Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Theoretical Framework for Integrating Higher-order Thinking into L2 Speaking

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Abstract—**This paper proposes an innovative framework to foster students' higher-order thinking and L2 speaking. The importance of higher-order thinking has been highlighted and reflected in L2 education. One way to engage L2 learners in thinking is to ask them higher-order questions. Empirical research has shown the effectiveness of higher-order questioning on L2 speaking and cognitive development. However, questioning behavior itself has a number of disadvantages for learning and, without addressing these issues, the effect of higher-order questioning can be limited. To employ questioning to its best effect, this paper, based on a review of the literature, proposes a theoretical framework. The metadesign of the framework, including teacher questioning, group discussion and student question generation, is used to overcome the disadvantages of questioning, while the microdesign of the framework, incorporating wait-time, question refinement and probing, is intended to tackle the technical problems of eliciting non- and restricted responses from students. This framework also helps to equip students with discussion skills in a social context and to utilize higher cognition proactively. An experiment was carried out in a university English class to validate the framework, and pedagogical implications and suggestions for applying this framework are made.**

Index Terms—**higher-order thinking, L2 speaking, questioning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Higher-order thinking refers to the mental processes of analysis, synthesis and evaluation, and is commonly used in activities such as problem solving, reasoning, thinking, assessing and concluding (Bloom, 1956). Educators and researchers (e.g., Fahim & Masouleh, 2012; Yang & Gamble, 2013) have emphasized the value of the teaching of thinking. In practice, higher-order thinking is an essential tool used to compete in the global job market. In addition, developing students' higher cognition has become a critical component of educational curriculum and a desirable goal in higher education in numerous countries, including Taiwan. To reduce the use of the traditional learning style, rote learning, equipping students with high cognitive abilities to enable them to think independently and proactively has become the goal of current educational reforms in such countries.

The value of higher-order thinking is also reflected in L2 education. For example, in HE in Taiwan, one main goal of English-language learning is to practice the four language skills, including listening, speaking, reading and writing, by using high cognitive thinking skills such as reasoning, evaluating, and problem solving to enable students to communicate and talk critically while expressing their views. Also, higher-order thinking has become a component of L2 reading texts and composition, and several textbooks have adopted it into activities designed as written or spoken exercises.

One method for engaging students in higher-order thinking is to ask them higher-order questions. However, irrespective of the debate on the effectiveness of higher-order questioning, questioning behavior itself possesses several disadvantages for learning. For example, excessive questioning behavior can cause a conversation to resemble an "inquisition" (Rowe, 1974), causing students to experience nervous tension (Steven, 1912). In addition, questioning cannot always be used to successfully elicit student responses (Wu, 1993). Moreover, conventional questioning is mainly conducted in a manner in which teachers pose questions and students provide answers, which causes passive learning behavior, whereby higher cognition is performed passively rather than proactively. Such teacher questioning behavior also reduces the number of opportunities for individual students to interact. Researchers have argued that without addressing these concerns, the effect of higher-order questioning on speaking and cognitive development is limited.

To maximize the effectiveness of questioning, the problems, including the "inquisition" effect of excessive questioning behaviour, passive learning behaviour, and insufficient opportunities for individual students to interact, must be overcome and strategies relevant to questioning must also be applied. Therefore, a highly sensitive framework design for conducting questioning is required to maximize the benefit to student learning.

Based on a review of the literature, this paper presents a theoretical framework for integrating higher-order thinking into L2 speaking, which can possibly resolve the aforementioned problems. Before presenting the framework, I discuss the literature in which theories of L2 learning and cognitive development, the teaching of thinking, higher-order questions, and a critique of higher-order questioning are described.

<div align="center">II. LITERATURE REVIEW</div>

A. L2 Learning Theories

Swain (1985) argued that learners must speak to develop language competence by recognizing linguistic forms in input, testing their hypotheses regarding how the target language is used, and using language to reflect on language use. In Swain's (2000) output hypothesis, L2 speaking is considered not only as a tool to convey messages, but also as a tool for cognitive activity in a social context. From a sociocultural theory perspective, language serves as a cognitive tool that assists in the learning process, creating opportunities for students to think independently and use the target language to elaborate on their thoughts. This type of learning condition enables learners to initiate and control topics, which is one of the main characteristics of the optimal conditions for classroom language learning proposed by Ellis (1990): engaging students in thinking increases the number of opportunities to speak.

B. Theory of Cognitive Development

Vygotsky (1978) claimed that a core mechanism for individual cognitive development is social interaction. Learning occurs in a social context in which scaffolding is applied in the zone of proximal development. Social interaction can cause sociocognitive conflicts, which substantially contribute to cognitive development. During social interaction, various perceptions, ranging from simple differences in schemata to holding completely contradictory perspectives, are developed and readjusted. Students are required to externalize their thoughts, and thus explicitly express their ideas to themselves and others. Continual commenting, justifying, and arguing provides students with opportunities to discover and fill the gaps in their knowledge structures, correct misunderstandings, recognize and resolve discrepancies in information, and subsequently readjust conflicting opinions. The process of constructing new knowledge is facilitated by verbal interaction. When the target language is used as a tool for cognitive activity in a communicative context, this learning process facilitates the simultaneous development of language and intelligence.

C. The Teaching and Learning of Thinking

Thinking can be developed through experience, education, and training. According to Sousa (2001), teachers do not teach the brain to think, but thinking skills can be taught at all levels to increase learners' achievements. Thinking skills can be taught as an isolated subject or through integration with major subjects such as mathematics or English. The integration of thinking instruction into regular language instruction might be the most effective approach, as was implemented by Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997). Therefore, integrating higher-order thinking into L2 learning is both theoretically and practically suitable.

Paul (1992, p.303) demonstrated how teachers can nurture students to think independently and proactively. The main principles formulated include "rather than simply having students discuss ideas found in their texts, have them brainstorm their own ideas and argue among themselves about problems and the solution to problems," "routinely ask students for their point of view on issues, concepts and ideas," and "whenever possible give students tasks that call upon them to develop their own categories and modes of classification instead of being provided with them in advance." When students' thinking involves extended exchange of various perspectives, which provides opportunities to engage in critical thinking such as analysing, providing reasoning for certain perspectives, categorizing, problem solving, and commenting on others' thoughts, optimal learning of thinking occurs. Such cognitive opportunities can be promoted by higher-order questions, in the form of questioning or discussion-type tasks.

D. Higher-order Questions

Questions can be ranked according to the level of thought required for the response. The most common hierarchy for ranking the cognitive level of questions is Bloom's taxonomy (1956), which comprises six categories of cognitive responses, namely knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. Higher-order questions are those that require students to manipulate information by using higher-order thinking, including analysis, synthesis and evaluation. Lower-order questions are those that require the use of lower-order thinking, including knowledge, comprehension and application. Lower-order thinking is a prerequisite in the process of using higher-order thinking. Bloom (1956) suggested that a person cannot apply value or judgment (evaluation thinking level) without knowing the facts, understanding the facts, being capable of applying the facts, and being able to disassemble and reassemble the facts. In general, higher-order questions can be referred to as high-cognitive, divergent, or referential questions. Lower-order questions are occasionally referred to as low-cognitive, convergent, or display questions.

Based on Bloom's framework, Morgan and Saxton (1994) formulated questions for classroom use and described the thinking skills applied at each thinking level. The following is a list of question stems (QS) and examples of questions, focusing on both the teaching of language points and texts, for each thinking level.

- *Knowledge*: Rote memory skills (facts, terms, procedures).
  QS: Who? What? When? Where? List…. How do you say … in English?
  Language: How do you say '勇氣' in English?
  Text: Who is the author of the book?
- *Understanding*: The ability to translate, paraphrase, or interpret material.
  QS: What is meant by…? Can you rephrase…? Can you describe…? Explain… Can you clarify...?

Language: Can you rephrase this sentence?
Text: What is the main idea of this article?
• *Application*: The capacity to transfer knowledge from one setting to another.
  QS: What would happen if..? If you were…? What is a new example of…? How is…related to..?
  Language: Can you fill in the blanks with the correct form of the words given?
  Text: If you were the character in the story, what would you do?
• *Analysis*: The ability to discover and differentiate the components of a larger whole.
  QS: Why? What conclusions can you draw about…? What is the difference between… and…?
  Language: Can you figure out the grammatical rule for the present perfect tense?
  Text: Why is it important to make students support their inferences and conclusions?
• *Synthesis*: The ability to combine components into a coherent whole.
  QS: How could we…? What would happen if…? What is a possible solution to…?
  Language: Can you make a sentence with the word sympathetic?
  Text: Can you create a new ending for the story?
•*Evaluation*: The ability to judge the value or use of information by using a set of standards.
  QS: Which is better? Would you agree that…? What is your opinion…? Is it a better solution to…?
  Language: Can you identify which paragraph delivers the message more clearly? Provide reasons.
  Text: Is it a suitable travelling package for senior citizens? Why?

Further understanding the criterion used to determine the level of questions applied in the classroom context is crucial. It is argued that higher-order and lower-order questions are context dependent and influenced by the objectives or expected learning outcomes of the lesson. If the answer to the question is not taught by the teacher and is discovered by the students themselves, then this question is defined as a higher-order question, even though the question appears to be a lower-order question. Conversely, if the answer to the question is taught by the teacher and students simply recall information to answer the question, then this question is identified as a lower-order question, even if it is a higher-order question in nature. Thus, the cognitive level of questions used in the classroom context is determined by both the learning context and the question.

E.   A Criticism of Teacher Questioning Behavior

Teacher questioning benefits both the speaking and cognitive development of L2 students. However, to properly design a theoretical framework that integrates higher-order thinking into L2 classrooms, a critical review of the impact of teacher questioning behavior on learning is essential.

Teacher questioning using higher-order questions can develop L2 students' length of utterance and syntactic complexity (Godfrey, 2001). Nevertheless, considering the type of speech occurring in such questioning behaviour is necessary. Rowe (1974) emphasized that a high frequency of questioning behavior causes conversation to resemble an "inquisition" rather than a reasonable conversation. Such question-only teaching provides students with opportunities to speak, but does not offer students the opportunity to voice a concern proactively or to explore beyond the topic presented by the teacher. The optimal conditions for classroom language learning, as proposed by Ellis (1990), include allowing learners to initiate and control topics. Moreover, question-only teaching or learning might not be practical for a classroom with students who demonstrate varying learning styles. Dillon (1979) argued that a variety of teaching techniques can readily be substituted for questioning, without reducing the effect on achievement. This hypothesis influenced the design of the theoretical framework in which teacher questioning is not used as the main technique for developing students' higher cognition.

Student conversations should not resemble an "inquisition"; instead, student conversation must be reasonable; for example, the types of conversation that occurs in a social context. The ability to communicate in a social context is essential for language development as stated in Vygotsky's (1978) social constructivism and Swain's (2000) output hypothesis. Students' speaking proficiency is not determined solely by the amount of output produced, but also by a satisfactory command of spoken language (the use of language) in a social context.

Questioning can cause negative attitudes among students, as demonstrated in Tan's (2007) study of teachers' questioning behaviour, in which higher-order questioning behavior had negatively affected university students. Students disliked being repeatedly questioned with higher-order questions. They stated that they were unable to manage such questions because thinking in depth in front of the class was difficult and they felt embarrassed. Steven (1912) also argued that high rates of teacher questioning can cause students to experience nervous tension. Consequently, these negative attitudes can inhibit learners from using the target language and thinking critically. Therefore, the influence of questioning behavior on students' performance and attitudes must be considered when conducting questioning exercises in class. To reduce students' learning anxiety, a low-stress environment must be provided for students to use the target language and conduct higher-order thinking, and this can be achieved by promoting group work. The aforementioned studies have all advocated a similar framework design: a social context with a low-stress environment for integrating higher-order thinking into L2 learning is required.

Teacher questioning using higher-order questions also benefits the cognitive development of L2 students (Godfrey, 2001). However, researchers must question whether teacher questioning behavior genuinely facilitates thinking. In this type of question-only teaching, higher cognition is demonstrated by students in a passive manner; students think only

when the teacher asks a question. Teacher questioning causes students to become passive by depriving them of opportunities to think independently and critically, engage in further exploration, solve problems, and inquire about various topics; such behavior limits student contributions to the learning process (Fairclough, 1989). Wu (1993) also discovered that higher-order questioning does not necessarily encourage students to think and communicate effectively in the L2 classroom. To allow students to think proactively and independently, opportunities for students to dominate the conversation, ask one another about their thoughts, and comment on others' opinions are necessary.

Question generation is one component of teaching students to use higher-order cognitive functions independently. From the late 1980s, the research conducted in the field of higher-order questions in L1 classrooms shifted from teacher questioning to training students to ask high cognitive questions, and this trend affected research in the field of higher-order questioning in L2 classrooms. Alcon (1993) was the first to study the process of teaching students to generate higher-order questions in a foreign language, and discovered that the process promoted the type of verbal interaction that facilitates students' understanding and written production of the foreign language. This indicates that question generation can be used to foster students' higher cognition by allowing students to use higher cognition proactively to gain the required information and critically review the information received.

Overall, teacher questioning enables L2 students to speak more frequently and with higher syntactic complexity, and promotes cognitive enhancement. However, teacher questioning does not provide opportunities for students to think proactively or autonomously, and the conversation resulting from questioning resembles an "inquisition" rather than a reasonable conversation. Additionally, teacher questioning can negatively affect students. To address these problems, the metadesign of the present framework incorporates a social context for learning and student question generation in addition to teacher questioning.

F.   Strategies Relevant to Questioning

Wu (1993) demonstrated that teacher questioning cannot always be used to elicit responses successfully from L2 students because of insufficient wait time, or because the question posed is unclear to the students. Therefore, the microdesign of the framework focused on questioning techniques for facilitating the elicitation of sophisticated utterances and a large quantity of student output.

Wait time. Most studies distinguish between postquestion and postresponse wait time. According to Rowe's (1980) operational definition, postquestion wait time is the time between a teachers' question and a student's response, and postresponse wait time is the time between a student's response and another student's response or the teacher's resumption of speech. Postquestion wait time enables students to form an answer and respond, and postresponse wait time enables other students to reflect on the ideas contributed or present their own opinions. Higher-order thinking is more cognitively challenging than is lower-order thinking; therefore, the wait time demand for processing information by using higher-order thinking is higher than that of lower-order thinking.

Several studies of L1 and L2 classrooms (e.g., Godfrey, 2001) have reported that increased wait time is associated with higher-order questions. Tobin (1987) claimed that the extended wait time facilitates the learning of higher cognition by providing teachers and students with additional time to think. By contrast, Tan (2007) indicated that when wait time is insufficient, L2 students hardly engage in conversation, or they fail to provide a response to the question. Therefore, to encourage high cognitive responses, adequate wait time is essential.

Having considered the value of wait time for cognitive development and student interaction, I incorporated a minimum 10 seconds for postquestion and postresponse wait time in the framework design. However, the wait time provided should be flexible. The exact wait time required also depends on the classroom culture and the extent to which students are familiar with performing high cognitive thinking and can fluently use the L2 to express their ideas. Researchers have suggested that students who are unfamiliar with higher-order thinking or possess low speaking proficiency require a longer wait time, however, there is also evidence to suggest that the amount of wait time required reduces as students' higher-order thinking skills and speaking proficiency improve. Therefore, teachers can adjust wait time according to the situation.

Question refinement. Question refinement is used when students do not understand the question posed. This strategy provides students another opportunity to comprehend the question and, thus, provides additional opportunities to speak. Question refinement is divided into several categories, including repetition, paraphrasing, and simplification. Repetition involves repeating a question without replacing any words. Paraphrasing refers to the process of expressing a question in another manner by changing or simplifying the wording. Simplification is used when a question is too complex to answer in one step; simplification often involves dividing a question into simpler questions and answering each one separately. According to Wu (1993), simplification is the most effective of these strategies assisting L2 students in responding to questions which they consider complicated and difficult to answer.

Probing. Probing is a questioning strategy that teachers use to scaffold or mediate students' thinking, which facilitates the elicitation of student responses. Probing refers to the process by which a question is followed up by one or more supplementary questions that enable the teacher to elicit additional responses from a student. For example, when a teacher poses the question "Do you think this is a good movie?" and the student replies with the answer "Yes," a probing question can follow, such as, "Why do you think it is a good movie?" or "Can you give me some reasons?"

Using higher-order questions alone might not guarantee responses involving explanations or logically reasoned evidence; therefore, probing can be used to resolve this problem. Probing has two primary functions. One is to enable

the teacher to search for the reasoning underlying the student's response. In Wu's (1993) study of L2 classroom interaction and teacher questions, students' responses were generally restricted, regardless of the types of question that elicited them. However, it was discovered that when the teacher probed for students' reasons, students produced longer and syntactically more complex answers compared with their original answers. The other function of probing is to assist teachers in expanding students' ideas. Students occasionally produce ideas that are worth further exploration. Smith and Higgins (2006) state that when students present ideas and a teacher does not facilitate the expansion of those ideas, or analyse the reasoning behind the ideas, a shared and coconstructed sense of the meaning is lost, even if the question is open or higher-order question. By contrast, teachers can expand students' ideas by using the probing strategy to provide students with increased opportunities to elaborate their ideas and beliefs, which are valued. Gall (1970) suggested that follow-up questioning of the student's initial response substantially influence student learning. Therefore, probing is essential to the framework design. Probing questions should be mainly higher-order questions, but occasionally lower-order questions can also be applied.

III.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The innovative framework discussed in this paper draws on previous research to develop a three-stage strategy for the promotion of L2 students' cognitive performance and their L2 speaking proficiency. The framework is intended to provide educators with a clear model for learners to respond to and produce higher-order questions while providing educators with a clear pedagogic tool to lead students towards understanding and then achieving higher-order language skills.

From a social constructionist perspective, the L2 language plays the following roles in this framework. First, language is used initially as a means of communication between teachers and students and among students. Second, language is considered as a psychological tool, or a tool for thought. Third, in a second-language classroom, language is the target of learning. Therefore, the target language functions as a communication tool, a medium for cognitive activity, and the learning objective.

A.   Components of the Framework

The metadesign of the framework for integrating higher-order thinking into L2 speaking consists of three main parts: teacher questioning, group discussion, and student question generation. Teacher questioning, the first part, contains the following elements: teacher modelling and questioning strategies (i.e., wait time, question refinement, and probing). Teacher questioning is used in a teacher-led setting to model the tasks used in group discussion. Modeling is an essential part of the implementation of the tasks and is used to demonstrate to the students useful methods for using language and methods for answering higher-order questions, and equip students with the communicative skills required in group discussion, such as commenting on and agreeing or disagreeing with other students' opinions. Smith and Higgins (2006) indicated that facilitating classroom interaction required increased emphasis on the manner in which teachers react to students' contributions to questions. Therefore, to promote classroom and group interaction, the use of communicative skills is essential. However, numerous communicative activities have focused on facilitating student speech, rather than on providing students with the means to interact. Researchers have argued that a communicative context cannot be created without the means to interact, even if group discussion is conducted. Therefore, this framework includes teacher modeling for facilitating student interaction. Group discussion, the second part of the framework, is used to create a social context for learning, and is a method for decentralizing classroom communication to encourage students to participate in interaction. Group discussion also provides a low-stress environment to reduce the anxiety students feel when using the target language and to facilitate higher-order thinking. In group discussion, thinking tasks containing higher-order questions are conducted. Students can apply the interaction skills learned in the teacher-led setting to use their higher cognition proactively to solve problems, express their opinions on various topics, and comment on others' opinions. The third part of the framework is student question generation, in which students are equipped with question generation skills to engage them to probe for necessary information in group discussions. Teaching approaches that encourage thinking promote the scaffolding of students' thinking, rather than a directive role for the teacher.

B.   Explanation of the Framework

Part I: Teacher questioning. The framework for integrating higher-order thinking into L2 speaking, as shown in Fig. 1, is based on the concept of using questions to incorporate higher-order thinking. Teacher questioning is applied at this modeling stage. The teacher first poses a higher-order question, followed by a minimum 10-s postquestion wait time to enable learners to understand the question, form an idea, and determine the answer; the teacher allows at least 10 seconds wait time for the student to answer before restating or redirecting the question. Three possible types of response can occur after the wait time: a non-response, a restricted response, or an elaborated response. Nonresponse means that the student provides no answer. A restricted response is a response that answers the question but consists of a very short utterance and lacks sufficient explanation or logically reasoned evidence. An elaborated response refers to a response consisting of an explanation or logically reasoned evidence, and involves a longer utterance and higher cognition than does a restricted response. An elaborated response corresponds to the thinking levels of analysis, synthesis, and evaluation in Bloom's (1956) taxonomy.

After posing a higher-order question, an elaborated response (S1 A response) might occur directly, with the student providing a response comprising an explanation and logically reasoned evidence. However, if a restricted response (S1 B response) occurs, the teacher must use probing by asking an additional question to search for possible reasons to provide the learner with another opportunity to speak and to guide the learner to provide more specific details than those presented in the original response. After probing, wait time is required. After probing and wait time, the learner might be able to produce an elaborated response, or might fail to produce one. However, the literature indicates that learners are more likely to produce a more sophisticated response when the probing strategy is used. It is also possible that non-response can occur after posing a higher-order question. If the students do not respond to the question, the teacher can refine the question posed by repeating, paraphrasing, and simplifying the question. Then the wait-time is provided to allow students to think about the question and figure out the answer. If the student is unable to answer the refined question, then the teacher might ask another question. The teacher can also redirect the question to the class to elicit a response, which can help the student learn by demonstrating how to answer that question.

After an S1 A response is elicited, the teacher can perform two possible actions. One possible action is that using probing and wait time to expand upon the student's ideas, thereby allowing the student to elaborate on the information or ideas (S1 C response). The other possible action is commenting on S1 A response and providing a 10-s postresponse wait time to allow the other students to model and reflect on the previous response, or elaborate on their opinions and ideas (S2 response). Another student can then reflect on the previous responses or provide new opinions and ideas (S3 response). The procedure from S1 A response to S1 C response to S2 response to S3 response creates the "interaction space" among students, thereby enabling the students to communicate freely and challenge each other's ideas. Within this interaction space, sociocognitive conflicts might occur, which can prompt students to think critically and reconstruct their knowledge.

Part II: Group discussion. After modeling the discussion skills, students subsequently engage in the second part of the framework, the group discussion. Students model the interaction pattern in group discussions by providing their own opinions, commenting on others' thoughts, or probing for further information (the students' probing techniques at this stage might not be fully cultivated and this skill is trained at the following stage). The discussion is interactive, which facilitates the use of more elaborated utterances and higher-order thinking. At this stage, the teacher acts as a facilitator and scaffolds the discussion in groups. Wait-time is applied by students in group discussions; they should allow at least 10-s wait time for other students to respond to the question before restating or redirecting the question. Yet, students who respond to the question or comment are not confined to the wait-time required since it can restrain students' speed of thinking; students can elaborate as soon as they figure out the answer to the question or responses to other students' comments in group discussion under the specific condition that they do not interrupt others.
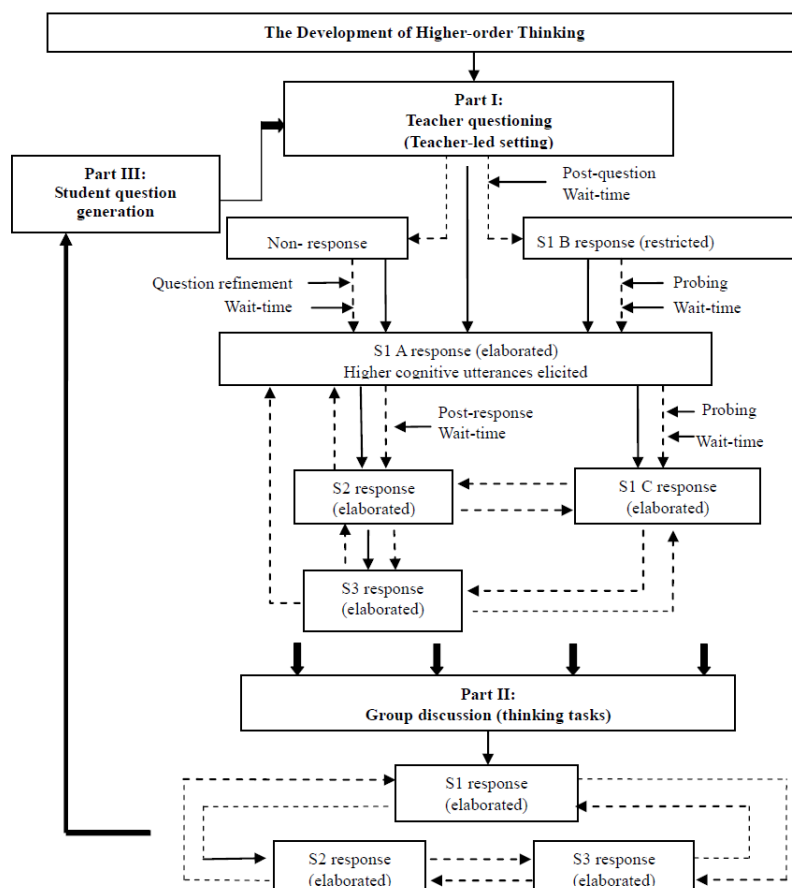
Figure 1.   Theoretical framework for integrating higher-order thinking into L2 speaking

Part III: Student question generation. As students gradually develop their higher-order thinking, L2 speaking, and discussion skills by socially engaging in discussions, they can begin to practice question generation. Teachers can provide the students with several selected practice passages and instruct the students to apply the question stems (Morgan & Saxton, 1994) to generate questions. Students can ask for clarification using lower-order questions and most importantly, probe for the related information such as the reason underpinning a statement or the solution to a problem using higher-order questions. The appropriateness of the question generated can be justified and refined in a teacher-led setting, thus enhancing students' probing strategies and the skill of question refinement. Students are then encouraged to implement the skill and strategies when conducting Part I and Part II of the framework.

IV.   VALIDATION

Part I and Part II of the framework was validated in first-year university-level English classes in Taiwan by conducting a twelve-week intervention while Part III is an ongoing research. This intervention aiming to foster the speaking and higher cognition of L2 students included thinking tasks designed with higher-order questions in two steps: Part I (teacher questioning in a teacher-led setting) and Part II (group discussion) of the framework. Two classes of non-English majors were recruited with one class receiving the intervention and the other as a comparison class. Thinking tasks were designed based on the textbook content. Four types of thinking tasks were developed and used in this study, including *5Ws* (Butterworth & O'Conner, 2005), *Odd One Out* (Leat, 1998), *Make-Up-A-Story*, and *Guess What I Say*. Each type of task provided opportunities to exercise particular higher cognition and was developed for three different topics, totaling 12 tasks in which links to related sentence patterns and vocabulary were provided (for an example of the thinking tasks, see Appendix A). Students' group discussion data were collected to explore the effect of the intervention on L2 speaking and thinking performance. Students' thinking performance was analyzed based on an adaptation of the classification systems of Ayaduray and Jacobs (1997), King (1990), and Webb (1989) while L2 speaking proficiency was evaluated using the public version of IELTS speaking-band descriptors. The result show strong evidence that thinking tasks conducted with Part I and Part II of the framework exert statistically significant positive effects on L2 speaking proficiency and higher-order thinking performance and the effects are long-lasting (Chen, 2015).

Based on the intervention, some pedagogical implications and suggestions for adjusting and using the framework are provided:

Pedagogical Implications of the Framework

1) Students who are accustomed to a passive learning style, such as the grammar-translation method, can be taught to use higher-order thinking proactively in L2 classrooms; furthermore, students are able to apply the discussion skills learned in a teacher-led setting to group discussion, where higher-order thinking is proactively conducted.

2) To design cognitively challenging tasks, students' familiarity with the topic is essential.

3) Thinking tasks can be both linguistically demanding and manageable to students. Therefore, to ensure the accessibility of language use, links for assisting students in identifying related sentence patterns and vocabulary should be provided. This can further assist students in elaborating their ideas.

Suggestions for Implementation of the Framework

1) A wait time longer than the 10-s wait time suggested in the framework at the beginning of the instruction might be required, particularly if the students are not familiar with performing higher cognition tasks in English. However, the wait time decreases as students become more familiar with expressing their thoughts in English.

2) Students must be encouraged to elaborate on their opinions. If students are not able to use complete sentences, phrases or segmented sentences can be accepted. During the discussion, the focus is mainly on meaning expression, rather than on form. Regarding expression using segmented sentences, the teacher and students can work together at the end of the lesson to compose a correct or more accurate sentence to convey the idea expressed. This reduces the stress and motivates students to speak.

3) At the beginning of instruction, if few students volunteer to answer the questions, the teacher can select students to answer. After increasing students' confidence in expressing their opinions, students begin to actively respond to the questions.

4) Teachers are not encouraged to use numerous higher-order questions within a given period, (e.g., in one lesson), because as the number of higher-order questions increases, interaction among students decreases.

5) Teachers and students must avoid interrupting others to maintain the space for thinking.

6) Before teaching question generation, students are not restrained from using questions to probe for necessary information in group discussion.

V. CONCLUSION

The value of higher-order thinking has been emphasized by educators and researchers, and is also reflected in L2 education. One method for engaging students in thinking is to conduct higher-order questioning. However, questioning behavior itself possesses several disadvantages for learning. Without addressing these concerns, researchers cannot determine the exact benefits of higher-order questioning. Therefore, a questioning framework that overcomes the disadvantages of questioning behavior and fosters higher-order thinking is required.

Based on a review of the literature, this paper presents a theoretical framework for incorporating higher-order thinking into L2 speaking. The metadesign of the framework consisted of three main parts: teacher questioning, group discussion, and student question generation. The microdesign focused on questioning techniques (i.e., wait time, question refinement, and probing). Teacher modeling conducted at the teacher questioning stage was the most essential because students learn to conduct higher-order thinking and acquired the skills necessary for discussion. Group work involving thinking tasks was applied to create a social context for learning and provide students with a low-stress environment to enable them to conduct higher cognition proactively, and thereby allow them to control the topic and dominate the conversation. Student question generation, the third part of the framework, provided opportunities for students to foster their higher cognition and learn the skills for probing for further information.

Validation of Part I and Part II of the framework was conducted in university-level first-year English classes while Part III of the framework is an ongoing research. The result showed that using thinking tasks conducted with Part I and Part II of the framework was effective in fostering students' L2 speaking proficiency and thinking performance. A number of pedagogical implications and suggestions for implementing this framework were provided, which can enhance the benefits of the framework. Finally, the framework, arguably, can be applied to all levels of L2 learning; teachers can adjust the complexity of questions or probing techniques according to student level. Also, it can be used not only in L2 learning but also other subject fields like Chinese or math, which helps develop student speaking ability and cognition.

APPENDIX.   AN EXAMPLE OF A THINKING TASK

Topic: What are the most crucial criteria for choosing an ideal mate?
Task type: 5Ws
Higher-order thinking: Evaluation, analysis
Task: Think about 3 most important criteria for you when choosing an ideal mate. You might have different opinions from other group members. You are required to persuade others of your opinions with reasons, evidence and examples and to reach an agreement with 3 criteria in your group.
The following are some criteria that can be used when looking for an ideal mate.
- appearance: good looking, handsome, beautiful
- characteristics: considerate, responsible, respectful, hardworking , understanding, funny, high EQ

- education: high education with a master or phd degree
- family background: rich, poor, big family, small family
- occupation: lawyer, doctor, engineer, etc
- hobbies: mountain climbing, travelling, etc.
- health condition: healthy, sick
- financial status: poor, rich, in debt, out of debt, etc.
- soulmate
- nationality: Taiwanese, Japanese, etc.
- others

Appearance	Characteristics	High education	Family background	Occupation
hobbies	Health condition	Financial status	soulmate	Nationality

Sentence patterns:

1. <u>Appearance</u>, <u>characteristics</u>, and <u>occupation</u> are the three most important criteria for me when choosing an ideal mate.

2. My partner must be <u>handsome</u> because …

3. My partner should be <u>considerate</u>. He needs to be able to ….

4. I agree with you, but…..

5. I agree/disagree with you because ….

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The Effectiveness of Role Play Strategy in Teaching Vocabulary

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Abstract—**Vocabulary is a key element of students' understanding and communicative ability in any language. However Saudi students of English are observed to face many difficulties with vocabulary, which have been attributed to the widespread use of traditional methods focusing on memorization and rote learning. Role-play potentially offers an enjoyable way to encourage students to use vocabulary appropriately in simulated authentic situations. In a quasi-experimental study in a girls' secondary school in Al-Madinah, pre and post-test comparisons were made of vocabulary test achievement between two first year classes. One (experimented) taught two units of their English course book through role play, the other (control) taught by traditional methods. T –test revealed no significant difference in vocabulary proficiency in the pre-test; however, in the post-test, the mean score of the experimental group was significantly higher than that of the control. The evidence supports the beneficial effect of incorporating role-play in EFL teaching.**

Index Terms—**vocabulary, role-play, EFL, teaching methods, communicative approach**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is considered the key element of students' understanding and successful communication with other people whether in L1 or L2. No comprehension is possible, either in one's native language or in a foreign language, without understanding vocabulary (Laufer, 1997). Learning vocabulary is very important in EFL, but knowing vocabulary is not enough; what matters is using it in various situational contexts (Lajooee & Barimani, 2013). Therefore, teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) in Saudi Arabia try to familiarize students with words and their meanings, derivational patterns, grammatical and social usage, through using various strategies, activities, and drills to enable them to use vocabulary appropriately and effectively in real situations.

