confirm with the today's world growth. The change in technology equipment and educational technology required teachers to update themselves and their students in a way that they can both make use of these technologies and get benefit from this technology in the educational settings. If present students are going to be future's experts and leaders in their field of study or science generally, they need to become familiar with new educational technologies and how to make use of these tools. As the technology improves for personal and commercial use, educational devises evolved so as to enable educators to enhance learners' learning capabilities.

By looking at the technological changes as a chance to enhance students' learning—especially when an educational technology is widely accepted by students—teachers have the opportunity to engage learners deeper in the learning process and supply them with a stronger foundation for continued and long-lasting learning.

In the late twentieth century, the Internet was considered as a new learning tool to initiate online learning programs and interactive Web exercises. Further, modern technology has supplied language teachers with a plenty of possible ways in which its components, especially computers, may be applied to support the students' learning process and to enable both teachers and learners to benefit from multimedia learning. Multimedia learning is a cognitive theory of learning which was popularized by Mayer (2009) and others; Multimedia learning occurs when learners build mental representations from both words and pictures. Mayer (2010) maintains that meaningful learning occurs when learners learn from both words and pictures.

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), as an approach to the applications of this modern technology-based learning (i.e., multimedia learning) is an innovation which provides many advantages to the job of teaching especially second and/or foreign language teaching.

A. Definition and History of CALL

Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and Computer Assisted Language Instruction are defined as approaches characterized by employing computer hardware's and software's capabilities in the process of language learning and teaching. At the present time, Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has been closely associated with the use of multimedia and Internet based programs in language learning. Computer Assisted Language Learning assists both educators and their learners in a sense that computer can be employed by a language teacher and/or expert to provide a more varied set of lessons for students or to allow their students to have more time and creativity to practice during a lesson unit. Also, computer can be used by an individual student in order to get an additional chance to continue language learning process without the aid or supervision of a teacher. CALL as a new approach to language learning has continued the path of evolution and development throughout the years and decades and is currently being used and accepted by a large number of language educators in all parts of the world.

Defining CALL, Levy (1997) maintains that "Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) may be defined as 'the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning (p.1)." Levy's definition does not define all activities embedded in CALL approach and, therefore, such definition allows for lots of variations within the characteristics of CALL approach. However, Levy's definition is widely acknowledged and ratified by some international associations such as European Association for Computer Assisted Language Learning (EUROCALL), the Computer Assisted Language Instruction Consortium (CALICO), Information and Communications Technology for Teachers (ICT4L), and The International Association for Language Learning Technology (IALLT).

So, CALL, as defined by Levy (1997), not only needs the practitioner of the approach (i.e., the teacher) to use the computer to supply a learner with information and testing that sort of information in a more developed and specialized testing system – but also CALL develops academic research in the field of computer usage in the process of learning.

B. The Origin of CALL

The term Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) came out in the late 1980s and derived from the earlier motioned term of Computer Assisted Language Instruction. Davies (2002) maintains that the rationale for such a change was the close relation of CALL and the outdated teacher- centered approaches which drew heavily on behaviorism rather than on developing learner -centered approaches.

While Computer Assisted Language Learning was considered as an approach including "repetitive language drills" and was referred to as 'drill and Practice" (Warschauer, 1996), CALL could also widened its scope so as to embrace the communicative Approaches and a range of modern technologies. In the late 1980s, the new term 'CALL' was emerged which was considered to describe and include all the activities, tasks, and issues related with computerized language learning in a vivid and detailed way.

C. Phases of CALL

The history of CALL as shown by Warschauer (1996) separates the whole period of development of CALL approach into three different phases: Behavioristic CALL (later referred to as Structural CALL), Communicative CALL and Integrative CALL. The evolution and existence of these three phases was mainly dependent on the technology, paradigm of teaching/learning languages as well as the overall view toward languages.

1. Structural (Behavioristic) CALL

The first approach to CALL emerged in 1950s in a form of concept that can be presented with the phrase "drill and practice" (Warschauer, 1996). Moreover, Warschauer (1996) maintains that the application of such a structural approach includes software based on the model of computer as tutor (Taylor, 1980) and focuses on employing the behaviorist theories of language learning which dominated language learning theories of that era. The role of the computer therefore was to present instruction to the student and do language practices in a form of drills. Another feature of this period was that "the computer was viewed as a mechanical tutor that never grew tired or judgmental and allowed students to work at an individual pace" (Warschauer & Healey, 1998, p.57).

2. Communicative CALL

As mentioned by Warschauer (1996), it was John Underwood who in 1984 presented a series of 'Premises for 'Communicative CALL' (Underwood, 1984) that led to a new approach to CALL in the late 1970s and into the 1980s. These premises, according to Underwood (1984), consist of:

1). Focusing more on using forms rather than on the forms themselves;

2). Teaching grammar implicitly rather than explicitly;

3). Allowing and encouraging students to generate original utterances rather than just manipulating prefabricated language;

4). Not judging or evaluating everything the students nor rewarding them with congratulatory messages, lights, or bells;

5). Avoiding telling students they are wrong and is flexible to a variety of student responses;

6). Using the target language exclusively and creating an environment in which using the target language feels natural, both on and off the screen;

7). Never trying to do anything that a book can do just as well.

Proponents of communicative approach thought that the drill and practice programs of the previous decade couldn't consider authentic communication as a value in process of language learning. Another critic of behavioristic CALL, Vance Stevens, asserts that all CALL courseware, activities, and practices ought to build on intrinsic motivation and should foster interactivity of both learner-computer and learner-learner (Stevens 1989).

3. Integrative CALL

Dramatic development of computer multimedia and the availability of the Web all over the world provided the possibility of inventing a new Web-based approach to CALL namely integrative CALL (Warschauer & Healey, 1998). Integrative approaches to CALL are formed based on two main technological developments of the last decade - multimedia computers and the Internet. Multimedia technology - presented today by the CD-ROM - permits a variety of media (text, graphics, sound, animation, and video) to be accessed on a single Web-based machine (Kazemi & Narafshan, 2014). Further, Warschauer (1996) asserts that what makes multimedia more powerful is that it also entails hypermedia in a sense that the multimedia resources are all connected together and that students may navigate their path simply by pointing and clicking a mouse.

Furthermore, Hypermedia offers a number of advantages for language learners and learning. First, Hypermedia creates a more authentic learning environment for language learners meaning that listening activity is combined with seeing, just like what happens in real world. Second, language learning skills namely listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills are easily integrated in a sense that the diversity of media make it natural to integrate reading, writing, speaking and listening in a single activity. Third, learners have much control over their learning process because students may not only go at their own pace but also on their own individual path, moving forward and backwards to different sections of the program. Lastly, the major privilege of hypermedia is that it facilitates the principle focus on the content without removing the secondary focus on language forms and/or language learning strategies. As an example, at the time that the main lesson is in the foreground, learners can have access to a variety of background links that allow them fast access to structural explanations or exercises, vocabulary glosses, pronunciation drills, questions or prompts which motivate language learners to take an appropriate learning strategy.

For the first time in history of CALL the student was also able to receive high quality images and sounds through their computers. Internet access has proven to be advantageous in the ways of enabling students' actual communication with other students or native speakers around the world, using either synchronous communication devices, like chat rooms or online communicators, or asynchronous ones such as the email.

The ability to provide web searches and other student oriented network activities has also changed the face of CALL.

Furthermore, as long as modern technology is being incorporated in classroom settings new educational principles and innovative pedagogical techniques may be proposed by language planners or technology users (i.e., teachers and/or learners). As a result, the efficiency of both teachers and learners will be increased and the educational environment will be changed to a more interactive, socialized one.

The current literature on computer-based Learning highlights that one of the major problems in the field of Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) is the usage difficulty of the technology for teachers; as such, many teachers still need the help and guide of experts for planning, design, evaluating, and delivery of web based learning programs and exercises. Simply put, many teachers still have limited experience in working with CALL software and many others are voices in utilizing technology in their classrooms.

Among the varied CALL software that are being used in language earning classrooms, Hot Potatoes is a Web authoring software that creates easily interactive Web exercises for language learning purposes. Accordingly, the current study aims to show the use of hot potatoes and to discuss the strengths and weaknesses of this software.

II. The Description and Use of Hot Potatoes

The program 'Hot Potatoes', produced by Half-Baked Software, Inc., was designed to let instructors make interactive, Web-based exercises that can be easily accessed by learners at any place through connection with internet with any standard Web browsers. Hot Potatoes makes use of both HTML and JavaScript; however, learners and/or instructors do not need to be familiar with these languages to make the Web-based exercises. Instead, tutors employ the Hot Potatoes program's exercise templates to create exercises on Web pages which may be uploaded to a server where students have access to them. Hot Potatoes has the capability of producing six different kinds of Web-based exercises which can stand alone or be connected to other exercises or activities to create a sequence of tasks. Further, thanks to the capabilities of

the program (i.e., Hot Potatoes) Students can correct and/or edit their own assignment based on the clues and feedback set up in advance by the tutor. Furthermore, by using Hot Potatoes software, teachers have a chance to specify an e-mail address to which scores are to be sent. Hot Potatoes is actually a software suite consisted of six different programs, referred to as modules in the present study (Winke, 2001). Each module can be used to create a different type of interactive, Web-based exercise; the six different modules are named as "potatoes," and include: JBC, J Quiz, J Mix, J Cross, J Cloze, and J Match, with each name referring to the type of exercise the module produces (Winke, 2001) (Figure 1).

(Fig.1 Screenshot of Hot Potatoes)

A summary of the types of exercises that can be done with each module and the links to online interactive examples are presented in Table 1.

Module	Exercise type	What students do	Interactive example
1. JBC	multiple-choice quiz	choose the correct answer for each question	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JBCSample.htm
2. J Quiz	text-entry quiz	type in words, phrases or even sentences (open-ended)	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JQuizSample.htm
3. J Mix	jumbled-word exercise	arrange jumbled words into phrases or sentences	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JMixSample.htm
4. J Cross	crossword	fill in the blanks to complete the crossword puzzle	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JCrossSample.htm
5. J Cloze	fill-in-the-blank exercise	enter the words that are missing	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JClozeSample.htm
6. J Match	matching exercise	match items in the 1st column with those in the 2nd	http://epsilon3.georgetown.edu/~pmw2/ hotpot/JMatchSample.htm

Table adapted from Winke (2001)
JBC module permits tutors to create multiple-choice questions with as many answer choices as they need.
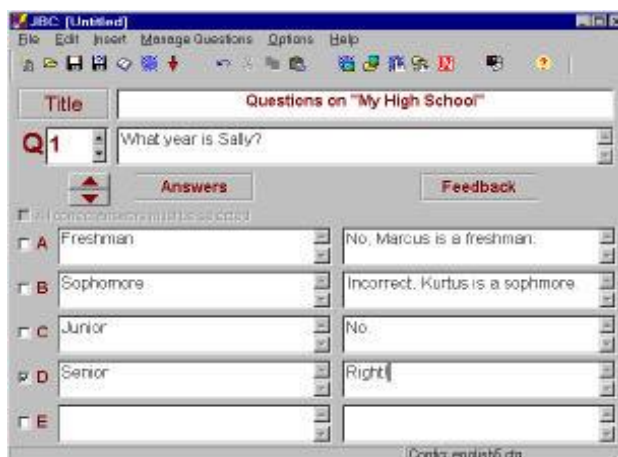
(Fig. 2 JBC module)