Role-play is a well-known strategy that helps students to familiarize themselves with new social environments. Shankar, Piryani, Singh, and Karki indicate that "Role plays early in the course can expose students to different situations they are likely to face in their future career" (Shankar et al, 2012). Moreover, role plays are considered as simulating more authentic situations for EFL learners. The results of a descriptive study done by Sadeghi & Sharifi (2013) showed by comparing different pre- and post-teaching activities, that participants had higher vocabulary achievement in the role play activities.

According to the above overview of role-play and vocabulary learning, the current study focuses on the role play technique in teaching vocabulary to Saudi female students in secondary school.

Statement of Problem

Unfortunately, teachers in Saudi schools often use the same old strategies and activities for learning vocabulary, relying heavily on memorization and rote learning, which makes students feel bored. The learning process requires some change and variation from time to time, because too much repetition and structure make it much harder for students to engage and practise new language vocabulary activities. Anuthama (2010) states, "Vocabulary is difficult to teach because of the complexity of its linguistic, semantic and psycho-cognitive aspects. So teachers should keep looking for ways to substitute rote repetition with more effective techniques" (Anuthama, 2010, p.10).

In learning vocabulary, the most popular technique among Saudi learners is by using the dictionary. Alabsi (2015) found most Saudi learners use iPad for translation of vocabulary, rather than other aspects of the language. Also Alhammad (2009) found that the most frequently used strategies in learning vocabulary among Saudi students were guessing from context, writing the meaning of new words, and looking up the meaning in a dictionary" (Alhammad, 2009). However, current levels of proficiency among students suggest these methods are not sufficient.

The researcher's experience and the results of an exploratory study suggest that some of the difficulties facing Saudi EFL students are vocabulary limitations so extreme as to prevent effective conversation and comprehension, misapplication of words, incorrect pronunciation of new words, rephrasing words because of limited vocabulary and frequent hesitation.

For this reason, the present study aims to investigate the effect of role play to enhance and enrich vocabulary teaching in order to enable learners to use the foreign language effectively in real situations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This study seeks to answer the following main question:-

What is the effect of using role-play strategy on enhancing vocabulary among female secondary school EFL students'?

On the basis of this research question, the following null hypotheses are formulated:

1. "There is no significant difference in the average mean score on the vocabulary achievement test between learners who will be taught by using a role-play strategy (experimental group) and those who will be taught without a role-play strategy (control group) in the pretest."

2. "There is no significant difference in the average mean score on the vocabulary achievement test between learners taught by using a role-play strategy (experimental group) and those taught without a role-play strategy (control group) in the posttest."

The research significance

The current study is significant for the following reasons:-

1. It might provide EFL teachers with solutions for developing vocabulary effectively and may attract them to practise role play strategy in the classroom.

2. It may benefit and help learners use role play to master and enrich vocabulary.

3. It may help students to overcome problems they face in acquiring and conveying meaning of vocabulary though communication.

4. With specific reference to current attempts to improve EFL vocabulary learning and teaching in Saudi Arabia, it might contribute suggestions for course designers, and curriculum developers for using role-play in Saudi schools.

5. It might open up new vistas for researchers for further studies in the field of learning vocabulary using role-play in the classroom as it puts theory into practice.

Research Delimitation

This study was conducted in a girls' secondary school which is located in Al-Madinah, Saudi Arabia, in the first term of 2015. The participants in this study were using the "Flying High for Saudi Arabia" textbook, including units 2 and 3. The study was delimited to the use of role-play strategy in teaching vocabulary to 40 female first year secondary school EFL students who were at the first level of secondary school English proficiency, with an average age of 15 to 16 years old. Their mother tongue was Arabic.

Terminology

Vocabulary

The term vocabulary has a range of meanings. For example, some teachers use the term to mean sight-word vocabularies, referring to students' immediate recognition of words in print; other teachers refer to words students understand as their meaning vocabulary. Still other teachers use the term to mean listening vocabulary, or students' understanding of words that they hear in the spoken language. Content teachers use the term academic vocabulary to refer to content-specific words (Snow, Griffin & Burns, 2005). Within this research, the term vocabulary has been used to refer to students' understanding of and ability to use words through role-play strategy.

Vocabulary Learning Strategy

It refers to " any set of techniques or learning behaviours, which language learners use to understand the meaning of a new word, to restore the knowledge of newly learned words, and to expand one's knowledge, of vocabulary" (Intaraprasert, 2004, p. 53. Cameron (2001) describes vocabulary learning strategies as "the actions that learners take to help themselves understand and remember vocabulary items" (p. 92).

Role-play Strategy

According to the Oxford Dictionary (2015) role play is acting out of the part of a particular person or character, for example as a technique in training or psychotherapy. Role-play is a strategy in which students are required to act specific roles through saying, doing and sharing (Altun, 2015).

In relation to the research purpose, role play is used to encourage students to make connections between vocabulary, experiences and the content that is being studied. The students are introduced to new vocabulary and then given the chance to use the words in context through role- play. The process of role- playing the words helps to increase the students' understanding of the words and how to use the words in a real world context.

Related Studies

This section is allocated to review the literature related to vocabulary learning strategies, and role-play as an effective strategy for learning vocabulary.

English has become an international and communicative language, with the increase in communication technology in the world generally. Vocabulary is considered the key element for communication and plays a vital role in English language learning. In learning vocabulary, it is necessary not only to know the meaning of a particular word, but to know all the aspects of the word. This calls attention to process in which information is obtained, stored, retrieved, and used.

The use of role-play activities develops communication skills and students are encouraged to master and enrich vocabulary learning through conversational activities. Students find difficulty in learning English language vocabulary because of vocabulary limitations, misuse of words, use of wrong words, inappropriate terms, or poor pronunciation (Afdillah, 2015). Using role-play can enhance students' exposure to language, which is considered as the key factor to speed up the language learning process. Students via producing speech in role-play activities can enhance their

communicative competence (ibid). Moreover, conduct of role-play activities can provide a stress free learning environment where students enjoy using the language.

The learning of vocabulary is important because of the relationship between vocabulary and overall learning development. A number of studies have shown that vocabulary size in bilinguals is a strong predictor for success in the future because they have access to and participate in communication events in two language communities (Fernandez et al. 1992, Umbel, 1992 and Allman, 2005).

Sadeghi & Sharifi (2013) investigate the effect of four post-teaching activities, namely games, narrative writing, role-play, and speaking tasks on vocabulary gain of 111 elementary Iranian EFL learners across gender. The results show statistically significant main effects for vocabulary learning across different activity types, with role-play leading to the highest vocabulary compared to other strategies. Moreover, the impact was more significant for female than male learners.

Nair, Yusof, & Arumugam (2014) studied the effects of using the role-play method and the conventional method to teach the Malay Language to preschool children. The sample was 100 pupils from government preschools. The experimental group was taught using the play method and the control group was taught using the conventional method for a period of six weeks. The findings indicate that the utilization of the role-play method significantly enhances the mastery of vocabulary and interest in learning the Malay Language among the pupils.

Toumpaniari, Loyens, Mavilidi, & Paas (2015) investigated whether incorporating physical activities and gestures could improve foreign language vocabulary learning in preschool children. The results after a 4-week intervention programme showed that learning by embodying words through task-relevant gestures and physical activities holds great promise as an enhancer of children's learning.

Altun (2015) conducted a case study on the implementation of role-play activities to explore the benefits of such activities in developing language. It was found that conduct of role-play activities can provide a stress free learning environment where students enjoy using the language. Findings show that role-play activities enable students to gain self-confidence enhance, motivation and promote the speaking skills of foreign language learners.

Reasons for choosing role-play strategy

There are several broad reasons for using role play as a teaching strategy for learning vocabulary. It is a major strategy in the communicative approach and has many advantages, as it can encourage forms of social interaction that provide an important stimulus to use the language in real life and challenge learners' existing beliefs. Also it is suggested by many researchers that effective learning takes place when teachers challenge students with problems and facilitate the process of finding the solution (Vincent & Shepherd, 1998; Piaget. 1972). Most importantly, role play engages learners in activities that bring realism to their learning and help them to apply it in real situations. Vocabulary should be learned in such a way that learners will be able to communicate effectively, successfully and appropriately. Students should capable to recall vocabulary easily, recognizing how to use and when to use the appropriate words. Al-Jabri (2005) indicates that "learners of English have often faced communication barriers in various situations which require control over a large variety of vocabulary items rather than a narrow range of syntactic structures" (p.1)

Role play can be used as a means of achieving a wide variety of outcomes, such as the acquisition of knowledge, application of knowledge to develop further understanding and skills, and attitudinal change. It is a particularly useful strategy in learning vocabulary, where learners are required to increase their knowledge of vocabulary and understanding by reading, researching, selecting and organizing relevant materials, analysing and synthesizing information, and discussing/arguing/debating different issues.

Learning in a relaxed and playful environment lets learners know it is safe to play around with what they are learning, and use their vocabulary in a real situation and in new creative ways. Afdillah (2015) indicates, "Many students will be more creative and active to play their role because the teacher gives opportunities to students to explore their actions" (p.20). Also, according to Ladousse, "Perhaps the most important reason for using Role Play is that it is fun" (2004, p.29). Role-play gives students the chance to practise the language in real life situations in an interesting and fun way and at the same time stimulates unmotivated students to share and use the language when they play their roles in front of the class.

Advantages of using role-play

Role-play strategies have proven their effectiveness in teaching English to learners, as role-play can increase students' enthusiasm, self-confidence, and empathy, and encourage critical thinking. Role-play is a teaching strategy that models vocabulary learning in a cost-effective, controlled, and fun way for both students and teachers (Kuipers & Clemens, 1998; Huang and Shan, 2008; Altun, 2015).

Aliakbari and Jamalvandi (2010) indicate that by using role play, L2 learners can experience many kinds of real situations in which they will use the language and words; and as they develop a sense of mastery in them, they should be able to apply the language more easily to new situations. Acting out a situation encourages the students to use the natural expressions and intonations of native speakers as well as gestures. Teaching of social skills increases motivation, develops creativity, promotes interaction, encourages peer learning and helps learners to communicate more freely. According to Sasaki (1998), role plays are regarded as simulating more authentic situations. Incorporating role-play into the classroom adds variety, a change of pace and opportunities for a lot of language production and also a lot of fun.

Procedures of using role-play

Liu & Ding (2009) explain the procedures of role-play as an effective technique for teaching and learning a language. They focus on how to apply role-play successfully, what are the procedures, what teachers will do if the situation is "out of control", and how the teacher should respond to the errors made by students. They identify four vital factors for role-play success: the topic chosen should be real and relevant; the teachers need to 'feed-in' the appropriate language; they should correct errors in a proper way; and teachers' roles are as facilitator, spectator or participant. Afdillah (2015) indicates some steps for good use of role play: first, arrange or prepare scenarios to be performed by the students, choose some students to learn about the scenario several days before, classify students into groups of five, explain competence to be achieved, request a group to play the prepared scenario, while students in other groups observe, end performance, each student is given work sheet for discussion of the performance, every group gives a conclusion about scenario performed, the teacher gives a general conclusion, evaluation, and closing (p. 25).

For the current study the instructor used the following Steps and Procedures

The experimental group was taught vocabulary by using the following:

I. warm-up activities: (flash cards, story, watching movie, real objective ...etc)

II. role play:

1. preparation content: context/background information.(voc, functions, instructions, time alter, task).

2. activity participation: (interaction, observation, counselor).

3. evaluation content:(follow-up tasks multi-choice questions- fill in the gap, discussion, communicative competence, delay error correction).

Moreover, the study used supplementary materials such as; cue dialogue: examples (visual clues, verbal clues, allowing students' own phrasing, cue cards, naming of situation and people involved, giving clear instruction as to what should be said.

To sum up, previous studies support the idea of using role-play in learning language (Toumpaniari et al, 2015; Ernandez et al, 1992; Umbel, 1992; and Allman: 2005). All research asserted the importance of role-play strategies and some considered it as the best strategy for learning language (Sadeghi & Sharifi: 2013, Nair et al., 2014). It is clear from the studies that using role-play has various advantages and benefits as indicated by Afdillah (2015); Kuipers & Clemens (1998); Huang and Shan (2008), Altun (2015); Vincent & Shepherd (1998); Piaget (1972); Aliakbari and Jamalvandi (2010); and Sasaki (1998). In addition some studies examine the best procedures of using role-play, such as Liu & Ding (2009), and Afdillah (2015). It is hoped that the present study will help to increase and improve students' learning vocabulary through using role-play in their learning process.

II. THE METHODOLOGY

The current research uses a quasi-experimental method by using a "pre-test and post-test" design. It aims to see whether the role play technique is effective in teaching vocabulary to first year secondary school students. There were two classes in this research, namely, the experimental class and control class. This research was conducted over eight meetings. Each meeting was conducted with a lesson plan specifically designed by the researcher based on the existing curriculum, "Flying High". Farhady (1995) illustrates the design of this kind of research as follows:

Figure 1 Research Design Method

Sampling

The sample of the study is EFL students at a secondary school in Al-Madinah, West Saudi Arabia. There are six classes in the first year. The researcher took two classes for sampling; class 1 for the experimental group and class 2 for the control group. Each class contained 20 students. Thus, the total populations from the two classes were 40 EFL female students who were in the first year of secondary school with an average age of 15 to 16 years old. Their mother tongue was Arabic, and they had been learning English for 4 years**.**

Materials and procedures used in the treatment

In teaching vocabulary through role play, the materials applied for the experimental group were cards containing roles to be practised in the class (see Appendix). The participants in the control group did not experience working with role play cards. Instead, they were given materials based on the traditional method of teaching a foreign language. The researcher asked the teacher to use the following procedures:-

1 Present a topic based on the selected unit in the first year of secondary textbook.

2 Use warm up activities to introduce the new topic.

3. Present and discuss the new vocabulary by using different techniques such as pictures, realia, and mime, direct questions in order to focus on pronunciation, repetition, and meaning. Then write the new words on the board, to reinforce spelling.

4. Give a scenario to students to perform (designed and arranged by researcher) about the topic discussed earlier in the class. Ask them to deliver meaning in short, simple, transactional and interpersonal conversation to interact with their surroundings, involving the new vocabulary and functions used in the lesson. As examples of speech acts: ask for, give, or refuse a favour, accept and reject things, admit and deny, and ask for and give opinions.

5. Ask students to learn about the scenario several days before performance activity.

6. Divide the class into groups of students, consisting of five or six girls per group.

7. Explain and give instructions to achieve communication competence and timing.

8. Select a group of students and ask them to play the prepared scenario

9. Observe and monitor the scenario being performed

10. Discuss and evaluate each group's performance.

Instrument

The researcher developed an achievement test based on the instructional material of the English book "Flying High". The aim of preparing the test was to achieve the following objectives: (1) measuring the effectiveness of using role-play in enhancing female students' vocabulary competence and accuracy compared to the traditional methods and (2) providing data about the students' vocabulary progress before and after the study. Both groups, the experimental group and the control group, were taught by the same teacher.

The test contained 42 items divided into three main parts which tested vocabulary. Students were asked to choose the correct words to fill in the blanks in conversation; they had to match some words with their meanings; they were also asked to write the spelling of the relevant word under each of a set of pictures (14.14.14 respectively). Each item scored one mark. The final question was a multiple choice question with 8 items. The total score was out of 50 points.

A t-test was conducted at the start of this programme to make sure that there were no significant differences between the control group and the experimental group in their prior knowledge of English vocabulary.

Validity and Reliability

To confirm that the achievement test measures what it is mainly designed to measure, it was evaluated by a panel of experts in educational studies and EFL Specialists. Their recommendations and comments were carefully considered. Test questions were reformed according to their suggestions. Moreover, prior to the main study, a pilot study was conducted, with a group of 20 students who were excluded from the sample, to check the reliability of the pretest and posttests. Cronbach's alpha was calculated for all the questions. The total value for the pretest was (0.80), while the alpha value for the posttest was (0.83), which indicates that the questions were highly reliable.

Data Analysis

Following the implementation of the pretest and post-test, the of scores were calculated and analysed by using the SPSS for Windows version 17. The mean and independent sample t-test were used to compare the mean scores of the two groups.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Regarding the results obtained from the pretest to ensure the equivalence and homogeneity of the two groups of participants in terms of vocabulary performance before starting the treatment, the results are revealed in table 1

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULT OF PRE-TEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre test	Experimental group	20	28.5	8.3	1.86
	Control group	20	27.5	8.1	1.80

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis assumed that "There is no significant difference in the average mean scores of the vocabulary achievement test between learners who will be taught by using a role-play strategy (experimental group) and those who will be taught without a role-play strategy (control group) in the pretest."

The findings show that the mean score of the experimental group was 28.5 with a standard deviation of 8.3, and the mean score of the control group was 27.5 with a standard deviation of 8.3. This indicated that the two groups were alike in vocabulary achievement before conducting the treatment with the role-play strategy. Consequently, the first hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis indicates that "There is no significant difference in the average mean score on the vocabulary achievement test between learners taught by a using role-play strategy (experimental group) and those taught without a role-play strategy (control group) in the posttest."

The results of the analysis of the posttest scores are shown in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RESULT OF POST-TEST

	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Post test	Experimental group	20	36.0	10.2	2.28
	Control group	20	32.6	9.2	2.06

The mean score of the experimental group was 36.6 with a standard deviation of 10.2, while the control group's mean score was 32.6 with a standard deviation of 9.2. Table 3 shows a difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group.

TABLE 3
T-TEST ANALYSIS FOR STUDENTS' ACHIEVEMENT IN THE POST-TEST

	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Posttest	.46	.50	2.25	38	0.03	7.10	3.14

Table 3 proves that there was a significant difference between the results of the control group and the experimental group, as the (t) value was 2.25, which is statistically significant at α < 0.05. This is lower than the set criterion where the hypothesis will be rejected if p≤0.05. Therefore, from Table 3, the second null hypothesis is rejected and the first research question is answered, concluding that there is a significant difference in vocabulary competence between learners taught with role-play and those taught by the traditional method in favour of the experimental group, because its mean is higher than that of the control group. Moreover, Table 3 shows the difference was statistically significant (t= 1.102, p= 0.03). Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The previous statistical analyses achieve the main purpose of the present study which was to investigate the effects of using role-play strategy on secondary school students' vocabulary achievement. The mean value of the experimental group observed (36.0) was greater than the mean for the control group (32.6). This indicates that the experimental group showed a significant advantage over the control group with regard to the scores gained in the post-test. In other words, the results are in favour of using role-play strategy in teaching words. This means that using a role-play strategy in EFL classes is worthwhile, and more effective than using the traditional vocabulary teaching. This finding is consistent with the results of previous studies showing that role-play is an effective strategy for enhancing student vocabulary achievement in specific and in learning English language in general (Toumpaniari, et al., 2015; Ernandez et al.,1992; Umbel, 1992; and Allman, 2005; Sadeghi & Sharifi, 2013; Nair et al., 2014). The reason for the great development in vocabulary achievements of the experimental group is that the role-play strategy is far more pleasant and engaging than the traditional method, which is conducive to highly motivated students and a more creative learning environment (Piaget, 1972; Vincent & Shepherd, 1998; Sasaki, 1998; Clemens,1998; Huang and Shan, 2008; Liu & Ding, 2009; and Aliakbari and Jamalvandi, 2010) and also consistent with most recent studies, such as Altun (2015), Afdillah (2015), and Kuipers & Clemens, (1998).

The main question for the current study asked whether there would be a significant difference between the pre- test and post- test for the control group, taught in the traditional way. Findings showed that there was no significant difference between them. This result revealed that the traditional method was ineffective in teaching vocabulary, which may be because students were bored in learning English vocabulary due to the old teaching method. Therefore, the evidence supports the use of role-play as an effective strategy in teaching, to have the best results in learning.

As mentioned before, this study was designed to empirically investigate the effects of 'Role Play' as a strategy for teaching vocabulary and whether it can increase EFL learners' lexical ability. Adopting this technique and running the procedures for a period of four weeks yielded remarkable outcomes. Moreover, during lessons pupils enjoy learning and the learning experience becomes more pleasant, entertaining, and full of fun. According to the results, the participants in the experimental group achieved better than those in the control group. In other words, through the results derived from the study, role-play, recommended by many experts in the field, was practically shown to be an effective and successful activity school student, to be used in English lessons among Saudi secondary school students.

Based on the results of the study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations:

1. Teachers should apply role-play strategy in teaching vocabulary.

2. EFL learners should be encouraged to use role-play to enhance their vocabulary proficiency.

3. EFL syllabus developers are advised to integrate the use role-play in the English curriculum.

4. Training courses should be provided for EFL teachers to give them practice on the use of role-play strategy in the learning process.

It is recommended to conduct similar studies that investigate the following.

1. Researchers should apply further studies to explore the effect of role-play strategy on other English skills.

2. Students' and teachers' attitudes toward using role-play strategy in learning English lesson could be investigated.

3. The effects of role-play strategy not only on language proficiency but also other variables, such as motivation for learning the target language, should be explored.

4. Further research can be conducted to evaluate existing EFL teachers' training programmes in Saudi Arabia toward using role-play strategy.

APPENDIX. AN EXAMPLE IN A LESSON ABOUT "LEISURE & RECREATION"

Give students cards and through role-play activity students perform and discuss their opinion and use the expressions in the cards to help them.

Card:

I think … I agree. And I think …

I don't agree. In my opinion, … is more relaxing than …

Boringinteresting exciting   dangerous   stressful

Scenario 1

Student 1: I think running is relaxing because when you exercise, you have less stress.

Student 2: I do not agree. In my opinion running can be boring

Student 3: But running is easier than swimming.

Student 4: In my opinion it is good for healthy heart.

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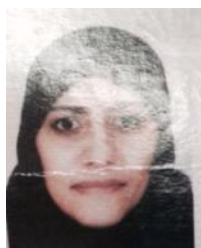
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The Role of Learner-Learner Interaction in the Development of Speaking Skills

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Abstract—**The present study investigated the role of learner-learner interaction in the development of speaking skills of 52 international postgraduate students who enrolled in an intensive English course at the language center at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) after they failed in English Language Placement Test (ELPT) at the point of entry to the university. A quantitative research method was employed to examine the role of learner-learner interaction in the development of speaking skill of the language learners. The speaking skill of the participants was assessed before and immediately after the English course and, questionnaire was distributed among the participants to get a deeper insight about the role of learner-learner interaction in enhancing their speaking skill. The data gained were analysed through SPSS version 16.0 and were presented in the form of descriptive statistics which include percentages. Findings of the study indicated that learner-learner interaction played a significant role in the classroom since students were able to improve their speaking skill in the classroom atmosphere. The analysis also confirmed notable concern over employing learner-learner interaction instructions in the developing of speaking skill. The pedagogical implications of the findings suggested the need to include communicative language teaching materials which help language learners practise language in the hope of improving their speaking abilities through the interactions that take place among language learners in the classroom.**

Index Terms—**learner-learner interaction, speaking skills, communicative language teaching materials**

I. INTRODUCTION

The mastery of speaking skills in language has become a priority for many second or foreign language learners. Consequently, language learners often evaluate their success in language learning as well as the effectiveness of their language course on the basis of how well they feel they have improved in their spoken language proficiency (Richards, 2005). Further, many researchers maintain that speaking is one of the four key and pivotal skills of language that should be developed since the ability to communicate effectively benefits L2 learners by gaining self-confidence and improve performance in the rest of the language skills (MacIntyre, 2007; Trent, 2009). In addition, the significance of mastering speaking skills of the target language arises when the language learners realize the impact it would have on the success of their future careers. Learners realize that they need to practise the target language regularly in the classroom in order to overcome shyness and hesitation (Taous, 2013).

The lack of interaction or the use of the language will negatively affect language learners in their communications. Therefore, language learners should be encouraged to participate in the acute interaction that takes place in the classroom so that they can be fluent and well-versed in spoken language (Mackey, 2007; Zucker, 2005).

It has been shown that for language learners to improve in their speaking skills, practising the language they are learning, in particular engaging in interactions that take place between learners in the classroom environment is important. In this type of interaction, teachers play as observers and facilitators and students are the major participants of the interaction (Tuan & Nhu, 2010). Interaction has stimulated a lot of research in the past in the field of second language acquisition. Long (1981), suggests that it is the interaction which simplifies comprehension and promotes second language acquisition, in particular speaking skills. In fact, the role of learner-learner interaction is of paramount importance as it paves away for learners to improve their language skills in general and speaking skills in particular and, according to Mackey (2007), classroom interaction provided by teachers can be lucrative for improving speaking skills.

In addition, learner-learner interaction can contribute to language development by the provision of interactive target language activities in the classroom that makes language learners use the language they are learning (Taous, 2013). In

this sense, learning a second or a foreign language can be facilitated when language learners are actively involved in interactive communications (Nunan, 1991). If language learners, however, do not practise the language they are studying, they will not be able to be fluent speakers, and therefore, this will affect their future career. Considering this issue, the current study seeks to investigate the role of learner-learner interaction in the development of speaking skills of language learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Importance of Speaking Skills

In the traditional methods of teaching language, the speaking skills had been neglected massively whereas much attention had been paid on writing and reading skills. The Grammar-Translation method is a good example of that claim. In spite of the fact that speaking skill is crucially important for language learners to converse and communicate, much attention has been paid to other elements of language (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In addition, of all the four skills of language, speaking is seen as the most important skill because people who claim to know a language, they intend to claim that they are able to speak the language (Ur, 2000). Further, many language learners give preference to speaking skill since they believe that if they master the speaking skill, they are seen as speakers of the language. Most importantly, the main question that most language learners are asked about is "do you speak English?" not "do you write English?" Therefore, the vast majority of language learners attempt to focus on mastering the speaking skill, as they feel that this will assist them in finding jobs in their future careers. In this regard, Baker and Westrup (2003) argue that learners who can speak English fluently, might have greater chances for employment.

B. Long's (1981) Interaction Hypothesis

Long (1981), formulated the Interaction Hypothesis which forms the basic argument for the conversational interaction in language teaching and learning, in which language learners access to comprehensible input, opportunities for outcome and correction in the form of conversation among one another. According to the Interaction Hypothesis, language learners negotiate in meaning which is the process of engaging in interaction in order for learners to concentrate on form and process of the input they obtain. Thus, the Interaction Hypothesis suggests that interaction between a non-native speaker and a native speaker or among non-native speakers creates acute second/foreign language acquisition environment where learners learn through negotiation of meaning. Furthermore, research has shown that input alone is not as effective as interactional modified input in helping language teaching and learning (Ellis & Fotos, 1999; Gass & Varonis, 1994; Wang & Castro, 2010). Thus, the Interaction Hypothesis plays a central role in learning through conversational interaction on improving language learners' speaking skills.

C. Previous Studies on Learner-learner Interaction

A large body of research has been conducted in the field of second language acquisition to show how second language learning is learned through interaction, in particular learner-learner interaction. These studies have highlighted the important role of learner-learner interaction in the classroom in improving speaking skills of language learners. In one study, Lourdunathan and Menon (2005) investigated how interaction strategy training affects group interaction in which students can develop their speaking skills. Ten groups of students were trained on the use of interaction strategies. The findings showed that training students based on interaction resulted in significant uses of interaction and therefore, they were able to improve their speaking ability through the course of training.

In another study, Cotter (2007) found that through practising the target language in verbal skills when comprehensible input and interaction are available through exchanging information and negotiation for meaning, L2 learners will see language as a tool for social interaction. The study further reaffirmed the notion that language must be used as a tool to gain distinct social aims like explaining how something works, to provide information and to entertain. Hence, learning English language is to improve the capacity to use it efficiently and successfully for some purposes and the ability to talk about the language being used.

In another study, Kouicem (2010) explored the role of interaction that takes place among students in the classroom on developing learners' speaking skills. The study adopted questionnaire among language learners and teachers to establish if interaction in classroom can be helpful in promoting speaking skills of students. The results of the study accentuated that both teachers and learners emphasized that interaction among students in the classroom setting helped learners in enhancing their speaking skills. The study also displayed that teaching based on interaction in the classroom can be the best pedagogical strategy in language development, in particular verbal language development.

Most recently, Luan and Sappathy (2011) investigated the role of negotiated interaction between learners on the ability to retain vocabulary items among a group of students. 48 students participated in the study in one-way input which involved the traditional way of teaching where the teacher used translations and grammar to teach vocabulary. 24 of the participants took part in an interactive task where the students experienced interactive activities. All the 48 students sat for a pretest and three posttests. The results of the study presented that the students who negotiated in the two-way task obtained higher vocabulary scores since negotiated interaction proved to be beneficial for students in retaining vocabulary items. In short, research has generally shown that teaching methods in which interactive activities are involved have greater effect on the development of speaking skills of language learners.

III. METHODOLOGY

To conduct this study, a quantitative research method was adopted as quantitative research is basically about collecting numerical data to explain a particular phenomenon and particular questions seem suitable to be answered quantitatively (Creswell, 2012). Moreover, Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) argue that quantitative method facilitates and enables researchers to obtain a broad understanding of a specific problem and the generalization of the findings can be made.

A. Participants

Participants of the study consisted of 52 international postgraduate students, mainly males, enrolled in an intensive English class at the Language Centre at Universiti Utara Malaysia (UUM) during the time of the study. They were required to join an English course in order for them to develop their speaking skills after they failed in the pretest. The academic program continued for three and a half months in February semester 2013. The participants received 4 hours of speaking instructions class based on communicative language teaching approach at the center on a weekly basis. Furthermore, none of the participants had experienced living in a native English speaking environment. Therefore, they did not have any opportunity to improve their speaking skills before joining the class at the university. Moreover, the selection of the participants for the study was based on voluntary basis and were randomly selected. The participants of the study who were from eight different countries are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS FROM DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

Number	Country	Number of Respondents
1	Iraq	26
2	Yemen	1
3	Somalia	2
4	Algeria	2
5	Indonesia	1
6	Libya	4
7	Saudi Arabia	3
8	Jordan	13

B. Instruments

In order to answer the main research question of the present study, two instruments were used namely; speaking test results of ELPT Test One and Test Two (hereafter referred as pretest and posttest) and a questionnaire were used. Speaking skill results of pretest and posttest were taken to present the development of the learners' speaking skills in the classroom through learner-learner interaction during the course of the instructions at the Language Center. Furthermore, the questionnaire used in the study was adapted from Kouicem (2010) which mainly focuses on interaction in language development. The questionnaire consisted of 6 items, asking the learners to what extent they had improved their speaking skills through learner-learner interaction in the classroom environment. All the items were answered on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from never, rarely, sometimes, usually, to always with values 1 to 5 allocated to them respectively.

C. Procedure

Participants of the current study took a pretest at the point of entry to the university, and they then enrolled in an intensive English speaking skills course for three and a half months. By the end of the course, they were required to take a posttest to assess how they had improved their speaking skills throughout the intensive English course based on interactions that occurred in the classroom environment. Similarly, the questionnaire was distributed among the participants in the end of May 2013 to elicit the participants' perceptions about the role of learner-learner interaction on the development of speaking skills. The questionnaire was distributed in class, and the students were given 24 hours to answer the items of the questionnaire. The questionnaire sheets were collected personally by the next morning in the class for the purpose of data analysis. Prior to data collection, permission was sought from the individuals and the language center. Participants were also assured that the content will be confidential.

D. Data Analysis

Data from the two tests were analyzed statistically in order to show the improvement of the students' speaking skills in the posttest over the pretest. The results of the posttest were used to make a comparison with the pretest to present to what extent the students made a difference in their speaking skills ability through the interaction, especially the learner-learner interaction provided in the classroom. Likewise, the data from the questionnaire were analyzed through (SPSS), version 19. Descriptive statistics was used to find out the mean to make appropriate calculations through the data obtained from the students' responses to link between the items and the variable. Since *always* and *usually* are almost the same degree, they are analyzed together; and *sometimes* and *rarely* almost have the same degree too. Therefore, they are analyzed together. The results attained from both instruments were used to highlight the role of learner-learner interaction on the development of speaking skills.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Results

1. Comparison of Pretest and Posttest

Figure 1 presents the comparison statistics for the performance of students in pretest and posttest. As the prime focus of the study was to show the effectiveness of learner-learner interaction on the development of speaking skills in the classroom setting, the results of speaking skills in pretest and posttest were compared and analyzed through SPSS to determine whether or not students made a difference in their speaking skills in the posttest over the pretest. The findings of the current study revealed that the majority of the students were able to improve their speaking skills after enrolling an intensive English course based on interactive activities in the classroom. Results of the posttest also revealed that there was a significant difference in the performance of students in the posttest over the pretest. Keeping in view that the majority of the students improved their speaking skills in the posttest, it can be inferred that learner-learner interaction plays an important role in improving students' speaking skills.
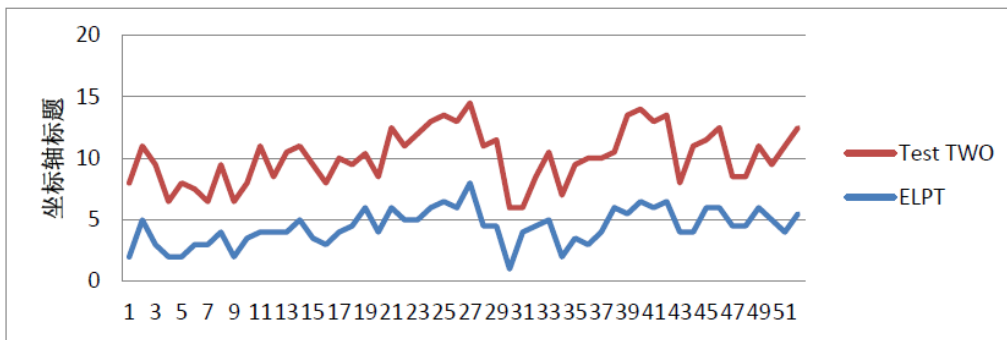
Figure 1. Comparison of Respondents' Test Scores in Pretest and Posttest

2. Questionnaire Results

Figure 2 presents the results of the questionnaire regarding the roles of learner-learner interaction in the development of speaking skills of the students. Results indicate that 77% of the students reported that they always interacted in the classroom in order to develop speaking skills. Findings of the study reveal that 71% of the students claimed that they always had free discussions with one another in the classroom enviornment, whereas 63% of the students reported that they always had repeated interactions during the classroom in which they were able to improve their speaking skills. Similarly, 60% of the students stated that they always engaged in the interactional activities which assisted them to enhance their speaking ability. Likewise, 58% of the students reported that they were able to improve their speaking comptence through learner-learner interaction which took place in the classroom setting; they also believed that their improvement of speaking competence was the result of learner-learner interaction.

Additionally, results of the study present that 43% of students believed that learner-learner interaction was the cause behind improving their speaking skills. Whereas, 40% of the students claimed that they were able to improve their speaking skills through interactional activities that took place during the classes. Further, 38% of learners stated that they were capable of enhancing speaking skills via the regular interactions in which they took part. Similarly, findings indicated that 29% of the students believed that they could advance their speaking ability through the free discussions in the classroom and, whereas only 22% of students reported that they interacted in the target language in the classroom with the other peers. It is also worth mentioning that only 1% of the students claimed that he did not improve his speaking skills through learner-learner interaction. In short, it can be stated that the students generally could improve speaking ability through the interactions happened in the classroom between the peers.
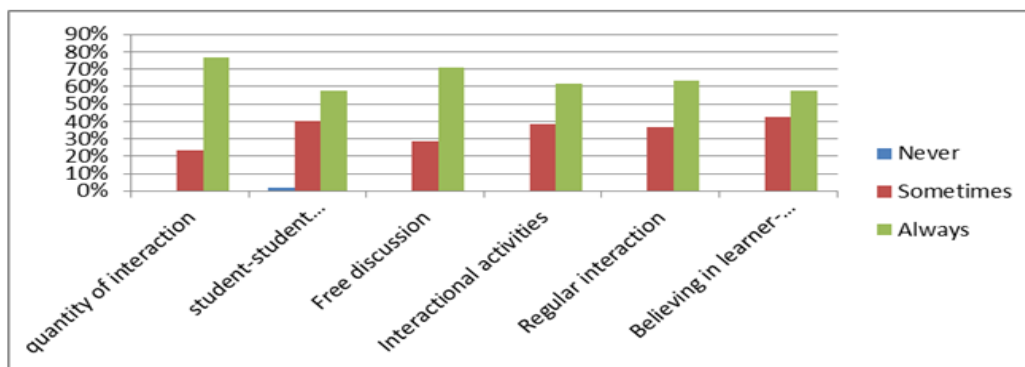
Figure 2. Summary of Response of Students on Roles of Learner-Learner Interaction

B. Discussion

The focus of this current research study was to examine the role of learner-learner interaction in the development of speaking skills of international postgraduate students who attended an intensive English course at Universiti Utara Malaysia. Findings of the study suggested that students tended to improve their speaking skills after participating in the English course for three and a half months. The results of the study revealed that learner-learner interaction had a remarkable effect on enhancing speaking ability of language learners. Additionally, the participants of the study who studied English language based on interactive class activities during the course of study, scored much higher in posttest over the pretest. Findings of the study also indicated that meaningful interaction between students was a significant factor for developing speaking skills.

Through the results of posttest over pretest and questionnaire reported in this study, students interacted in English among themselves and this was a remarkable factor behind their speaking competency development. The resuls also showed that the students supported each other by participating in the interactions that took place inside the classroom. More importantly, the results presented that interactional classroom activities such as free discussions, repeated interactions and presentations assisted them in enhancing their speaking skills throughout the course of the study.

As the analysis demonstrated in this current study, repeated learner-learner interaction played a central role in helping the students promote their ability in speaking the target language more powerfuuly and successfully and aided them in language development. Most interestingly, through the results of the questionnaire, it can be claimed that the students did most of the interactions that took place in the classroom which enabled them develop language competence, in particular speaking skills by the end of the course. Therefore, it is believed that learner-learner interaction has a positive effect and can be said to be the driving force for enhancing speaking skills of the language learners. In short, the results of this research study prove the important role of interaction between the students during the period of the intensive course.

The findings achieved in this study seem to confirm the findings of previous studies which proved the prominent role of learner-learner interaction in the development of oral language development. These findings confirm the findings obtained in the study by Lourdunathan and Menon (2005) who found that students were able to improve their speaking skills through training to use selected interaction strategies which resulted in the development of verbal language skills. These findings are also in line with the findings obtained by Cotter (2007) who found that language learners are able to improve their verbal language ability through practising the target language. The study also showed that if input and interaction are available for language learners in the classroom, language learners will consider language as a tool for social interaction. The findings of this current study are also consistent with the findings obtained by Kouicem (2010) who found that the best way to develop speaking skills of students is to massively motivate them to involve in verbal interactions among the students inside classroom. These findings are also in line with the findings achieved by Luan and Sappathy (2011) who found that learners who negotiated for meaning achieved higher vocabulary scores and negotiated interaction proved to be helpful in enabling students to acquire vcabulary items more effectively.

V. CONCLUSION AND FURTHER RESEARCH

The current study found that international postgraduate students at Universiti Utara Malaysia were able to improve their speaking skills through classroom interaction during the course of the study. This shows that learner-learner interaction plays an important role in enhancing speaking skills of second language learners. The current study also found that the best way to effectively produce language is to encourage students to participate in verbal interaction inside classroom. Additionally, this current study showed that repeated learner-learner interaction in the classroom setting was the best factor to develop students' speaking skills and reduce their mistakes during a conversation. More importantly, this research study confirmed that classroom aided the students to practise the target language through learner-learner interaction.

Hence, it can be concluded that interaction between students in the classroom environment is crucially effective for L2 development, in particular verbal language development. This study also signified that it was learner-learner interaction in the classroom which enhanced the students' speaking skills. As a result, language teachers should take into their consideration that they need to include in their language classes meaningful interactional activities that encourage student participation, which in turn would assist the development of the learners' speaking skills in the classroom. This study has employed a quantitative research method due to limited constraint. Therefore, it is recommended that in order to get a deeper insight into the issue of learner-learner interaction in promoting speaking skills of language learners, adopting a mixed-method should be considered.

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Depiction of Iran's Nuclear Activities through Argumentative Strategies: The Case of the New York Times

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Abstract—**The present research aimed at investigating the ways in which the argumentative strategies of advantage, disadvantage, threat, reality, and history have been applied to portray the issue of Iran's nuclear program, actors, actions and events. To this end, a critical discourse analysis approach mainly based on Wodak's discourse-historical approach was applied to 55 editorials of the New York Times, all dealing exclusively with Iran's nuclear program. The results showed that the differential treatment given to the issue at hand was in line with the advocated policy of the paper to impose more sanctions on Iran to force the country to accept a comprehensive nuclear deal.**

Index Terms—**critical discourse analysis, discourse-historical approach, Iran's nuclear program, New York Times, argumentative strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

Inspired by critical discourse analysis, this study attempts to investigate the ideological portrayal of U.S. policies toward Iran's nuclear program in the editorial section of an American newspaper, the New York Times (hereafter the NYT). The study focuses on whether the argumentative strategies contribute to a biased representation of Iranian nuke activities. Ideology is defined here as 'the mental frameworks, language, concepts, categories, imagery of thought, and systems of representations that different groups use to understand and explain the workings of society' (Hall, 1996, p.2). More significantly, ideologies are considered to function as 'the basis of dominant group's practices which justify, legitimate, or condone particular forms of power relations' (van Dijk, 1991, 2006, 2008).

Studying editorials is especially significant when analyzing the ideological role of news media because editorials are expressions of the broad ideological policies of the newspaper's owners and managers (Bilal et. al, 2012). Unlike news discourse, editorials are conversations among a society's economic and power elites' (Henry & Tator, 2002, p.93). Critical discourse analysis is considered to be a tool for analyzing the ideologies of mass media for identifying social, economic, and historical power relations between dominant and subordinate groups (van Dijk, 1991, 1992, 1993; wodak, 2001; Henry & Tator, 2002; Caldas-Coulthard, 2003; van Leeuwen, 2009). According to Herman and Chomsky (2002), mass media forms people's norms and beliefs based on the social, political, and economic interests dominating the public. Thus, the media manages the public opinion to support the social interests of the leaders and society's dominant ideology. The dominant ideology also tends to compel the rival beliefs, values, and worldviews that challenge the society's worldview (knight & Dean, 1982). According to Wodak (2001), politicians as specific, not homogeneous group of elites, are shapers of specific public opinions that not only reflect anticipation of changes in public opinions, but also articulation of changing interests of specific social groups. So, the relationships between media, politics, and people are very complex. As Wodak (2001) claims, only interdisciplinary research will be able to make such complex relationships more transparent including discourse-historical approach as one form of CDA.

One of the most remarkable issues of the last ten years or so has undeniably been Iran's nuclear program. Different media have given various reporting to and interpretation of it. Alongside the political struggle between Iran and the west, there has been a verbal contention over this concern with some voices trying to account for Iran's nuclear activities and others seeking to represent it as an act of disobedience. A few studies have focused on this issue so far (Izadi & Saghaie-Biria, 2007; Atai & Rezaie, 2009; Jones, 2010; Rasti & Sahragard, 2012; Rashidi & Rasti, 2012; Atai & Mozaheb, 2013). Inspired by discourse-historical approach, this study investigates the argumentative strategies through which the NYT, an American elite newspaper, tires to rationalize the bias against Iran's nuke activities. "Within the argumentation theory, *'topoi'* or *'loci'* can be described as parts of argumentation that belong to the obligatory, either explicit or inferable, premises. According to Keinpointner (1992), they are content-related warrants or 'conclusion rules' that connect the argument or arguments with the conclusion, the claim. As such, they justify the transition from

the argument or arguments to the conclusion" (Reisigl & Wodak, 2001, p.75). Inspired by Wodak's discourse-historical approach and argumentation theory, the following questions are advanced:

1) How are the argumentative strategies (topoi) implemented to portray events, agents, and policies about the Iran's nuclear program?

2) How do the political changes (i.e. American and Iranian presidential elections) influence the application of topoi in representing Iran's nuke activities?

II. POLITICO-HISTORICAL CONTEXT OF IRAN'S NUCLEAR PROGRAM

Iran has had a nuclear program for nearly 50 years beginning with a research reactor purchased from the U.S. in 1959 (Squassoni, 2006, p.1). The country ratified the Non-Proliferation Treaty (NPT) in 1970. The treaty is an attempt to prevent the spread of nuclear weapons and its technology, to promote the peaceful uses of nuclear energy, and to advance the achievement of general and complete disarmament' (International Atomic Energy Agency, 1970).

After the Iranian revolution in 1979, a West German company which had undertaken the accomplishment of Bushehr nuclear plant repudiated the contract, and Iran's attempts to finish the project came to grief (Rasti & Sahragard, 2012, p.733). The eight-year war with Iraq (Iran's western neighbour) just two years after the revolution halted the resumption of nuclear sites.

After the war, an opposition group (the National Council of Resistance of Iran) in August 2002 made known that Iran was practicing 'undeclared nuclear activities' (Squassoni, 2006). George W. Bush aligned Iran with an 'axis of evil' in his 2002 State of the Union address. Ever since Iran's nuclear program has been in the foreground, with the West trying to restrict the country's nuclear capabilities, and Iran insisting time and time again on the peaceful nature of its nuclear activities.

Since 2003, IAEA Board of Governors and the EU-3 (France, Germany and the United Kingdom) undertook diplomatic negotiations with Iran about its nuclear program. On the question of whether Iran had a hidden nuclear weapons program, the IAEA's November (2003, p.10) report states that "it found no evidence that the previously undeclared activities were related to a nuclear weapons program, but also that it was unable to conclude that Iran's nuclear program was exclusively peaceful".

In Nov, 2004, based on 'Paris Agreement', Iran agreed to suspend uranium enrichment in exchange for renewed trade talks (Squassoni, 2006). In August 2005, after the June election of Mahmoud Ahmadinejad as Iran's President, the country removed seals on its uranium enrichment equipment in Isfahan, which UK officials termed a violation of the Paris Agreement. Russia, China, and the U.S. joined the EU-3 and 'P5+1' formed in 2006. They intended to pursue Iran to suspend uranium enrichment through a combination of incentives and economic sanctions (Squassoni, 2006). Afterwards, a set of sanctions were imposed by U.N. Security Council including resolutions 1696, 1737, 1747, 1803, and 1835.

After inauguration of President Obama, the U.S. and it allies announced, in July 2009, the need for constructive proposals by Iran otherwise it would face 'criplling sanctions' (Squassoni, 2006). Afterwards, sanctions and sabotage were employed by international community to impede Iran's nuclear program (Kerr, 2012). According to Katzman (2015), the U.S. has employed covert actions such as Stuxnet computer virus that damaged many Iranian centrifuges as well as the killings of some Iranian nuclear scientists in order to slow down Iran's program.

In February 2010 the Iranian President Mahmoud Ahmadinejad announced that Iran was a nuclear state. IAEA officials confirmed it has enriched uranium 'up to 19.8%' and issued a report scolding Iran "for failing to explain purchases of sensitive technology as well as secret tests of high-precision detonators and modified designs of missile cones to accommodate larger payloads" (IAEA, 2010, p.9). In April 2010, Tehran Declaration was signed by Iran, Brazil, and Turkey by which Iran agreed to send 2,600 pounds of uranium to Turkey in exchange for medically reprocessed uranium (Squassoni, 2006).

In June 2013, Hassan Rouhani won the Iranian presidential election. P5+1 leaders declared that his election improved the possibility for a nuclear settlement (Katzman, 2015). In Nov 2013, the Geneva interim agreement, officially titled the Joint Plan of Action, was signed between Iran and the P5+1 countries. It consisted of a temporary freeze of portions of Iran's nuclear program in replace of decreased economic sanctions on Iran, as the countries were expected to achieve a long-term agreement. It represented the first formal agreement between the United States and Iran in 36 years. On Nov, 2014, the talks have been extended to finalize a comprehensive accord by June 30 (Katzman, 2015).

III. METHOD

The methodology of this research is critical discourse analysis. Both quantitative and qualitative analyses are carried out. The decision is justified by a more in-depth analysis of the relevant data. As such, excerpts of the data are provided with the purpose of thick analysis.

A. Sample

The data for the analysis in this study came from an American newspaper, the New York Times. It is an elite newspaper and among the largest media outlet in the U.S. Moreover, the NYT serves as intermedia for other news sources with regard to the coverage of international issues (Golan, 2006). A collection of 55 editorials published from

January 2010 to April 2015 was selected for the study. They were all on the subject of Iran's nuclear program. The data was accessed through the newspaper's website. The search key words were Iran's nuclear program. The search yielded a total of 259 articles. The focus then was narrowed down to the most relevant articles regarding the time period of 2010-2015 which resulted in a collection of 55 articles.

B. Data Analysis

The data was analyzed based on the argumentative strategies (topoi) of advantage, disadvantage, threat, reality, and history proposed by Reisigl and Wodak (2001). According to topos of advantage or usefulness, "if an action will be useful then one should perform it". This topos is categorized into three subtypes which include 1) to the advantage of all, 2) to the advantage of us, and 3) to the advantage of them (p.75). Based on the topos of uselessness or disadvantage, "if existing situation or rulings do not help to reach the declared aim, they have to be changed" (p.75). Topos of threat or danger states that "if there are specific dangers and threats, one should do something against them" (p.77). Topos of reality can be paraphrased as: "the necessity of an action because the reality is as it is" (p.79). According to topos of history, "one should perform or omit a specific action in specific situation comparable with the historical example referred to". In what follows some notable instances of each topos (i.e. argumentative strategy) are presented accompanied by the discussion of the purposes they serve. The discussion is enlightened by considering the effects of two important political events: 1) American presidential election in 2012 and 2) Iranian presidential election in 2013.

IV. RESULTS

A. Topos of Advantage or Usefulness

The application of topos of advantage (see table I) consisted of two subcategories: first, those that were advantageous to us (U.S. and its allies) representing different means through which U.S. and its allies had tried to achieve their goal, halting Iran nuclear activity. The following extracts are typical of many ways employed by the newspaper to show the decisions made by president Obama like imposing tough sanctions on Iran and his attempts to persuade other countries to cooperate in what was assumed to be useful to us. The main point was achieving the goal through any possible ways such as sanctions, oil embargo, assassination, bombing, and cyber attacks, with no respect to such things as human rights or justice.

Excerpt1

If there is any good news in the I.A.E.A. report, it appears that Iran's enrichment program is not advancing as fast as many feared — the result of the Stuxnet computer virus and sanctions that make it harder for Tehran to import needed materials from overseas. (NYT, June, 12, 2011)

Second subcategory is the one advantageous to them (i.e. Iran) that is engaging in negotiations over its nuclear activities and accepting to stop enriching uranium in order to get free of the imposed sanctions. As it is shown in the excerpts, our advantage (i.e. U.S. and its allies) is supposed to be in direct opposition to their advantage (i.e. Iran) which creates an 'us' versus 'them' ideological dichotomy.

Excerpt 2

Negotiators offered fuel for a medical reactor and aircraft replacement parts if Iran agreed to stop enriching uranium to 20 percent purity — near bomb grade — send its stockpile out of the country for fabrication into fuel rods and shut the underground facility at Fordo where the 20 percent enrichment is taking place. (NYT, June, 21, 2012)

The 'us' vs. 'them' dichotomy was still observable but to a milder degree from 2012 to 2013, since both countries were busy dealing with their presidential elections. With the re-election of president Obama, the same story of imposing international sanctions continued. The key influential event seemed to be the Iranian prospective presidential election which caused mild modifications in American policies toward Iran with the purpose of helping opposition groups in Iran to get around the government to have a better contact with each other and the outside world including America. Although this was presented as an advantage to 'them' (i.e. Iran), it was in fact considered to be more beneficial to 'us'.

Excerpt 3

The talks ground to a halt last June, as the Iranian issue became mired in the American presidential campaign. But now that Mr. Obama has won a second term he seems more willing to join Britain, France, Germany, Russia and China in shaping a deal that is more likely to get Iran to curb its nuclear work. (NYT, March, 1, 2013)

Excerpt 4

The administration has kept up the pressure by tightening sanctions. Once the (Iran) election is over, it also needs to step up diplomatic efforts, testing through intermediaries if there is any willingness by the new president. (NYT, June, 13, 2013)

The dichotomy seemed paler from 2013 to 2014 and was replaced by the advantage to 'public' (i.e. both 'us' and 'them'), although the advantage of 'them' was explicitly shown to be dependent on the advantage of 'us' with the purpose of reaching a permanent agreement with Iran on its nuke activities. Moreover, it was believed that the interim agreement was the result of American imposed sanctions.

Excerpt 5

Layers of sanctions, imposed separately since 2006 by the United Nations Security Council, the United States and Europe, have been largely responsible for moving Iran to the point of serious negotiations…… the proposal on offer seems reasonable for each side. It would freeze major parts of Iran's program for six months and allow some relief on sanctions, including access to about $10 billion in Iran's frozen assets, while a more permanent deal is discussed. (NYT, Nov, 15, 2013)

After the interim agreement of 2013 which was focused on from 2014 to 2015, other useful actions were introduced as well including a) suspending some of the sanctions on Iran, b) extending the diplomatic negotiations between Iran and P5+1, c) bilateral Iran-U.S. talks, and d) preliminary framework agreement. Furthermore, as it came closer to the deadline for negotiations, unity of American officials was regarded as the most useful policy.

Excerpt 6

The preliminary agreement between Iran and the major powers is a significant achievement that makes it more likely Iran will never be a nuclear threat. President Obama said it would "cut off every pathway that Iran could take to develop a nuclear weapon." (NYT, April, 2, 2015)

TABLE I.
DISTRIBUTION OF TOPOS OF ADVANTAGE

Topos of advantage	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
1. imposing tough sanctions on Iran	2 10.52%	4 21.05%	7 36.84%	5 26.31%	1 5.26%	0 0%	19 100%
2. military option against Iran	0 0%	0 0%	1 50%	1 50%	0 0%	0 0%	2 100%
3. cooperation of major powers and world nations with US	1 8.33%	2 16.66%	1 8.33%	2 16.66%	3 25%	3 25%	12 100%
4. campaign of assassination, bombing, and cyber attack	0 0%	0 0%	2 50%	1 25%	1 25%	0 0%	4 100%
5. diplomatic negotiations	0 0%	0 0%	3 7.89%	15 30.94%	10 26.31%	10 26.31%	38 100%
6. incentives proposal to Iran	1 3.70%	1 3.70%	5 19.23%	5 19.23%	6 23.07%	9 30.76%	27 100%
7. interim agreement	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	4 36.36%	7 63.63%	11 100%
8. suspending sanctions on Iran	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	6 50%	6 50%	12 100%
9. transparent nuclear activities of Iran	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 37.5%	2 25%	3 37.5%	8 100%
10. unity of American officials	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 25%	3 37.5%	3 37.5%	8 100%
11. extending talks	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 75%	1 25%	4 100%
12. comprehensive nuclear deal	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	8 44.44%	10 55.55%	18 100%
13. preliminary framework agreement	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	5 100%	5 100%

B. Topos of Disadvantage or Uselessness

As illustrated in table II, topos of disadvantage implemented from 2010 to 2012 revealed the ideological dichotomy of 'us' vs. 'them' but of a different nature. What considered to be useless to 'us' were a) the military option against Iran since it would produce anti-American reflections around the world and result in a delay in Iran nuke activities instead of finalizing it. Moreover, it was believed that military strike could rally Iranians around their government; b) the inadequacy of such countries as China, India, Turkey, and United Arab Emirates since they didn't stop their business affair with Iran, and c) participation of UN and 120 other countries in Nonaligned Movement meeting in Tehran since it gave Iran the propaganda opportunity to defend its nuclear program.

Excerpt 7

the chairman of the Joint Chiefs of Staff told reporters on Sunday that while military "options would cause delay" to Iran's nuclear program, "that doesn't mean the problem is going to go away". (NYT, April, 9, 2010)

Excerpt 8

China has yet to sufficiently crack down on the Chinese firms that still do business with Iran's sanctioned entities. Turkey, India and the United Arab Emirates, a major hub for Iranian commerce, are still too cozy with Tehran. (NYT, June, 13, 2011)

TABLE II.
DISTRIBUTION OF PHOTOS OF DISADVANTAGE

Topos of disadvantage	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
1. imposing tougher sanctions on Iran	2 9.09%	2 9.09%	2 9.09%	8 36.36%	4 18.18%	4 18.18%	22 100%
2. no commitment of such countries as Brazil, Turkey, Russia, and China with sanctions	3 33.33%	4 44.44%	2 22.22%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	9 100%
3. Economic consequences of sanctions to Iran	1 5.88%	3 17.64%	3 17.64%	3 17.64%	3 17.64%	4 23.52%	17 100%
4. Iran foreign policies toward regional countries such as Syria	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 16.66%	7 58.33%	3 25%	12 100%
5. military options against Iran	1 4.76%	2 9.52%	6 28.57%	3 14.28%	4 19.04%	5 23.80%	21 100%
6. failure of negotiations	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	6 42.85%	4 28.57%	4 28.57%	14 100%
7. Congress opposition to president Obama	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 20%	3 20%	9 60%	15 100%
8. Prime minister Netanyahu's policies toward Iran	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	5 29.41%	6 35.29%	6 35.29%	17 100%
9. rejecting a permanent agreement	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	6 27.27%	8 36.36%	8 36.36%	22 100%

On the other hand, topos of disadvantage to 'them' consisted of a) imposing tougher sanctions on Iran and b) lengthening of the negotiation procedure, sine it could damage Iran's economy drastically. However, with the beginning of a new round of talks after the re-election of President Obama (Nov, 2012) before the presidential election of Iran (June, 2013), it seemed useless to impose tougher sanctions on Iran as it could harm the probable negotiated deal.

After the election of President Rouhani, and with the emergence of crisis in Syria, what was mentioned as being unfavourable to 'us' consisted of such issues as a) imposing tougher sanction on Iran since it could send away Iran form negotiation and put America under international blame, and b) Iran policies toward Syria with its possible threat to Israel (i.e. America's ally). On the other hand, rejecting a permanent agreement with the West was assumed to be highly disadvantageous to Iran (i.e. them). It can be clearly inferred that our disadvantage (the west) considered to be superior to their disadvantage (Iran). So, the dichotomy was still observable. After the interim agreement, the disadvantages to both us and them were considered to be a) failure of diplomatic negotiations, b) Israel extremist policies toward Iran, c) congress opposition to president Obama's policies, and d) rejecting a permanent deal.

C. Topos of Danger or Threat

The argumentative strategy of threat (see table III) implemented in the 2010-2012 time duration fell into three subcategories. a) There was an attempt to display the threatening side of Iran's nuclear program which was expected to result in nuclear warhead production; although, none of them proved the existence of such nuclear weapons and just their possibility of production was discussed. b) Iran's threat to shut the strait of Hurmoz, and to retaliate the death of its nuclear scientists were represented as a danger to the West. c) The threat of Israel attack to Iran was mentioned as a sign of disagreement between Mr. Obama and Mr. Netanyahu just before the American presidential election. To cool it down, then it was claimed that Iran had not been on the verge of producing a weapon and that the United Nations inspectors would warn before it got to that point, which was in sharp contrast with what they had claimed before about the level of nuclear activities in Iran.

Excerpt 9

The latest report from the International Atomic Energy Agency is a chilling reminder of both the scale of Iran's nuclear ambitions and the lengths it will go to cover up the truth. The agency expressed strong concern about Iran's "past or current undisclosed nuclear related activities" with "possible military dimensions." (NYT, Sep, 16, 2011)

Excerpt 10

Tehran's nuclear ambitions are clearly dangerous to Israel and the region. But the administration argues that Iran is not on the verge of producing a weapon and that the United Nations inspectors will provide warning before it gets to that point. (NYT, Aug, 27, 2012)

Due to the re-election of president Obama and more emphasis on Iranian presidential election, a shift of focus occurred to emphasize other challenges and possible dangers of Iran to the west and specially Israel. Iran was regarded as a threat to Israel not only because of its nuke activities, but also because of its support of Hezbollah and president Bashar al-Assad of Syria. Moreover, the direction of threat had been changed to target Iran's interim agreement in an attempt to make Iran aware of the dangers of rejecting the permanent agreement with major powers on its nuclear activities.

Excerpt 11

No country feels more threatened by Iran than Israel, and its prime minister, Benjamin Netanyahu, is clearly unhappy with the American-Iranian thaw. In addition to having a nuclear program, Iran is the main backer of Hezbollah and has provided arms and fighters to President Bashar al-Assad of Syria. (NYT, Sep, 28, 2013)

Excerpt 12

After the interim agreement (2013), some other threats were added including the failure of diplomatic negotiations which would in turn lead to other dangers such as imposing tougher sanctions or military attacks. On the other hand, American congress policies ware considered as another threatening source.

Excerpt 13

The best and only practical way to restrain Iran from developing a bomb is through negotiating a strict agreement with tough monitoring. In rejecting diplomacy, the Republicans make an Iranian bomb and military conflict more likely. (NYT, March, 11, 2015)

TABLE III.
DISTRIBUTION OT TOPOS OF DANGER

Topos of threat	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
1. Iran's production of nuclear warheads	1 4.54%	5 22.72%	3 13.63%	3 13.63%	5 22.72%	5 22.72%	22 100%
2. Iran's threat to the region specially Israel	1 4.16%	4 16.66%	6 25%	3 12.50%	4 16.66%	6 25%	24 100%
3. Israel's military attack to Iran	0 0%	1 5.88%	7 41.17%	2 11.76%	2 11.76%	6 35.29%	17 100%
4. imposing tougher economic sanctions in case of failure of agreement	0 0%	0 0%	1 10%	3 30%	3 30%	3 30%	10 100%
5. failure of negotiations	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	12 75%	2 12.5%	2 12.5%	16 100%
6. Congress political activities	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 16.66%	5 27.77%	10 55.55%	18 100%

D. Topos of Reality

Throughout the periods under the study, what has been expressed repeatedly as a matter of reality was Iran's decision to produce nuclear bombs and uranium enrichment to a near bomb grade. It was argued that the least dangerous way is to put Iran under economic pressure through different sorts of sanctions internationally. To this end, international agreement with imposing sanction on Iran made this decision a more reasonable one. Nevertheless, Russia and China were represented as Iranian partners separated from international community temporarily from 2010 to 2012.

Excerpt 14

While Russian and Chinese leaders told Mr. Obama that they will work seriously on new sanctions, diplomats say their representatives are already seeking ways to elute any resolutions. (NYT, April, 19. 2010)

Excerpt 15

The report is chillingly comprehensive. It says that Iran created computer models of nuclear explosions, conducted experiments on nuclear triggers and did advanced research on a warhead that could be delivered by a medium-range missile. (NYT, Nov, 9, 2011)

Table IV illustrates the strategies applied in this section. As it is shown, after Iranian presidential election (2013), a shift of focus emerged in the application of topos of reality. From then on, the changes in Iran's foreign diplomacy in addition to the inefficiency of the sanctions to slow down Iran's nuclear program were presented to persuade the public opinion to believe in the supremacy of diplomatic negotiations.

However, other political challenges with Iran, Israel's demand for complete dismantlement of nuclear activities, congress insistence on imposing tougher sanctions, and disagreement of Saudi Arabia with nuclear deal were presented as other matters of reality shackling the process of negotiations with Iran. Finally, it was concluded that sanctions and several round of negotiations had not produced positive results. Therefore, it conveyed to the readers' mind that since all possible diplomatic ways are tested, if Iran doesn't accept a nuclear deal, what remains might be the military option.

Excerpt 16

It is disappointing that recently toughened sanctions and several rounds of negotiations have not produced positive results. (NYT, Aug, 27, 2013)

Excerpt 17

America and its allies are right to be sceptical, but the only rational course is to test Iran's intentions through negotiations....Congress can always impose more sanctions then. (NYT, Nov, 15, 2013)

Excerpt 18

Mr. Netanyahu has two main objections. One is that an agreement would not force Iran to dismantle its nuclear facilities ..... Two, that a deal to severely restrict Iran's ability to produce nuclear fuel for a decade or more is not long enough..... Despite his commitment to negotiations, President Obama has repeatedly said he would never let Iran obtain a nuclear weapon and if an agreement is not honored, he would take action to back up his warning. (NYT, March, 3, 2015)

Excerpt 19

Sunni Arab nations and Israel are deeply opposed to any deal, fearing that it would strengthen Iran's power in the region... Iran is widely seen as a threat; whether it can get beyond that will depend on whether its leaders choose to be less hostile to its neighbors, including Israel. (NYT, April, 2, 2015)

TABLE IV.
DISTRIBUTION OF TOPOS OF REALITY

Topos of reality	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
1. possibility of producing nuclear bombs by Iran	1 5.55%	4 22.22%	4 22.22%	3 16.66%	3 16.66%	3 16.66%	18 100%
2. uranium enrichment to a near-bomb grade	3 17.64%	3 17.64%	7 41.17%	2 11.76%	1 5.88%	1 5.88%	17 100%
3. effectiveness of sanctions	4 11.11%	2 5.55%	6 16.66%	8 22.22%	8 22.22%	8 22.22%	36 100%
4. agreement of other countries to impose sanctions on Iran	9 64.28%	2 14.28%	1 7.14%	0 0%	1 7.14%	1 7.14%	14 100%
5. cooperation of Russia and China with Iran	3 37.5%	4 50%	1 12.5%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	8 100%
6. Israel's military option against Iran	0 0%	0 0%	5 45.45%	2 18.18%	2 18.18%	2 18.18%	11 100%
7. exaggeration about Iran's nuclear power	0 0%	0 0%	5 62.5%	3 37.5%	0 0%	0 0%	8 100%
8. inadequacy of sanctions	0 0%	0 0%	2 33.33%	0 0%	2 33.33%	2 33.33%	6 100%
9. a change in Iran's diplomacy	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 33.33%	3 33.33%	3 33.33%	9 100%
10. modest sanction relief	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	6 42.85%	4 28.57%	4 28.57%	14 100%
11. superiority of diplomatic negotiation	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 21.42%	3 21.42%	8 57.14%	14 100%
12. tougher sanctions in case of failure of negotiations	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 37.5%	5 62.5%	8 100%
13. other political challenges with Iran	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	4 50%	4 50%	8 100%
14. political challenges between Netanyahu and Obama	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 33.33%	6 66.66%	9 100%
15. American's security commitment to Israel	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 40%	3 60%	5 100%
16. Israel's unrealistic demands	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 18.18%	4 36.36%	5 45.45%	11 100%
17. disagreement of Sunni Arab nations with nuclear deal	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	1 25%	1 25%	2 50%	4 100%

E. Topos of History

Historical argumentation, applied in the era of 2010-2012, targeted the inadequacy of U.N. inspectors, American intelligence agencies, and the Security Council sanctions to identify and control Iran's nuclear program. It criticized the efficiency of negotiation approach put forward by Russia and IAEA. Furthermore, it emphasized the effectiveness of president Obama's success in rallying the major powers to impose sanctions on Iran which pointed to the superiority of his policies toward Iran in comparison with what had been done previously by President Bush.