J Quiz module is being employed for creating open-ended questions, which differ from multiple-choice questions in a sense that the leaner types the answer in a text-field, rather than selecting from a list of options (Winke, 2001). JBC and J Quiz modules both allow exercises to be programmed with an unlimited number of correct answers. For instance, for the question "What is the capital of the United States?" the teacher can specify "DC," "D.C.," "Washington," and other versions and/or forms of the name as correct answers. Hot Potatoes software also gives teachers the option of making answers case-sensitive and of allowing learners to view all true answers by having a "Show Answer" button showed.
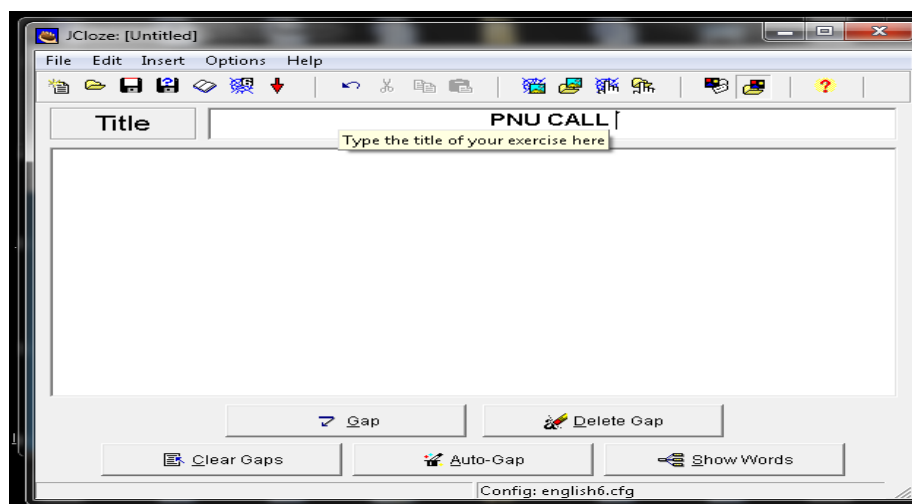
(Fig. 3 J Cloze module)

J Mix module is used for creating exercises of scrambled sentences, paragraphs, or stories (Winke, 2001). Also, learners can drag and drop the sentence fragments to arrange them, or students can click on the fragments in sequence to put the written material together. Further, the teachers are able to add an unlimited amount of additional, supplementary, and grammatically accepted sentences, and may set up a warning note or sign to be displayed on the computer screen if the alternate sentence attached together− by the learner− does not include all the words or punctuation of the main, preferred sentence (Winke, 2001).
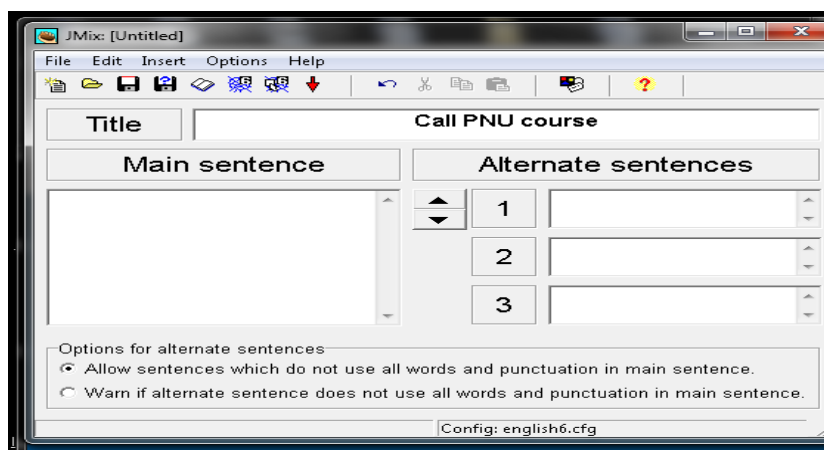
(Fig. 4 J Mix module)

J Quiz module is utilized to design crossword puzzles with adapted puzzle layout and available hints for each word or phrase (Winke, 2001). To do so, the module starts with a blank grid template, and the educator can design the puzzle by entering the words into the grid, or simply by providing a list of words. Then, the words can be arranged in the order of left to right or top to bottom; as this stage completed, the module automatically cuts and reshapes the grid into a crossword puzzle and automatically determines a number to each word. Further, in order to view the clue for each word, the learner clicks on the number in the crossword puzzle where the word starts (Winke, 2001).
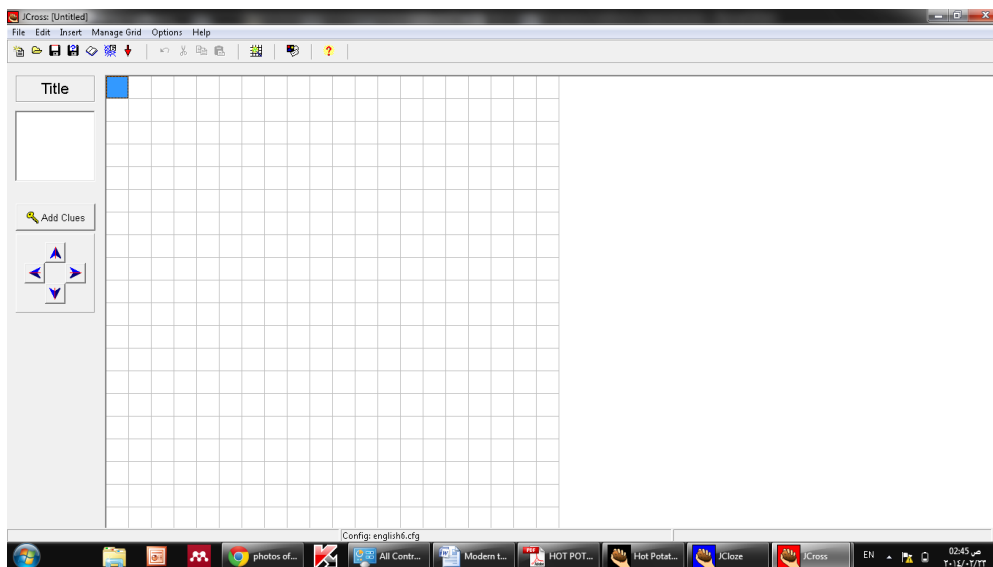
(Fig. 5 J Cross module)

J Cloze module is considered as a traditional cloze or fill-in-the-blank exercise template which permits the educator to type in a text of any sort (e.g., paragraph, ordered- sentences, etc.), and then select the words which are left blank for learners to complete (Winke, 2001). Moreover, a different reading text can be entered (manually or from an HTML file) upon which the cloze-type questions are based on.
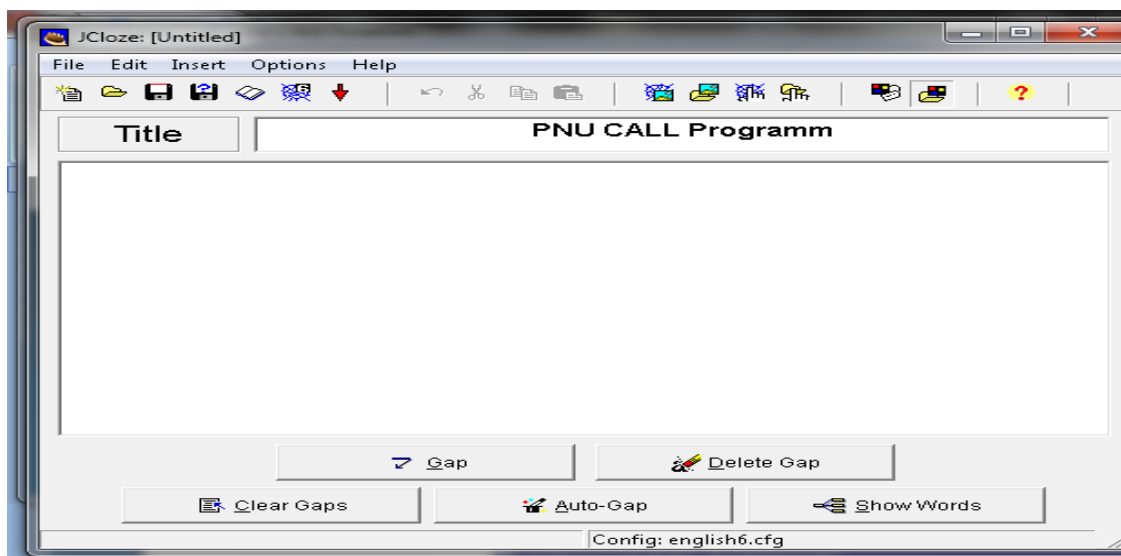
(Fig. 6 J Cloze module)

J Match module, allows the tutor to produce matching and arranging activities based on two columns of items (Winke, 2001). Further, J Match module allows the students for easy inclusion of pictures, graphics, and images, so that the matching exercise consists of pairing vocabulary words with the relevant pictures (Winke, 2001).
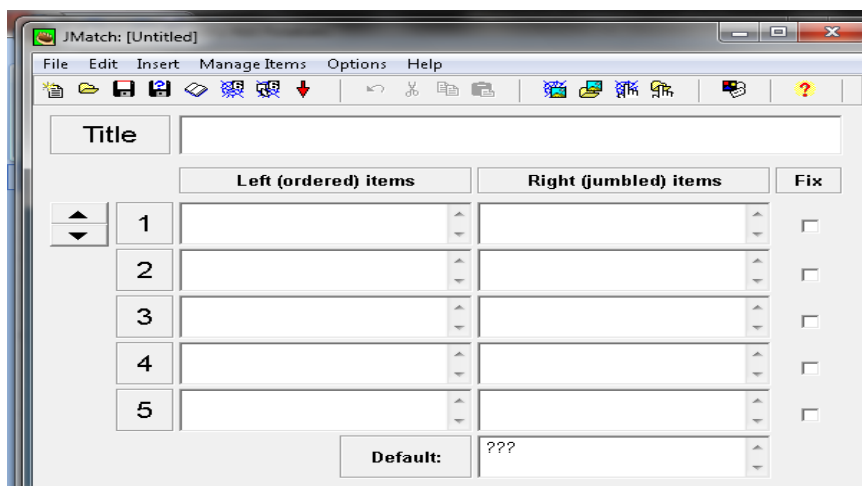
(Fig. 7 J Match module)

On the whole, all six modules of the 'Hot Potatoes' software have some useful options that allow teachers to adapt exercises and/or tasks within the limits of the basic templates. As an example, in the process of creating exercises, the teacher may adapt the feedback in a way that students get a different message if they have chosen an incorrect answer. Further, the teacher may provide students with access to a "Clue," such as the first letter of a word in a crossword puzzle. Furthermore, some of the modules also permit the teacher to enter a reading text upon which the questions are based. Moreover, the reading texts can be arranged to disappear after a pre-determined amount of time so as to add a timed component to the exercise; however, students may click a button to view the text again. Also, all the modules except J Cross allow the teacher to easily include graphics, sounds, and video into exercises.

III. HOT POTATOES EVALUATION: STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES

The evaluation of Hot Potatoes can be based on the following three questions: 1) how does the program allow the creation of second language learning exercises that are congruent with second language learning theory? 2) How well is the software user friendly? And lastly, 3) is the program suitable for language testing?

Employing technology by EFL/ESL teachers has its own privileges. One of these benefits is the tremendous increase in the extent of exposure to and interaction with the target language outside of the classroom environment. Hot Potatoes exercises have such advantageous technological use when they are accessed by learners as a complementary classroom assignment whether within or outside of the classroom settings.

Further, Hot Potatoes web-based exercises may be shared with teachers all over the world as long as they have access to the internet. Accordingly, Hot Potatoes Interactive Web exercises can increase the interaction and motivate among learners and teachers especially in second/foreign language learning classes. With regard to the Hot Potatoes exercises, another benefit is that displaying and summarizing results is done automatically and the students may see the outcome of their work on the screen. Furthermore, learners may have the evaluation of their learning progress by a score (%); also, by clicking on a button, students can see the lists of all questions and answers given with their appropriate labels "correct" or "false".

Moreover, Hot Potatoes activities follows the principles of 'task-based learning activities'; learners can benefit from task-based teaching in which they are involved in doing the tasks and/or activities with a primary attention on content rather than language and form (Long, 1996). Also, good task based activities mainly focus on meaning, prepare a communication problem to work out, have a connection to real-world activities, and do not care about language display (Skehan, 1998). However, the effectiveness of the Hot Potatoes tasks heavily depends on how the teacher makes use of the program. More, Hot Potatoes exercises can be completed at any time or any places, and even they may be done previously to the first lesson or as a homework assignment.