Excerpt 20

The critics neglect to mention that Iran's program grew significantly when George W. Bush was president and opportunities were lost to constrain it at a much lower level. No president has been as successful as Mr. Obama in rallying the major powers to impose sanctions with bite. These are the first serious nuclear talks in years, and there is still time to let them run. (NYT, June, 21, 2012)

The historical argumentation in 2013-2015 period was of a different nature. It concentrated on the hostile relationship and mistrust between Iran and America before the election of president Rouhani and praised the new opportunity of a direct contact between the two countries. On the other hand, the history of Iran nuke activities was reviewed to put more emphasis on a) the mistrust to Iran, b) recent achievements in controlling it through sanctions and c) the benefits of the interim agreement (see table V). After the preliminary framework agreement (April, 2, 2015), President Obama's diplomatic negotiation policy was compared to his previous counterparts, Ronald Reagan and Richard Nixon, to increase its credibility and value.

Excerpt 21

There is good reason for skepticism about Iran's intentions. Although it pledged not to acquire nuclear weapons when it ratified the Nuclear Nonproliferation Treaty in 1970, it pursued a secret uranium enrichment program for two decades. By November 2013, when serious negotiations with the major powers began, Iran was enriching uranium at a level close to bomb-grade. (NYT, April,2, 2015)

TABLE V.
DISTRIBUTION OF TOPOS OF HISTORY

Topos of history	2010	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Total
1. inadequacy of UN Security Council	5 45.45%	6 54.54%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	11 100%
2. inadequacy of sanctions	3 27.27%	4 36.36%	1 9.09%	1 9.09%	1 9.09%	1 9.09%	11 100%
3. hostility between Iran and America	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	5 41.66%	3 25%	4 33.33%	12 100%
4. fragility of American credibility after Iraq war	0 0%	2 50%	0 0%	2 50%	0 0%	0 0%	4 100%
5. previous American military actions	0 0%	1 33.33%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 66.66%	3 100%
6. mistrust to Iran	0 0%	0 0%	4 22.22%	4 22.22%	4 22.22%	6 33.33%	18 100%
7. failure of previous American administration	2 25%	1 12.5%	1 12.5%	2 25%	1 12.5%	1 12.5%	8 100%
8. effectiveness of sanctions since 2006	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 17.64%	6 35.29%	8 47.05%	17 100%
9. review of Iran nuke activities	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 50%	3 50%	6 100%
10. effectiveness of interim agreement	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	3 33.33%	6 66.66%	9 100%
11. success of previous American presidents in other negotiations	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	0 0%	2 100%	2 100%

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

With regard to the first research question, the results reveals that the NYT has given a systematic biased treatment to the participants involved in Iran's nuclear program, one which is supported by its ideology of applying more sanctions on Iran in order to force it to accept a permanent agreement. Iran has been given the image of a criminal who has tried to escape from international sanctions against its so-called illegal nuke activities. In this way, the findings are in line with those of Behnam and Zenouz (2008) where they maintain the misrepresentation of Iran nuke program and Persephobia were reflected in the British paper, the Economist. Iran is attributed as being uncooperative with IAEA inspectors, in the process of producing nuclear weapon, and a risk to the world peace. Dunmire (2005) calls this discourse manoeuvre a "projected event: a state of affairs that claims will occur at some point in the near future" (p.221). Iran is represented as a country besieged by political, social, and economic problems with no respect to human rights, which support the findings of the studies done by Rasti and Sahragard (2012), Atai and Mozaheb (2013), Sahragard and Rasti (2014), and Jones (2014).

Considering the second research question, before the American presidential election, the NYT focused on a) the threatening side of Iran to the region and world security, b) the inefficiency of UN and Security Council in controlling Iran's nuclear program, and c) the necessity of an international decision to impose tough sanctions on Iran. This way, it prepared the ground for the emergence of a saviour that is president Obama. After the re-election of Mr Obama, the paper emphasized on a) the success of president Obama in uniting the major powers against Iran and b) the effectiveness of sanctions against Iran. Meanwhile, another important political issue influenced the NYT's application of argumentative strategies and that was the Iranian presidential election (2013), before which a) Iran's nuclear activities and uranium enrichment, and b) threat of military attack to Iran were focused on repeatedly. The only recommended solution was Iran's decision to stop its nuclear programs and engage in negotiations over the issue. After the election of Mr Rouhani, the paper spotlighted a) the inefficiency of sanctions, b) disadvantage of military attack to Iran and d) the new opportunity for diplomatic negotiations. However, after the interim agreement between Iran and P5+1 countries, this success was attributed to president Obama's policy of imposing sanctions and diplomatic negotiations. On the other hand, it passed the buck to Iran for possible failure of reaching a permanent agreement by pointing to the history of hostile relationship with and mistrust to Iran.

The NYT has left nearly all discussions of other countries with nuclear weapons as unrelated to the issue at hand, this is in line with findings of Izadi and Saghaye-Biria (2007) in assuming that whereas Iran's violation of its NPT commitment is important and threatening to the world and regional stability, the failure of other countries such as America and Israel toward the eradication of actual nuclear weapons is out of discussion.

Furthermore, the issue of Iran's nuclear program is illustrated to be related to other irrelevant issues which mainly include Iran's domestic and international challenges such as presidential election and supporting the Syrian government and Hezbollah. Accordingly, the argumentative strategies are not used fairly in the political discourse of the paper. It can be concluded that the NYT has provided its readers as gloomy an image of Iran as it can to persuade the readers from around the world to advocate the policy of applying more pressure on Iran.

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Can Machine Translation Declare a New Realm of Service? Online Folktales as a Case Study

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Abstract—A common claim goes that only technical, informative texts are fit for machine translation (MT), but this paper tries to investigate if MT has its useful role in folktales when the audience reads their MTs only for gisting and cultural knowledge acquisition, not literary appreciation. Drawing on the functionalistic theory as the theoretical framework, this research aims at investigating how MT acceptance relates to the new function of folktales. An MT assessment is conducted based on a three-scale assessment and the results show that most respondents favor the English MT of a folktale tailored to the informative function than to the traditional function of literary appreciation. Most respondents prioritize a clear, smooth flow of ideas and consistent use of tense verbs over the preservation of the conversational literary form. The implications indicate that technological innovation has affected the way of web audience's reading of online folktales, and therefore MT service can declare a new, expanding realm on the web. In a nutshell, this research suggests a breakthrough towards a new target of MT application and sheds light on the inevitable impact of technology on the web audience's acceptance of literary MT in the digital era.

Index Terms—online folktales, MT, pre-editing, controlled language, functionalism, gisting

I. INTRODUCTION

In the globalization age, with an increasing amount of multilingual information available on the Internet, immediate communication without language barriers has become a key to information access and many Internet users' desperate expectation. Luckily, machine translation (MT) provides the service of instant rendering of web texts from the source language into a chosen target language, thus being expected to serve as an efficient, economical solution to online communication across languages and cultures. Nevertheless, natural language is so complex that the advanced MT tool remains unable to create a readable and fully comprehensible automated translation. Its readability and comprehensibility vary when the language pairs involved in the translation and the lexical, syntactic and stylistic attributes of the source text have changed. Normally, the MT of non-literary works, such as the user's manuals, weather reports, and product instructions, has a higher semantic and grammatical accuracy than that of literary works. Furthermore, it is found that the MT of a pre-edited text has the better readability than that of a non-pre-edited text. For this reason, I wonder if the MT of a pre-edited literary work can improve its MT quality and therefore makes the audience feel satisfied. However, even though pre-editing makes the audience accept the MT quality better, do we need to preserve its literary form of conversation and sound words for the reproduction of the original literary style in the MT? Or do we simply edit a literary text in the same way as we edit an informative text by following a set of principles of controlled language with no regard for the original literary form and the creative style? In other words, we may dismiss the function of literary appreciation when editing a literary work to improve its MT accuracy and boost its readability. However, does the web audience favor more the MT of a pre-edited text only for the effective conveyance of information or for achieving the conventional purpose of literary appreciation? These questions motivate me to do this research.

Indeed, as many materials go digital, the web population is growing rapidly and the MT users are expected to increase. To serve a wider international audience, can MT application break free from the constraints of text types and extend its application scope to non-literary works? As the computing technology has changed all walks of life, including shopping, business, banking, payment, education, information access, among others, we assume that the MT audience might have gradually changed the way they use the MT of a literary work. Do they accept the MT of a literary work because they want to use it only for gisting? Do they tolerate the under-translation of the MT of a literary work resulting from the use of a simplified description for the improved quality of MT? If so, can we pre-edit the folktales to downplay their literary attributes and highlight their informative elements for a more accurate MT? On the other hand, does the web audience still expect to see/read the conversational form of the original literary work when they accept the smooth, clear development of all ideas without semantic ambiguities or comprehension difficulties in the MT of a pre-edited literary work? To answer these questions, an investigation is made to know which type of MT is more favorable to the web audience—the MT generated from a literary work tailored only to the effective communication of original messages or a literary work tailored not only to an easier, clearer understanding of all the MT meanings but also to the need of literary appreciation.

In this regard, there are two objectives of this research: to identify whether the web audience accepts the MT of a

pre-edited literary work, and to find what purpose the web audience generally expects the MTs of online folktales to achieve. The pre-editing of source texts means the authoring or the modification of a source text using the controlled language (CL). CL is an artificial language that restricts the scope of vocabulary and eliminates semantic ambiguity. According to Nyberg, Mitamura and Huijsen (2002: 245), a controlled language is an "explicitly defined restriction of a natural language that specifies constraints on the lexicon, grammar and style". CL can be used to improve the semantic and grammatical accuracy of MT outputs and much research has supported this benefit (Cardey, Greenfield & Wu 2004; Godden 1998; Huijsen 1998; Lee 1994; Mitamura 1999; O'Brien 2003; O'Brien and Roturier 2007; Pym 1990; Reuther 1998; Rico 2003; Roturier 2004). In the present research, CL is used to edit Taiwanese folktales on the web but two pre-edited versions are created with one that is intended to fulfill the function of effective communication and the other for not only the smooth, clear conveyance of information but also aesthetic appreciation of the original dramatic effect.

Methodologically, a blend of process-based and product-based analyses is adopted. The former is applied because online folktales are pre-edited step by step following the established principles of controlled language. The process of pre-editing is elaborated to allow for a clear distinction of the difference between two versions in terms of their textual form and word choice. The latter is implemented to compare the different results of MT and explore how the web audience responds to the two English MT versions of a Taiwanese folktale. Folktales on the web are selected as the experimental subject of this research because they are short and easy to edit and adapt. Additionally, they may let the international audience learn a people's or a country's world views, social norms, spiritual life, the hopes, aspirations and relevant others (Ogbalu 2011). Taiwanese folktales mirror the reality of local culture because they describe the origins of the names of some people and places in Taiwan. By reading the MTs of folktales, the foreign audience can have a rough picture of a country or a community's socio-cultural context and acquire relevant cultural knowledge. For online intercultural communication, folktales are treated as a good medium and their readable MTs with the help of pre-editing are likely to make the goal of global cultural exchange a reality.

II. THEORETICAL REVIEW

Since this research aims at investigating the web audience's preference for either the MTs of the folktales that are customized to achieve the purpose of information scanning or the MTs tailored to attain their conventional function of aesthetic appreciation, we may define clearly the textual function of folktales by drawing some support from Reiss's text typology theory. However, before a theoretical introduction, we still need to introduce controlled language at some length because it is used to pre-edit folktales and many people have no clear concept of its rules and function.

A. Controlled Language and Relevant Rules

Much research on MT has stressed that in order for the machine to produce a more accurate translation, the source text needs to be pre-edited in the CL either strictly or loosely, depending on the purpose of the end product. According to the definition of Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997: 29), CL is a variant of source language and has its own rules. Texts can be composed following the rules to "enhance the clarity and readability of what is said". For Arnold, Balkan, Meijer, Humphreys, & Sadler (1994: 126), CL is characterized by "the high frequency of specialized terminology and often also by a restricted set of grammatical patterns". CL was initially used as a simplified language for effective business communication, and today it is being used to author technical texts for the improved multilingual MT outputs in the localization industry or in some huge, international companies that need to promote their marketing using multilingual manuals and instructions. The Western localization industry tends to author technical texts using controlled English whose norms, to name a few, include: 1) the use of determiners (e.g., this/the/that/a/an); 2) the use of single word verb instead of verbal phrases; 3) avoidance of conjunctions, pronouns and participle forms (-ing/-ed forms); 4) avoidance of idiomatic and slangy expressions; and 5) avoidance of ambiguous words. The grammar-special rules cover: 1) the use of complete sentence (avoidance of elliptical constructions); 2) the use of active voice instead of passive voice; 3) avoidance of noun-clusters with more than three words; 4) the use of short sentences, and 5) the reduced use of relative clauses (Mitamura 1999; Rico & Torrejón 2004; Schütz 2001; Shih 2006).

By consulting the controlled English rules above, a set of controlled Chinese (CC) rules for adapting informative texts are designed. The rules may include the use of double-syllabic words, and common expressions in the lexical aspect, and the use of short sentences, the subject-verb-object (SVO) structure, and the locating of time or place prepositional phrases at the initial or final position of sentences in the syntactic aspect. Use of the SVO structure and other common patterns of English sentences will make the MT output syntactically accurate in English and other Indo-European languages. The grammar-specific rules include the use of an article/quantifier, "yi" to connect two clauses, possessive cases, conjunctions and transitional words, auxiliary verbs, time markers that show various tense verbs and relevant others. These rules are commonly observed in English and some Indo-European languages, so their automated MT outputs in these target languages are supposed to be more accurate than those of the texts without observing these rules. Ideally, imitating the wording and the literary form in the Western languages would result in the accurate machine-generated translations in the target languages. These CC rules will be used to tailor folktales for MT application and their English MTs are expected to improve their semantic and grammatical accuracy.

However, folktales have been for ages treated as literary texts because they use sound words, interjections and dialogues. Thus, aside from the common CC rules, they might need to be tailored following special CC rules if their MT

is used for aesthetic appreciation. Some rules are therefore applied to help retain the original vocal elements and reproduce the original dramatic power. The special rules include: 1) the use of an interjection at the beginning of a sentence, 2) the preservation of the original dialogue form and 3) the use of shorter utterances for effective conversation. Beginning a sentence with an interjection helps create a sound effect for the audience's enjoyment of its musicality. The use of shorter utterances in a dialogue enables the audience to grasp the messages more easily and more quickly. In addition, in order for the MT outputs in English and other Indo-European languages to be readable and comprehensible, the direct naming of an English interjection is recommended, identified as the strategy of loaning in controlled Chinese writing.

B. Functionalistic Theoretical Concepts

The way we edit or adapt a web folktale relates to its textual functions. The folktales need to be pre-edited to make their intended functions successfully realized in their MTs. Explored from the perspectives of Reiss's (1977/89) text typology theory and function-oriented translation; folktales can be identified as a hybrid text that possesses the mixed characteristics of both expressive texts and informative texts. The expressive texts, such as novels, poems and storybooks, aim to achieve the purpose of literary appreciation, and so their translations need to preserve their special literary form and wording. On the other hand, informative texts such as textbooks, news report, historical, political documents, to cite a few, aim at conveying factual information to the audience and make them acquire some knowledge about a subject matter or a special topic. Folktales are identified as expressive texts because they use the dialogic form and special sound words to create literary beauty, and so their translation is supposed to retain or represent these two features. Furthermore, folktales can be identified as informative texts because they provide the information about the origins of some local customs and places of interest. They try to inform the audience of the episodes and legends of some famous historical figures who live in a country or community. As a result, the translation of folktales needs to transmit the information clearly to the target audience. In short, to bring about the expressive function, the dialogic form and sound words of folktales should be well preserved and duplicated in their translation, and to achieve the informative function, all the information should be explicitly and clearly communicated. The translation of folktales focuses on both form and effect. The translation with a focus on form pursues formal equivalence and that with much regard for effect or force results in dynamic equivalence. The two notions are proposed by Nida (1964) with the former highlighting the faithful replication of the original form, and the latter allowing for the adaptation of the original form.

In light of their mixed text types and functions, folktales can be tailored following two different sets of CL rules and so their MTs can accomplish two designated functions. That is to say, their expressive and literary function is fulfilled when their pre-editing preserves their original literary form and sound words. In a different manner, when their informative function is prioritized, their pre-editing can emphasize a clear, logical presentation of the messages at the sacrifice of the original dialogic form and sound words. To highlight the function of direct, smooth and clear communication of the messages, there is no need of the replication of the original literary form for the creation of aesthetic effect. To different ends, the MT-oriented pre-editing can be different.

Since MT serves the web audience, we should know the expectation of its audience. However, the translation function is not fixed without being subject to changes in different socio-cultural situations. Furthermore, the audience situated at different times might have different expectation of the translation of the same text and evaluate its quality from different perspectives. As Vermeer (1989/2000) has put it, each translation has a specific purpose and the purpose might not be the same as that of its original text. For example, when a speech is used to mobilize the native audience to take action to achieve a goal, it can be viewed as an operative text, but when its translation is put into an article in a textbook, its educational function is more emphasized and it is more like an informative text based on Reiss's text typology theory. Departing from this point of view, we come to see that in today's digital world, the advanced communication technologies have changed the way of our communication and therefore the translation of folktales on the web, especially their automated rendering by the online machine, might be used in a way that is completely different from the way it was used during the past decades. In an agricultural society, folktales were used as a kind of performing art and provided the audience with an experience of dramatic vigor and phonic entertainment (Bauman 1983; Ben-Amos 1972). Today, too many types of entertainments can amuse people and online folktales might be only used for information scanning. Probably the modern web audience simply skims the translation of foreign folktales to know the origins of some place names, historical figures and local historical events (Hand 1971). If so, the MTs of folktales might be used as a medium of guided reading for cultural knowledge acquisition. Such an assumption needs to be justified by conducting an empirical survey. Thus, in this research, a survey of the MTs of folktales is conducted by inviting some respondents to evaluate the English MT of two versions of tailored folktales. One version is mainly customized for information gisting, and the other for not only effective communication but also literary, aesthetic appreciation.

III. THE PRE-EDITED FOLKTALE AND ITS ENGLISH MTS

In this section, two versions of a pre-edited web folktale are introduced and their MTs are used for different purposes. The source text is extracted from "The Kitchen God" on the web (Chen 2011) and was pre-edited by the author of this paper using controlled Chinese. Its English MT output is automatically produced by Google Translate (a statistical

machine translation system for free access on the web). The target language chosen for MT is English because it is the *lingua franc* and most readers can understand it. In addition, how versions A and B are edited from the original folktale are illustrated step by step following CL rules.

Version A

S1)該灶王爺的姓氏是張，且他是非常壞的人。S2) 在一次睹博，他輸了所有的錢。最後，他賣了他的妻子。S3)他的老婆改嫁給一個樵夫。S4)有一天，他沒有了錢且沒有了東西吃。於是，他回去見他的前妻。S5)他的前妻是很賢慧。她給了他幾個粽子，且放了一些錢在粽子裡。她告訴了他不要去送粽子給別人。S6) 當他離開，他的債主來了。S7)他說了他沒有錢。他們說了吃的東西也可以被使用來歸還錢。所以，他們偷了他的 rice dumplings。S8)後來，他去見他的前妻再一次。S9) 他的前妻問了他有關於粽子。他說他們已被偷走了。S10)在這個時刻，她的丈夫返回了家。張先生只好躲藏在爐灶。S11)她現任的丈夫(樵夫)剛剛結束了他的工作。他當時是多汗的，所以他想燃燒熱水，為洗澡。S12) 他的妻子立刻制止他。S13)可是她的丈夫堅持要燃燒熱的水。S14) 張先生決定躲在爐灶裡。他知道若他走出來，他的前妻將會被揍打被她的丈夫！S15)他決定犧牲他的生命，所以他被活活燒死了。S16)後來，他的前妻前來爐灶以祭拜它，每天早上、中午及在晚上。S17)她丈夫問她為何她必須祭拜爐灶，每天早上、中午及在晚上。S18) 她說了謊即人們必須感謝該爐灶和該鍋子。沒有這些工具，他們不能烹煮食物。S19) 人們覺得她的話皆是合理的。後來，許多人開始祭拜該爐灶和該鍋子。S20) 最後，King of all the gods (Yu-huan Da-di)知道了這件事情。他冊封 Mr. Chang，當作 the Kitchen God。他要求 the Kitchen God 去報告事情有關人類世界。S21)上面的故事就是灶王爺的由來。

As shown in the controlled text above, the pre-editing includes the use of short sentences, and the replacement of direct accounts in a dialogue with indirect accounts. Some CC rules that have been employed are illustrated. In S1, a dual syllabic word 姓氏 (xingshi /surname) is used to replace the original single syllabic word 姓 (xing/surname). Also, a definite article 該 (gai/the/this) is added and put before the noun 灶王爺 (zaowangye/Kitchen God) to render its English MT grammatically accurate. Since a fixed phrase 無惡不作 (wuebuzuo/commit all sorts of crimes) cannot be accurately rendered by the machine, it is converted into a common expression, 非常壞的人 (feichang huai de ren/ a very bad man). As to the sentence structure, two SVO sentences are used: subject/該灶王爺的姓氏 (gai Zaowangye de xingshi /the Kitchen God's surname) + be-verb/是 (shi/is) +object/張 (Zhang), and subject/他 (ta/he) + be-verb/是 (shi/is) + object/非常壞的人 (feichang huai de ren/a very bad man). Additionally, a conjunction 且 (qie/and) is used to connect two clauses, so its English MT is grammatically correct.

In S2, a time marker 了(-le) is added to the verb 輸 (shu/lose) and to the verb 賣 (mai/sell) so that their English MTs will correctly show the past tense verbs "lost" and "sold". Also, a possessive case 他的 (tade /his) is added before the noun 前妻 (quianqi/ex-wife) for the correct English grammar. In S4, an idiomatic Chinese expression 去找他的前妻 (qu zhao tade qianqui/to find his ex-wife) is rephrased as 見他的前妻 (qu jian tade qianqi/to see his ex-wife), so its English MT meets the English linguistic convention. In S5, instead of the topic-comment structure, a SVA structure is used—subject/他的前妻 (tade quianqi/His ex-wife) + be-verb/是 (shi/is) + adj/很賢慧 (hen xianhui/virtuous). Furthermore, indirect accounts are converted to direct accounts in a dialogue. In S8, a transitional word 後來 (houlai/later) is supplemented for a more logical presentation. In S11, a time marker 當時 (dangshi/then) is added for a correct past tense verb "was". And a SVO structure is used—subject/他 (ta/he) +verb 1/想 (xiang/want) + verb 2/燃燒 (ran-shao/burn) + object/熱水 (re-shui/hot water).

In S13, a single syllabic verb 燒 (shao/burn) is substituted by a dual syllabic word 燃燒 (ran-shao/burn). In S14, a conjunction 若 (ruo/if) is added to show the cause-effect relationship, and a marker 被 (bei/by) is added to show the agent in a passive construction. In S15, 所以 (suo-yi/so) is added to present the cause-effect relationship. For S16 and S17, all the direct accounts in the dialogues are pre-edited as indirect statements. In S18, the important rule is the use of a concise depiction, 她說了謊 (ta-shuo-le-huang/she told a lie), not a lengthy sentence, 她當然不能說實話，只好騙他 (ta-dangran-buneng-shuo-shihua, zhihao pian ta/ she surely could not tell the truth, only lying to him). In S19, a common expression 許多人 (xuduo-ren/ many people) is used, not a fixed phrase 家家戶戶 (jia-jia-hu-hu/ every household). All the fixed Chinese phrases should be rephrased into common expressions and so their MTs in Indo-European languages will be semantically correct. In S20, a transitional word 最後 (zhi-hou/finally) is supplemented to explicate the inter-sentential relationship, and the common expressions, such as 報告 (bao-gao/report) and 人類世界 (renlei shijie/the human world), are used to replace special Chinese words--奏報 (zoubao/present a report) and 人間 (renjian/ human world). More importantly, use of English proper nouns in the Chinese texts is recommended; for example, "King of all the gods (Yuhuandadi)", "Mr. Chang" and "the Kitchen God" are used in the pre-edited Chinese text, not 玉皇大帝 (Yuhuangdadi/King of all the gods), 張先生（zhang siansheng/Mr. Chang）and 灶王爺 (zaowangye/the Kitchen God). In S21, a common expression 上面的 (shangmian-de/above) is used to replace a classical word, 上述 (shangshu/above).

Overall, in the lexical and grammatical aspects, the customized text above uses time markers, conjunctions, possessive case, transitional words, dual syllabic words and indirect accounts. In the syntactic aspect, all the sentences present the SVO or SVA structure, and their sentential length on average is short. Its English MT generated by Google Translate is shown as follows.

The English MT of Version A

S1) The Kitchen God's last name is Zhang, and he is a very bad man. S2) In a gamble, he lost all his money. Finally, he sold his wife. S3) His wife remarried a woodcutter. S4) One day, he had no money and no food. So he went back to see his ex-wife. S5) His ex-wife is very virtuous. She gave him a few dumplings, and put some money in the dumplings. She told him not to send dumplings to others. S6) When he left, his creditors came. S7) He said he had no money. They said something to eat to return the money can also be used. So they stole his rice dumplings. S8) Later, he went to see his wife again. S9) His ex-wife asked him about dumplings. He said they had been stolen. S10) At this moment, her husband returned home. Mr. Zhang had to hide in the stove. S11) Her current husband (Woodman) has just completed his work. He was sweating, so he wanted to burn hot water for a bath. S12) His wife stopped him immediately. S13) But her husband insisted on burning hot water. S14) Mr. Zhang decided to hide inside the stove. He knew that if he came out, his wife would be beaten by her husband! S15)He decided to sacrifice his life, so he was burned alive. S16) Later, his ex-wife came to the stove to worship it, every morning, at noon and in the evening. S17) Her husband asked her why she must worship stove every morning, at noon and in the evening. S18) She told a lie that people must thank the stove and the pot. Without these tools, they can not cook food. S19) People think her words are all reasonable. Later, many people began to worship the stove and the pot. S20) Finally, King of all the gods (Yu-huan Da-di) knew about it. He canonized Mr. Chang, as the Kitchen God. He asked the Kitchen God to report things about the human world. S21) The above story is the origin of the Kitchen God.

Generally viewed, the English MT above has clearly conveyed the messages and so the audience can use it for the acquisition of cultural knowledge. To create an emotional appeal to the audience, version B is tailored by retaining the original conversational form and using the direct accounts in the dialogue. Furthermore, the interjection 咦 (yi/well or why) is not omitted. Version B is shown below.

Version B

S1)該灶王爺的姓氏是張，且他是非常壞的人。S2) 在一次賭博，他輸了所有的錢。最後，他賣了他的妻子。S3)他的老婆改嫁給一個樵夫。S4)有一天，他沒有了錢且沒有了東西吃。於是，他回去見他的前妻。S5)他的前妻是很賢慧。她給了他幾個粽子，且放了一些錢在粽子裡。她告訴了他：「這些粽子皆是為你，你不能給別人他們!」S6) 當他離開，他的債主來了。S7) 他們說了：「你歸還我錢！」。他說了：「我沒有錢！我沒有東西！」。所以，他們偷了他的 rice dumplings。S8)後來，他去見他的前妻再一次。S9) 他的前妻問了他：「你的粽子都不見了？」他說：「他們已被偷走了。」S10)在這個時刻，她的丈夫返回了家。張先生只好躲藏在爐灶。S11) 她現任的丈夫(樵夫)剛剛結束了他的工作。他當時是多汗的，所以他想燃燒熱水，為洗澡。S12) 他的前妻制止了他立刻。她說了：「你不能！！我來幫你！」S13)可是她的丈夫堅持要燃燒熱的水。S14) 張先生決定躲在爐灶裡。他知道若他走出來，他的前妻將會被挨打被她的丈夫！ S15)他決定犧牲他的生命，所以他被活活燒死了。S16)後來，他的前妻前來爐灶以祭拜它，每天早上、中午及在晚上。S17) 她丈夫問了她：「咦，我覺得很怪異！！ 妳為甚麼必須祭拜爐灶，每天早上、中午及在晚上？」S18) 她說了謊：「我們必須感謝該爐灶和該鍋子。沒有這些工具，我們不能烹煮食物。」S19) 人們覺得她的話皆是合理的。後來，許多人開始祭拜該爐灶和該鍋子。S20) 最後，King of all the gods (Yu-huan Da-di)知道了這件事情。他冊封 Mr. Chang，當作 the Kitchen God。他要求 the Kitchen God 去報告事情有關人類世界。S21)上面的故事就是灶王爺的由來。

As noted above, the underlying segments are distinctly different from version A because it uses question marks and exclamations. These words suggest the speaker's feelings such as warning, bully, fear, suspicion, concern, regret and nervousness. To present the dramatic effect and emotional appeal, the words cannot be omitted or revised in the pre-edited text. The MTs of these words will similarly reproduce the original dramatic vitality and emotional power in the MT, and so the target audience can feel the same dramatic energy and psychological touch as the native audience does about the source text. Version B is shown as follows.

The English MT of Version B

S1) The Kitchen God's last name is Zhang, and he is a very bad man. S2) In a gamble, he lost all his money. Finally, he sold his wife. S3) His wife remarried a woodcutter. S4) One day, he had no money and no food. So he went back to see his ex-wife. S5) His ex-wife is very virtuous. She gave him a few dumplings, and put some money in the dumplings. She told him: "These dumplings are all for you, you can not give them to others!" S6)When he left, his creditors came. S7) They say: "You return me the money!." He said: "I have no money, I have nothing!!." So they stole his rice dumplings. S8) Later, he went to see his wife again. S9)His wife asked him: "Your dumplings are gone?" He said: "They have been stolen." S10)At this moment, her husband returned home. Mr. Zhang had to hide in the stove. S11) Her current husband (Woodman) has just completed his work. He was sweating, so he wanted to burn hot water for a bath. S12)His wife stopped him immediately. She said: "You can not !! I'll help you!" S13)But her husband insisted on burning hot water. S14) Mr. Zhang decided to hide inside the stove. He knew that if he came out, his wife would be beaten by her husband! S15)He decided to sacrifice his life, so he was burned alive. S16) Later, his ex-wife came to the stove to worship it, every morning, at noon and in the evening. S17)Her husband asked her: "Hey, I feel very weird !! Why u must worship stove every morning, at noon and in the evening?" S18) She lied: "We must thank the stove and the pot. Without these tools, we can not cook food." S19)People think her words are all reasonable. Later, many people began to worship the stove and the pot. S20) Finally, King of all the gods (Yu-huan Da-di) knew about it. He canonized Mr. Chang, as the Kitchen God. He asked the Kitchen God to report things about the human world. S21) The above story is the origin of the Kitchen God.

The English MTs of versions A and B are equally readable and understandable. However, the former shows a plain style because its MT aims to provide information clearly and the latter, a literary style, as its MT is read for literary appreciation. To know which MT version is more favored by the modern web audience, an assessment is conducted and its results are reported.

IV.   ASSESSMENT OF ENGLISH MTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In conducting an assessment, six native English speakers living in US were invited to read and rank the English MTs of versions A and B. A three-scale assessment is designed based on O'Brien and Roturier's (2007) four-scale assessment. Ranking No.1 suggests that the audience can easily and clearly understand the MT. Ranking No.2 means that the audience can figure out the meanings of some words although the MT has some lexical and grammatical errors. Ranking No.3 suggests that the MT contains many errors and is completely incomprehensible for gisting. The six respondents ranked the MTs sentence by sentence. To avoid being biased toward the MT, none of the respondents was informed that the English MT version was produced from a tailored text using in CL and none of them was informed of the different functions of the two versions.

As aforementioned, version A emphasizes the fluent unfolding of ideas, not the creation of dramatic effect, so it provides the general accounts of the story. In a different vein, version B tries to create a dramatic effect by using dialogues and to reproduce the original vocal elements by using interjections. The ranking results show that in reply to the MT of version B, 114 segments (90.5%) are ranked as No. 1, but version A has 119 (94.4%) segments ranked as No. 1. The gap of 3.9% is small, but ranking No.2 in the MT of version A shows a lower percentage (5.6%) than that in the MT of version B (9.5%). The findings suggest that the English MT of version A is more favorable in comparison to that of version B. Table 2 shows all the respondents' rankings of the English MTs of versions A and B.

TABLE 1
RANKINGS OF ENGLISH MTS OF VERSIONS A & B

Rankings	Respondents	English MTs of Version A	English MTs of Version B
No. 1 (To easily and clearly understand the MT)	R 1	20/21s	20/21s
	R2	21/21s	18/21s
	R3	21/21s	20/21s
	R4	20/21s	17/21s
	R5	20/21s	20/21s
	R6	17/21s	19/21s
	Total	119/126s (94.4%)	114/126s (90.5 %)
No. 2 (To guess meanings of MT by inferring from the context)	R 1	1/21s	1/21s
	R2	0/21s	3/21s
	R3	0/21s	1/21s
	R4	1/21s	4/21s
	R5	1/21s	1/21s
	R6	4/21s	2/21s
	Total	7/126s (5.6%)	12/126s (9.5%)
No. 3 (To completely make no sense of the MT)	R 1	0/21s	0/21s
	R2	0/21s	0/21s
	R3	0/21s	0/21s
	R4	0/21s	0/21s
	R5	0/21s	0/21s
	R6	0/21s	0/21s
	Total	0/126s (0%)	0/126s (0%)

As shown above, we find that no respondents give ranking 3 to both versions, implying that the English MTs of pre-edited folktales in CC has successfully allowed the audience to understand the gist of the text. But this is not the concern of this investigation. When the English MTs of versions A and B are equally effective for gisting, we find that there are more rankings of No. 1 for the MT of version A than for version B. Specifically examined, the assessments reveal that there is a sentence that is not ranked as No.1 by three respondents in the MT of version B. The sentence is: "*They say: 'You return me the money!.' He said: 'I have no money, I have nothing!!.' So they stole his rice dumplings.*" Its counterpart in version A is : "*He said he had no money. They said something to eat to return the money can also be used. So they stole his rice dumplings.*" Two respondents commented that although both translations had grammar errors, the MT of version A flew more smoothly resulting in a coherent whole. Another claimed that the MT of version A made more sense and was easier to understand. They found that the past tense verbs were inconsistent in the MT of version B. They maintained that when the general statements used the past tense verbs, the utterances in the dialogue used the present tense verbs, but they did not like the inconsistent tense verbs.