An example of Hot Potatoes task based activities is that students− who are new to the school − share a computer terminal and in cooperation with each other they accomplish a 'J Match' activity in which they should locate all the buildings and/or colleges on campus.

Another strength of Hot Potatoes Web-authoring software is that young learners mostly prefer to fill in electronic forms rather than paper forms in a sense that pupils are more motivated to use Web-based devices (e.g., computers, laptops, tablets, and so on). But, with regard to Hot Potatoes activities and the amount of interaction in such activities, it can be mentioned that the 'interaction' is limited to interaction between the user and the pre-scripted feedback prepared by the creator of the activity (Winke, 2001). As such, Hot Potatoes activities can be considered interactive in the narrowest sense. However, it ought to be asserted that the inventors of Hot Potatoes program did not consider the software as a test-design package; so it should not be used for this purpose. Overall, the six modules of Hot Potatoes

seem logical and easy to use; they do not need programming knowledge. But, Hot Potatoes is a tool, and, like any other tools, managing to work with it efficiently largely depends on the knowledge, skill, and the creativity of the user.

Several disadvantages can be taken into consideration concerning Web exercises. First, the necessary infrastructure for installing and using the software must be available and affordable. Second, the access to necessary computer equipment may be a problem for teachers and students; also, limited bandwidth brings about slower performance for sound, video, and large graphics. Third, there are no possibilities to prevent the software users from cheating, and no security measures are considered.

And finally, as Bradin (1999) maintains, "Language teachers who are not accustomed to looking at CALL software may perceive its purpose very differently than those who are more experienced" (p. 159). As such, all of the above mentioned factors− that is advantages and disadvantages of the software− combine to make Hot Potatoes (and in general CALL) software evaluation a unique but difficult task.

IV. CONCLUSION

The Hot Potatoes pedagogical Web-based software,−which is comprised of different modules for creating six different types of activities− is a valued program for designing and producing on-line, interactive language learning activities that may be utilized inside or outside of the classroom or any other learning environment. These sorts of activities and/or exercises are especially efficient in language learning laboratories (labs) equipped with Internet access, or for distance learning. Moreover, if Hot Potatoes exercises are matched with both appropriate content and motivated learners, second language learning will be highly promoted and facilitated. Also, Hot Potatoes' user-friendly modules let proficient tutors to design and produce complex, interactive web-based exercises. It is to be crystallized that Hot Potatoes program is not created for the purpose of testing affairs. To this end, it should not be employed as such. Nevertheless, the Hot Potatoes web-based software provides teachers with flexible, easy-to-use modules for making Web- based language exercises that learners can work on while getting feedback from the software that will direct and/or guide them towards true answers. Overall, the evaluation of computerized pedagogical programs such as Hot Potatoes software seems a complicated and time consuming procedure that needs both the Web and language knowledge.

REFERENCES

[1]   Bradin, C. (1999). CALL issues: Instructional aspects of software evaluation. In J. Egbert & E. Hanson-Smith (Eds.), *CALL environments: Research, practice, and critical issues* (pp. 159-175). Alexandria, VA: TESOL.
[2]   Davies G. (2002). ICT and modern foreign languages: learning opportunities and training needs. Retrieved from: http://www.camsoftpartners.co.uk/needs.htm. (14.02.2015).
[3]   Kazemi, A., Narafshan, M. H. (2014). Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Computors for English Language Teachers. *International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World*. 6 (2). 281-290.
[4]   Levy, M. (1997). CALL: Context and Conceptualization. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[5]   Long, M. (1996). *The* Role of the Linguistic Environment in Second Language Acquisition. In W. Ritchie & T. Bhatia (eds), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition,* 413-68. San Diego: Academic Press.
[6]   Mayer, R. E. (2009). Multimedia learning (2nd ed). New York: Cambridge University Press.
[7]   Mayer, R. E. (2010a). Applying the science of learning to medical education. *Medical Education*, 44: 543–549.
[8]   Skehan, P. (1998). A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
[9]   Stevens V. (1989). A direction for CALL: from behavioristic to humanistic courseware. In Pennington M. (ed.), *Teaching languages with computers: the state of the art*, La Jolla, CA: Athelstan: 31-43.
[10] Tutorial http://web.uvic.ca/hrd/halfbaked/howto/mcquestion.htm (15.7.2014).
[11] Underwood J. (1984) Linguistics, computers and the language teacher: a communicative approach. Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
[12] Warschauer, M. (1996). Computer-assisted language learning: an introduction. In: *Fotos, S.* (Ed.), *r*. Logos, Tokyo, pp. 3–20.
[13] Warschauer, M., Healey, D. (1998). Computers and language learning: an overview. *Language Teaching*, *31*, 57–71. Retrieved from: http://http://www.lll.hawaii.edu/web/faculty/markw/overview.html. (14.02.2015).
[14] Winke, P. (2001). Review of Hot Potatoes. *Language Learning & Technology*. *5* (2), 28-33. Retrieved from: http://llt.msu.edu/vol5num2/review3/. (09.08.2015).

Nabiollah Sadeghi was born on February 2nd 1976 in Zarand, Iran. He is a Ph.D. candidate at Tehran Payam Noor University, Iran. He has authored some articles and has presented several papers in international language conferences. His special interests are in SLA issues in general and learner individual differences, intelligence, learning styles and strategies in particular. He is presently teaching EFL related subjects at Payam Noor University of Sirjan, Iran.

Hassan Soleimani is an assistant professor of applied linguistics at Payame Noor University, Iran. Dr. Soleimani received his Ph. D. in applied linguistics from Isfahan University in 2008.He has authored several books including Non-parametric Statistics for Applied Linguistics Research in 2010. He is the author of several articles and has presented some papers in international conferences. His special interests are SLA issues in general and research and statistics in particular. He is presently teaching CALL, EFL methodology, and EFL curriculum at PNU post graduate school.

Theme Markedness in Persian and English Medical Texts: A Systemic-functional Approach

Foroogh Kazemi

Department of Linguistics, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—In this paper an attempt was made to compare the clause theme and its markedness in Persian and English medical texts. The study was conducted according to SFG and is concerned with the thematic structure of this approach. The data gathered were from medical texts in Persian and English languages, and the unit of analysis, according to Halliday's approach, was clause. This study indicated that in Persian medical texts, many circumstantial adjuncts in the subject position sound unmarked to Persian native speakers and Persian language does not completely conform to the concept of Halliday's theory Regarding markedness. This research maintained that the properties of being pro-drop and having non-fixed word order distinguish Persian from English regarding the notion of markedness. In fact, Theme markedness is closely related to some factors such as specific genre, authors'/writers' style differences, emphasis, contrast, and language differences.

Index Terms—thematic structure, theme, theme markedness, medical texts, systemic-functional approach

I. INTRODUCTION

The Theme-Rheme notions pose an interesting challenge to linguists in their attempts to pin them down more specifically. The purpose of this article was to study the clause theme and its markedness in Persian and English, comparatively. It aimed to determine the frequency and percentage of marked themes in these languages. Another objective of the article was to make a comparison between Persian and English in terms of marked themes. The study has been done based on Halliday's Systemic Functional Grammar (2004), and was concerned with the textual metafunction of this approach (as cited in Kazemi & Afrashi, 2012). In this article, only declarative clauses were taken into account, because the corpus (some medical books and articles) contained only declarative ones. Besides, there was no consideration of intonation in the study. This research is beneficial to the comprehension of scientific texts, improving cohesion in medical text writing, and promoting language teaching in Persian and English. Its findings can also be helpful for discourse analysis and translation studies.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELEVANT STUDIES

Ghadessy (1995) believes that the choice of clause themes play a fundamental part in the way discourse is organized, it is this, in fact, which constitutes what has been called "the method of development" of the text (as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 99). Fries (1981) emphasizes the importance of clause theme in the overall development of a text. Fries (1995 b) believes that The theme selection patterns in the text are closely related to writing style. Such patterns are not chosen randomly; they are in fact influenced by text style. Hassan and Fries (1995) believe that, unlike subject selection, theme selection is affected by text organization. Hassan (1989) is one of the most important studies in text analysis. Hassan claims that the results of such studies help teachers to get enough information about the language they are teaching, which will lead to an improvement in the quality and method of education. Furthermore, the findings will be beneficial to the students, so that they can have a better understanding of the language they are learning.

Wang (2007) studies the relationship between theme and Rheme derived from theory of systemic functional grammar, with the aim to improve cohesion in academic texts. She shows that by analyzing theme and Rheme in a text, the students can learn to perform the same analysis in their own writings and thus improve cohesion in their own work. This research indicates that teachers need to look beyond the traditional grammar of the clause when teaching writing. Indeed theme and Rheme patterning can be effectively applied in classrooms to diagnose students' weaknesses. According to Bloor and Bloor (1995) the first constituent of each clause is a process, and the participant or a circumstantial factor of that process is considered as a theme. Such a theme functions as a subject, an object, a complement, or an adjunct. They indicate that the subject in declarative, subject plus finite operator in interrogative, the predicator (verb) in imperative, and the -wh element in exclamative clauses are unmarked themes.

According to Tuckita (2012), a research titled "Applying Systemic Functional Linguistics to Bahasa Clauses", the clause as message (Theme-Rheme structure) can be applied to Bahasa Indonesian Clauses. Lock (1996) believes that in clauses with marked themes, topicalization has occurred and this occurrence depends on the relationship between the clause and the text. Mohammadi (1995) emphasizes the significance of the theme, its types, and its importance in translation, and believes that recognition of marked or unmarked themes in translation is important because they play

different roles and thus convey different meanings. He indicates that a marked theme of a clause makes the text more difficult to understand.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Text Selection

What this text-based study hopes to achieve is to attempt a functional characterization and classification of marked/unmarked themes. The corpus used in this study was limited to sample academic texts (as cited in Khedri & Ebrahimi, 2012). They were selected from the first ten pages of the first chapters of two books in the field of medical science (one in English and one in Persian) and also four medical articles (two in English and two in Persian). Thus, The data were gathered in both English and Persian (and these resources are cited in the references section). The corpus was divided into two subcorpora: sample medical texts in English and sample medical texts in Persian. the obtained corpus contained 1000 clauses (250 from the English book, 250 from the English articles, 250 from the Persian book and 250 from the Persian articles). There were some reasons behind this selection. The first reason was that no previous attempt has been made so far specially in Persian medical genre. The second reason was to maintain the consistency of thematic progression among paragraphs in each text and avoid judgment of thematicity. The third reason was that the text chosen represented a variety of authors (authors of books and articles in order to compare marked/unmarked themes in writing types). The final reason was, it appeared that this quantity was enough to allow the researcher to arrive at valid generalizations (as cited in Khedri & Ebrahimi, 2012). The study concentrated on the written language. In this article, only declarative clauses were taken into account, because the corpus contained only declarative ones.

B. Unit of Analysis

Different researchers have selected different grammatical units to study theme, according to researchers' purposes. For Halliday, however, the basic unit for thematic analysis is the clause (as cited in Khedri & Ebrahimi, 2012). Therefore, the unit of analysis in this study is clause.

C. Instrument

In order to achieve a well-organized study a comprehensive model is required for analyzing the data. The theoretical and analytical framework for this study in terms of thematic organization was the one suggested by Halliday (2004). It is a practical, reliable and up-to-date model. Most of the studies that have been done in terms of thematic analysis have resorted to this model (as cited in Khedri & Ebrahimi, 2012).

D. Procedure

The procedure applied in this study was firstly the selection of sample texts from the first ten pages of the first chapters of two books and the whole four articles in the field of medical sciences in English and Persian. Secondly, the texts were compared and contrasted according to the above mentioned model to determine their marked/unmarked theme. Thirdly, the data were analyzed to scrutinize the similarities and differences that would exist in English and Persian languages concerning the above mentioned theme types. Finally, to analyze the text in the present study quantitatively, the frequency of different theme types (marked/unmarked) was calculated and the significant differences were determined.

IV. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Systemic Functional Grammar (SFG)

Chapman and Routledge believe that Systemic-functional grammar (SFG) originated with M. A. K. Halliday, building especially on the ideas of his tutor J. R. Firth, in publications from the 1960s on, with major contributions by other scholars such as Ruqaiya Hasan and, in more recent years, Jim Martin and Christian Matthiessen among many others. From early in its development, SFG has had two main distinguishing features, which are reflected in the name. First, whereas many approaches focus on the syntagmatic, 'horizontal' dimension of how constituents may be combined with other constituents in a well-formed structure, SFG prioritises the choices that are open to the speaker at any particular point in an utterance–the paradigmatic, 'vertical' dimension. The grammatical structures are then seen as the outcome of choices from those available (as cited in Chapman and Routledge, 2009, p. 225). According to Eggins (2004) Halliday's Functional Grammar present a functional grammatical description of the simultaneous metafunctional organization of the clause (its Mood, Transitivity, Theme, and Clause Complex Systems) and introduces the basic techniques for analyzing cohesive patterns in text: reference, lexical cohesion and conjunction (Eggins, 2004, p. xiv).

Halliday believes this is an approach to linguistic description which aims to provide a comprehensive account of how language is used in context for communication. The approach views language as a resource that is fundamentally shaped by the uses that people make of it; it therefore aims to explain the forms of language in terms of the meanings that they express, and to develop a grammar which is designed to 'make it possible to say sensible and useful things about any text, spoken or written' (Halliday, 1994, p. xv). It is a corpus–based and also a corpus–driven grammar since

it has been widely used in the analysis of discourse and it has been applied in systemic and exhaustive analysis of large volumes of text (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 35).

B. Textual Metafunction

Textual metafunction is the third mode of meaning (alongside experiential and interpersonal metafunction) which relates to the construction of text. In a sense this can be regarded as an enabling or facilitating function organizing the discursive flow and creating cohesion and continuity as it moves along. This too appears as a clearly delineated motif within the grammar. It is composed of two functions called theme and Rheme (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 30). Textual metafunction is the part of the grammar which is concerned with how the meanings in the clause are organized to fit in with the co-text of the surrounding messages and with the wider context of the utterance (Chapman and Routledge, 2009, p. 230).

C. Theme and Rheme

Halliday and Matthiessen (2004, p. 64) believe that in all languages the clause has the character of a message: it has some form of organization whereby it fits in with, and contributes to the flow of discourse. But there are different ways in which this may be achieved. In English, as in many other languages, the clause is organized as a message by having a distinct status assigned to one part of it. One part of the clause is as the theme; this then combines with the remainder so that the two parts together constitute a message. In some languages which have a pattern of a similar kind, the theme is announced by means of a particle: in Japanese, for example, there is a special postposition -wa, which signifies that whatever immediately precedes it is thematic. In other languages of which English is one, the theme is indicated by position in the clause.

In speaking or writing English we signal that an item has thematic status by putting it first. No other signal is necessary, although it is not unusual in spoken English for the theme to be marked off also by the intonation pattern. Following the terminology of the Prague school of linguistics, we shall use the term **Theme** as the label for this function. The theme is the element which serves as the point of departure of the message; it is that which locates and orients the clause within its context. The remainder of the message, The part in which the theme is developed, is called in Prague school terminology the **Rheme**. As a message structure, therefore, a clause consists of a theme accompanied by a Rheme and the structure is expressed by the order – whatever is chosen as the theme is put first (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 64).

The clause in its representational function construes a quantum of human experience: some process some change or in the limiting case lack of change in the external or our own internal environment. Processes are construed as a configuration of components of three types: (i) the process itself (ii) the participants in that process and (iii) any circumstantial factors such as time, manner or cause. The guiding principle of thematic structure is this: The theme contains one and only one of these experiential elements. This means that the theme of a clause ends with the first constituent that is either participant, circumstance or process. We refer to this constituent in its textual function as the topical theme (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 79). The textual system that has been most fully explored is that of theme: the theme of a clause is the initial experiential constituent, which has a special role in signaling how the current clause relates to clauses around it (Chapman and Routledge, 2009, p. 230). Theme is a textual notion, related to global text-organization strategies; e.g. dates/places in biographies, places in geographical descriptions (Fries, 1981).

Leong (2004, p. 28) says Halliday's concept of theme as an initial element in English is shared by many linguists such as Danes (1974), Downing (1991), Eggins (1994), Butt, Fahey, Feez, Spinks, and Yallop (2000), Bloor and Bloor (1995), Hassan and Fries (1995), Martin (1992 , 1995).

Here are examples illustrating theme and Rheme:

TABLE 1:
THEME-RHEME STRUCTURE

the duke	has given my aunt that teapot
from house to house	I wend my way
Theme	Rheme

D. Theme in Declarative Clauses

(Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004) believe that in a declarative clause, the typical pattern is one in which theme is conflated with subject; for example, little Bo-peep has lost her sheep, where little BO-peep is both subject and theme. We shall refer to the mapping of Theme on to Subject as the **unmarked theme** of a declarative clause. The subject is the element that is chosen as theme unless there is good reason for choosing something else. Not that this adds a further explanation for the use of a thematic equative in clauses such as *you're the one that I blame for this, that's what they don't tell us*: here, the Theme is Subject, and therefore unmarked, whereas in the non-equative variants *you I blame for this, that they don't tell us, you* and *that–not being* Subject–are now marked Theme. The effect of this is to add a feature of contrastiveness which the speaker may not require (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 73).

In everyday conversation, the item most often functioning as unmarked Theme (Subject/Theme) in a declarative clause is the first person pronoun *I*. Much of our talk consists of messages concerned with ourselves and specially with

what we think and feel. Next after that come the other personal pronouns *you, we, he, she, it, they* and the impersonal pronouns *it* and *there*. Then come other nominal group–those with a common noun or proper noun as Head–*a*nd nominalizations. Providing these are functioning as Subject, then having them as Theme is still the unmarked choice (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 73).

A theme that is something other than the Subject in a declarative clause we shall refer to as a **marked theme**. The most usual form of marked Theme is an adverbial group, for example, *today, suddenly, somewhat distractedly* or prepositional phrase for example, *at night, in the corner, without any warning* functioning as Adjunct in the clause. Least likely to be thematic is a Complement which is a nominal group that is not functioning as Subject–something that could have been a Subject but is not as in the examples *you I blame for this, that they don't tell us*. The "most marked" type of Theme in a declarative clause is thus a Complement: for example, *this responsibility* in *this responsibility we accept wholly*. This is a nominal element which being nominal has the potentiality of being Subject; and which has not been selected as Subject and which nevertheless has been made thematic (Halliday and Matthiessen, 2004, p. 73). Very broadly, there is a choice between unmarked themes (where theme and subject are the same), which typically signal continuity of some kind in the topic, and marked themes (where something other than subject, such as an adverbial adjunct, is theme), which signal that there is some kind of specific contextual pressure at work, often associated with a change of textual frame (Chapman and Routledge, 2009, p. 230).

Examples of Theme in declarative clause are shown in Table 2(as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.74):

TABLE 2:
EXAMPLES OF THEME IN DECLARATIVE CLAUSE

	Function	Class	Clause example
Unmarked Theme	Subject	nominal group: pronoun as Head	I # had a little nut-tree
			she # went to the baker's
		nominal group: common or proper noun as Head	a wise old owl # lived in an oak
			Marry # had a little lamb
Marked Theme	Adjunct	Adverbial group	Merrily # we roll along
		Prepositional phrase	on Saturday night # I lost my wife
	Complement	Nominal group: common or proper noun as Head	Eliot # you're particularly fond of

There is one sub-category of declarative clause that has a special thematic structure, namely the exclamative. These typically have an exclamatory WH-element as Theme as in Table 3(as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.74):

TABLE 3:
THEME IN EXCLAMATIVE CLAUSES

what a self-opinioned egomaniac	that guy is
how dreadful	she sounds
Theme	Rheme

E. Theme in Interrogative Clauses

The typical function of an interrogative clause is to ask a question and from the speaker's point of view asking a question is an indication that he wants to be told something. There are two main types of question: one where what the speaker wants to know is the POLARITY yes or no? e. g, *Can you keep a secret? Is anyone at home?* The other where what the speaker wants to know is the identity of some element in the content, e. g. *Who will you take as your partner? Where has my little dog gone?* In both types, the word indicating what the speaker wants to know comes first. In a yes/no interrogative, which is a question about polarity, the element that functions as Theme is the element that embodies the expression of polarity, namely the **Finite verbal operator**. It is the Finite operator in English that expresses positive or negative: *is, isn't, do, don't, can, can't, etc.* So in a yes/no interrogative, the Finite operator is put first, before the Subject. The meaning is "I want you to tell me whether or not (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 75).

In a WH-interrogative, which is a search for missing piece of information, the element that functions as Theme is the element that request this information, namely the WH-element. It is the WH-element that expresses the nature of missing piece: *who, what, who, how,* etc. So in a WH-interrogative the WH-element is put first no matter what other function it has in the mood structure of the clause, whether Subject, Adjunct, or Complement. The meaning is I want you to tell me the person, thing, time, manner, etc. Interrogative clauses, therefore embody the thematic principle in their structural make up. It is characteristics of an interrogative clause in English that one particular element comes first and the reason for this is that that element owing to the very nature of a question, has the status of a Theme. The speaker is not making an instantial choice to put this element first its occurrence in the first position is the regular pattern by which the interrogative is expressed. It has become part of the system of the language, and the explanation for this lies in the thematic significance that is attached to first position in the English clause. Interrogatives express questions the natural theme of a question is I want to be told something the answer required is either a piece of information or an indication of polarity. So the realization of interrogative mood involves selecting an element that indicates the kind of answer required and putting it at the beginning of the clause. In a WH- interrogative the Theme is constituted solely by

the WH-element: that is the group or phrase in which the WH-word occurs (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 75). Examples in Table 4(as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.74):

TABLE 4:
THEME IN WH-INTERROGATIVE

who	wants a glass of cold water?
where	did you get that from?
how many hours	did you want?
Theme	Rheme

If the WH-word is, or is part of a nominal group functioning as Complement in a prepositional phrase this nominal group may function as Theme on its own e.g. *what* in *what shall I mend it with? which house* in *which house do they live in?* In a yes/no interrogative, the picture is slightly different. Here the Theme includes the Finite operator, but since that is not an element in the experiential structure of the clause the Theme extends over the following Subject as well (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 76). Examples are given in Table 5(as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.76):

TABLE 5:
THEME IN YES/NO INTERROGATIVE

has	he	got the car back by the way?
did	you	sleep okey?
shall	I	make some toast?
Theme (1)	Theme (2)	Rheme

In both kinds of interrogative clause the choice of a typical unmarked thematic pattern is clearly motivated since this pattern has evolved as the means of carrying the basic message of the clause. Hence there is a strong tendency for the speaker to choose the unmarked form and not to override it by introducing a marked Theme out in front (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 76). But marked Themes do sometimes occur in interrogatives as illustrated in Table 6 (as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.77):

TABLE 6:
MARKED THEME IN INTERROGATIVE CLAUSES

on the right	is it?
now about The Love Song of Alfred J. Prufrock,	what is that poem about?
Theme	Rheme

F. Theme in Imperative Clauses

The basic message of an imperative Clause is either I want you to do something or I want us (you and me) to do something. The second type usually begin with *let's* as in *let's go home now, here, let's* is clearly the unmarked choice of Theme. But with the first type, although the *you* can be made explicit as a Theme (e. g. *you keep quiet* meaning as for you…) this is clearly a marked choice, the more typical form is simply *keep quiet* with the verb in thematic position (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 77).