The feedback above suggests that most of web readers favor the MT that has a smooth flow of ideas as the result of the consistent use of past tense verbs. For them, a clear, short and orderly verbal presentation of the folktale is a key to effective information scanning and gisting. The editor's endeavor to replicate the original musical feature and dramatic power of folktales in the pre-editing process has not successfully made the MT more accepted and more favored by the audience. The use of the dialogic form has become a negative factor that disrupts the audience's thinking line. They do not enjoy the vitality of the changeful tone brought by the interplay of direct and indirect accounts within the same text.

Overall, all the respondents have identified the English MT of version A as more understandable and more communicative than version B. For them, easy gisting for the web translation of folktales is more important than its psychological impact and literary amusement. The audience has assessed the machine-generated translation of folktales based on its logical and smooth presentation of ideas, not on its emotional appeal of the dialogic or conversational form. Most of them want to read the MT to immediately grasp the message without additional cognitive effort. The young web audience does not consider the need of stylistic replication and literary aesthetics of folktales in their translation. This point reminds us that the web audience has a slow span of attention on the computer screen and so they need to read a translation that unfolds all the ideas clearly and smoothly without increasing their cognitive effort in their information processing. Furthermore, since they read the translations of online folktales for a clear understanding of the folk practices or relevant social events of a foreign country, their primary concern is semantic accuracy and the easy comprehension of the content. In short, what the web audience is primarily concerned with is clear and effective communication of story messages, so the pre-editing for MT, including the literary works on the web, should fulfill the function of clearly presenting all the messages. Obviously, the impacts of the Internet has affected and changed the web audience's attitudes toward reading and using the translations of online folktales.

The findings of the present research have some implications. Firstly, the MT service is equally applicable to literary works such as folktales because their function has shifted from the primary amusement and literary appreciation to the guided reading and cultural knowledge acquisition. Secondly, a probe into MT service should relate to its function rather than to its quality evaluation. The function of MT governs the way of pre-editing and so it is crucial to make clear the function of the MT prior to pre-editing. Thirdly, MT service should not stand alone without consideration of the audience. The acceptance of the MT of online folktales is mainly determined by the audience, not by the initial textual function of the source text. Above all, we reach a conclusion that this research emphasizes the pragmatic significance of MT use and has shed light on the dynamics of MT application because its service target is being changed.

V. CONCLUSION

In summary, the distinct differences between two pre-edited versions intended to achieve different functions lie in their direct or indirect accounts and the preservation or omission of sound words. The audience's responses to them show that the folktale MT tailored to gisting and cultural knowledge acquisition is more favored. The findings above allow us to answer "Yes" to the question of the title of this paper. MT service can expand its customer bases and may claim a new realm on the web, presenting a breakthrough towards its service to a wider readership, including those who read online literary texts only for gisting. Just as Pym (2010) has put it, the innovation of information technology such as MT has affected the way the web audience accesses and reads web texts. It is through the investigation in this paper that we confirm Pym's claim and find that the web audience gradually changes their way of reading online folktales and has dismissed its former function of literary appreciation. The audience's changing view of the function of online folktales provides a new niche for MT use on the web, suggesting the growing and diversified targets of MT service in the future.

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EFL Teachers' Perceptions towards Textbook Evaluation

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Abstract—Textbook evaluation helps the teachers find appropriate course books and let them regulate and modify them to meet the learners' needs and also allow for natural interaction to occur. The skilled teachers have the opportunity to report and reflect their perceptions on the usefulness and weakness of the textbook they use in a given class. Although there is a lot of research on textbook evaluation, the newly published textbooks are paid less attention. Therefore, the aim of this study is to review the evaluation of various textbooks which are conducted by EFL teachers all over the world to find out their perceptions toward the strengths and weaknesses of the textbooks. Moreover, this study reviews some studies on Iranian teachers' perceptions toward old and newly published materials "Prospect1"which are taught in schools, the role of teachers in evaluating textbooks, weaknesses and strengths of textbooks and some arguments against materials. This review research illustrates to what extent textbooks provide teachers and students' needs and empower teachers to improve their knowledge about evaluation of each kind of textbooks. The evaluation of textbooks reveals benefits and deficiencies of the teaching materials. Finally, it is recommended that it will be useful for the syllabus designers, experienced and inexperienced teachers, materials developers and educational authorities to evaluate and investigate the newly-published textbooks in order to realize new ways to improve the quality of the materials and revise their contents.

Index Terms—teachers' perceptions, evaluation, textbook evaluation, EFL teachers

I. INTRODUCTION

Textbooks are valuable in each language classroom, and they have several roles in English Language Teaching(ELT) curriculum and help the process of language teaching and learning. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) argue that a textbook has a very virtual role in teaching and learning of English. They also mention that although the significance of the textbook as a worldwide component of English language teaching is undeniable, it is hard to define the textbook role in the language classroom perfectly and exactly. As stated by Zohrabi, Sabouri and Kheradmand (2014), "textbooks are one of the elements that may promote or discourage learners depending on their materials. They are a kind of support for both teachers and learners. Textbooks provide students a kind of consistency"(p.95). According to Ahour and Ahmadi (2012), "textbooks are the main sources that can convey the knowledge and information to the learners in an easy and organized way" (p.176).

Some researchers believe that textbooks and materials play a central role in every learning condition and help teachers with their responsibilities. (Azizfar, 2009; Dudley-Evans & St. John, 1998). Textbooks have some advantages which were highlighted by Brown (1995) as follows: a source of language, a learning support, motivation, stimulation, and reference. Textbooks are among the most important resources utilized to achieve the aims of a course which are based on the learners' needs. However, they should not become the aim of the course themselves and set those aims.

O'Neill (1982) introduces four reasons for the use of course books. Firstly, course book materials are useful for students' needs. Secondly, the students can have a program for their future learning and a review of previous course books. Thirdly, students can acquire valuable and reasonable materials. Finally, the teachers can have opportunities to adjust and modify the course books according to students' needs. Alternatively, the content of any English language textbooks influences the teacher how to teach and the learner how to learn. According to Razmjoo (2007), students feel safe when they use textbooks and help them to progress and achieve their goals.

In fact, to find out whether a textbook is suitable for an English classroom or not, when should a textbook be revised and how? The evaluation is necessary and vital. Knowing this can help the teacher to present the material for his /her students better and more efficiently. Textbook evaluation has become an essential practice in the field of teaching. To conduct an evaluation process, it is very important to use a suitable model and appropriate criteria.

As Cunningsworth (1995) notes," it is important to limit the number of criteria used and the number of questions asked to manageable proportions" (p.5). According to Ahour and Ahmadi (2012), textbooks give suitable knowledge to the learners. Subsequently, in order to collect an applicable textbook that provides the needs of the learners according to their cultures, the textbook evaluation is required. Though there are different standard textbook evaluation framework,

using a suitable framework according to the methods and approaches of that textbook is very important. Tomlinson (1999) also suggests that" the obvious but important point is that there can be no one model framework for the evaluation of materials; the framework used must be determined by the reasons, objectives, and circumstances of the evaluation"(p.11). Moreover, Tomlinson, Dat, and Richards (2001) believe that before evaluating a textbook, some information is necessary such as the role of the textbook in the program, the teachers in the program and also the learners in the program.

II.   REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

In order to shed light on the issues in this area, the relevant literature that addresses the previous studies and activities will be reviewed.

A.   A Brief Historical Overview of Textbook Evaluation

Textbook evaluation provides the opportunity for the teachers, supervisors, administrators, and materials developers to make judgment about the textbooks and how to choose them for the learners. MacGrath (2002) mentions that evaluation is a significant enterprise for the development and administration of language learning programs. According to Sheldon (1988), among several reasons for textbook evaluation, he has suggested that it is an essential need to evaluate and analyze the various ELT textbooks which exist in the markets in order to select a suitable English language textbook and find the advantages and disadvantages of them. It helps the educational decision makers to adapt the suitable textbooks.

B.   The Role of Teachers in Textbook Evaluation

Bhanegaonkar and Mahfoodh (2013) define the role of teacher in curriculum and assert that "teachers are a key factor in the successful implementation of curriculum changes and particularly in textbook"(p.2). Nunan (1987) claims that classroom teachers can design, implement, and evaluate their own curriculum and they see themselves as having primary responsibility for all of above tasks. Some of them feel that syllabus development should be carried out by experts and government authorities and believe that they were being asked to undertake tasks for which they were not sufficiently trained. (p.8)

Teachers in their positions can manage, evaluate and administer the education program especially teaching textbooks. Cunningsworth (1995) considers that the evaluation of the textbooks needs the most successful and effective procedures to discuss the textbook users' opinions. Since the major users of the textbooks are the students and teachers, their opinions toward textbooks should be collected and analyzed. Similarly, teachers in any language classroom need to use textbook to support their teaching. Using or adapting textbooks is an important part of teachers' professional knowledge; furthermore, the textbook is provided mainly to match the teachers' instruction; evaluation of textbooks shows problems with the teaching materials, leading to fact that textbooks should be taken into consideration. As Ansari and Babaii (2002) state, teachers have the responsibility for evaluating textbooks, so the evaluation of teaching materials is an integral part of a teacher's work. Teachers in Iranian state schools have the responsibility for teaching the books suggested and mandated by the Ministry of Education; therefore, they need to get acquainted with the principle of textbook evaluation as well as the evaluation checklists and schemes. The skilled teachers have the opportunity to report and reflect their views on the usefulness and weakness of the textbook they use in a given class. It may be useful for the syllabus designers, inexperienced teachers, textbook developers, etc.

C.   Benefits and Drawbacks of the Use of Textbooks

Different writers have investigated the advantages and disadvantages of textbooks (Lamie, 1999; Richards, 2001; Richards &Renandya, 2002; ShafieeNahrkhalaj, 2012; Ur, 1996). In spite of various limitations in this area, textbooks are a very central tool for the teachers in teaching a foreign language. They supply the teachers the opportunity to present more time to other worthwhile pursuits and they can reduce potential professional overwork. Using textbooks has some disadvantages. Teachers become less creative and over use the prescribed textbooks.

With regard to benefits of the textbooks, Ur (1996) notes course books have some advantages of course books as follows: (a) they supply a clear outline for the teachers and the students in order to know how to use the textbook, (b) they provide plan for the selection of the language context systematically,(c) they provide for the teachers to choose the appropriate   textbooks based on the students' level for most of the class, (d) they provide learning material for each student cheaply and easily, (e) they supply appropriate packages whose components are bound in order, (f) Teachers' guide help the teachers especially inexperienced teachers teach better, (g) They supply self-sufficiency for the students to use them and learn new material, review and monitor progress.

Richards (2001) presents some principles for advantages of using textbooks:
1. They provide some programs based on structure and syllabus;
2. They help systematize instruction;
3. They preserve quality;
4. They supply various learning resources;
5. They can provide actual language models and input.

6. Teachers can be trained;

7. They are visually attractive (p.1-2).

In a different view, Richards and Renandya (2002) indicate the disadvantages of textbooks as: (a) they are not successful to present valid and realistic language models, (b) They decrease learner roles, (c) they are not succeed in contextualizing language activities,(d) they provide inappropriate cultural understanding for the students, (e) they are unsuccessful to provide discourse ability, (f) they cannot present idioms, (g) they are weak in presenting equity in gender representation.

By the same token, Ur (1996) makes some disputes against the textbook:

1. There is not a suitable textbook for the students with different needs;

2. There is no a good textbook with good topics which can be relevant for and interesting to all;

3. A textbook prevents teachers' creativity;

4. A textbook planned the order and structure that may be genuine and situation friendly;

5. Textbooks provide their own principle, and they may not be suitable for the level of the students in class;

6. Teachers are the slave of the book and they are not free to regard the suitable teaching methods based on students' level;

By considering the above mentioned benefits and limitation of using textbook in a program, adapting or supplementing books or providing appropriate guidance and support for teachers are necessary to use the textbook fittingly.

ShafieeNahrkhalaj (2012) notes that the advantages and disadvantages of EFL textbooks and explains two different sorts of textbooks used in Iran; global materials and institutional or in-house materials. This study presents a framework with two-phase scheme for evaluation which contains whilst-use and post-use evaluation. To obtain the greater reliability, each norm was analyzed at a time by using planned instruments. It is necessary to pay attention to the values of the materials in process and its actual effects on the users. He chose Top Notch series (Salslow & Ascher, 2006) which has recently become very popular in main cities of the country to evaluate using a checklist with two phases. The first phase includes the attractiveness and the availability of the materials, the suitability of the exercises and tasks, the practicality of the textbook, the effectiveness in facilitating short-term learning, the clarity of instructions and the comprehensibility of the text and in phase two, long-term effects of the materials on the students were examined. Twenty teachers who had experience in teaching Top Notch series completed the questionnaire which includes questions about the effects of using the material. With regard to the result of his study, the textbooks helped the learners find their aims to a great extent and it could improve the linguistic proficiency of the learners. Based on the teachers' opinions, it is concluded that all skills are covered in this textbook.

ShafieeNahrkhalaj (2012) believes that the evaluation of the ELT materials highlights some qualifications in EFL/ESL teachers which are as follows:

a- it shows the disadvantages of the textbook;

b- it helps the teachers acquire knowledge and skill to adopt the suitable book based on the learners' needs;

c- it develops users' experience in adapting the textbook according to the students' needs , to personalize it to a group of learners and to outfit it to the learners interests and skills;

d- it provides skilled qualification in thorough and exact evaluation of the results of the ELT materials;

e- it supplies the teachers to plan their own materials based on different and unaccustomed offer;

f- it provides for hold takers , evaluator and evaluation designer to articulate their theories and realize their tendencies in order to create their criteria for evaluation.

g- it provides   the ELT materials as a means of re-skilling themselves. They should focus on using their creative skills and exploring innovative ideas hidden within the framework of the textbook heading off the textbooks to deskill them (ShafieeNahrkhalaj, 2012, p.189).

On the whole, the outcomes of the evaluation can help ELT teachers decide to adapt or adopt the materials.

D.   Arguments against Textbooks in English Classroom

Despite many extensive benefits for using ELT/ EFL textbooks in language classroom, Litz (2005) has pointed out that textbooks may play a pivotal role in innovation. Rahimi and Hassani (2012) had an argument against textbooks. They indicated that in spite of the values of using textbook in English classroom, using textbooks may have negative effects. Textbooks may recommend the students with inauthentic language, they may provide incorrect content, and they may pay no attention to students' needs or unskilled teachers (Richards, 2001). Due to these limitations, Grant (1987) states that there is no complete textbook, however "the best book available for teachers and their learners does exist" (p.8). In this regard, Tomlinson (2003) stated that the evaluation is still an gorgeous field of study in line with the introduction of technological innovations that changed the development of teaching materials.

E.   Research on Teachers' and Students' Perceptions towards the Textbooks

Teachers' attitudes toward textbooks are likely based on how they use them. McGrath (2006) examined teachers' and learners' opinions toward the course books and claimed that our views and beliefs are according to the language we use, it should be possible to achieve some vision into teachers' prospects of English-language course books from the attitudes they use to describe them. He selects a a mixture of metaphors and similes for English language course books

which has been conducted over a two year period, mainly in Hong Kong, contains data from two sources: (1) nearly 75 secondary school English teachers in Hong Kong (2) several hundred secondary school pupils in Hong Kong. The information was collected by the teachers of those pupils. They were asked to complete the framework to know their attitudes toward the textbook. In conclusion, he concluded that it is better for the teachers to reveal their own metaphors and how these affect their use of a course book, as well as the relationship between their own metaphor and those of their students.

F.   Teachers' Perceptions toward Textbooks

In line with teachers' perceptions, Zacharias (2005) investigated teachers' beliefs about internationally-published textbooks. One hundred teachers participated in the study. Majority of these teachers were nonnative teachers of English. A checklist, interviews and classroom observation were used to analyze the course book.   The aim of the questionnaire was to find out the teachers' beliefs in relation to the materials used for teaching English, and the extent to which their beliefs were present in the actual classroom practice. Thirteen teachers who were selected on the basis of their teaching experience, gender, type of lessons taught and educational background and teaching in five universities in Central Java, Indonesia participated in the interviews and classroom observation. On the basis of the findings, he states the fact that locally-published materials are not available for the teachers. This is the cause of using internationally-published materials by local teachers. However, the availability of such texts forces the teachers to use international books. Consequently, administrators and EFL professionals need to develop programs or courses focusing on materials developed for local teachers.

In the realm of teachers' perspective, Riasati and Zare (2010) have done a study on the EFL teachers' perspectives on the "New Interchange" textbook. The series selected for this evaluation was New Interchange series including Intro, Interchange1, Interchange2, Interchange 3 and their own textbook, workbook, cassettes, teacher's manual and CDs. They investigated this to find out the appropriateness of the series and found that whether or not teachers are satisfied with the series then searched teachers' perception of the weakness and strength of the series.   To this end, thirty five EFL teachers both male and female with several years experiences in teaching the series participated and the instrument to collect data which was used for the research was the questionnaire prepared by Litz (2000). With respect to the results, the teachers were satisfied with the subject and the content of the series and have the same opinion that the subject and content of the textbook is realistic, interesting, challenging, motivating and relevant to students' needs. The teachers did not have a very positive prospective toward "layout and design of the series; moreover, the layout and design is not appropriate and clear, and the textbook is not organized effectively. At the end, Riassati and Zare (2010) listed some shortcomings of the textbooks.

1. Lack of supplementary teaching materials;
2. Some items and subjects within the series are not primarily based Iranian learners' culture;
3. Some elements of series are beyond the linguistic capability of the learners;
4. Several testing exercises;
5. Series do not pay enough attention to writing skills therefore, learners do not receive practice in this section;
6. Inappropriate number of teacher's manual (Riassati&Zare, 2010, p.59).

In this regard, Ahmadi and Derakhshan (2015) investigated and evaluated Iranian junior high school textbooks" Prospect1" and its old version"RPE1".They analyzed one hundred Iranian teachers' perceptions using Razmjoo's (2010) checklist which includes six criteria, namely language components, tasks, activities and exercises, language skills, teacher's manual, general consideration and critical discourse analysis features. The results of the research indicated that majority of teachers believe that Prospect1 followed CLT, and listening and speaking skills are paid more attention. In addition, grammar is completely neglected. On the contrary, RPE1 did not follow the CLT approach.

G.   Students' Perceptions toward Textbooks

It appears to say that learners need to engage actively in processing the meanings of whatever they hear and read in order to acquire the target language effectively. To highlight the trend, Sabzalipour and Mousavi (2013) conducted a case study to evaluate English language textbooks taught at Iranian first grade high school from the students' perspective. They used a questionnaire with 41 items including eight criteria namely content, physical appearance, exercises and activities, clarity of instructions, level of textbooks, vocabulary, grammar, consideration of learning style differences in the textbook. The participants of this study were 273 high school students from 4 high schools in Tonekabon in Mazandaran Province. The purpose of the research was to know the students' positive and negative attitudes toward the mentioned textbooks. On the basis of the results, the students are satisfied with their English textbooks and agree with the criteria. The investigators also suggest convincing evidence that the English language textbooks that are currently taught at high schools in Iran meet the students' expectations.

H.   Studies Related to Iranian Textbooks

First of all, Iranian EFL textbooks can be analyzed from different point of views. In Iran, the issue of textbook evaluation has attracted the attention of several researchers (Azizfar, 2009; Riazi & Mosalamnejad, 2010; Rahimpour & Hashemi, 2011, Ahmadi & Deakhshan, 2015). They have used various textbook evaluation schemes, models and checklists for evaluating different textbooks and materials. Majority of textbook evaluation in Iranian contexts were on

high school text books and few of them focused on junior secondary school textbooks. In order to shed light on the issues in this area, the relevant literature that addresses the previous studies and activities will be reviewed.

Azizfar (2009) conducted his research on textbook evaluation. To do this, he used Tucker's (1975) textbook evaluation model. He modified, added, omitted some elements of the evaluating model and added some elements which include pronunciation, grammar, content and general criteria in order to obtain the objectives of his study. He used this model to evaluate two locally produced series of English textbooks "Graded English series (GE)" and Right Path to English series (RPE) "used in Iranian high schools since 1970 and hoped the findings of his research can help English teachers, students, material designers in order to improve the quality of textbooks and the quality of teaching and learning English in Iran's educational system. The virtues and shortcomings of each series are evaluated, analyzed and compared.

According to the results, he found that two textbook series are approximately the same. The main difference is on the pronunciation part in which GE contains several serious weaknesses. GE and RPE are based on structure grammar. On the other hand, the communicative aspects of language teaching are neglected in two series. In general, the results revealed that RPE does not cover up most of inadequacies and deficiencies of GE. In addition, both of the series emphasized the practice of the linguistic forms and cannot provide the students and teachers' needs with regard to the Iranian educational system. Two series ignore the communicative role of the language. It is suggested that the textbook developers can give opportunity the learners to communicatively practice language in the textbooks.

Moreover, Rahimpour and Hashemi (2011) evaluated the three English language high school textbooks in Iran from the high school English teachers' prospective. For this purpose, a 46-item checklist includes five sections. Fifty high school teachers with more than five years of teaching experience were asked to complete the questionnaire. According to the results, generally, the textbooks are not adequate from the teachers' views considering their five sections, their physical make-up, and some practical concerns.

In a study, Guilani, Yasin, and Hua (2011) aimed to evaluate the authenticity of the Iranian English textbooks at high school level by using Dougill's textbook evaluation checklist (as cited in Sheldon, 1987, pp. 29-36). It was given to 30 experienced English teachers who have already taught the three books. They were asked to give their opinions about the books based on the checklist and their own personal comments and suggestions. Moreover, they selected some of the items from the checklist and give to 200 students at three grades of high school. Then the data were analyzed and compared with each other, Furthermore, they will be criticized according to certain principles of CLT approach which attempt

   1. To create real communication;

   2. To provide opportunities for students to communicate, interact and negotiate the meaning;

   3. To supply opportunities for learners to acquire what they know;

   4. To provide the learners to improve their accuracy and fluency;

   5. To make a connection among the different skills of speaking, reading, listening, and writing;

   6. To make a connection between grammar and communicative tasks;

   7. To select content based on students' lives and interests;

   8. To make opportunities for the students to personalize learning according to their own lives (p.27).

Based on the findings, the three high school English textbooks for Iranian schools pay attention to reading and structure, and provide the students how to use words in sentences correctly. Furthermore, the learners' needs are neglected. These books have taught for many years without any change, therefore the teachers do not try to improve their knowledge. The teachers think that it is not necessary to prepare new questions for the test, because they have already collected all the questions from first years of teaching experience. In other words, the teachers do not feel it obligatory to be updated. On the basis of finding, the materials arrangement, the vocabulary and grammatical points, and the appearance of the book need critical attention and revising and changing the books is necessary.

Shabani and MansooriNejad (2013) carried out an impressive study and evaluated the third grade high school English textbook to seek its significance in the language program. To this end, a questionnaire adopted from Litz (2001) is used. Two hundred thirty three students and 5 teachers teaching this book were chosen from some schools in Ilam. The results obtained shocked the researchers showed that the textbook appears to need to revise in many parts of the textbooks regarding its layout and design, activities, skills, language types, subject and context. Furthermore, this textbook was unchanged for many years even the pictures of the book. The existence of institutes beside Iranian educational system make problem for the teachers in their methodology. The last and most important problem is evitable revision of the textbook and lack of modern technology such as computer, media tools and internets in the textbook. Everyone knows that using modern technology not only increase the speed of learning but also intensifies the quality of the learning.

Ahour, Towhidian and Saeidi (2013) scrutinized the appropriateness of "English Textbook 2" for Iranian EFL second grade high school students from the teachers' perspectives. The textbook was analyzed based on a checklist proposed by Litz (2005). The checklist was a 5-point Likert scale and three criteria such as subject and content, activities, and skills out of seven criteria in Litz's (2005) checklist were picked for this study. Twenty five teachers participated were from different high schools in Boukan, Iran. On the basis of perception of teachers, this book has some disadvantages. The subject and content of the textbook do not attract the students' interest, needs, and concerns. The exercises and activities in the textbook do not involve and encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice. The textbook

do not consider the listening, speaking, and writing skills and only the reading skill is emphasized. At the end, according to the teachers' view points, "English textbook 2" is not applicable for Iranian high school students in terms of subject and content, activities, and skills.

I. The Strengths and Weaknesses of the Textbooks in Ministry of Education in Iran

In a study in Iran, Jahangard (2007) concentrated on the strengths and weaknesses of the textbooks. He evaluated four Iranian EFL high schools textbooks. He stated that the students' oral skills are neglected in Iranian EFL textbooks and not tested in the final exams. Oral drills, pronunciation, listening and speaking abilities are not emphasized. On the other hand the emphasize is on reading, writing, grammar and vocabulary. The main attention is paid to help students pass final exams, and students' speaking skills are not tested.

In line with Jahangard' (2007) study, Moghtadi (2014) intended to review EFL Iranian textbooks and worked on evaluating four high school textbooks in order to compare and find out the strengths and weaknesses of Iranian EFL high school textbooks from completely different views. The findings showed that there are many visible differences between the learners' desires, and the materials of the textbooks. The textbooks presented the vocabulary knowledge in context and concentrated on reading comprehension. The textbooks are based on structure and they ignore the communicative role of the language. Furthermore, these textbooks are not considered based on CLT principles. Integration of four language skills was ignored. There are more reading skill practices in the textbooks. In conclusion, it is suggested that these EFL textbooks need to change. In revising the textbooks, good qualities of the textbooks should be maintained and the insufficiencies ought to be removed. It is recommended that textbooks developers pay close attention to these weaknesses and revise the textbooks in line with latest trends in the world.

J. Studies Related to the Developing Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

Developing criteria is a complex activity. There are many models, checklists and frameworks to evaluate any textbooks. Many experts support a very detailed examination of a course book language content. A review of producing the EFL material evaluation demonstrates that checklists all have a set of criteria. For example, Skierso's (1991) checklist includes the features related to bibliographical data, purposes, subject matter, vocabulary and structures, exercise and activities and layout and physical makes up. These fields are in keeping with those in Cunningsworth's (1995) checklist which comprise of "aims and approaches", "design and organization", language content, skills, topic, methodology and practical consideration. Some elements in the above checklists are the same and useful for the evaluation of the textbooks.

Similarly, an Iranian checklist developer, Razmjoo (2010) conducted a study to develop an evaluative model. In order to reach this, he investigated and reviewed the available textbook evaluation schemes and checklists and sought the specialists' viewpoints with the purpose of developing and designing a textbook evaluation scheme related and beneficial to the expanding circle. He mentioned that the uses and users of English internationally could be classified in terms of three concentric circles. The researcher provided a semi –structured interview including questions which were borrowed from studies on proposing textbook evaluation schemes such as Littlejohn (1998), Sheldon (1988), Tuckers (1975) and Ur (1996).The interviews lasted 30 minutes for the respondents to answer. Finally he proposed and suggested a checklist with six major categories as follows: 1.Language components 2.Tasks, activities and exercises 3. Language skills 4.Teacher's manual 5.General consideration 6.Critical discourse analysis (CDA) features for Iranian contexts using expanding circles and consisting 41 items. The model is suitable for the stakeholders. The methodology and content of the materials in a particular language-teaching context were taken into consideration in this scheme and this proposed local checklist are appropriateness and adequacy of the textbooks and materials for specific situations with regard to the institution and purpose, teachers, learners, curriculum, and socio-cultural context.

III. CONCLUSION

From the studies that have been carried out, it is possible to conclude that the evaluators try to find out the strengths and weaknesses of textbooks and provide the opportunity to use English courses as a means of preparing students for future life. So, it can help teachers to employ the textbooks which are suitable according to student's needs.

On the basis of findings, this kind of research helps the materials developers pay critical attention to the materials arrangement, the vocabulary and grammatical points, language skills, language teaching methods and the appearance of the book. The researchers offer some suggestions for the writers of the textbooks that it is better to modify or revise them to satisfy students' needs. The present paper deals with different issues with which have great teachers' perceptions of different textbooks. Further, it helps the teachers to obtain their aims and language classroom 'objectives. In addition, the teachers need to know to what extent are the textbooks appropriate for different classes with different number of the students and sexes. Finally, the researchers recommended the teachers, syllabus designers, material preparers, curriculum developers, and course book designer evaluate the newly- published textbooks which will help the Ministry of education to revise and modify the existence textbook or

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A Study of Written Grammatical Errors of Iranian EFL Learners at Undergraduate Level

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Abstract—This article is designed to investigate a study of written grammatical errors of Iranian EFL learners at undergraduate level. The main purpose of error analysis is to express the learners' errors in target language. One of the major topics interested in English language is error analysis by research scholars more than four decades. Today, Error analysis plays an important part in the study of foreign or second language acquisition in over the world. There is, in fact, errors in learning and teaching of language are significant. This project is designed for the students who are studying at Payam Noor University in the first year under graduate level with a Persian language as a native language. The participants for this article were 100 students at undergraduate level at Payam Noor University in Bushehr city, Iran. In this article, the three kinds of tests such as General English Proficiency Test; Background Questionnaire; and Grammatical Test were used in order to show the ability of the students in the field of Error analysis. The outcome of this article indicated that there is a significant difference in types of written grammatical errors by Iranian EFL learners.

Index Terms—error analysis, contrastive analysis, Iranian EFL learners, English language teaching and learning, English as foreign language

I. INTRODUCTION

The main aim of this article is to investigate a study of written grammatical errors of Iranian EFL learners at undergraduate level. Before inquiring error analysis as the main topic in this research, we need to consider contrastive hypothesis briefly in this part of this paper. Contrastive analysis was appeared in the middle of the 20 century, as one of the most important applied linguistics studies. Fisiak (1981) mentioned that contrastive linguistics focused on the comparison of two or more languages or subsystems of language in order to show both differences and similarities between them (cited in Khansir, 2012a). This hypothesis has been rooted in the behavioristic and structuralist approaches. Khansir (2012a) mentioned that Fries was the first linguist, studied contrastive linguistics in 1945. Then, after him, one of the applied linguistics linguist namely, Robert Lado followed this hypothesis about ten years later, thus; he discussed this hypothesis in his book, "Linguistic Across Cultures" in 1956. Khansir (2008b) said that contrastive analysis theory believed that native language interference was as the major source of errors in second language learning. Birjandi et al (2006) argued that contrastive analysis has focused on two main assumptions: 1. the learners' native language interferes with the target language; 2. interference from the mother tongue is the main cause of errors.

Research on error analysis has been carried out for a number of decades. The error analysis hypothesis as one of the applied linguistics branches has been introduced by Corder in 1967. In order to get more information about learners' errors in second or foreign language, we consider errors of second language learners based on a new approach appeared instead of contrastive hypothesis in 1967 is called error analysis. Error analysis followed the two main purposes in order to determine the learners' errors in language in early its appearances: the first is that errors are considered as natural process of learning a language; they used as integrate part of learning; they appeared as a significant system and inevitable in learning a second language; the second part of this purpose is that interference of mother tongue is not the only source of errors in learning second language. Brown (1987) indicated that in the process of second language learning, the four types of stages are used by the learners, each of which has certain characteristics. He mentioned them as follows:

1. Pre-systematic stage: in this stage, the learner is not aware of the fact there is some systematic order to a particular class of items.

2. Emergence stage: in this stage, the learner has started to understand that the target language has got a system of interrelated rules.

3. Systematic stage: in this stage, the learner is able to produce target language more than previous stage.

4. Post –systematic stage: in this stage which is also called stabilization, the learner has made few errors and has got some fluency in the target language; the learner also has the ability of self- correction without waiting for feedback from someone else.

Ellis (2003) mentioned that one of the main ways of investigating second language acquisition is by collecting and describing samples of learner language. He added that there are good reasons in order to consider learners errors. First, they are a conspicuous feature of learner language, following this question, why do learners make errors? Second, it is useful for teachers to know what errors learners make. Third, paradoxically, it is possible that making errors may actually help learners to learn when they self –correct the errors they make. Brown (2007) tried to define error analysis, as "the fact that learners do make errors, and that these errors can be observed, analyzed, and classified to reveal something of the system operating within the learner, led to a surge of study of learners' errors, called error analysis (p. 285)".

In discussion of statement of problem, one of the important reasons that researchers of this paper selected this topic is that they felt that the standard of English of written skill is not satisfactory in EFL setting, especially in Iran. English language used as foreign language in Iran. In addition, in Iran English is taught from middle school as foreign language (Khansir and Dashti, 2014). Several times, they observed that learners of English face several problems in using of English in general and writing in particular. One of the most important problems is that the teachers of English face a large number of written errors committed by the learners at undergraduate level every day in their classroom teaching and particularly in the syntactic work of the students. In this paper; thus, the main aim of this paper is to cover: a) to examine kinds of errors in English language; b) to compare kinds of errors in tenses, active and passive voice, prepositions; c) to suggest remedial measures to overcome the committing of the errors. This article used one question and one hypothesis of the study is written as follows:

1. Is there a significant difference in types of written grammatical errors by Iranian EFL learners?
2. There is a significance difference in types of written grammatical errors by Iranian EFL learners.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of error analysis as one of branches of applied linguistics for helping teachers, syllabus designers, and teachers has always played as a basis for remedial language teaching in recent years. Khansir (2008b) mentioned that language teachers and researchers have studied errors analysis to identify the learners' errors in order to help them improve their language and use English language flawlessly. In this article, many research works have been concerned with error analysis in recent years over the world mentioned as follows:

Khansir (2012b) reported on the syntactic errors such as auxiliary verbs, passive voice, indirect form, preposition, tag question, relative pronouns, WH- question, and tense in writing of Iranian and Indian students. Data collected of this study has been done from two universities, the first university was from Mysore University, India and the second university was from Bushehr Islamic Azad University in Iran. The study followed EFL students in Iran and ESL in India. Two hundred students from the universities joined to this project as participants. Finally, Khansir found that the total number of errors committed by the Iranian students was 2841 and that of their Indian peers was 3736. Khansir (2013) investigated five types of Iranian and Indian written errors such as paragraph, punctuation, articles, spelling, and conjunction. In this project, two hundred students from Mysore, India and Bushehr Islamic Azad University in Iran selected as the sample of this project. This study tried to demonstrate errors of writing of EFL and ESL learners produce in this paper. However, this project also pointed out those Indian students has committed more errors than Iranian students. Based on the result of this study Iranian students have committed 3045 written errors whereas their Indian peers have committed 3274 written errors. Saraireh (2014) examined common practice errors related to syntax in English-into-Arabic translation in Jordan. His participants were studying at BA and MA levels. Thus, in this research work, the students translated texts, and subtitled or dubbed movies and documentaries. The findings of this paper showed that errors of this study can be attributed to several factors: incompetence in the SL or the TL or both, translator's attitude, misunderstanding of modification (what constituent modifies what), shallow encyclopedic knowledge of the translator, ignoring the context, and influence of dialects. Zawahreh (2012) focused on the written English errors of learners in Ajloun, Jordon. In this article, three hundred fifty students were selected as the sample of the study. The samples consisted of both female and male learners of schools. The learners were asked to write a free essay in English language. The results of this study indicated that the students committed errors in turn within morphology; function words; syntax; tenses; lexical items. He mentioned that the errors of this study due to lack of knowledge of learners in using essay writing. Sawalmeh (2013) analyzed English essay of thirty two Saudi students who were joined the Preparatory Year Program at University of Ha'il. The learners are asked to write an essay in English language. In addition, the sample of this work was male. The outcome of this article pointed to ten types of errors in written essay committed by the learners such as verb tense, word order, singular/plural form, subject-verb agreement, double negatives, spellings, capitalization, articles sentence fragments and prepositions. Khansir (2008a) investigated English errors of Indian students studying B.Com at Mysore University. The sample of this paper consisted of one hundred college learners. The main aim of this article was to classify errors of auxiliary verbs, passive and tenses of the learners in second language setting. The findings of this paper pointed out that teaching English and learning strategies were the cause of errors in this study. Dela Peña (2009) analyzed written errors of 21 faculty members of collages at the Liceo de Cagayan University. The teachers have taught in the college science, math, and engineering. Thus, they are asked to write essays in this research. The essays of the teachers were considered and the researcher

identified the common errors in writing. The results of the study focused on errors committed by the teachers were in grammar and punctuation. Finally, this paper reported that teachers need to get more accuracy in the use of English.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants for the present study were 100 at undergraduate level at the Bushehr Payam Noor University in Bushehr, Iran. In this paper, both male and female students were participants in order to collect data. However, the students were randomly selected from different classes in the same educational level at the Payam Noor University after they took General English Proficiency test. The groups of one hundred students were selected for computer analysis after they took grammatical test.

B. Instruments

Based on the question and hypothesis of this research paper, the researchers decided to select instruments for their research purpose. The instruments used for this article consisted of Background Questionnaire, General English Proficiency test, and Grammatical Judgment Test. The background questionnaire was developed by the investigators in order to get information on the learners' subjects. The test included 10 questions that were related to the learners' family, age, language attitude and siblings, etc. second test of this paper was General English Proficiency test which used in order to get information about the participants' level multiple choice vocabulary, grammar and reading comprehension items. The grammatical judgment test was last test of this study was developed by the researchers in order to collect data. The Grammatical judgment test utilized in this research was: Tenses, voice (active and passive), and prepositions which were used in the form of multiple - choice tests.

C. Procedure

In order to get the aim of this article, the research procedures were used as follows:
1. Development of the background questionnaire and administration of background questionnaire;
2. Administration of General English Proficiency test ;
3. Development of the grammatical judgment test, and administration of the grammatical judgment test.

Before the collection of this research data, the researchers informed the Bushehr Payam Noor University and their teachers and students on the aim of the research. The first question was administered to the learners was General English Proficiency test. In administering the questionnaire, the investigators selected fifteen the students in order to pilot the questionnaire for reliability of the test. In addition, in order to achieve the purpose of the reliability of the test, they chose 15 students with similar characteristics participated in the pilot study. The General English Proficiency Test was found to be appropriate for the participants' level and its reliability through the K-R 21 formula turned out to be 0.65 and 0.67. The second test developed and administered by the researchers was the background questionnaire. This test focused on the information about the students' family, age, language attitude and language use, etc. The last test of this study was the grammatical judgment test was developed by the investigators in order to measure the students' knowledge of grammatical structures. Note that the test was used to identify the type of errors of Iranian EFL students in this research. It was chosen to examine the ability of the students in selecting the correct grammatical rules of the sentences in English language. In administering this test, the researchers carried out a pilot test for the purpose of the reliability of the test in this paper. In addition, 15 students of the same level and similar characteristic participated in the pilot study. To ensure whether the grammatical judgment test is appropriate for subjects of the current study, the researchers experimented with the K-R21 formula. Applying this formula to measure the reliability of grammatical judgment test for the Iranian learners were 0.62 and 0.64. However, the Grammatical judgment test used in this research consisted of Tenses, voice (active and passive), and prepositions which were utilized in the form of multiple - choice tests.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Error analysis focuses on language competence of learners in second or foreign language. Chomsky (1965) made a fundamental distinction between competence as the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his/her language and performance as the actual use of language in concrete situation. Corder (1967) added that errors related to competence of learners, he discussed clearly that this kind of errors are systematic and second or foreign language learners commit this kind of errors, however; there may be errors which are non-systematic errors , a native speaker may commit this kind of errors, this kind of errors are called mistake or lapse. This error is related to performance of learners. The results of this paper are discussed in this part of this paper.

After analyzing the Grammatical Judgment Test, the following table and its figure show that the errors were committed by the undergraduate students.

TABLE (1):
GRAMMATICAL JUDGMENT TEST

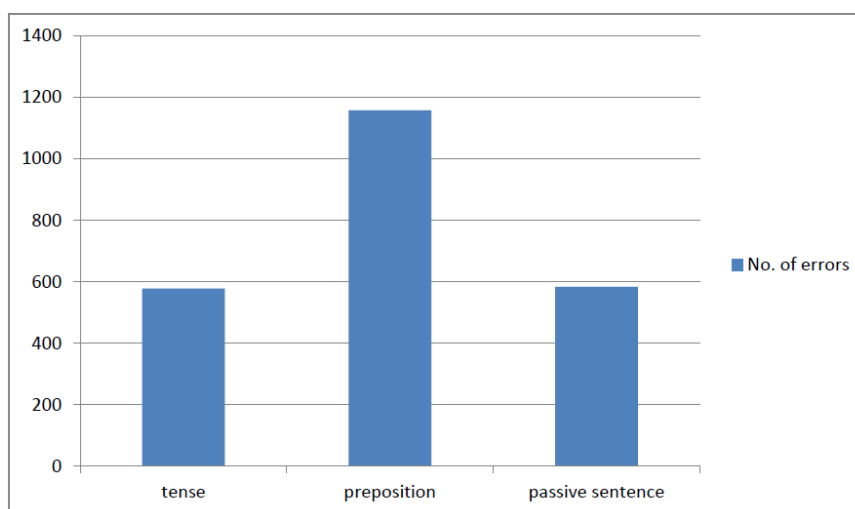| Test item	Undergraduate level	
Sentence level	Number of errors	Percent
Active and passive voice	584	29.2
Preposition	1158	57.9
Tense	578	28.9
Total	2320	38.6

Figure (1): Grammatical judgment test,

Table 1 and its figure revealed that the total number of errors committed by the undergraduate students at Bushehr Paym Noor University was 2320. In this category, Iranian learner committed 584 active and passive errors which came to 29.2% of this project. In the part of preposition errors, they made 1158 errors which came to 57.9% and, the last item of this category was tense, in the item, the learners produced 578 errors came to 28.9% of this paper. We can see that in the part of preposition, Iranian learners committed more errors than other parts of errors in this study. The details of the errors of this paper are discussed in turn. Passive structures are often chosen when people want to talk about an action, but are not interested in saying who or what does/did it. Active verbs are chosen when does of action. For example, she drove the car. In English, in general, the passive rule requires transposition of the object: Object to the position of subject and transposition of the subject to the position of object after 'by' and the insertion of to be + pp. For example, she will open the mail. The mail will be opened by her. However, passive voice is used when the person or the thing acted upon is to be made more prominent. Table (2) revealed that the total number of errors in active and passive voice was 584 which came to 29.2. The major errors observed were the wrong use of passive simple present tense instead of passive simple past tense. The undergraduate students' errors in this area were 33% of errors for active and passive tenses. The second and third most frequent errors were found in past perfect tense instead of the passive present perfect tense and present perfect tense instead of the passive present perfect tense, which were (28.2%) and (26.7%) respectively. Errors also occurred frequently in the use of simple past tense instead of the passive simple past tense and passive past perfect tense is used instead of the passive simple past tense., which were (22.5%) and (20%) respectively. In order to avoid errors in the use of passive voice, the students should be made familiar with the rules of transformation from active to passive and vice-versa. Teachers should do some practice based on the rules of change of the voice to ensure the students having acquired. The second part of this study was tense; we discussed this part along with details. Tense is a grammatical category used to indicate the time of action or event. In any language, tense is divided into three classes namely: 'Present tense', 'Past tense, 'Future tense'. In English, the verb system is not clearly organized around the concept of time. Thus, the grammatical category 'tense' in English does not strictly refer to time but to the form of the verb. Tense may, therefore, be described as 'grammatical time' as against the concept of 'optional time'. According to Khansir (2010), the structure of the verb system in English and Persian is different. In English the structure of the sentence is as subject + verb + object (S+ V+ O) whereas in Persian it is as subject + object + verb (S+O+V). Of the 20 types of grammatical errors identified, it was apparent that the undergraduate student participants had the greatest problem with using present continues tense instead of the simple present tense which was 30% of tense errors of this paper. These tests indicated that the students cannot handle the difference tense forms of the verbs. They didn't know how to answer the questions. The students had used present continues tense instead of the simple present tense and vice versa frequently. It is found that the learners were not properly aware of the rules of tenses. Therefore, their lack of knowledge of the proper use of tenses led to errors in this category. The learners should be taught how to use verbs in their tense forms in English through some suitable drills along with their separate rules. In addition, the use of various tenses should be taught in English for the learners. The number of errors in the selection of preposition was 1158 which came to 57.9%. Analysis of data has been shown in the above table and its figure, preposition errors committed by

undergraduate students at the Bushehr Payam Noor University. Wrong use of preposition in the context was main cause of the errors of this paper .Preposition plays a crucial role in English. It is generally used before a noun or pronoun to show place, position, time etc. The errors committed by the subjects in using the prepositions showed that they did not have knowledge of the rules (usage) for using even the simple prepositions in English. It may be partly because of the lack of their practice in classroom. The learner should be taught use of preposition in English. The teacher should do some exercise containing various types of errors in the use of prepositions and ask her/his students to correct the errors in the context.

V. Conclusion

Error analysis has attributed the difficulty of learning second or foreign language learners in EFL or ESL settings. Consideration of learners' errors in target language also leads to results of output of learners which influence language learning. As errors are related to the learner's needs and perception on language leaning. However, more generally the focus on the learner's errors helps the teachers, syllabus designers, learners and even educational system in the area. What we wanted to do is to show a study of written grammatical errors of Iranian EFL learners at undergraduate level. What we are saying is that the Iranian learners have not perfected in using of English grammatical structures in general and in using of English tenses, passive and active voice, and preposition in particular in this project. However, the results of our paper showed that there is a significant difference in types of written grammatical errors by Iranian EFL learners. In other words, the hypothesis was accepted.

What is important to indicate is that many researchers conduct error analysis studies in the target language because they are interested in collecting data relating to English language learning and their aim is to gain a better understanding of how instruction works and how error analysis facilities language learning in English language for second or foreign language learners. This paper conducted a study to investigate written grammatical errors in EFL settings in order to help the students achieve greater accuracy in their writing.

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Developing Teachers' Expertise to Teach English Language: An Evaluative Study of Professional Development Programme at Taif University English Language Centre

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Abstract—**Language teachers need opportunities to enhance and update their language teaching skills. Current researches in English language teaching methodologies have proved that teachers who stay up to date with latest teaching techniques are always efficient. They always need to be trained and aware of how they can continue being effective teachers and cope with relative challenges such as students' low level of language proficiency, large number of students in class at a time and longer teaching hours. Hence the sole objective of the present research is to evaluate the effectiveness of Professional Development Program (PDP) of Taif University. Seeking for this objective, the researcher collected the data through a questionnaire from the participating teachers both males (50) and females (50). The survey was based on five principles drawn by Loucks-Horsley, et al. (2010). The respondents acknowledged the utility and importance of continuous up gradation of their professional development and leadership skills. They also acknowledged that PDP provides learning opportunity for them. Furthermore they regarded PDP in line with the TU-ELC mission, goal, and objectives. However, they expressed constraints regarding experimentation of new instructional practices, continuous support and follow-up activities, and a research base similar to the ELC situation, community and context.**

Index Terms—**teacher development, English language teaching, continuous professional development**

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of professional development especially among teachers of English has always been a subject of great interest. There are certain processes and practices that may help them to improve their teaching skills, knowledge and attitude and such improvement assures change in the intellectual, physical, emotional, and social development of each student (Fullan, 2005).There is a variety of pre-service teacher training courses but most of the teachers believe in life-long education and learning that goes beyond such acquisitions and have thus sought various platforms for continuing professional development (CPD). "A cursory search for CPD websites gives us 10,600,000 sites on professional development and 99,400,000 sites for professional development of teachers and teacher organizations. These sites have a range of topics from theoretical inputs, tasks, lesson plans, action-research projects and tool kits for ICT" (Shivakumar, 2013, p.71)

CPD ensures professionalism in all spheres of society, especially in teaching profession. Enabling teachers to abreast with the demands of modern teaching practices, pedagogy and teaching methodology, and to follow the latest developments in their profession, it is necessary to systematically organize and ensure teachers' participation in various professional development activities. Putnam and Borko (1997) discuss four essential maxims of professional development of teachers considering them as active learners constructing their own understanding, empowered and treated as professionals, situated in classroom practices, and teacher trainers should treat them as students.

It is difficult to define professional development as there are so many factors like educational reforms, methodology, types of activities, delivery methods, government agenda, individual agenda and various models of development that influence the concept.Experts provide different perspectives and insight into professional development. Professional development means workshops, study groups, action research and professional conversation between teachers (Crossman, 1994), learning that teachers undertake from courses to private reading (Craft, 2000), not only about knowledge but also about teaching skills (Frechtling & Katzenmyer, 2001), an intentional, on-going, systematic process of activities aimed at positive improvement and change (Guskey, 2000), and transformation in teachers' practice (Feiman-Nemser, 2001). CPD also helps teachers to acquire knowledge and skills to ensure quality and successful collaboration with colleagues, management, and local communities. "Professional development enables teachers to continuously acquire, expand and extend their knowledge and to develop skills and abilities with the aim of improving the quality of both teaching and learning, as well as the achievements of all students" (Popovic & Subotic, 2013 p.108). Teachers' participation in professional development activities may arise from an interest in lifelong learning, a sense of

moral obligation, a felt need to enhanceprofessional competence, or to keep abreast of recent developments in their field of work (Golding & Gray, 2006).

Teachers need to equip themselves with the hands-on opportunities to acquire teaching strategies required to understand the shifts in curriculum, instruction and assessment in the twenty first century standards. This shift is not only in content knowledge but in practice as well. Core areas in the domain of ELT, like learning progression, continuous assessment in relation to the learning continuum, curriculum and instructional support to respond to students' needs are required to be understood. This will lead to produce deep learning in students. This research will help administration and teachers regarding recent developments and practices in the field of language teaching.

Established in 2009, the English Language Centre of Taif University has been catering for 20 faculties in the University providing English language programs for about 15000 students of both genders every year. The purpose is to prepare the students to undertake English-medium instruction and to help them improve English as an effective means of communication in their relevant fields of study. The TUELC mission is consistent with the TU policies, relevant to the community needs and cultural values of the Kingdom. The mission has been developed in consultation with the stakeholders and is reviewed keeping in view the changes in the field of ELT. Realizing the importance of continuous professional development, TUELC initiated professional development programme in 2012. A series of bi-annual weeklong theme-based CPD was designed and executed. After having completing three years, a need was felt to assess the CPD in terms of development in teachers' skills and practices.

Research Question

How do teachers perceive TUELC-PDP helping them to develop their professional skills?

Objectives

1. To investigate factors influencing TUELC professional development program
2. To identify practices that promote and ensure professional development

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Richards (2011) has explored ten core dimensions of an exemplary English language teacher. These dimensions range from knowing the language of instruction to the capacity to derive theory from practice: the language proficiency factor, role of content knowledge, teaching skills, contextual knowledge, language teacher's identity, learner-focused teaching, pedagogical reasoning skills, professional development, belonging to a community of practice, and professionalism. Richards argues that teachers' philosophies should be addressed in professional development programs because they help teachers learn. Teaching philosophies are shaped by the ability to reflect upon experience and arrive at principles for second-language teaching and learning.

Being the heart of the classroom, a teachers' competence in the teaching-learning process is important (Hawes, 1979; Galabawa, 2001) and one must be competence, academically and pedagogically. He must be efficient, knows teaching and learning methods and have access to resources, and enjoys support from administration (Rogan, 2004; Van den Akker & Thijs, 2002; Mosha, 2004). The ultimate goal of professional development is better educational programs and outcomes for all students in the institution.

There are various models of professional development. There is a traditional approach, one-size-fits-all, context-independent model of teacher learning (Vescio et al., 2008) but the recent trends in situated nature of learning (Wenger, 1998), new models have been introduced focusing on teacher's own practical knowledge and context (Burbank & Kauchak, 2003). CPD engages teachers in sharing in their own unique context (Darling-Hammond, 2003) enabling them in self and critical reflection. That's why definitions of CPD differ according to educational traditional and contexts. In well-established teacher education institutions and programmes, professional development is considered as experiences in a teacher's career (Arends et al. 1998) through a process having activities that enhance professional career growth (Tecle, 2006).

Richards and Farrell (2005) differentiate the terms training and development. They argue that training is about preparing teachers for the teaching task itself, that is, techniques that would help them cope with teaching situations such as adapting materials and grouping learners among others. On the other hand, development involves teachers' knowledge of themselves and of their teaching situations. Development is bottom-up because it "often involves examining different dimensions of a teacher's practice as a basis for reflective review" (Richards & Farrell, 2005, p. 4). Dimensions they include arethe understanding of how students learn language and the analysis of teachers' philosophies for language teaching.

Professional development is a long-term and complex process and it is '...a planned, continuous and lifelong process whereby teachers try to develop their personal and professional qualities, and to improve their knowledge, skills and practice, leading to their empowerment, the improvement of their agency and the development of their organisations and their pupils' (Padwad and Dixit, 2011, p.10). The vision of lifelong learning and continuous professional development requires a teacher who is capable of reflection and self-evaluation. Harding (2009) enlists the Professional Development which are continuous, individual teacher's responsibility, evaluative rather than descriptive, and an essential component of professional life, not an extra.

In the EFL context, different aspects of paradigm shift in foreign language teacher education (Jacobs & Farrell, 2001) haverendered professional development urgent for in-service teachers (Shang, 2010). Recent developments in the field

of professional development has shifted the focus to the increased emphasis on the role of the learner (rather than the teacher), the learning process (rather than the product), thesocial nature of learning (rather than learners as de-contextualized individuals), learnerdiversity as a resource (rather than an impediment), learning as a lifelong process(rather than exam preparation), assessment for learning (rather than of learning) etc.(Jacobs & Farrell, 2001). Published research has demonstrated that professional development canimpact positively on educational processes and outcomes (Fullan& Hargreaves, 2002).

Villegas-Reimers (2003), Díaz-Maggioli (2004), and Wilde (2010) opined that CPD must engage teachers in reflective and collaborative work including teachers' skills, knowledge, and experience. Also, such programmes may provide teachers with opportunities to develop their professional practice and receive feedback on it. This kind of practice engages teachers as learners. We also need to understand the actual realization of how these programs come about when they are designed and implemented. Institutional support and adequate infrastructure as well as teacher willingness are some of the conditions for professional development programs to be successful.

In pre- and in-service professional development, workshops, courses and similar CPD activities contribute significantly. Researchers (Broad & Evans, 2006; Timperley, Wilson, Barrar & Fung, 2008) suggested the following features for a successful CPD: need-based, teacher involvement in decision making, collaboration, institutional support, critical reflection on beliefs and practices, mentoring, follow-up, and valuing teacher's experience and knowledge.

Kruse and Luis (1997) and Quinn & Restine (1996) argue for an interactive, on-the-job coaching and mentoring approach to the CPD due to its cost-effectiveness. They suggested organizing workshops in small groups engaging qualified senior teachers to serve as trainers and mentors. Such formal arrangements for professional development are supported by informal practices like team teaching and the sharing of experiences and educational resources among teachers, which greatly contributes to self improvement. This approach has the advantage of stimulating healthy debates about various reform measures and innovations and encouraging collaboration, peer coaching, inquiry, collegial study groups, reflective discussion and action (Pounder, 1999).

Professional development programmes are constructed keeping in view the basic principles of adult education. The research on adult education indicates that adult learn and retain best with realistic and relevant goals, discussion and analysis in small groups, promoting a positive self-image, getting feedback and results, and presence of on-going learning opportunities.

In their study, Álvarez and Sánchez (2005) found that the CPD helped teachers to become aware of their teaching practices and of the need to update themselves continuously. The participants had a chance to share pedagogical ideas and improve their language proficiency as well. Activities engaged them as learners in a meaningful manner and they became aware of teaching issues that affect learners.

Sierra (2007) argues that teachers involved in CPD activities the teachers developed research skills, critical thinking skills, collaborative skills and teacher attitudes. The participants were participative and contributed to the CPD activities and they developed positive attitudes toward being engaged in CPD.

Ariza and Ramos (2010) conducted an action research study and found that the CPD allowed the participants to make connections between theory and practice, helped them to discuss problematic areas in their teaching contexts, and helped the participants to become more reflective about their teaching practice.

TU-ELC PDP was conceived and started in 2012. During this series various themes relating to English language teaching were included and discussed in weeklong bi-annual workshops for male and female faculty members working in the Centre. Teachers having different nationalities and qualification/experience have to teach English to Arab students enrolled in various levels of English proficiency courses in their preparatory year.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

To evaluate the effectiveness of the CPD, a survey was conducted based on the following principles drawn by Loucks-Horsley, et al. (2010) based on the work of Fullan, 2005; Guskey, 2000; Loucks-Horsley, Stiles, & Hewson, 1996:
- *Principle 1: Build on foundation of skills, knowledge, and expertise*
- *Principle 2: Engage participants as learners*
- *Principle 3: Provide practice, feedback, and follow-up*
- *Principle 4: Measure changes in teacher knowledge and skills*
- *Principle 5: Measure changes in student performance*

Based on the above principles, a questionnaire was designed and executed to 50 male and 50 female teachers at the English language centre who have been participating in the TUELC Professional Development Program regularly. The statements had five options from strongly agreed to strongly disagreed. The responses were tabulated using average as the purpose of getting feedback from participants was to know the effectiveness of the on-going PDP.

IV. DATA PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION

The survey on the effectiveness of the TU-ELC PDP had five sessions keeping in view the five principles as discussed in the research design. Each statement had five options: strongly agreed, agreed, no sure, disagreed, and

strongly disagreed. For the purpose of discussion, the data was tabulated in average (5-maximum to 1-minimum) to evaluate the effectiveness of the on-going TU-ELC PDP.

A. *Build on Foundation of Skills, Knowledge, and Expertise*

In designing a CPD for teachers, the first principle provides us basic guidelines that the CPD should be based on participants' knowledge, skills and experience, and their desire to participate in such activities.

TABLE 1:
PRINCIPLE 1 - BUILD ON FOUNDATION OF SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE, AND EXPERTISE (SCALE: 5-1)

	Statements	Male	Female	Both
1	Staff is receptive to professional development activities – they recognize the need; readiness has been developed.	3.98	3.43	3.71
2	The program provides for challenging changes in knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs of participants.	3.88	3.35	3.62
3	I model continuous upgrading of my own professional development and leadership skills.	4.55	4.08	4.32

The participants' response (4.32) to the statement 'I model continuous upgrading of my own professional development and leadership skills' reflects their desire to enhance their skills keeping view the rapid changes in educational activities all around the world which have brought new requirements into classroom instructions. It means that teachers try to keep themselves updated with the change and plan their own professional development. They ought to be open to changing scenario to learn and enhance their teaching skills. This is how they can make a difference in their classroom practices and student learning. Professional development has an impact on teachers' knowledge, skills, motivation, and thus classroom teaching and student learning (Yoon, Duncan, Lee, & Shapely, 2008).

The participants (3.71) also recognized the need of professional development as they are aware of changes in teaching theories and practices over the time and they have to keep abreast with such changes to meet the challenges in the classroom. Teachers' view must be considered while planning CPD and they must have a voice in decision making (Guskey, 2002; Stakey, 2009; Sparks and Hirsh, 1997).

In addition, they (3.62) acknowledged that the ELC CDP brought in changes in their knowledge, skills, attitude, and beliefs because it was based on their personal and professional needs. It reflects that they consider their professional development as an integral part of their career. They want to reflect on their teaching practice, share ideas and experiences, and follow new developments. Needs of teachers may be recognized by the institution to make them more dynamic in order to change their personal approach, and stimulate them to develop. So, the PDP proved a successful programme as it responded to teachers' personal needs. It corresponds to Koc (1992) and Evans (1998) ideas suggesting that needs of the teachers must be considered as an initial step before planning a CPD. Teachers may be more resistant to change when their voice is absent (Richardson, 2003) but if a CPD is based on their needs they might think it helpful in their professional development.

B. *Engage Participants as Learners*

Teachers become a part of their training if they are involved in planning their learning and they feel motivated and interested in such activities.

TABLE 2:
PRINCIPLE 2–ENGAGE PARTICIPANTS AS LEARNERS (SCALE: 5-1)

1	The learning climate of PD activities is collaborative, informal, and respectful.	4.33	3.47	3.90
2	The program includes a variety of activities designed for adult learners.	3.75	3.69	3.72
3	Teachers have regular and equal access to professional development programs.	3.78	3.06	3.42
4	The program leader is knowledgeable and has credibility with the participants.	4.30	3.55	3.93

The TU-ELC PDP participants understand their own needs and this factor leads to create a learning environment of PD activities which are collaborative, informal, and respectful, as mentioned by the participants (3.90). Knowles (1970) argues that "teachers of adults who do all the planning, who impose pre-planned activities, typically experience apathy and resentment from the learners" (p. 42).

Adults learning style differs from children as suggested by Malcolm Knowles in his theory of andragogy which is defined the "art and science of helping adults learn" (Knowles, 1970, p. 38). There are different approaches used in adult learning as they have developed a psychological need to be more self-directing. The concept of self-directed learning is also used in planning and conducting a CPD Experience of a person shared through a variety of activities designed for adult learners becomes a resource for learning, as agreed by participants (3.72). Therefore, learning would be more meaningful if it is based on experience of the participants as they take risk, experiment, and learn their mistakes while trying out new techniques in improving their professional skills (DuFour, et al, 2010).

The participants (3.42) agreed to the statement that they have regular and equal access to professional development programmes. This reflects the interest of the institution and leadership engaged in this activity. Lee (2005) stated that in professional development programs "administrators put a lot of emphases on the latest hot topics, rather than attempting to individualize and personalize professional growth plans" (p.39). That's why majority of the participants (3.93) acknowledged the leader's expertise in organizing the TUELC PDP.

C. Provide Practice, Feedback, and Follow-up

Professional development programs should provide teachers with opportunities to develop their professional practice and receive feedback on it.

TABLE 3:
PRINCIPLE 3–PROVIDE PRACTICE, FEEDBACK, AND FOLLOW-UP (SCALE: 5-1)

1	The program includes continuous support and follow-up activities.	3.45	3.37	3.41
2	The program expects and can demonstrate changes in teachers' classroom practices.	3.68	3.59	3.64
3	All PD activities include theory, demonstration, practice with feedback, and coaching.	3.88	3.18	3.53
4	The faculty has ongoing discussion groups on professional development issues.	3.83	3.35	3.59

Villegas-Reimers (2003), Díaz-Maggioli (2004), and Wilde (2010) opined that CPD must engage teachers in reflective and collaborative work; thus bringing change in their classroom practice as agreed by the majority (3.64) of the TU-ELC PDP participants. Also, Darling-Hammond (2009) argues that 'active learning opportunities allow teachers to transform their teaching' (p. 48).

In a research on a CPD, Richardson's (1990), the participants were videotaped while conducting their class. After watching themselves and having a discussion on related theories, they were asked to reflect on their teaching. Richardson found that the research based practice model resulted in a positive change in teachers' practice. Such practice is possible in case when participating teachers have discussion groups and a CPD including theory, demonstration, practice with feedback, and coaching. These two aspects were supported (3.59 and 3.53) by the participants of TU-ELC PDP.

Though the participants of the programme (3.41) acknowledged the statement that the PDP provides continuous support and follow-up activities but as a researcher I think this aspect needs more attention by making arrangements for classroom observations, discussion with teachers and students for improving teaching and learning environment at TU-ELC. For a sustainable CPD, Richardson (2003) emphasise on a long-term focus incorporating follow-up and reflection on the implementation of newly acquired skills.

D. Measure Changes in Teacher Knowledge and Skills

The fourth principle deals with changes in teacher knowledge and skills.

TABLE 4:
PRINCIPLE 4–MEASURE CHANGES IN TEACHER KNOWLEDGE AND SKILLS (SCALE: 5-1)

1	A norm of experimentation exists which permits educators to try on new instructional practices.	3.73	3.39	3.56
2	Classroom observation reflects teachers' use of an innovation and its impact on students.	3.95	3.27	3.61
3	Every teacher continues to refine their skills and knowledge.	4.13	3.57	3.85
4	Leadership advocates, encourages, and supports professional development through incentives and resources.	3.80	3.61	3.71

The participants of the TU-ELC PDP acknowledged that they (3.85) continue to refine their skills and knowledge in ELT. In a study, Desimone et al. (2002) concluded that there is a relationship between the CPD contact hours and teachers' active learning and coherence in their professional development. The same findings were made by Hustler et al. (2003) regarding the CPD duration and a perceived high impact on teachers' overall classroom practice.

Leadership encourages CPD activities in the Centre as the participants (3.71) acknowledged that leadership advocates, encourages, and support professional development through incentives and resources. TU-ELC has established a Teacher Resource Centre with update references to help teachers to keep themselves knowledgeable and updated.

Regarding classroom observation and experimentation of new instructional practices, teachers responded positively (3.61 and 3.56). However, these areas need to be streamlined to help teachers to adopt new techniques and their effects on students' learning in the classroom.

E. Measure Changes in Student Performance

The ELC helps university students to improve their English language skills that may facilitate them in understanding English-medium instructions and to communicate effectively.

TABLE 5:
PRINCIPLE 5–MEASURE CHANGES IN STUDENT PERFORMANCE (SCALE: 5-1)

1	PDP is aligned with ELC strategic plan including mission, goal and objectives.	3.93	3.80	3.87
2	The PDP has a research base similar to the ELC situation, community and context.	3.80	3.29	3.55
3	The PD approach has both long-term and short term goals tied to ELC improvement plan.	4.15	3.59	3.87
4	PDP is helpful in increasing student learning.	3.78	3.92	3.85

The majority of participants agreed to the statement that PDP is aligned with ELC strategic plan include mission, goal and objectives (3.87) and the PD approach has both long-term and short-term goals tied to ELC improvement plan (3.87). They (3.85) also agreed to the point that PDP is helpful in increasing student learning. This is in agreement with

the findings of the Gusky's (2003) investigation of effective professional development that is directly linked with student learning.

Much research (Reeves, 2010; Guskey,2003; Fullan, 1993 and 2003; Joyce and Showers, 1995; Hirsch and Killion, 2007; Danielson, 2009; Zepeda, 2008; DuFour et al., 2010) has acknowledged the impact of professional development on effectiveness of instructions and student learning. "It (professional development) directly relates to the needs of the teachers and students, and it provides opportunities for application, practice, reflection, and reinforcement" (Reeves, 2010 p. 23).

F. Focused Group Discussion

In an informal focused group discussion, the participant teachers were asked their evaluation of the TUELC PDP in terms of participant outcomes, organizational outcomes and student outcomes.

a. Participant outcomes

The participants acknowledged the importance of TUELC PDP mentioning that it enhances knowledge of participants in ELT, updates them about the developments in the field, and encourages the faculty members to participate attend and share expertise with others. Some of the comments are:

○ It will enrich my professional career through exchanging information with highly professional teachers with versatile experiences.

○ Teachers are likely to improve and amend their teaching methodology and strategies to cope with challenges that the Arabic speaking EFL learners pose. As a result, the overall performance of the centre is likely to climb up.

○ Teachers have more insight on the learning teaching behavior of students.