In negative imperatives, such as *don't argue with me, don't let's quarrel about it,* the principle is the same as with yes/no interrogatives: the unmarked Theme is *don't* plus the following element either Subject or Predicator. Again there is a marked form with *you,* for example *don't you argue with me,* where the Theme is *don't you.* There is also a marked contrastive form of the positive such as *do take care,* where the Theme is *do* plus the predicator *take.* Examples are given in Table 7(as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p.77):

TABLE 7:
THEME IN IMPERATIVE CLAUSES

turn	it down
just place	a blank CD in the drive,
let me	send Lesley a photocopy
Theme	Rheme

The imperative is the only type of clause in which the predicator (the verb) is regularly found as Theme. This is not impossible in other moods where the verb may be put in first position precisely to give it thematic status for example *forget* in *forget it I never shall* but in such clauses it is the most highly marked choice of all (Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 77).

V. DATA ANALYSIS, RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Here there are some analyzed examples from collected data in English and Persian (Theme-Rheme boundary is shown #.

TABLE 8:
THEME AND RHRME IN MEDICAL TEXTS

Chronic essential hypertension	is still the most common and major risk factor for developing cardiovascular disease.
BP at rest	was measured three times with one-minute pause in between.
Theme	Rheme

Table 9 illustrates unmarked theme in English declarative clause. The data are collected from Eivazi Ziaei, Fakhrgoo and Estakhri, (2011).

TABLE 9:
UNMARKED THEME IN ENGLISH DECLARATIVE CLAUSE

	Function	Class	Clause example
unmarked Theme	subject	nominal group: pronoun as Head	This # includes the vasculature, the nerves, the bones, the muscles.
			It # also protects vital organs such as the heart, lungs and pelvic organs.
			It # usually spreads to lungs, bone and lymph nodes.
		nominal group: common or proper noun as Head	Veins # are more abundant than arteries.
			Muller–mattheis # described the case of a 47-year-old woman with RCC and an intraoral soft tissue metastatic lesion.

Table 10 illustrates marked theme in English declarative clause. The data are collected from Kargarfard, Ruzbehani, and Basati, (2010).

TABLE 10:
MARKED THEME IN ENGLISH DECLARATIVE CLAUSE

	Function	Class	Clause example
marked Theme	Adjunct	adverbial group	Nowadays # several studies have indicated the positive effects of physical training in some of the physical, physiological , psychological parameters and quality of life of the patients.
		prepositional phrase	For some patients # it is necessary to inject contrast agents directly into arteries or veins.
			In patients with blood pressure (BP) more than 180/100 mm Hg # the risk of developing coronary heart disease is about 5 folds higher than those with BP less than 120/80 mmHg.

TABLE 11:
UNMARKED THEME IN PERSIAN DECLARATIVE CLAUSE

	Function	Class	Clause example
unmarked Theme	subject	nominal group:	bimârihâye qalbiʔoruqi # ʔellate ʔasliye marg-o-mir dar sarâsare donyâ mibâšad
			Cardiovascular diseases # are the main cause of mortality all over the world.
		common or proper noun as Head	homorus # dârâye yek tane va do ʔentehâye barǰ esteye peroksimâl va distâl mibâšad
			Humerus # has a trunk and two Proximal and distal protuberant ends.
			mekânisme daqiqe taʔsirâte metâbolike selulhâye Čarbiye hitrofi šode # mošaxxas našode ʔast
			The exact mechanism of the effects of hypertrophy of fat cells # has not been determined.
			tarašohe fâktorhâye ʔeltehâbiye leptin va ʔdiponectin ʔaz selulhâye Čarbiye bozorgtar # mitavânad bar metâbolisme ʔansolin va lipid moʔaser bâšad
			The secretion of inflammatory factors of leptin and adiponectin from the larger fat cells # can be effective on insulin and lipid metabolism.

The 4 clauses in above table, describe the types of unmarked theme. All of the subjects are nominal groups: *homorus* is a proper noun and 3 other subjects are common nouns.

TABLE 12:
MARKED THEME IN PERSIAN DECLARATIVE CLAUSE (SUBJECTS ARE WRITTEN IN BOLD)

	Function	Class	Clause example
marked Theme	Adjunct	adverbial group	baʔdhâ # **motâleʔâte ziyâdi** dar bimârâne lopusi ʔanǰ âm šod
			Later # many studies were done in patients with lupus.
		prepositional phrase	bâ darmân-hâye ǰ adid # **boruze nefropâti** dar bimârân kâheš yâfte ʔast
			With new treatments # the incidence of diabetic nephropathy in patients has fallen.
			ʔaz nazare senni # bar ʔasâse ʔâzmune ti **ʔextelâfi** dar do goruh voǰ ud nadâšt
			In terms of age # there is no difference between the two groups based on the T test
			dar bâlâye qesmate qodâmiye terokeleʔa # **hofreye koronoʔid** dide mišavad
			At the top of the anterior part of trochlea # coronoid fossa is seen.
	Complement	nominal group: common or proper noun as Head	goruhe kontorol râ # **teʔdâde Čehel zane sâlem** bâ tašâbohe senni taškil midâd
			The control group # 40 healthy women with the same age is composed of.

The 5 clauses in table 12, describe the types of marked themes in Persian. The first 4 themes are adjunct and the last theme is complement.

In this part, the frequency and percentage of marked and unmarked themes are presented in four tables as follows:

TABLE 13:
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF MARKED/UN MARKED THEME IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH

Medical texts				
Theme selection	Persian		English	
	frequency	percentage	frequency	percentage
Marked theme	88	17.6%	54	10.8%
Unmarked theme	412	82.4%	446	89.2%
total	500	100%	500	100%

Below is a single table illustrating the frequency and percentage of marked and unmarked themes in Persian and English from books and articles studied:

TABLE 14:
FREQUENCY AND PERCENTAGE OF MARKED/UN MARKED THEME IN BOOKS AND ARTICLES STUDIED IN PERSIAN AND ENGLISH

Medical texts								
Theme selection	Persian				English			
	Anatomy of Bones and Joints With Anatomical Terms book		articles		*Gray's Anatomy For Students* book		articles	
	Fre.	Per.	Fre.	Per.	Fre.	Per.	Fre.	Per.
Marked theme	41	16.4%	47	18.8%	19	7.6%	35	14%
Unmarked theme	209	83.6%	203	81.2%	231	92.4%	215	86%
total	250	100%	250	100%	250	100%	250	100%

The above presented tables yield the following results:

1. The information presented in Table 13 indicates that 17.6% of the themes are marked and 82.4% are unmarked in Persian.

2. 10.8% of the themes are marked and 89.2% are unmarked in English. Results1 and 2 illustrate that marked themes have occurred less than unmarked ones in each language by itself.

3. 17.6% of the themes in Persian are marked, while 10.8% in English are marked (see Table 13). This means that in Persian marked themes are used more than in English.

4. Table 14 reveals that16.4% of the themes are marked in the Persian book (*Anatomy of Bones and Joints with Anatomical Terms* book), while only 7.6% of themes are marked in the English book *(Gray's Anatomy For Students)*.

5. 18.8% of the themes are marked in the Persian articles, while 14% are marked in the English articles.

6. 16.4% of the themes are marked in the Persian book studied, while 18.8% are marked in the Persian articles.

7. 7.6% of themes are marked in the English book studied, while 14% are marked in the English articles. Results 3 and 4 illustrate that marked theme occurrence in the articles is much more than that in the books in each language (see Table14).

As can be observed, there is regularity among the results in both languages (Persian and English), that is to say, marked themes are used less than unmarked themes. In addition, marked themes in the books studied are used less than those in the articles. Regarding the above results, it would be possible to argue as follows:

As mentioned earlier, Halliday and Matthiessen (2004) believe that the answer to the question "which element of the clause is typically chosen as the theme" depends on the choice of mood (as cited in Halliday and Matthiessen 2004, p. 78). For instance, in a declarative clause, the nominal group functioning as subject is an unmarked theme. When some other element comes first, it constitutes a marked choice of theme. This is while Lock (1996) believes that the replacement of constituents is not the only reason to constitute a marked clause.

As a matter of fact, the replacement of clause elements does not always constitute a marked clause. In other words, the replacement in the constituent order in a clause does not necessarily lead to constructing marked clauses in Persian. Furthermore, looking at earlier studies, one will find some contradictions. Earlier investigations have revealed many counter-examples. It seems that such contradictions in results are due to different factors as follows:

a) Writing form types

Different writing forms influence this issue. One can see that in this study there are fewer marked themes in the books compared to the articles studied.

b) Authors'/writers' style differences

As Fries (1995 b) believes, theme selection patterns are closely related to style of writing. This means that writing style affects the selection of the clause theme in a text. So, different writing types (book or article writing) are due to different writing styles, even within one type of writing, such as "book writing."

In this study, the different results related to both Persian and English books show each writer has his/her own style of writing, whereas the articles have a simpler and rather the same structure.

c) Text-clause relationship

Each clause, as a unit of text, is affected by the whole text.

d) Emphasis

If we pay attention to the clauses analyzed in the present study, it is clear that some elements have been replaced because of emphasis on a certain feature; for example, in Persian (anatomy) books, in order to describe or define a part of the body, its position is the focus of attention, so the position comes first. Therefore, it may be that the feature of specialized science (here: anatomy) and as mentioned (medical) genre influence themes.

e) Contrast

Another reason may be contrast. As Lock (1996) believes, topicalization occurs sometimes in order to express contrast. In this study, in the example "for some patients, it is necessary to inject contrast agents directly into arteries or veins" the theme [for some patients] vs. [for all patients] shows contrast (see Table 10).

f) Limited corpora

One of the reasons of different results having been obtained in earlier studies is the selection of small or limited corpuses. If the corpus is limited, the results are not so valid and accurate. For the same reason, in this study 1000 clauses were examined and analyzed.

g) Language differences

Language difference is one of the important factors that affect theme markedness and it is the issue which is the focus of attention in this study. As different languages, Persian and English are compared in terms of theme markedness. Of the two, Persian exhibits a higher frequency of marked themes than English. This difference is due to the following issues:

On the one hand, Persian is a pro-drop language. Pro-droppedness is common in Persian, especially in the spoken form (and is different from scrambling and topicalization in Persian). So, such an omission and replacement of clause elements never constitutes a marked clause. On the other hand, Persian is not a language of fixed word order, but English is. The English language is believed to possess a fixed word order, since the positions of subject, verb, and object are relatively fixed (Quirk et al., 1985). English does indeed place strict limitations on the ordering of clause elements, while the replacement of the constituents in Persian is more possible and relatively free. The free word order enables the speaker to choose the order he/she prefers for communicative purposes. This implies a wider range of elements available for the first position (as cited in Quirk et al., 1985).

Although, according to Halliday's functional theory, the replacement of elements within the clause in English constitutes a marked theme, and the results of the present study have been obtained according to SFG, in languages such as Persian, which do not have fixed/rigid word order, the movements of the elements are more common than in those of fixed/rigid word order. Therefore, such a usual replacement does not necessarily constitute marked themes. The word order in Persian is SOV (subject, object, verb) and in English it is SVO (subject, verb, object). They are the same with respect to the subject position and both constitute unmarked themes in this position. But constituents such as PP (prepositional phrase) and AP (adverbial phrase) with functions of adjunct that are proposed in Persian have a relatively smaller degree of markedness compared to those in English.

The results of comparison based on SFG indicate that marked themes are more numerous in Persian than in English. The fact is that most of the clauses specified as marked based on SFG had circumstantial adjuncts in the subject position. These adjuncts in the subject position are common and sound unmarked to Persian speakers, since the intuition of a native speaker simply confirms them as unmarked. Such clauses are those that have the following conditions:

1. The clause has a long subject;
2. The circumstantial adjunct is lengthened by a relative clause in the subject position;

and

3. There is semantic/syntactic integration between the subject and its relevant constituent.

Many examples within the corpus of this research, which have been determined as marked, seem unmarked with circumstantial adjuncts: themes as follows (subjects are written in bold).

TABLE 15:
THEME AS ADJUNCT WITH A LONG SUBJECT IN THE CLAUSE IN PERSIAN

Dar ?iǰ âde nefropâtiye diyabeti	**naqse Ženetiki sen porfešâriye xun kontorole nâkâfiye qand neŽâd Čâqi va kešidane sigâr** naqše mohemmi ?ifa mikonad.
In creating diabetic nephropathy	**genetic defect, age, hypertension, inadequate blood sugar control, race, obesity and smoking** plays an important role.
Class: prepositional phrase Function: adjunct	Rheme
Theme	

TABLE 16:
THEME AS A LONG ADJUNCT WITH A RELATIVE CLAUSE IN PERSIAN

dar motâle ?eyi ke dar tâyvân bar ruye bimârâne bâ diâbete tipe do ?anǰ âm šod	**sathe ?asid ?urike serom** ?rtebâte mostaqim bâ mizâne daf?e ?âlbomine ?drâr dâšt
In a study done in Taiwan on patients with diabetes type II	**serum uric acid level** was directly related to the amount of urinary albumin excretion
Class: prepositional phrase Function: adjunct	Rheme
Theme	

TABLE 17:
THEME AS ADJUNCT WITH SEMANTIC/SYNTACTIC INTEGRATION BETWEEN THE SUBJECT AND ITS REELEVANT CONSTITUENT IN PERSIAN

dar motâle ?eye ?ânâtomi	**badan** be se baxše sar-o-gardan tane va ?ndâmhâ taqsim mišavad
In the study of anatomy	**body** is divided into head and neck, trunk and limbs.
Class: prepositional phrase Function: adjunct	Rheme
Theme	

In the above clauses, if subjects come first, they will sound marked. This study thus indicates that the unmarked theme in Persian declarative clauses is not restricted just to the subject in subject position. This can be shown by the following figure:
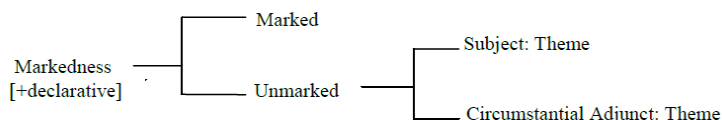
Figure 1:Unmarked Theme Selection in Relation to Mood (Declarative) in Persian

Therefore, it is better to regard such clauses and themes as unmarked from now on.

Downing believe 'Circumstantial adjuncts are easily moved to first position in the sentence because they are not semantically or syntactically integrated into the clause structure, they are not topics' (as cited in Downing, 1992).

VI. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the present article was to make a comparative study of theme markedness in Persian and English medical texts. It aimed to determine the similarities and differences of Persian and English with regard to markedness. The corpus contained Persian and English written texts. This study revealed that the properties of being pro-drop and having non-fixed word order distinguish Persian from English regarding the notion of theme markedness, in medical texts. It also indicated that Persian does not completely conform to the concept of Halliday's theory with regard to markedness. In Persian medical texts, many circumstantial adjuncts in the subject position sound unmarked to Persian native speakers. Clauses which have such adjuncts are those that have the following conditions: the clause has a long subject; the circumstantial adjunct is lengthened by a relative clause in the subject position; and there is semantic/syntactic integration between the subject and its relevant constituent. We can now claim that theme markedness is a relative notion (not absolute) and is affected by language differences. In other words, it is language-specific. In addition to language differences, theme markedness is closely related to some factors such as specific genre, authors'/writers' style differences, writing form types, text-clause relationship, emphasis, and contrast. Since the above mentioned factors in Persian and English effect theme markedness, they are regarded as their similarities while language structure refers to their differences (as cited in Kazemi & Afrashi, 2012). Finally, it is necessary to say that theme markedness still needs further studies in the future.

REFERENCES

[1]   Bloor, T. and Bloor, M. (1995). The functional analysis of English: A Hallidayan approach. London: Arnold.
[2]   Butt, D., Fahey, R., Feez, S., Spinks, S., and Yallop, C. (2000). Understanding Functional Grammar: An explorer's Guide, 2nd ed., Sydney: NCELTR.
[3]   Chapman, S. and Routledge, C. (2009). Key Ideas in Linguistics and the Philosophy of Language, Scotland: Edinburgh University Press, Ltd.
[4]   Danes, F. (1974). "Functional sentence perspective and the organization of the text", In F. Danes (ed.), *papers on   Functional sentence perspective,* The Hague, Mouton.
[5]   Downing, A. (1991) "An alternative approach to theme: a Systemic- Functional perspective", *Word*, 42 (2), 119-143.
[6]   Downing, A. and Locke, P. (1992). A university course in English grammar. Hemel Hempstead: Prentice Hall.
[7]   Eggins, S. (1994). An Introduction to functional Linguistics, London: Printer Publishers.
[8]   Eggins, S. (2004). An Introduction to Systemic Linguistics, 2nd edition, London: Continuum International Publishing Group Ltd.
[9]   Eivazi Ziaei, J., Fakhrgoo A. and Estakhri, R. (2011). Gingival Metastasis of Renal Cell Carcinoma. *Iranian Journal of Cancer Pervention.* Vol. 4, No 1, 44-46.
[10] Fries, P. H. (1981). On the status of theme in English: Arguments from discourse. Form Texts. Hamburg: Helmut Buske Verlage.
[11] Fries, P. H. (1995b). Themes, methods of development, and texts. In Rughayyah Hassan & Fries (Eds.). *On subject and theme: A discourse functional perspective* (pp. 317-59). Amsterdam: John Benjamin.
[12] Ghadessy, M. (1995). Thematic development in English text. London: Printer.
[13] Hassan, R. (1989). Linguistics, language and verbal art. Landon: Oxford University Press.
[14] Hassan, R. and Fries, P. H. (1995). Reflections on subject and theme. In Rughayyah Hassan & Fries (Eds.). *On subject and theme: from the perspective of functions in discourse.* Amsterdam and Philadelphia: John Benjamin
[15] Halliday, M. A. K. (1994). An Introduction to Functional Grammar (2nd edition). London: Arnold.
[16] Halliday, M. A. K. and Matthiessen, C. M. I. M. (2004). An introduction to functional grammar. 3rd ed. London: Arnold publication.
[17] Heydari, M., Bahadori, Z., Behmanesh, M. and Sahraeiyan, M. (2010). The study of relationship between rs13241278 and 693657 polymorphism of PTPRZ1 gene with Multiple Sclerosis; MS in Iran population. *Yakhteh Medical Journal.* Vol. 12, No 3, 342-348.
[18] Kazemi, F. & Afrashi, A. (2013). The Comparative Study of Markedness in Persian and English Based on SFG, *Language Related Research* Vol. 4, No.1 (Tome 13), 125-149.
[19] Khedri, M. & Ebrahimi, S. F. (2012). Multiple Theme in English and Persian, *Theory and Practice in Language Studies* No. 6, 1128-1133. 2, Vol.
[20] Kargarfard, M. Ruzbehani, R. and Basati, F. (2010). Effect of Exercise Rehabilitation on Blood Pressure of Patients after Myo cardial. *International Journal of Preventive Medicine*, Isfahan: University of Medical Sciences, Vol. 1, No 2, 124-30.
[21] Leong, P. A. (2004). Theme and Rheme: An Alternative Account, Tokyo: International Language Science Publishers.
[22] Lock, G. (1996). Functional English grammar: An introduction to second language teachers. (ed.) Jack C. Richards. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
[23] Martin, J. R. (1992). English Text. System and Structure, John Benjamin, Philadelphia: Amsterdam.
[24] Martin, J. R. (1995). "English Theme". In M. Ghadessy (ed.) *Thematic developing in English Texts,* London and New York, Printer, 223-258.
[25] Mohammadi, A. (1995). The role of thematic structure in comprehending spoken language. Unpublished M. A. Thesis Allameh Tabatabaei University, Tehran, Iran.
[26] Negahdar, F. and Majidzadeh, S. (2008). Anatomy of bones and joints with anatomical terms. Tehran: Noor-e-Danesh publication.
[27] Pourhoseingholi M. A., Pourhoseingholi A., Vahedi M., Moghimi Dehkordi B., Safaee A., Ashtari S. et al. (2011). Alternative for the cox regression model: Using parametric models to analys the survival of cancer patients. *Iranian Journal of Cancer Prevention*. Vol. 4, No 1, 1-4.
[28] Quirk et al. (1985). A comprehensive grammar of the English language. Cambridge: cup.
[29] Richard, D. Wayne, V. and Mitchell A. (2010). Gray's anatomy for students. Philadelphia: Livingstone Elsevier Churchill publication.
[30] Tuchyta, E. S. S. (2012). Applying Systemic Functional Linguistics to Bahasa Clauses, *International Journal of Linguistics*, Vol. 4, No 2, 134-146.
[31] Wang, Lixia. (2007). Theme and rheme in the thematic organization of text: implication for teaching academic writing. *Asian EFL Journal*. vol. 9 (9), 88-101.

Foroogh Kazemi is assistant professor of linguistics department in Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University in Iran. She has taught linguistics, Persian and English at Central Tehran Branch, Imam Khomeini International University and Science and Research branch. Dr. Kazemi has published many articles in linguistics and has been advisor, reader and referee of many linguistic MA theses and judge of articles in journal of linguistics. Her areas of interest are functional linguistics, sociolinguistics, typology and discourse analysis.

A Contrastive Study of the Use of Causal Connectives by Chinese EFL Learners and English Native Speakers in Writing

Junhua Mo

School of Foreign Languages, Soochow University, China

Abstract—This study attempts to compare Chinese learners' use of causal connectives and that of English native speakers by a corpus-based approach. It finds that the density of causal connectives used by Chinese learners is higher than that of English native speakers, but their variety is smaller. It also finds that Chinese learners prefer an inductive thought pattern, while English native speakers are accustomed to thinking deductively. Furthermore, it finds that Chinese learners tend to put adverbial causal connectives at the initial positions of sentences, while English native speakers are more likely to put these words at the medial positions of sentences. Finally, this study finds that Chinese learners' use of causal connectives is more colloquial than that of English native speakers.

Index Terms—causal connectives, density, variety, thought pattern, adverbial connectives, colloquialism

I. INTRODUCTION

Connectives are useful for signaling logical or semantic relations between units of discourse. Altenberg and Tapper (1998) hold that connectives can be used to enhance the coherence and clarity of discourse. Causal connectives are capable of indicating cause or effect. The appropriate use of these words to elucidate the causal relationship will to a great extent determine the success or failure of an argumentative essay, which from a macro point of view is a causal relationship in itself.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Researchers have done many studies on connectives, although they used other terms. Chen (2002), who studied discourse markers from a pragmatic perspective, found that Chinese English major students are capable of consciously using discourse markers in argumentative writings. However, their variety is limited, and there are some misuses. Zhao (2003) adopted a more general approach, investigating how students of varied specialties and language proficiencies use logical connectors in writings of varied genres. She found that Chinese students lack the variety of logical connectors employed by English native speakers, although their density is higher. Pan and Feng (2004) examined the top 20 connectors used by non-English major graduate students in argumentative writings. They found that Chinese students overuse several connectors but underuse most of them, when compared with native English speakers. Although advanced Chinese learners and native speakers show great similarity in their preference for connectors, they differ from each other in the logic-semantic distribution of connectors. Xu (2004) compared the use of textual meta-discourse markers and interpersonal meta-discourse markers by English majors of different grades. He found that Chinese students display a non-linear development model in the quantity of meta-textual discourse markers they use, but a linear development model in the quality of their use.

It must be pointed out that discourse markers, logical connectors, connectors and meta-textual discourse markers, despite their unique names, heavily overlap with each other. Among them, logical connectors and connectors are almost the same. This study will adopt Pan and Feng's term to call these words connectors. However, in light of that connectors are widely referred to as connectives in English literature, this study will use both of these terms without any distinctions. In addition, it should be noted that the above studies have yielded consistent findings that the density of connectives Chinese students use is higher than native English speakers, but their variety is limited.