○ I will try to implement many of the ideas and activities in my classes. Also, the PDP lectures have given us a greater insight into the challenges that we face here in Taif as well as some of the ways to remedy these problems.

○ After PDP I think participants can find many useful things to use to encourage their students to participate. Also can find new ways of teaching each skill.

○ A more balanced outlook on teaching with the motivation to improve further.

○ Teacher can now design lessons to better serve the need of students.

○ Learning anew ways of teaching and learning also an interesting activity, also it helps the teachers about how to deal with students.

○ Some of the topics are very useful and give me new ideas to use them in my class.

○ Learn about new methods of teaching and how to apply them in classes. Learn from other staff members and gain more experience.

○ Increased participation, interactivity, expression and learning.

○ It encourages teachers to relate the PDP material to classroom environment.

○ We are as teachers introduced to some new strategies, theories and ways of teaching.

○ The teachers will be conscience of what they do in the classroom and will want to be better teachers and professionals.

However, some participants commented that:

○ Minimal development as most PDP seminars failed to deliver workshops related to the initial topic. Several workshops were in fact reviews of pass thesis projects.

○ The PDP sessions were all based on the lecturers' theses which I have no idea have they expected us to apply to our day to day teaching.

○ However, some teachers seem to have little interest and a bad attitude about having to participate. Actually I was very disappointed by the rude practices of some teachers during PDP. I am discouraged to participate in both presenting and discussion. People talk throughout presentations and often make rue comments and judgments about presenters. It is not a supportive community. I also heard teachers comment on those who participated in discussion, so now I prefer to keep quiet rather than have my comments mis-constructed and judged by others.

○ The PDP should be at the beginning of the year so teachers can implement new techniques.

○ Could be more informative with professional education which will be their line of expertise.

b. Organizational outcomes

○ Participants being updated will give their input to the organization which will consequently provide the essential support to the teachers so that they benefit the students better than before.

○ The ELC will constantly keep English teachers in touch with modern techniques and methodologies to help them refine and polish their profession.

○ The staff up-gradation in terms of equipping them with better teaching techniques is no doubt likely to result in improved results and a better image of the organization. Also, it is likely to develop a conducive teaching-learning environment and better coordination among the staff to share their experiences.

○ The organization will progress with a clearer idea of the challenges and opportunities of the unique challenges that we face here in Taif.

○ As a result benefits from motivated staff; has developed and congenial environment; developed team work.

○ If we can support one another we will all benefit more. There will be improvement in the teaching of those teachers who are interested in improving their teaching. And students will benefit from that.

○ The organization will benefit from the teachers' increased knowledge and experience.

The ELC will have more professionally trained teachers.

However,

○ Organization can provide more facilities and updated materials and curriculum.

○ Issues discussed should be published for the benefit of all ELC instructors.

c. Student outcomes

○ It helps participants to use the knowledge they obtained to deal with students issues in better ways.

○ I believe that some of the strategies and methods presented will help some teachers touch upon some weak points in their style.

○ What has been discussed could be used to enhance the learning process of students.

○ Students will most definitely benefit.

○ Teacher training is always likely to benefit the students because a good teacher always tries to apply his skills in the classroom to excel and achieve good results in terms of student learning outcomes.

○ Students likely to achieve better results as a result of awareness of their needs and cultural background.

○ The students have an array of tools in which to benefit from, as the teacher can now broaden his/her horizons.

○ Students will receive an improved teaching that will help them.

○ All the language instructors are in better position to comprehend the Saudi culture to follow it while teaching English.

○ We being teachers can apply whatever we have gained in PDP and students will enjoy the fruition.

○ Students will find greater enjoyment in English classes through implantation of the techniques that have been learnt over the past week.

○ Get fresher ideas from teachers; are also motivated in return; get empathy by more understanding teachers.

○ I think if we can apply these ideas it will be for the benefit of students.

○ Students are able to improve in their LSRW skills. They are able to construct their own sentences by recognizing pictures and using hints.

○ Ideally, the students will benefit from the teachers' learning new skills, theories and practices.

○ The students will benefit on the program and will definitely improve their skills in using English.

○ Student interest would be at the heart of our teaching.

○ Instructors might go back to the class and actually use some of the ideas shared in PDP.

V. CONCLUSION

Continuous professional development is a systematic and ongoing process to bring about a change in teaching practices in the classroom, teachers' attitude and beliefs, and students' learning outcomes (Guskey, 2002). So, such programmes have an impact on teachers' teaching and students' learning. After considering the teachers' needs, knowledge, skills, and experience, there is a strong likelihood of positive results. This research was conducted to assess the TU-ELC PDP in the light of principles set by Loucks-Horsley, et al. (2010). The participants acknowledged the importance and success of the programme in terms of their classroom practices and better results. TU-ELC PDP was based on needs analysis focusing on what they do, what they know and what they would like to know. It also considered their attitude and beliefs towards language teaching and learning. At the same time, theoretical input was considered while designing the bi-annual weeklong CPD. The findings reflected that CPD promotes teacher's competency in teaching skills which is reflected through a better learning environment and catering students' learning needs which ultimately influence student achievement. Majority of the participant teachers realizing the importance of professional development model continuous upgrading of their professional and leadership skills. As far as, the learning climate of the TU-ELC PDP was concerned, they acknowledged it as collaborative, informal, and respectful. Regarding the third principle, they mentioned that the programme demonstrated changes in their classroom practices. This reflects teachers' involvement in PDP which is aligned with TUELC mission, goal, and objectives. However, there were some reservations regarding regular and equal access to PD activities, continuous support and follow-up activities, experimentation of new instructional practices, participants' motivational level and presenters' expertise, and provision of updated study material. Finally, the TU-ELC PDP has a positive imprint on participant outcome, administrative outcome, and student outcome as was deliberated in the focused group discussion with the participant teachers.

The following steps are suggested for improvement:

- Though TU-ELC PDP is a need based programme, however, for each segment, teachers' opinion may be sought.

- Each CPD activity may provide opportunities for teachers to make sense of theory and to criticize and use it meaningfully for classroom contexts.

- PDP participants may be encouraged to explicitly use the theory in lesson plans, class observations, and the planning and execution of classroom activities.

- Teachers, trainers and administrators may reflect before and after the PDP to what ways the program is having an impact on teachers.

- Trainers must ensure that they do have close contact with each and every one of the participants in the PDP.

- There may a systematic process of class observation which can help the trainers to monitor a teacher's progress while he or she is in a CPD.

- Academic planners and administrators may develop a collaborative culture within the ELC and guide teachers to develop goals around student learning and to grow professionally.

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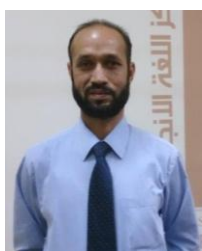
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Iranian English Teachers' Perception over Applying Different Feedbacks in Writing

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Abstract—This study aimed to inspect the written feedback practices as well as the Iranian teachers' perceptions and attitudes towards written feedback in their writing classes. In fact, it tried to investigate what type of feedback the teachers usually give more and whether their written feedback practices are in agreement with their beliefs or not. To this end, data were collected by means of questionnaires and 30 TOEFL/IELTS writing teachers' written feedback given to 300 students' essays in different language institutes of Tehran. Both the quantitative and qualitative analyses in this study showed that although most of these teachers were of the opinion that teachers must give feedback to the language (i.e., spelling, grammar, vocabulary, capitalization, and punctuation), organization (i.e., cohesion, coherence, and unity), and content of students' essays, most of their written feedbacks were given to the language of their students' essays. In other words, a discrepancy was found between their perceptions and practices. In addition, most of their written feedbacks were direct while the majority of them believed that teachers must give indirect feedback to their students' writings. This lack of agreement between what was believed and what actually happened indicates that teachers may not be completely aware of the feedback they give to their students' writings.

Index Terms—feedback, local errors, global errors, perception

I. Introduction

One of the most important issues in the domain of second language learning is improving the learners' writing ability. Most of the EFL learners find writing as the most difficult skill and much effort has been done to discover the best techniques and methods to teach second language writing. The ability to write effectively is also becoming increasingly important in the global communities, and thus writing instruction is taking an expanding role in both second and foreign language education (Weigle, 2002). One of the major factors that plays an important role in improving students' writing ability is the way teachers give corrective feedback to their students' writing.

Investigation of the effect of different types of feedback on learners' writing ability has been one of the major preoccupations of the researchers in L2 writing for long years. One of the issues in this regard was whether teacher's written feedback should focus on form, content, or both of them. In addition, there are a number of studies in which the effects of direct and indirect feedback have been considered (e.g. Chandler, 2003). Direct feedback happens when the teacher shows an error to the student and provides the correct form. In fact, it refers to the overt correction of errors, and the teacher is responsible for both error detection and error correction. On the contrary, indirect feedback occurs in situations where teacher shows that an error is made but does not provide a correction, thereby leaving the student to diagnose and correct it (Bitchener, 2008).

The effect of different types of corrective feedback on students' writings ability has been inspected by many researchers (e.g. Chandler, 2003; Fathman & Whalley, 1990, Ferris & Roberts, 2001). All of these studies point to the fact that the way teachers give feedback to their students' writing can have significant impact on their writing ability. Inspecting the teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback helps researchers to discover how aware teachers are of the feedback they give. Furthermore, it may help teachers to provide the type of feedback that plays a significant role in improving student writing. Montgomery and Baker (2007) found that although L2 writing teachers are aware of students' perceptions of written feedback and most of them try to give helpful feedback to their students, they may not be fully aware of how much feedback they give on local and global issues.

Since corrective feedback plays a remarkable role in many L2 writing classes, numerous L2 researches have been performed on the effectiveness of error correction in writing skill (e.g. Robb, Ross, & Shortreed, 1986; Semke, 1984; Zamel, 1985). Truscott (1996) argued that all forms of error correction in L2 writing classes should be abandoned because correction is not only unhelpful but also harmful in the development of student writing ability. Ferris (1999; 2004) was the leading scholar who challenged Truscott's study. Ferris asserted that Truscott's study was premature and overly strong. Subsequently, the debate over the effectiveness of error correction generated a considerable number of studies on written feedback.

One of the controversial issues in the domain of error correction is utilizing direct or indirect feedbacks. Direct feedback occurs when the teacher identifies an error and provides the correct form. In other words, it refers to the overt correction of errors, and the teacher is responsible for both error detection and error correction. In contrast, by providing indirect feedback the teacher indicates that an error has been made but does not provide a correction, thereby leaving the student to diagnose and correct it (Bitchener, Young & Cameron, 2005). According to Ferris (1999), this can be done by means of an underline, circle, code, and/or recording of the number of errors in the margin. Ferris and Roberts (2001) believe indirect feedback is a very useful strategy to help students detect and correct their errors by themselves instead of playing a passive role in error correction.

Although most of the experimental studies on L2 written feedback have focused on the issue of error correction (Bitchener, 2008; Bitchener & Knoch, 2009a, 2009b; Bitchener, Young, & Cameron, 2005; Ferris, 1999; Zamel, 1985), some descriptive studies have investigated teacher written feedback from the viewpoints of teachers and students. Most descriptive studies conducted in the domain of L2 written feedback have been predominantly designed to investigate student perceptions on teacher feedback.

Cohen and Cavalcanti (1990) examined teachers' comments and 9 EFL university students' perceptions about corrective feedbacks in Brazil. The result of the study showed that although students expected comprehensive feedbacks, including grammar, mechanics, organization, and content, they perceived that teacher feedback focused on local aspects of their writings such as grammar and mechanics.

There are a number of studies which examine teachers' perception about written feedbacks. Ferris (2006) analyzed composition instructors' performances at university regarding feedback. She tried to investigate whether teachers give consistent and accurate feedback or not. In spite of the fact that all instructors had agreed to use the same marking system based on a standard error chart and give indirect feedbacks, their actual performances did not reflect it. They only used the standard marking system 40% of the time; for the rest, they either gave direct feedback, or showed errors without using the codes, or with using inaccurate codes. She also found that what she termed treatable errors (verb tense, verb form, subject-verb agreement, articles, pronouns and spelling) received indirect feedbacks almost 59% of the time, while the untreatable errors (word choice, idioms, sentence structure) received direct corrections in over 65% of the cases. Ferris hypothesized that teachers gave direct feedbacks when they felt – intuitively – that their students would not be able to self- correct; a fact that was later proved in interviews after the instructional period. The result of the study illustrates that this lack of consistency on the part of the teachers is a problem, but it also shows that instructors can alter their error correction strategies, whether consciously or unconsciously, to their learners' needs and differing abilities.

Montgomery and Baker (2007) examined the written feedback practices of 15 ESL writing teachers who had been teaching L2 writing at the university level. In addition, they investigated teacher beliefs as well as student perceptions regarding teacher-written feedback. The teachers were required to complete a questionnaire to investigate their beliefs of the comments and feedbacks they gave to their learners' essays. Then, the feedback practices of each teacher were analyzed by calculating frequencies of feedback categories on multiple drafts of 12 compositions taken from six of their learners. They reported a large gap between teachers' perceptions about their written feedback and their actual performance. In fact, the result of the study indicated that the teachers gave more feedback on local aspects and less feedback on global aspects of student writing (on the first drafts). Surprisingly, this was not in harmony with their perceptions. In general, the comparison between teacher perceptions and student perceptions matched well, though students thought they were receiving more feedback than teachers perceived they were giving. Based on the findings, Montgomery and Baker concluded that L2 teachers often tend to pay more attention to students' needs than their beliefs about written feedback.

Lee (2004) examined teachers' perceptions and practices regarding error correction in writing by administering a questionnaire to more than 200 preservice and experienced teachers, and asking a subset of 59 practicing teachers to do the same error correction task immediately after responding to the questionnaire. The results of the study showed that more than 50% of the errors received direct feedback by the teachers, and the only correction strategy was the location of errors with error code (indirect). Teachers believed that it is their responsibility to correct, but nearly all of them argued that learners should learn to locate and correct their own errors. The results of the survey also illustrate that teachers had a tendency to mark errors comprehensively rather than selectively. Moreover, Lee found that almost half of the feedback given by teachers was inaccurate (wrong code or incorrect corrections). Teachers reported that it was sometimes a challenge for them to find the exact code for an error, making Lee conclude that teachers needed more training and practice with error correction.

Lee (2008a) investigated teacher feedback given by 26 Hong Kong secondary English teachers to 174 students on their written texts to see if the teachers followed the types of feedback recommended by literature as well as the principles suggested by the government for responding to student writing. Lee found that more traditional types of feedback were dominant: the teachers provided overwhelmingly more feedback on local issues (grammar and vocabulary) than global issues (content and organization); direct error correction was dominant over indirect methods; comprehensive feedback prevailed over selective feedback; teacher feedback focused generally on the weak aspects of student writing.

Since the type of feedback is believed to have invaluable effect on students writing, the findings of this study may help teachers move beyond their conventional roles and develop a new approach towards feedback in writing. In

addition, the present study may contribute to the development of L2 writing pedagogy and teacher training programs by clarifying the way L2 teachers provide their students with written feedback. In line with the aims of the study, the researcher presents the following research questions:

1. What types of errors receive more feedback from Iranian teachers?
2. What perceptions do Iranian teachers have of written feedback?
3. Are Iranian teachers' perceptions compatible with their real performance on written feedback?
4. Which type of feedback do Iranian teachers usually give: direct or indirect?

II. MATERIAL AND METHODS

A. Participants

Thirty Iranian TOEFL /IELTS (13 males and 17 females) teachers from different institutes participated in this study. Some of them studied TEFL at Iranian universities and others have studied other majors but had teaching certificates. Most of them were highly experienced teachers. They were selected randomly from different institutes in order to ensure the representativeness the population of the TOEFL /IELTS teachers in Tehran. As Moore and McCabe (2006) have pointed out, random sampling eliminates bias by giving all individuals an equal chance to be chosen. This, in turn, can ultimately contribute to the validity of the study. In addition, the instructors who were asked to participate in the study were chosen based on their reputation, enthusiasm, and at least 5 year experience in teaching writing.

B. Instruments

A questionnaire was developed to uncover Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback. It was divided into two parts. The first part of the questionnaire consists of 12 statements, presenting some ideas regarding the necessities of giving corrective feedback, the focus of feedback, direct or indirect feedback, coded or uncoded feedback, feedback on language, content, and organization, and other cases. These statements were created based on the literature covering L2 writing feedback studies. For each statement, the participants were asked to indicate how strongly they agreed with it, using a scale of one to five, where 1 indicated strong disagreement and 5, strong agreement. The numbers indicate the extent to which subjects agree with the statements (where 1= strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree). The second part of the questionnaire consisted of 10 open ended questions to get a general perspective on teachers' beliefs about corrective feedback in their writing classes. Indeed, a qualitative analysis was intended to be applied here in order to ascertain what type of perception the teachers held regarding written feedback. This analysis could, in turn, bolster the findings of the first part of the questionnaire. To establish the reliability of the questionnaire, it was piloted and checked prior to the actual administration. In fact, it was distributed among 10 teachers who were similar to the targeted group concerning such characteristics as enthusiasm, reputation, and 5-year experience of writing instruction. Having collected the related data and employed Cronbach's Alpha method, we found the reliability to be .68.

C. Data Collection Procedure

The first phase of the study was collecting TOEFL/IELTS teachers sample written feedback on their students' essays from different institutes in Tehran where the TOEFL/IELTS was taught. In the second phase, the teachers' written feedbacks were analyzed regarding the quantity of written feedback on local issues (i.e. spelling, grammar, and punctuation) and on global issues (i.e. content and organization). Then, the data was analyzed using SPSS and a quantitative report was presented on the extent to which the teachers' feedbacks were comprehensive in terms of language, organization, and content. Finally, to examine teachers' perception of written feedback, they were asked to complete a questionnaire. The results of this questionnaire were used to compare the teachers' ideas about written feedback and their actual performance.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The first research question in this study was "what types of errors receive more feedback from Iranian teachers?". To find out which type of Iranian TOEFL/IELTS students' errors received more feedback from their teachers, 10 essays with written feedbacks from 30 teachers were collected. Hence, the total number of essays which were examined was 300. A total of 3542 feedbacks were identified, of which 3238 of them (91.42%) were feedbacks that addressed language (i.e., spelling, grammar, vocabulary, capitalization, and punctuation), 260 of them (7.34%) were feedbacks that focused on organization (i.e. cohesion, coherence, and unity), and 44 of them (1.24%) were feedbacks that were about the content of their students' essays. Table 4-1 presents the percentage and number of feedback types given to the students' errors.

TABLE 4-1
TEACHERS' WRITTEN FEEDBACK FOCUS

Focus	Percentage and number of feedback types
Language	91.42% (3238)
Organization	7.34% (260)
Content	1.24% (44)
Total	100% (3542)

The findings reveal that Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers placed great emphasis on the language of students' essays. In fact, teachers were concerned with the grammatical accuracy and mechanical errors which comprised spelling, punctuation and capitalization mistakes. Statistically speaking, the teachers paid less attention to the organization of students' writings. Surprisingly, the teachers did not take the content of students' essays seriously, and the number of feedbacks that they gave to their students' writings in this regard was not considerable.

This is in harmony with the study conducted by Lee (2009) who reported that although the teachers in his study believed that there is more to good writing than accuracy, they paid more attention to language form. The results of his study showed that of the 5,353 feedback points identified, teachers focused inordinately on language form in their response to student writing, with 94.1 percent of the teacher feedback addressing form (3.8 per cent on content, 0.4 percent on organizational issues, and 1.7 percent on other aspects such as general comments on student writing).

In addition, this form-focused written feedback practice in the present study replicates the findings reported in Zamel's (1985) and Lee's (2008) studies, in spite of the differences in the nature and background of their participants, instructional contexts, etc. In fact, as teachers' feedback focus somehow reflects the types and extent of students' errors, an emphasis on language-related issues is possibly due to the substantial number of grammatical mistakes students made in their writing. However, care must be exercised not to ignore the organization and content of students' essays.

Moreover, research examining actual teacher feedback has shown that some teachers focus more on local issues such as grammar and mechanics than on global issues such as content and organization (Ferris, 2006).In fact, such a focus may misrepresent both the importance of these issues and the importance teachers place on them. For instance, Chapin and Terdal (1990) found that 64% of teachers' comments were on local issues. One of the major consequences of this issue was that since teachers focused on these local issues, students focused on local issues in their revisions. In other words, students did not pay attention to the organization and content of their writings in their revisions.

The second question in this study was "what perceptions do Iranian teachers have of written feedback?", In order to come to a clear understanding of the teachers' perceptions of written feedback, the data which was collected from 30 teacher questionnaire was analyzed based on the teachers' perception about some concepts in feedbacks, such as the necessity of giving written feedback, selectivity vs. comprehensiveness of written feedback, written feedback on organization and content, direct vs. indirect feedback, coded vs. uncoded feedback, and written feedback vs. oral feedback. In the necessity of giving written feedback, the teacher questionnaire data showed that 100% of the teachers were of the opinion that teachers should give feedback to their students. In the selectivity vs. comprehensiveness of written feedback, 76.66% of the teachers believed that teachers should mark students' errors comprehensively while the rest (23.33 %) said they had better do so selectively. About written feedback on organization and content 29 teachers (96.66%) believed that teachers of writing should give feedback to the organization (i.e., coherence, cohesion, and unity) of their students' essays. In fact, they believed that their purpose in essay writing is not just sentence production, and students should learn how to write essays which have coherence, cohesion, and unity. In addition, 23 (76.66%) of the teachers said that teachers should give feedback to the content of students' writings.

The next issue was the teachers' direct vs. indirect feedback. The questionnaire findings showed that 23 of the teachers (76.66%) believed that writing instructors must give indirect feedback to their students' writings. 5 of them (16.66%) favored direct feedback, and 2 (6.66%) of these teachers had no idea about this issue. Table 4-2 shows teachers' perception of direct and indirect feedback.

TABLE 4-2
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS: ERROR CORRECTION STRATEGIES (DIRECT VS. INDIRECT)

Teachers' perceptions of their error correction strategies	Percentage and number of teachers
Direct error feedback	16.66% (5)
Indirect error feedback	76.66% (23)
No idea	6.66% (2)
Total	100% (30)

The findings in the table 4-2 revealed that most of the teachers (76.66%) support the idea of giving indirect feedback in writing classes.

Teachers' preference for using direct or indirect feedback has been the focus of a number of studies among which Lee's study (2004) can be mentioned. In contrast to the present study, the teachers in Lee's study (2004) preferred direct to indirect feedback. However, the teachers stated that they used various error correction strategies according to students' abilities and the complexity of errors.

The teachers' opinions about coded vs. uncoded feedback was that 16 of the teachers (53.33%) favored coded feedback, and one of them (3.33%) believed that teachers must provide their students with uncoded feedback. In addition, 13 of them (43.33%) had no idea about this issue. Table 4-3 shows teachers' opinion about coded and uncoded feedback.

TABLE 4-3
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS: INDIRECT CORRECTION STRATEGIES (CODED VS. UNCODED)

Teachers' perceptions of their indirect correction strategies	Percentage and number of teachers
Coded error feedback	53.33% (16)
Uncoded error feedback	3.33% (1)
No idea	43.33% (13)
Total	100% (23)

Finally, the teachers' opinions about written feedback and oral feedback was that 13 of the teachers (43.33%) favored written feedback, while five of them (16.66%) were of the opinion that conferencing is better than written feedback. In addition, 12 of them (40%) stated that it is better to use both of them in writing classes. Table 4-4 shows teachers' ideas about oral and written feedback.

TABLE 4-4
TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE RESULTS: ERROR CORRECTION STRATEGIES (ORAL VS. WRITTEN)

Teachers' perceptions of error correction strategies	Percentage and number of teachers
Oral feedback (conferencing)	16.66% (5)
Written feedback	43.33% (13)
Both of them	40% (12)
Total	100% (30)

The third research question inspected this issue whether Iranian teachers' perceptions were compatible with their real performance on written feedback or not? This study inspected the harmony between teachers' perceptions and their real performance on written feedback, regarding selectivity or comprehensiveness of error feedback, written feedback on organization and content, direct vs. indirect feedback, and coded vs. uncoded feedback. Regarding selectivity or comprehensiveness of error feedback, there is a harmony between teachers' beliefs and their practice. Regarding the written feedback on organization and content, 3238 of teachers' feedbacks (91.42%) were on language (i.e. spelling, grammar, vocabulary, capitalization, and punctuation), 260of them (7.34%) on organization (i.e., cohesion, coherence, and unity), and 44(1.24%) were feedbacks related to the content of students' essays. The analysis indicates that although Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers were of the opinion that teachers of writing must give written feedback to the organization and content of students' writings as well as the language of them, the number of feedbacks they gave to the organization and content of their students' essays is few. In other words, there is a mismatch between teachers' perceptions and their actual performance in this area. Figure 4-1 shows the number of feedbacks teachers gave to the language, organization, and content of students' essays.

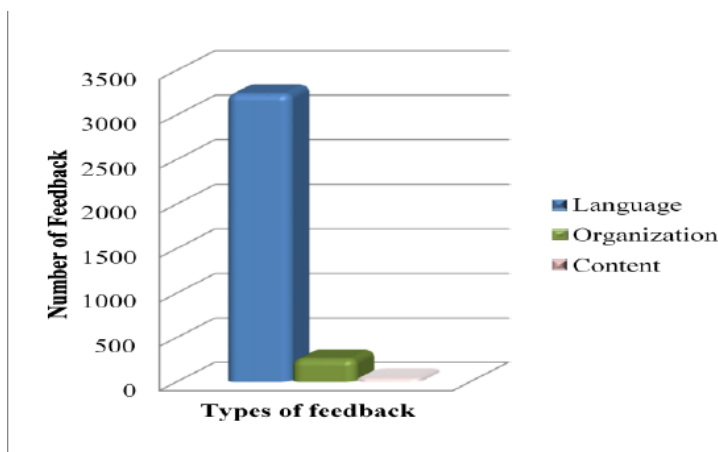Figure 4-1: The Number of Feedbacks Teachers Gave to the Language, Organization, and Content of Students' Essays.

In order to come to a clear understanding of the feedbacks teachers gave to the language, organization, and content of students' essays, another figure is presented to show the feedbacks teachers gave to 300 essays of the students. Figure 4-2 shows the feedbacks given to these essays.
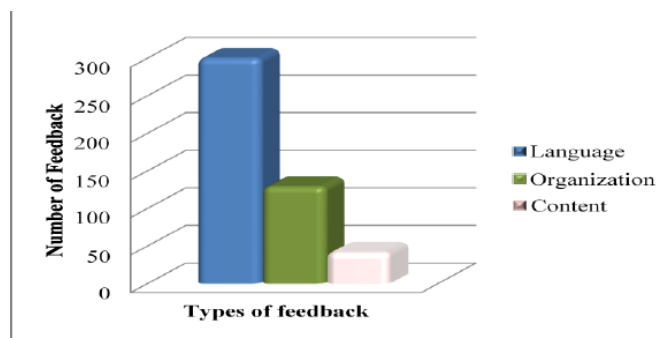
Figure 4-2. Feedbacks Teachers Gave to the Language, Organization, and Content of Students' Essays

In fact, this language-focused written feedback practice replicates the findings reported in Montgomery and Baker (2007). The major insight of their study was that teachers generally gave a substantial amount of local feedback and relatively little global feedback throughout the drafts of the compositions. In other words, the teachers in their study did not pay attention to the organization and content of students' writings. According to Montgomery and Baker (2007), perhaps the most problematic consequence of this finding is that the emphasis on local issues of grammar and mechanics on all drafts may suggest to students that they should prioritize local errors. Interestingly, although the teachers make attempt to teach their students that they must write an essay which is well-organized and has a rich content, they may unknowingly be strengthening the very belief that everything centers around language by giving feedback just to the language of students essays.

Regarding direct vs. indirect feedback, although 23 of the teachers (76.66%) were of the opinion that teachers must give indirect feedback to students' writings and stated the benefits of giving indirect feedback in the open-ended responses, only 167 (4.71%) of the feedbacks were given indirectly. Feedback analysis shows that almost all teachers are in a habit of giving direct feedback to their students' essays. In fact, the results demonstrate that teachers' error feedbacks are not congruent with their beliefs. Figure 4-3 shows the percentage of direct and indirect feedback given by the teachers.
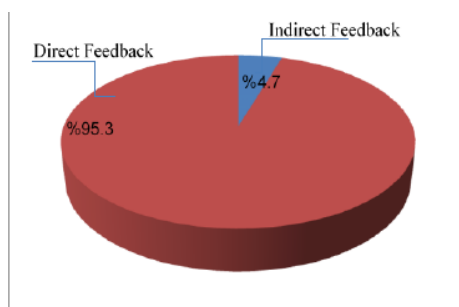
Figure 4-3. The Percentage of Direct and Indirect Feedback Given by Teachers.

The practice of giving direct feedback in this study replicates the findings reported by Lee (2004). Like the present study, most of the teachers' feedbacks in Lee's study were direct. In fact, most of the teachers in Lee's study did not give indirect feedback to their students' essays and could not involve their students in problem-solving tasks that required higher-order thinking. However, the teachers in Lee's study stated that they used various error correction strategies according to students' abilities and the complexity of errors.

In addition, the discrepancy that was shown between the teachers' ideas and their actual performances in the present study replicates the discrepancy reported by Lee (2009). The feedback analysis in his study showed that about 70 per cent of the feedback was direct, i.e. teachers indicate and correct errors for students. However, the questionnaire data in Lee's study suggested that 96 percent of the teachers believed that students should learn to locate and correct errors. The results indicated that teachers' error feedback is not congruent with their beliefs.

Regarding coded vs. uncoded feedback, none of the teachers' written feedback was coded, and all of them used uncoded feedbacks. All in all, this is not in complete harmony with the perceptions teachers stated in the questionnaire.

The fourth research question was "which type of feedback do Iranian teachers usually give: direct or indirect?", the analysis of the sample written feedback of Iranians TOEFL/IELTS teachers was indicative of the fact that most of them are in the habit of giving direct feedback. Table 4-5 shows the type and percentage of their written feedback.

TABLE 4-5
FEEDBACK ANALYSIS: DIRECT VS. INDIRECT

Teachers' error correction strategies	Percentage and number of feedbacks
Direct error feedback	95.28% (3375)
Indirect error feedback	4.71% (167)
Total	100% (3542)

The practice of giving direct feedback in this study replicates the findings reported by Lee (2004). Like the present study, most of the teachers' feedbacks in Lee's study (2004) were direct. In fact, most of the teachers in this study did not give indirect feedback to their students' essays and could not involve their students in problem-solving tasks that require higher-order thinking.

IV. Conclusions

The first area of investigation in the present study was the examination of Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' written feedback in order to see what types of their students' errors receives more feedback. The present study showed that the teachers gave more feedbacks to the language (i.e., spelling, grammar, vocabulary, capitalization, and punctuation) of students' writings. In fact, the number of feedbacks they gave to the organization (i.e., cohesion, coherence, and unity), and content of their students' essays was very few.

The second area of investigation in the present study was the investigation of Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' perceptions of written feedback. The analysis of the 30 questionnaires answered by the teachers showed that all of them were of the opinion that teachers should give written feedback to their students' writings. They maintained that giving feedback can help the students to recognize their errors and mistakes and decrease the number of errors in their writings. In fact, they stated that perceiving written feedback from their teachers improves students' writing ability in the long run.

In addition, regarding the selectivity or comprehensiveness of written feedbacks, the present study showed that most of the teachers preferred comprehensive to selective error feedback.

Another investigation of teachers' perception was related to their ideas about giving feedback to the organization (i.e., coherence, cohesion, and unity) and content of students' essays. The results of the questionnaire showed that the majority of teachers (96.66%) argued that teachers must give feedback to the organization (i.e., coherence, cohesion, and unity) of their students' essays. Moreover, the teachers' perception of direct and indirect feedback was investigated. The findings of the study showed that most of the teachers (76.66%) support giving indirect feedback to students' essays.

Teachers' perception of coded and uncoded feedback was another area to be examined in the present study. The analysis of questionnaire findings showed that most of the teachers (53.33%) preferred coded feedback. In addition, regarding the tendency to use conferencing (oral feedback) and written feedback, the results of the study showed that most of the teachers (43.33%) favored written feedback.

The third area of investigation in the present study was to examine whether there was a harmony between Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' perceptions of written feedback and their actual performances. In order to examine this issue, teachers' actual performance of giving written feedback was compared with their perceptions of it. Surprisingly, in most cases, there was not harmony between teachers' ideas and their actual performances.

Regarding selectivity or comprehensiveness of error feedback, there was a harmony between teachers' perceptions and their performances. In fact, the teachers who believed that teachers should give selective written feedback to their students' essays provided error feedback selectively. In addition, the teachers who held the view that teachers should give comprehensive written feedback to their students' essays showed they gave a remarkable number of feedbacks to their students' essays despite the fact that the number of feedbacks they gave to the organization and content of the essays was not comprehensive at all.

The comparison between teachers' ideas and their practice about giving feedback to the organization and content of students' essays showed that despite the fact that Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers believed that they should give written feedback to the organization and content of students' writings as well as the language of them, the number of feedbacks they gave to the organization and content of their students' essays was few. In fact, there was a mismatch between teachers' beliefs and their actual performance in this area.

With respect to the congruence between the Iranian TOEFL/IELTS teachers' perception and their actual performance with regard to giving direct or indirect written feedback, the analysis of their written feedback showed that although the majority of teachers believed that teachers should give indirect feedback to the students' essays, feedback analysis demonstrated that almost all teachers were in a habit of giving direct feedback to their students' essays. In fact, the results indicated that teachers' error feedbacks were not congruent with their beliefs. Regarding the coded and uncoded feedback, although most of the teachers believed coded feedbacks must be used in the teachers' feedbacks, none of the teachers' written feedback was coded, and all of them were uncoded. Therefore, this is not also compatible with the perceptions teachers stated in the questionnaire.