According to Zhang (2001 cited in Halliday & Hasan 2001), one direction of future cohesion studies is to continue to carry out micro studies. Although studies of connectives are micro in nature, it is possible to undertake studies on a more specific aspect of connectives. Luo (2001) conducted such a study, which focused on connectives of a particular part of speech --- the adverbial conjuncts in the academic writings of Chinese English major graduate students. She found that Chinese students use more adverbial conjuncts than native students. But they are not fully aware of the possible stylistic appropriateness and semantic subtle differences of these words.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions

This study had four research questions to answer. (1) How does the density of causal connectives used by Chinese learners compare with that of native speakers? (2) How does the variety of causal connectives used by Chinese learners compare with that of native speakers? (3) How does the thought pattern based on causal connectives used by Chinese learners compare with that of native speakers? (4) How do the oral features of causal connectives used by Chinese learners compare with those of native speakers? (5) How does the use of adverbial causal connectives used by Chinese learners compare with that of native speakers?

B. Research Corpus

This study took a corpus-based approach. The data of this study were selected from Spoken and Written English Corpus of Chinese Learners or SWECCL, which is a large corpus of Chinese university students who major in English. This study randomly chose 240 argumentative compositions written by English major students in a Nanjing-based university to form a Chinese learner corpus. The control corpus used in this study is Louvain Corpus of Native English Essays or LOCNESS, which is a corpus of argumentative essays written by British and American university students. The details of these corpora are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
CHINESE LEARNER CORPUS AND NATIVE SPEAKER CORPUS

	Chinese learner corpus	Native speaker corpus
Size (tokens)	79,549	182,832
Average sentence length (tokens)	19.22	27.59
Average word length (letters)	4.59	4.71

C. Data Classification

Drawing on the taxonomies of connectives developed by Yang (2000), Zhang (2000) and Zhao (2003), this study divided causal connectives into three distinct grammatical categories: conjunctive, adverbial and prepositional. Table 2 attempts to present an exhaustive list of causal connectives classified according to their grammar and their function.

TABLE 2:
TAXONOMY AND LIST OF CAUSAL CONNECTIVES

Part of speech	Function	Causal connectives
Conjunctive	Cause	As, because, for, since, now that
	Effect	So, it follows that
Adverbial	Effect	So, therefore, thus, hence, accordingly, for this reason, for that reason, as a result, consequently, as a consequence, in consequence
Prepositional	Cause	Because of, due to, owing to, thanks to, in that, out of, on account of, for fear of, for fear that, in view of, in response to, in reply to, as a result of, as a consequence of

D. Data Retrieval and Cleaning

The concordance tools this study used were Wordsmith Tools. To improve the efficiency of concordance, the author ran JCLAWS to tag all the target corpora first. JCLAWS is a corpus software which is capable of specific tagging with an accuracy rate of approximately 97%.

POS tagging with JCLAWS could substantially narrow down the scope of our search. Take "so" for example. When indicating consequence, it can act either as a conjunction within a compound clause or as a general adverb to connect two separate sentences. In the former case, it is tagged as <CS> while in the latter case <RR>. Its non-causal usages are all tagged in other ways, e.g. "so <CS21> that", and "so <RR32> on", etc. Unique tagging like this allows us to immediately get the results we want.

However, there are cases where JCLAWS cannot help. Take "as" for example. When "as" is used as a conjunction (<CSA>), it can perform multiple functions. Not only can it indicate cause, but also show a comparison (e.g. the second "as" in "as many as"), describe an accompanying state (e.g. "as" in "as time goes by"), to name just a few. Non-causal usages of causal connectives like this can be found in "as <CS>", "since <CS>", "thanks <NN2> to <II>", "out <II21> of <II22>", "in <II> that <DD1>" and "accordingly<RR>".

Among these six causal connectives, "as<CSA>" yields the maximum results. In LOCNESS alone, over 700 concordance lines are found. This huge number made it impossible for us to check the results line by line. So we selected a sample by examining the concordances every three lines. None of the other five causal connectives generated over 100 concordance lines, which made it possible for us to sort out the non-causal usages one by one.

E. Data Processing

In response to Luo's (2003) call for attention to the position of connectives in discourse, this study classified causal connectives into three groups according to their positions in sentences: initial, medial and final. It went on to divide cause into preceding cause and ensuing cause. For the purpose of direct comparisons, this study provided the number of causal connectives per 100,000 tokens instead of giving raw frequencies.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Density

TABLE 3:
DENSITY OF CAUSAL CONNECTIVES USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

	Chinese learners	Native speakers
Density	702.71	694.08

Table 3 shows that the density of causal connectives used by Chinese learners is higher than native speakers. Luo (2003) reports the same finding in her study of adverbial connectives. Actually, this is a general characteristic of Chinese learners' use of connectives (Ma 2001; Zhao 2003). There is a traditional opinion among researchers and language teachers that the grammar of Chinese is featured by parataxis while that of English hypotaxis. Therefore, Chinese does not require overt marking of textual relations to the same extent as English. Chinese students might underuse explicit connectives as a result of L1 transfer (Yu 2001). However, this and other studies find that the opposite is true. Ma (2001) suggests three possible reasons for this unexpected finding. First, English teachers in China emphasize the use of cohesive devices, especially connectives. They encourage students to adopt overt connectives for coordination, subordination or other types of transition. Overemphasis of teachers is widely acknowledged as an important factor. Second, Chinese students write more coordinate sentences, which often involve the use of more connectives. Third, Chinese students tend to write simple rather than compound sentences, which leads them to adopt overt connectives for coordination and subordination rather than use other cohesive devices. The decrease of compound sentences is likely to increase the number of connectives.

B. Variety

TABLE 4:
VARIETY OF CAUSAL CONNECTIVES USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

	Type	Std sum	Std variety
Chinese learners	19	702.71	0.0270
Native speakers	26	694.08	0.0375

Table 4 shows that the variety of causal connectives used by Chinese learners is smaller than native speakers. A high density with a limited variety is not just the characteristic of the use of causal connectives by Chinese EFL learners. Zhao (2003) finds that it is the general characteristic of all types of connectives used by Chinese learners. Chen (2002) and Luo (2003) also report this problem in their respective studies. It means that Chinese EFL learners have not learned to use connectives in English writing in a native-like way. They need to improve their use of connectives.

C. Thought Patterns

Preceding causal connectives play the same role as result signifiers. Both of them reflect a general causal relationship of providing reasons before results, namely cause-before-effect. Ensuing causal connectives reflect a reserved causal relationship of providing reasons after results, namely cause-after-effect. Cause-before-effect is an inductive way of thinking, while cause-after-effect is a deductive way.

TABLE 5:
EFFECT MARKERS USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

Effect markers	Chinese learners	Native speakers
accordingly	0.00	0.55
as a consequence	0.00	0.55
as a result	26.4	2.19
consequently	8.8	8.75
for this reason	2.51	2.73
hence	1.26	11.49
it follows that	0.00	0.55
so	231.3	113.77
therefore	72.91	108.84
thus	40.23	53.05
Total	383.41	302.47

Table 5 shows all the connectives, which indicate result, in the Chinese learner corpus and the native speaker corpus.

TABLE 6:
CAUSE MARKERS USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

Cause markers	Chinese learners		Native speakers	
	Preceding cause	Ensuing cause	Preceding cause	Ensuing cause
as	11.31	6.29	11.49	76.57
as a consequence of	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.55
as a result of	1.26	0.00	1.09	8.75
because	26.4	138.28	17.5	177.21
because of	13.83	35.2	1.09	2.73
due to	3.77	5.03	4.92	26.8
for	0.00	16.34	1.09	4.92
for fear of	0.00	1.26	0.00	1.64
for fear that	0.00	1.26	0.00	0.00
in response to	0.00	1.26	1.64	1.09
in that	0.00	0.00	0.00	3.83
in view of	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.55
now that	1.26	1.26	3.83	0.00
out of	0.00	0.00	0.00	8.20
owing to	0.00	0.00	0.55	0.55
since	35.2	6.29	13.13	20.78
thanks to	13.83	0.00	0.55	0.55
Total	106.86	212.47	56.88	334.72

Table 6 shows in a separate way the preceding causes and the ensuing causes in the Chinese learner corpus and the native speaker corpus.
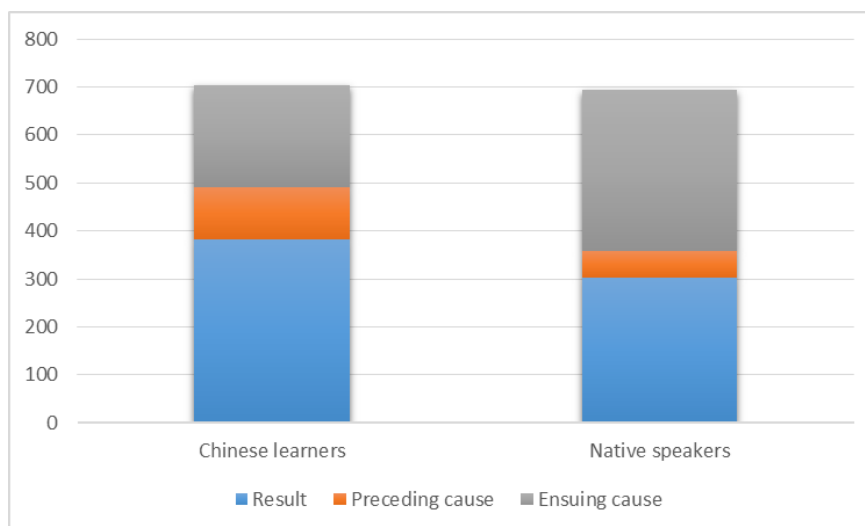
Figure 1: Two types of causal relationships used by Chinese learners and native speakers

Figure 1 shows that in Chinese student compositions, the cause-before-effect relationships significantly outnumber the cause-after-effect relationships, enjoying an overwhelming majority. However, it majority vanishes in the native speaker compositions, where both types of relationships are roughly on an equal footing. This discovery lends support to Chen's (2001 cited in Guo & Wang 2004) finding that Chinese students are fonder of inductive thought patterns than British and American people. Zhao (1999) attributes the textual and cognitive differences to character differences. Chinese people, under the influence of Confucianism, Taoism and Buddhism, are soft and gentle by nature, thus preferring to express themselves in indirect and implicit ways. By contrast, the western people, due to their belief in Christianity, are tough by nature and are more likely to be straightforward and outspoken.

D. Adverbial Causal Connectives

TABLE 7:
ADVERBIAL CAUSAL CONNECTIVES USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

	Users	Total	Initial	Medial	Connecting two sentences alone	Using semicolons
Therefore	Chinese learners	72.91	69.14	3.77	3.77	0.00
	Native speakers	108.84	22.97	85.87	3.83	0.55
Thus	Chinese learners	40.23	20.11	20.11	7.54	0.00
	Native speakers	53.05	18.05	35.00	2.73	1.09
Thus	Chinese learners	1.26	1.26	0.00	0.00	0.00
	Native speakers	11.49	2.73	8.75	0.00	0.00

Table 7 compares the use of "therefore", "thus" and "hence" by Chinese learners and that by native speakers. One similarity and two differences can be identified. First, both groups of students employ these three words in the same order of frequency. That is, "therefore" is most frequently used, "thus" less frequently and "hence" least frequently. Secondly, Chinese learners underuse these three words, because they overuse "so". Third, Chinese learners tend to put these words at the beginning of a sentence, whereas native speakers prefer to use them medially.
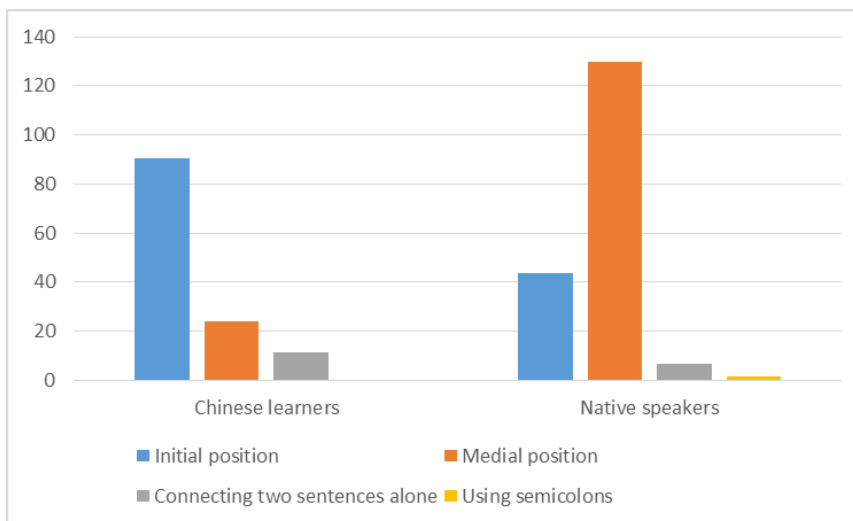
Figure 2: Adverbial causal connectives used by Chinese learners and native speakers

Figure 2 shows that the positional tendencies are radically different in the Chinese learners' and native speakers' essays. Chinese students have a much stronger preference for initial position than the English students but a weaker preference for medial position. There are two possible reasons for this positional difference. First, the mainstream sentence pattern in Chinese student compositions is simple sentence, whereas that of native speakers is compound sentence (Ma 2001). This can be partly seen from the average sentence length of both groups of learners. In this study, the average sentence length of Chinese students is 19.22 tokens, while that of native speakers is 27.59 tokens (see Table 1). Generally speaking, short sentences contain fewer elements than long sentences. Short sentences are more likely to be simple rather than compound sentences. As a result, adverbial conjuncts are allowed limited positions in sentences. Mostly they appear at the start of a sentence. The second reason is that Chinese students haven't fully mastered the usage of "therefore", "thus" and "hence". These three words are flexible in sentences. They can be put both initially and medially. But Chinese learners have overwhelmingly used them initially. Zhao (2003) suggests that the use of connectives should be parsimonious and inconspicuous. Overuse of connectives will distract readers from the global discourse to local concerns. Therefore, we recommend more use of connectives medially, which can not only reduce the visibility of explicit cohesive devices, but also enhance the inner coherence of discourse.

However, it must be pointed out that "therefore", "thus" and "hence" are adverbial connectives, which cannot be used to connect two separate sentences alone. However, nearly half of the cases where Chinese learners use these words violate this rule. Therefore, we suspect that Chinese learners don't know that "therefore", "thus" and "hence" are adverbial connectives. They confuse these words with "so", which can be both adverbial and conjuncts. It's true that some native speakers also use "therefore", "thus" and "hence" alone to connect two sentences. But usages like this occur much less frequently than those of Chinese learners. Furthermore, some native speakers use semicolon in such usages. Therefore, this study argues that using "therefore" and similar words to connect two sentences alone and without semicolon are misuses by a few native speakers. They are not good example for EFL learners to follow.

E. Colloquialism

TABLE 8:
SEQUENCE AND FREQUENCY OF CAUSAL CONNECTIVES USED BY CHINESE LEARNERS AND NATIVE SPEAKERS

No.	Chinese learners	F	Native speakers	F
1	so	231.30	because	194.71
2	because	164.68	so	113.77
3	therefore	72.91	therefore	108.84
4	because of	49.03	as	88.06
5	since	41.48	thus	53.05
6	thus	40.23	since	33.91
7	as a result	26.40	due to	31.72
8	as	17.60	hence	11.49
9	for	16.34	as a result of	9.85
10	thanks to	13.83	consequently	8.75
11	due to	8.80	out of	8.20
12	consequently	8.80	for	6.02
13	now that	2.51	now that	3.83
14	for this reason	2.51	in that	3.83
15	in response to	1.26	because of	3.83
16	hence	1.26	in response to	2.73
17	for fear that	1.26	for this reason	2.73
18	for fear of	1.26	as a result	2.19
19	as a result of	1.26	for fear of	1.64
20			thanks to	1.09
21			owing to	1.09
22			it follows that	0.55
23			in view of	0.55
24			as a consequence of	0.55
25			as a consequence	0.55
26			accordingly	0.55

Table 8 shows that Chinese learners and native speakers share a lot in their choice of causal connectives. Six of the top 10 connectives used by Chinese learners also appear on the list of native speakers' top 10. Chinese learners all together use 19 types of causal connectives. 18 of them can be found in the native speakers' repertoire. Furthermore, this similarity extends to the avoidance of certain words by both groups of learners. For example, neither group uses "on account of" or "in consequence". Although Chinese learners and native speakers show great similarity in their choice of causal connectives, their usages are greatly different. Chinese students rely too much on several causality markers like "so", "because" and "therefore", underusing other connectives. In contrast, native speakers use these words less frequently by resorting to a wider range of causal connectives. Insufficient variety implies that Chinese learners' acquisition and manipulation of causal connectives are rather limited.

This study selected four stylistically loaded connectives for comparison. "So" is often used in oral discourse, while "therefore", "thus" and "hence" often in written discourse, despite the fact that all of them have the same function of signaling result.
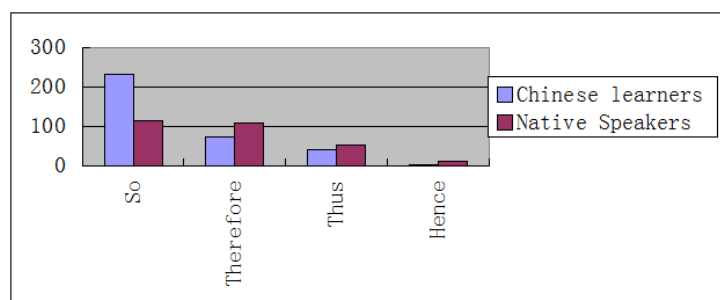
Figure 3: Four stylistically loaded causal connectives used by Chinese learners and native speakers

Figure 3 shows that the number of "so" used by Chinese students is twice more than that of native speakers, whereas their sum of "therefore", "thus" and "hence" is just two thirds of that of native counterparts. It is therefore apparent that there are strong oral features in Chinese students writing. This finding lends support to Wen, Ding & Wang's (2003) study, which takes a corpus-based contrastive approach to explore features of oral style in English compositions of advanced Chinese EFL learners. They find that advanced Chinese EFL learners clearly employed a spoken type of discourse in their English writing as EFL learners from other countries do, and they moved from a more "spoken" type of discourse to a more "written" type of discourse as they progressed in L2 learning.

V. CONCLUSION

This study conducted a contrastive study of Chinese learners' use of English causal connectives and that of native speakers. It found Chinese learners' use of causal connectives had a higher density, but a smaller variety, when compared with native speakers. It also found that Chinese learners tended to think inductively while native speakers

were inclined to think deductively. Furthermore, Chinese learners were fond of putting adverbial causal connectives at the initial positions of sentences, while English native speakers are more accustomed to the medial use of these words. Finally, Chinese learners' use of causal connectives had a strong oral style, which suggested that they lacked register awareness. In a word, there were marked differences of various kinds in the use of causal connectives between Chinese learners and native speakers. Chinese learners should get a deeper understanding of causal connectives, which are believed to be familiar to students and are supposedly not difficult for them, and sharpen their use of these words, if they attempt to approximate native speakers.

It must be pointed out that this study had some limitations. For instance, it did not consider non-typical connectives which can also indicate cause-effect, such as "and". Nor did it consider covert cohesive devices that have the same function. Future studies are recommended to be more focused with a greater in-depth. Given that studies of connectives are overwhelmingly concerned with students of English majors, future studies should also devote more attention to non-major students.

REFERENCES

[1] Altenberg, B. & M., Tapper. (1998). The use of adverbial connectives in advanced Swedish learners' written English. In Granger, S. (ed.). *Learner English on Computer*. London & New York: Longman. pp. 80-93.
[2] Chen X. R. (2002). Using discourse connectives in composition: An investigation of Chinese learners' argumentative writing. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 5: 350-354.
[3] Guo, L. Q. & H. L., Wang. (2004). Tentative analysis of English writing and how it relates to differences between Chinese and English texts. *Journal of China Foreign Affairs University* 1: 103-111.
[4] Halliday, M. A. K. & Hasan, R. (2001). English Cohesion, Prefaced by Zhang Delu, Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.
[5] Luo, Y. (2003). On the use of adverbial conjuncts in Chinese learners' academic writing. *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages* 1: 59-62 to 98.
[6] Ma, G. H. (2001). A contrastive rhetorical analysis between EFL and ENL writing. J*ournal of PLA University of Foreign Languages* 6: 5-8.
[7] Pan, F. & Y. J., Feng. (2004). A corpus-based analysis of connectives in non-English major graduate students' writing. *Modern Foreign Languages* 2: 157-162.
[8] Wen, Q. F., Ding, Y. R. & W. Y., Wang. (2003). Features of oral style in English compositions of advanced Chinese EFL learners: An exploratory study by contrastive learner corpus analysis. *Foreign Language Teaching and Research* 4: 268-274.
[9] Xu, H. M. (2004). Investigating the developmental model of the use of meta-discourse markers by Chinese learners of English at the tertiary level. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching* 3: 59-64.
[10] Yang, A. Q. (2000). Handbook of essential connectives, Shanghai: Shanghai Far East Press.
[11] Yu, Q. L. (2001). English-Chinese contrastive rhetoric studies and the teaching of English writing. *Fujian Foreign Languages* 2: 33-37.
[12] Zhao W. B. (2003). A contrastive analysis of the use of logical connectors by Chinese EFL learners. *Foreign Language Education* 2: 72-77.
[13] Zhao X. F. (1999). How culture differences influence the writing styles of Chinese and English, *Shandong Foreign Languages Journal* 3: 69-72.
[14] Zhang, Z.B. (2000). New English Grammar, Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Junhua Mo was born in Changzhou, China, in 1977. He received his PhD in applied linguistics from Nanjing University in 2008. Since then, he has been teaching English in School of Foreign Languages, Soochow University. His major interests include second language acquisition, syntax and corpus linguistics.

Call for Papers and Special Issue Proposals

Aims and Scope

Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

Areas of interest include: language education, language teaching methodologies, language acquisition, bilingualism, literacy, language representation, language assessment, language education policies, applied linguistics, as well as language studies and other related disciplines: psychology, linguistics, pragmatics, cognitive science, neuroscience, ethnography, sociolinguistics, sociology, and anthropology, literature, phonetics, phonology, and morphology.

Special Issue Guidelines

Special issues feature specifically aimed and targeted topics of interest contributed by authors responding to a particular Call for Papers or by invitation, edited by guest editor(s). We encourage you to submit proposals for creating special issues in areas that are of interest to the Journal. Preference will be given to proposals that cover some unique aspect of the technology and ones that include subjects that are timely and useful to the readers of the Journal. A Special Issue is typically made of 15 to 30 papers, with each paper 8 to 12 pages of length.

A special issue can also be proposed for selected top papers of a conference/workshop. In this case, the special issue is usually released in association with the committee members of the conference/workshop like general chairs and/or program chairs who are appointed as the Guest Editors of the Special Issue.

The following information should be included as part of the proposal:

- Proposed title for the Special Issue
- Description of the topic area to be focused upon and justification
- Review process for the selection and rejection of papers
- 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.
- A brief description of the event, including: number of submitted and accepted papers, and number of attendees. If these numbers are not yet available, please refer to previous events. First time conference/workshops, please report the estimated figures.
- Publisher and indexing of the conference proceedings.

If a proposal is accepted, the guest editor will be responsible for:

- Preparing the "Call for Papers" to be included on the Journal's Web site.
- Distribution of the Call for Papers broadly to various mailing lists and sites.
- Getting submissions, arranging review process, making decisions, and carrying out all correspondence with the authors. Authors should be informed the Author Guide.
- Providing us the completed and approved final versions of the papers formatted in the Journal's style, together with all authors' contact information.
- Writing a one- or two-page introductory editorial to be published in the Special Issue.

More information is available on the web site at http://www.academypublication.com/tpls/

(Contents Continued from Back Cover)