The fourth area of investigation in the present study was to examine which type of feedback Iranians TOEFL/IELTS teachers usually give: Direct or indirect? In order to answer this question, the sample written feedbacks of these teachers were analyzed. The analysis of the sample written feedback indicated that most of them are in a habit of giving direct feedback.

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Program Evaluation of the New English Textbook (Prospect 1) in the Iranian Ministry of Education

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Abstract—This study aimed at conducting a program evaluation of the newly developed textbook (Prospect 1) in the Iranian Ministry of education by applying the CIPP (context, input, process, and product) program evaluation model. To this end, the study was done in two different phases: in phase I, context, input, and process evaluation of the new textbook were conducted and the participants were 4 members of the textbook development team. In phase II, product evaluation of the new textbook was done and the participants were 30 junior high school teachers. For both phases of the study, a qualitative research method was adopted using interviews. The interviews were then analyzed using content analysis. The results of phase I indicated that there were some challenges with the textbook development project such as lack of suitable infrastructure, lack of enough budgets, and lack of necessary human and physical resources. The findings of the phase II showed that there were some pitfalls with the new English textbook such as using an unsuitable method of literacy instruction; over-localizing the content; complete abandoning of grammatical structures; and setting unrealistic objectives considering the time and resources constraints.

Index Terms—program evaluation, CIPP model, textbook evaluation, prospect 1

I. INTRODUCTION

As a result of an increase in interest in EIL (English as an International Language) and in line with the latest technology growths, there seems to be an urgent need for EFL students to communicate in English on a day-to-day basis. As a result, national language education policies in many countries have moved towards CLT since the 1990s (Littlewood, 2007) because "the traditional approaches are seen as no longer serving the needs of EFL learners" (Vongxay, 2013, p.11). In Iran too, this need was well felt and responded and a movement from structural syllabi towards functional and communicative ones took place at national ELT curriculum. In other words, the shift was a movement from structural approaches of language teaching (e.g. Grammar-translation method, audio-lingual method) towards communicative language teaching approach (Curriculum Guidelines of Foreign languages, 2005; National Curriculum of Islamic Republic of Iran, 2012; Prospect 1, 2013). Subsequently, EFL textbooks which are the visible, tangible, and practical manifestation of the curriculum have been planned to change in order to be designed according to the new curriculum. According to Mahmood (2010):

For the proper implementation of any curriculum, textbooks become part and parcel of the education system. Especially, in developing countries, it has been a regular practice to consider textbooks as the major source of teaching learning process to be undertaken in educational settings (p.2).

In line with this trend, the EFL textbook of the first grade of junior high school in Iran has undergone radical changes. Obviously, its evaluation becomes essential because there is a need to evaluate the innovation to ensure that it is in effect a real improvement over past practices (Nation & Macalister, 2010). If we take a glance at the literature, we could perceive that most of the approaches to material evaluation are product based (Cuningsworth, 1984; Breen & Candlin, 1987; McDonough & Shaw, 1993; as cited in Wang, et al., 2009); however, as Gooch (n.d.) argued one of the main drawbacks in the area of materials evaluation is "an almost exclusive attention to the final product, as opposed to the processes involved in the design of the materials" (p.1). To fill this gap, this study aimed at taking a process-oriented

approach towards textbook evaluation by using the CIPP (context, input, process, and product) program evaluation model which provides the opportunity to access a process in addition to a product (Stufflebeam, 2002).

II. Literature Review

A. The Significance of Materials Evaluation

Tomlinson (2011) defined materials evaluation as "the systematic appraisal of the value of materials in relation to their objectives and to the objectives of the learners using them (p. xiv). Moreover, Sheldon (1988) considered material evaluation as "a dynamic process which is fundamentally a subjective, rule-of-thumb activity where no neat formula, grid, or system will ever provide a definitive yardstick" (p. 245).

On the significance of material evaluation, Brown (1995) stated that "materials evaluation is necessary to determine the suitability of the materials for a particular program" (p.159). McGrath (2002) believed that "textbook evaluation is of an important value for the development and administration of language teaching programs" (as cited in Azizifar et al., 2010, p.132). Ellis (1997) considered textbook evaluation as being very useful in teacher development and professional growth. Therefore, "constant evaluation of textbooks to see if they are appropriate is of great importance" (Riazi & Mosalanejad, 2010, p.2).

B. Materials Evaluation Models

Most evaluation models take either a macro or a micro approach based on the purpose of the evaluator (Cakit, 2006). A macro-evaluation model according to Ellis (1997), "calls for an overall assessment of whether an entire set of materials has worked" (p.37). On the other hand, "a micro evaluation model focuses on an in-depth analysis of particular tasks for particular groups of learners" (Cakit, 2006, p.20). Yet, all these models are product based (Gooch, n.d.) which totally ignore the process of materials development. It can be claimed that "process evaluation is believed as a guarantee of quality product" (Hussain, et al., 2011, p.263). Because of the lack of such a process based model in the area of materials evaluation, CIPP was implemented for EFL textbook evaluation in this study since it entails both the process and the product in the textbook evaluation procedure.

C. The CIPP Model of Program Evaluation

The CIPP model of program evaluation was developed by Daniel Stufflebeam and his colleagues in 1960s, based on their experience of evaluating educational projects. Zhang et al. (2011) considered the CIPP evaluation model as the best approach for evaluation with respect to feasibility, utility, accuracy and propriety, as well as being used for improvement and accountability purposes. In this evaluation model, the performance of a program, a service, and a project is evaluated through a comprehensive framework under four categories of context, input, process and product (Stufflebeam, 2002).

In CIPP, context evaluation refers to appropriateness of activity objectives and compliance of the objectives to the needs; input evaluation refers to existing and available resources for meeting needs and attaining objectives; process evaluation refers to the effectiveness and efficiency of actual activities; and product evaluation refers to attainment of program outcomes (Stufflebeam, 2002).

Because of its adaptability and applicability, CIPP has been applied to evaluate materials, personnel, students, programs, and projects in a range of disciplines (Stufflebeam, 2002). CIPP has been implemented in the literature of curriculum evaluation in general and textbook evaluation in particular (e.g. Mahmood, 2006; Mahmood, 2009; Chen, 2009; Mahmood, 2010; Tunc, 2010; Dalton, 2009; Usmani, et al., 2010; Karatas & Fer, 2009). A review of literature reveals that CIPP has been used in the past for to evaluating EFL curriculum, courses, teacher education, programs, and textbook evaluation in other fields; yet, it has not been used for EFL textbook evaluation before. Three such studies exist in literature on textbook evaluation which will be referred to as the following:

Firstly, Mahmood (2006) analyzed the approved textbooks and their approval procedure in the Ministry of education of Pakistan by using CIPP Model. He found that that there is a need to improve the existing procedure of the Ministry of education for acquiring textbook approval. Second, Mahmood (2009) represented a conceptual framework for the production of a quality textbook in science and mathematics in Pakistan. The framework was based on the integration of CIPP model and Garvin's (1988) eight dimensions for quality. He deleted context evaluation from his framework and focused on the remaining three components, i.e., input, process, and product evaluation. In his study, input evaluation was concerned with curriculum policy, knowledge, attitude, and time; process evaluation dealt with textbook writing, review, evaluation, and printing; and product evaluation was about the evaluation of the textbooks under consideration. The results of the study confirmed that the Ministry-approved textbooks were of low quality with respect to the internationally acceptable standards of textbooks. And the third, Islas Guzman (1980) developed a model for the evaluation of instructional materials based on the CIPP model. In his proposed model, context evaluation encompassed activities such as needs assessment, goals and objectives establishment; input evaluation entailed activities such as focused on evaluation of the plans and strategies, process evaluation directed on the activities in the formative evaluation; and product evaluation determined the instructional value of the final product. His proposed model focused on the formative evaluation of instructional materials not on summative evaluation and for accountability purposes. In

fact, CIPP Model is regarded as "a comprehensive framework for guiding formative and summative evaluations of projects, programs, and systems" (Chen, 2009, p.42).

In this study, CIPP has been applied for EFL textbook evaluation for the first time since CIPP provides a systematic way of looking at many different aspects of the textbook development process (Tiantong & Tongchin, 2013).

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Using CIPP, what are the efficiencies and deficiencies of the new junior high school textbook (Prospect 1) regarding context, input, and process evaluation?

2. Using CIPP, what are the efficiencies and deficiencies of the new junior high school textbook (Prospect 1) regarding product evaluation?

In order to answer the research questions, the researcher conducted the study in two different phases: Phase I, and phase II. In phase I, context, input, and process evaluation of the junior high school textbook was conducted and in the phase II the textbook as the product itself was analyzed.

IV. METHODOLOGY

For both phases of the study, a qualitative approach was adopted using interviews. Interview "is based on conversation with the emphasis on researchers asking questions and listening and respondents answering" (Rubin and Rubin, 1995, as cited in Warren, 2002, p. 83). Moreover, interviewees are considered as "meaning makers, not passive conduits for retrieving information from an existing vessel of answers" (Holstin and Gubrium, 1995, as cited in Warren, 2002, p. 83).

A. Participants

For the first phase of this study, four out of the six members of the textbook development team at the Iranian Ministry of Education participated in this study. Two of the members were experts in Applied Linguistics and the two others were experts in linguistics. All of them were university professors who had also some years of experience in teaching English at public high schools.

For the second phase, the participants were 30 junior high school teachers, who had the experience of teaching the new textbook at public schools.

B. Instrumentation

At the first phase, extensive review of the literature on both program evaluation in general and textbook evaluation in particular were done and subsequently these studies formed the basis for semi-structured interview questions related to the EFL textbook evaluation for the first three components of CIPP (context, input, and process evaluation). The designed questions were validated by eight experts; one university professor, four PhD graduates of TEFL and three PhD students.

For the second phase, an open-ended questionnaire was developed based on the review of literature, expert opinions, and stakeholders' concerns. To develop the open-ended questionnaire, besides reviewing the literature, 15 EFL academic experts (4 PhD, 7 PhD candidates, and 4 MA) were required to do an impressionistic evaluation of the new textbook and its supplementary materials from various aspects such as approach, skills and sub-skills, practicality concerns. Relevant points from experts' opinions were also extracted to be used in the developed questionnaire. The Kesidou and Roseman (2002) used expert opinion to shape their criteria for textbook evaluation (as cited in Swanepoel, 2010, p. 141). Moreover, interviews were conducted with 20 junior high school teachers in order to find out their perceptions, concerns, and expectations on the new textbook. According to MacDonald (2006) stakeholder concerns is a relatively new approach to criteria determination (as cited in Swanepoel, 2010, p.141). The interview questions were mainly directed towards understanding teachers' views on the new textbook and the problems which they encountered during its implementation as well as their main concerns especially regarding students' learning. For instance, nearly all the teachers were very concerned about developing literacy in students. It is worth pointing out here that there were some overlaps between experts' opinions and teachers' views such as concerns over developing literacy in students, overlooking cultural competence, etc. Thus, the researcher decided to contain these elements in the questionnaire. The developed questionnaire was content validated by 13 experts (5 PhD, and 8 PhD students, among them 3 were teacher experts).

C. Data Collection and Analysis

At this stage and for the first phase of this study, four semi-structured interviews with four members of the textbook development team at the Iranian Ministry of Education were conducted and audio-taped. The questions were related to context, input, and process evaluation of national textbook development project of the junior high school textbook. The interviews were then transcribed, and analyzed using content analysis. As Weber (1985, p. 7) put it, "a central idea in content analysis is that the many words of the text are classified into much fewer content categories" (as cited in Tesch, 1990, p. 79).

For the second phase of the study, similar to phase I, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 30 junior high school teachers and then were transcribed and analyzed by content analysis.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (FIRST PHASE)

At the first phase of the study, the results of the content analysis indicated that there were 11 categories for context evaluation, 9 for input evaluation, and 14 for process evaluation. Each category in the context, input, and process evaluation section further yielded some sub-categories. The following elaborates on the categories and the sub-categories.

A. Context Evaluation

Stufflebeam (2002) defined context evaluation as "assessing needs, problems, assets, and opportunities within a defined environment" (p. 287). Issues addressed by the context analysis are of paramount importance in textbook evaluation and because of this many scholars have emphasized doing context analysis for materials evaluation in general and textbook evaluation in particular (Skierso, 1991; Brown, 1995; Graves, 2000; Richards, 2001; Woodward, 2001; Kurniawan, 2006; Nation & Macalister, 2010). This even becomes more critical in the time of curriculum innovation and change and the introduction of new textbooks in any educational system. The reason is that the purpose of context analysis is to make sure that what happens is likely to be successful because it takes account of the local situation (Nation & Mclinster, 2010).

Based on the results of this research, the context analysis addressed issues related to the following cases:
- Major features of the relevant context
- Challenges within the defined educational context
- Opportunities within the defined educational context
- Intended beneficiaries
- The beneficiaries' needs
- How the beneficiaries' needs were determined
- Problems and barriers in meeting the needs
- Assets and opportunities for addressing the needs
- Goals setting
- The extent of the relevance of goals to the needs
- The extent of viability of goals considering the context

The findings of the context evaluation indicated that the most important characteristics of the educational context (i.e. public schools) were the formal system of education; heterogeneity regarding facilities, teachers, and students; English being taught as a foreign language with two hours specified for its instruction. The main challenges of educational context were considered to be lack of resources at schools; schools being very different equipment-wise; large classrooms; teachers not being trained for the new change; extremely heterogeneous population of students and teachers; insufficient time specified to language education at public schools; negative attitudes towards the educational context of public schools in general and language education at public schools in particular. Almost all the participants believed that challenges outweigh opportunities in the educational context. Opportunities were the feeling of need for change by almost all stakeholders such as teachers, students, parents, and society as a whole; some teachers' readiness and enthusiasm for change; free education in public schools; schools being very influential across the country; healthy atmosphere at public schools; and holding in-service training courses for the teachers.

On the intended beneficiaries' needs, the following points were found out. Firstly students, and secondly teachers were referred to as the main intended beneficiaries. No formal needs assessment studies were done for the determination of needs and it was considered as one of the major drawbacks of the project. Yet, the needs were determined based on a thorough review of literature (studies which were done on the needs analysis such as theses and dissertations, books, and papers as well as studies which were done on the old books and problems related to them); interviews with experts and scholars in the field, as well as interviews with stakeholders such as teachers, students, and parents. The opportunities in meeting the needs were considered to be the feeling of need for change, as well as enthusiastic and qualified teachers. About the challenges in meeting the needs, the participants referred to the teacher training and preparing the teachers for the change; lack of suitable infrastructures for the change; as well as eliminating the traditional method and introducing the new method (CLT).

As for the goals, it was stated that there were two kinds of goals; general and specific. The general goals were cited in the top-hand documents of the country like Iran's 20 years perspective, and the national curriculum and were extracted from these official documents. The more specific goals were extracted from international frameworks like the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). The specific goals were also set based on the given needs. The participants stated that the goals were mainly set based on the needs and were highly relevant to them. To cut it short, they believed that the goals were to some extent and not to a great extent viable considering the context, resources, and the policies because of the challenges in the educational context.

B. Input Evaluation

According to Stufflebeam (2002) "input evaluation refers to existing and available resources for meeting needs and attaining objectives". In fact, input evaluation refers to the plans of the program for reaching the objectives. Based on the results of this study, the input evaluation consisted of the following categories:

- Textbook development plan and budget
- Ideal resources, inputs, facilities, and equipment used for textbook development
- Actual resources, inputs, facilities, and equipment which were used for textbook development
- The required qualifications for textbook development team membership
- Preparatory actions that were done before the development and delivery of the new EFL textbook
- The actual allocated time for textbook development
- The ideal time for the successful completion of the textbook development
- Available information for the chosen approach (CLT) for textbook development
- The administrative feasibility of the approach (CLT) within the specified context

Regarding the textbook development plan, the participants did not give clear answers. They only mentioned that the plan of the work was mainly based on the macro-policy making in the educational program of the Ministry of Education. On the budget, they pointed out that it was a meager amount of money but they prefer it to remain confidential and not be revealed in the study.

On the provision of resources, inputs, facilities, and equipment for the textbook development project, they believed that there were not enough facilities and resources for the project due to the lack of the budget. The only resources were physical environment, some official facilities, and free transportation services. Had the necessary budget been given to the team of experts, they could have had a huge file of pictures and illustrations, the possibility of making a video for the textbook, and piloting the textbook at least in some of the regions of the country. The team members were chosen according to their qualifications and capabilities based on some criteria such as teaching at public schools; having experience in compiling, designing, and developing both the main textbooks and supplementary ones; having a high degree of motivation; having positive attitudes towards education at public schools; not giving up because of hard conditions; being confidential, dedicated, and honest; and finally having a high level of scientific qualification and ability.

The actual allocated time for textbook development and delivery was eighteen months which was considered to be ideal by the team members. Since CLT was selected based on the national curriculum and the members did not have any role in its selection, the participants did not answer the questions related to the chosen approach, i.e. communicative language teaching (CLT) for Prospect 1. Regarding the administrative feasibility of the approach (CLT) within the specified educational context, they referred to the challenges as they had experienced in the context analysis section such as lack of resources and equipment at schools (e.g. classrooms not being suitable for the designed tasks, lack of CD players and video projectors); low proficiency of most of the language teachers; extremely heterogeneous population of students and teachers; teachers being accustomed to the traditional methods; and the inadequate time specified for language education.

C. Process Evaluation

The purpose of process evaluation is to provide a complete description of the actual program activities (Stuffelbeam, 1971). Relating this to the textbook development, process evaluation refers to what activities were done during the textbook development process. In this study, the process evaluation was directed towards what actually happened during the textbook development phase. The process evaluation was concerned with the following issues:

- Activities performed through the textbook development process
- The duty or task for each of the members of the team
- The translation of objectives into activities
- The problems that were encountered during textbook development and delivery
- How the textbook development team addressed the problems
- Whether any conflicts arose during the textbook development phase
- The costs of the textbook development project
- The budgeting problems
- Critical factors with regard to the successful completion of the textbook development
- The adjustments or revisions which were made during the textbook development
- The duration of time for textbook development, review, and evaluation
- Whether any guidelines were available for textbook review and evaluation
- The availability of reviewers
- Proposed changes in the structure of textbook development and review process

The participants stated that choosing the most suitable domain (personal) from the alternative ones (social, academic) for the beginners; selecting topics and themes; and sequencing were amongst the most important activities that were done in the textbook development phase. Assigning duties and responsibilities to each member was also another activity that was done in this phase. The duties were assigned to each team member according to the specialty and expertise and

also the experience that they had. Indeed, it was pointed out that the textbook development was mainly the product of a team work. All the members were engaged in all the phases of textbook development.

On the transformation of the objectives to the specific activities, the participants did not go into details and just pointed out that they attempted to incorporate into the book both the general and specific objectives. This was considered a very demanding task since there were some incongruities between the general objectives and the specific ones. For instance, in the general objectives, the emphasis was given to the Islamic and Iranian culture, while in the proposed approach (CLT) the focus was on the promotion of intercultural competence or understanding between cultures. The outcome was the presentation of a totally localized version of the CLT.

Many problems were encountered during textbook development and delivery. The most important ones were budgeting problems; lack of enough physical and human resources; low experience of the team members in comparison to the high sensitivity of the national project; the recent publication of the national documents like the national curriculum and therefore the ambiguity and lack of transparency of important concepts and definitions. The costs of project implementation and the allocated budget remained confidential. The participants also expressed discontent about the lack of enough fund and budget for the project. Yet, the coordination and cooperation between the team members; coming to an agreement; having harmony and unanimity; the cooperation of top-level authorities in charge; the validation of the textbook; the support of the administration/execution staff like the school principals; and the teachers were among the most critical factors mentioned by the participants which resulted to the betterment of the book development and administration.

Many revisions and adjustments were done before the final delivery of the textbook mostly based on the feedback received from the stakeholders. However, as the team members confessed only the logical and reasonable feedbacks were taken into consideration. The duration of time for textbook development, review, and evaluation was about eighteen months which was thought of by most team members as almost ideal for the project. No guidelines were available for textbook review and evaluation. But, there were three groups of human reviewers for textbook review and evaluation such as the team members themselves, the experts in the planning and research organizations of the Ministry of Education, and some outsider reviewers and editors. Finally, the team members considered the absence of textbook piloting as the main drawback.

In sum, radical changes in the English textbook of the first grade of junior high after 27 years has evoked a lot of reactions (mostly negative ones) from different stakeholders (especially teachers). Not knowing about leading factors such as the context in which the textbook will be used, inputs and resources specified for its development; and what occurred in the process of its design could obscure the picture of Prospect 1. An interesting point observed was that teachers' expectations was high because they had waited so long to get a perfect version of the revised book yet they were disappointed since it could not meet the expectations of most teachers. Besides, based on many teachers' viewpoints, the book was far from other similar internationally recognized textbooks (Prospect 1 teachers, personal communication, December, 20, 2014). To respond to this expectation, one of the Prospect 1 authors stated that "because of lack of enough resources and a very low budget, Prospect 1 could not compete with the glittering international textbooks in the market". Still, another author asserted that "Prospect 1 has not been produced under a very powerful international supervision of big names like Oxford, Cambridge, and British Council. Therefore, it could not compete with global textbooks".

All aforementioned facts were revealed by context, input, and process analysis of the textbook development project. In fact, conducting context, input and process evaluation of the new textbook helped to a great extent in gaining further understanding of the end product (Prospect 1). In other words, there are discernible stages in the design and development of instructional materials that could have a great impact on the evaluation of their final product (Islas-Guzman, 1980). CIPP has been considered to be a comprehensive model for EFL textbook evaluation because it provides a systematic way of looking at many different aspects of the textbook development process (Tiantong & Tongchin, 2013).

VI. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION (SECOND PHASE)

Product Evaluation

The results of the content analysis indicated that eight categories for the evaluation of Prospect 1 emerged which could be listed as follows:
- Strong and weak points of the new textbook
- The applicability of the textbook in the educational context
- Eliminating students' needs to participate in extracurricular English classes
- The motivating aspect of the textbook
- The desirability of only Iranian culture in the textbook
- Meeting the two major goals of "communication" and "literacy" skills
- Supplementary materials
- Suggestions for improvement

Each category was further analyzed and some subcategories emerged which will be discussed below.
- Strong and weak points of the new textbook

From teachers' perspectives, the new textbook addressed some of the problems of the old textbook such as being based on traditional methods of language instruction; focusing mainly on reading and writing skills; lack of attention to communicative skills; not having supplementary materials; and promoting a teacher-centered classroom atmosphere. To sum up the improvements in the new book are; being based on the newer approaches of language teaching (CLT); reviving the forgotten skills of listening and speaking; paying attention to the learners' communicative needs; being equipped with supplementary materials (teacher's book, work book, CDs, and flash cards); changing the class atmosphere from absolutely teacher-centered to more student-centered; and focusing more on meaning. Conversely, weak points of Prospect 1 were: not paying enough attention to literacy skills; not presenting English alphabet letters in order and at the start of the instruction; being very difficult for students with no English background; abandoning grammar; mere attention to fluency at the expense of accuracy; and presenting merely the Iranian culture.

As teachers put it the most problematic area is the method of alphabet instruction. Contrary to the old textbook that presented the alphabet in the order (from A to Z) and at the onset of English instruction; alphabets are spread across all units and are taught via conversations in the new textbook. Moreover, the alphabets are not presented in the order (from A to Z).

The teachers believed that the authors should have paid attention to the fact that the audience are not limited to Tehrani students who are usually familiar with English before attending schools, but are from all over the country including faraway villages. Unfortunately, most of the teachers confessed that they deviated from the textbook method and taught the alphabet at the onset of English instruction. They considered this as the last resort and believed that most of their problems are solved this way. Some of them also stated that they taught the grammar rules explicitly to the students when confronted with students asking questions on grammar points.

Teachers observed the new textbook as the opposing pole to the old one and complained about the fact that the two textbooks lay at the two ends of the continuum. In fact, teachers demanded striking a balance between communication (listening and speaking) and literacy skills (reading and writing).

- The applicability of the textbook in the educational context

What we mean by educational context here is public schools. The main features of public schools are: the formal system of education; heterogeneity regarding facilities, teachers, and students; English being taught as a foreign language with two hours specified for its instruction. According to Iran's Educational Measurement Organization, the country is divided into three different regions: privileged, semi-privileged, and deprived. Evidently, the most tangible issue of any curriculum and textbook development is identifying the needs of each region independently (Maftoon, et al., 2010). However, most of the teachers stated that in the design and development of the new textbook, the heterogeneity of the needs in each of the above-mentioned regions was not taken into consideration. Nearly all the teachers believed that the textbook is applicable mostly in the privileged areas of the country. In fact, they demanded allocating more resources for the deprived areas of the country because lack of resources imposes double pressure on their teaching.

Teachers also pointed out that in general the textbook is not very much applicable because of time and resource constraints. They mentioned that lack of educational facilities and the little amount of devoted time for English instruction will definitely reduce the performance of both teachers and students.

- Eliminating students' needs to participate in extracurricular English classes

Since English language teaching in the formal education of public schools in Iran does not equip students with the required level of English to meet their communicative needs, students usually resort to private language institutes to achieve their goals. These private institutes are active throughout the country and a lot of students are attracted by them because of their almost acceptable level of English instruction in comparison to public schools. Furthermore, the educational materials used by these language institutes are more diverse and appealing in comparison to schools. Therefore, both teachers and students prefer to use these materials in their classes (Maftoon, et al., 2010). Most teachers compared the new textbook to the global textbooks taught in private institutes and expressed their dissatisfaction towards the new textbook.

One of the main objectives of changing the English school books of public schools has been pointed out to be "reducing the gap between the public and private sectors" (Prospect 1 authors, personal communication, July, 11, 2014). In other words, it was claimed that students' needs to participate in the private language institutes or any extracurricular English classes would be eliminated by studying the new textbook. However, nearly all the teachers believed that the quality of English Language instruction at public schools is lower compared to private language institutes or other extracurricular English classes. They mentioned less amount of time dedicated to instruction; low proficient teachers; less interesting textbooks; and lack of equipment and resources as some of the reasons behind this deficiency.

- The motivating aspect of the textbook

Regarding the "motivating" aspect of the book, most teachers concurred that the textbook could be motivating for both teachers and students since teachers were very bored of the old books; the textbook is more functional in comparison to the old book; it pushes teachers forward in making themselves more up-to-date and more proficient in language; is based on the learners needs, and assigns more active roles for both students and teachers.

Contradictory views on the motivation aspect of the book were also perceived. Some teachers believed that the textbook could not be motivating because of students' language proficiency levels are diverse, schools have diverse

educational facilities and resources, enough time is not allocated to training teachers to implement the new method, and students' not being able to improve their literacy skills.

- The desirability of only Iranian culture in the textbook

The sole presentation of Iranian culture in the new textbook was an attribute that mostly aroused teachers' negative reactions. Although this issue has pros and cons among teachers, the opponents outweigh the proponents. Those in favour believed that considering students' age and level, the native culture suffices. They also maintained that only the Iranian Islamic culture should be accentuated in the textbook.

However, those against this position believed this to be one of the biggest weak points of the textbook. They considered the textbook as being very closed; full of cultural bias; causing a barrier to language learning because of being incongruent with the principle that language and culture are integrated; and presenting some gender-biased pictures. In fact, teachers called the textbook as an "English book with a pure Iranian world". They considered the purpose of learning English as "thinking beyond rather than within the borders". They believed that English is an international language and the purpose of studying it is to become acquainted with the cultures of the world. Most revealing is that they considered the textbook to be extremely over-localized.

Many scholars (e.g. Chastain, 1988; McGrath, 2002; etc), are strongly in favour of teaching the culture of a language that is taught (Guilani, et al, 2011). The teaching of culture is considered to be an important part of modern foreign language learning and teaching since one major aim of language teaching is to increase the understanding and tolerance between cultures. Furthermore, the cultural knowledge is needed for international communication and contacts (Corbett 2003, as cited in Lappalainen, 2011). Yet, the textbook doesn't remind the students that they are supposed to learn English to communicate with other cultures and nations. Whatever the reason, the presentation of only the Iranian culture was not appealing for most of the teachers because they saw this as contradictory to both principles of CLT and Common European Framework of Reference (Lappalainen, 2011).

- Meeting the two major goals of "communication" and "literacy" skills

Two main goals of the new textbook were developing "communication" and "literacy skills" in students after the end of the educational year (Prospect 1, 2013). On this issue, almost all the teachers agreed that the textbook has been successful in developing communication skills (listening and speaking) while it has not been successful in developing literacy skills (reading and writing). Regarding communication skills, because of the complete abandoning of grammatical structures, teachers were very concerned about lack of accuracy in students' speech. They expressed their deep concerns on developing literacy skills in students since they considered students as not being able to meet the expectations of both activities of work book and final achievement tests because of being very weak at literacy skills and becoming demotivated as a result.

- Supplementary materials

Overall, the teachers' views on supplementary materials (work book, teacher's guide, CDs, and flash cards) were positive. They considered the supplementary materials as being very helpful in both teaching and learning. For instance, they thought of the work book as being useful yet very challenging for students; focusing just on literacy skills; not having diverse and motivating activities for students; and not being practical because of lack of time. Teachers also commented that workbook characters such as Motahhari, Rajaee, Beheshti are the post-revolution famous characters known to the adults rather than to the teens of that age. Most of these characters are not included in the background knowledge of the students at that age. They believed that the authors could have used more familiar characters such as famous actors, sports champions, or cartoon characters.

Lack of resources at schools was also pointed out to be a major barrier in using CDs. Other pitfalls with CDs were the fast speed of speech as well as the low level of recording quality. Some teachers demanded that the number of CD tracks be increased in order to improve learners' motivation. Some other teachers preferred to have video CDs for the textbook.

On teacher's book, most of the teachers believed that it is good but complained about the inaccessibility of the book at most schools. They demanded more variety in presenting activities (like games, tests). They considered some parts in teacher's guide to be redundant and presented with so much details that might cause a barrier for teacher's creativity.

The flash cards too were considered to be good but inaccessible to the majority of teachers. Most teachers also complained about the high price of flash cards.

- Suggestions for improvement

Some teachers refrained from giving suggestions to improve the new textbook. The reason was they were very pessimistic about their views being taken into consideration and their voices being heard by the pertinent authorities. The overall suggestions made were focusing more on literacy skills (reading and writing); injecting a healthy dose of grammar in the textbook in order to prevent students from speaking in a parrot-fashion way; including more authentic, meaningful conversations in the students' book; including more fun activities and tasks; presenting the positive and negative aspects of the target and international cultures in order to promote critical thinking in students; abandoning written tests because of the gradual alphabet instruction and students' inability to write; and finally hearing teachers' voices.

To sum up, for the successful implementation of any change, three conditions should be met: First, the culture of new trends should be cultivated in the stakeholders including learners, teachers, parents, authorities, and administrators.

Second, the government should provide adequate funds, personnel, and resources. Third, assuming that a teacher is the most significant factor in the whole educational program, the teacher education centers should train teachers to implement the new approaches in different contexts (Farhady et al., 2010). Unfortunately, in case of the new textbook, none of these three conditions have been met; the culture of the new trends were not cultivated in stakeholders; the government did not provide adequate fund, personnel, and resources for the change; and most teachers did not receive training regarding the implementation of the new approach in their contexts (Prospect 1 authors, personal communication, July, 11, 2014).

In fact, most Prospect teachers confirmed that they have not been psychologically and educationally ready for such a tremendous change and except some head teachers, most teachers have not received any training on the new textbook. Teachers confessed that they were sticking to their traditional methods in their actual practice because that way they felt more confidence and less frustrated in their work. They had a lot of concerns about the application of the new textbook in their classes since they did not have adequate information, time, and access to resources, and training to use it.

Thus, the findings of the product evaluation (the new textbook) could make the textbook authors aware of the merits and pitfalls of the textbook from teachers' perspectives. This is important since teachers are considered to be the key variable for successful implementation of any change since they must shoulder classroom burdens by themselves (Fullan, 2007). Since the study was done with a considerable number of teachers in a vast geographical distribution of the country, the study results could help in making some useful recommendations for the curriculum planners, course designers, and material developers in the Ministry of Education for further improving the quality of the textbooks and produce more quality EFL textbooks for the next grades.

VII. CONCLUSION

This study aimed at conducting a program evaluation of the newly developed English textbook in the Iranian's public schools by applying the CIPP model. To achieve this purpose, the study was conducted in two phases: Phase I, in which the CIP (context, input, and process) evaluation of the new textbook was done and phase II, in which product evaluation of the new textbook was conducted from teachers' perspectives.

The results of phase I revealed both challenges and opportunities in the textbook development project. Lack of suitable infrastructures for the change as well as lack of adequate funds and resources was pointed out to be the main barriers in the prosperity of the project. On the other hand, the most important opportunities were the strong feelings of the need for the change by almost all stakeholders as well as the congeniality between the textbook development team members. However, amendments of the weak points of the project are required (e.g., establishing the suitable infrastructures for the change; injecting reasonable finance into the project; providing adequate physical and human resources; etc) to produce more satisfactory and appealing EFL textbooks for the next grades.

The results of phase II showed that most of the teachers considered the new textbook as a significant move forward for English instruction at public schools compared with the old version. However, they believed that like any other initiative; this innovation is not without its pitfalls. Nearly all teachers were discontent about the method of alphabet instruction as well as the ignorance of the development of intercultural competence in the textbook. The teachers were also dissatisfied about the methods of evaluation and applicability of the textbook. Moreover, they considered the textbook objectives as being unrealistic because of lack of time and resources. Yet, reviving the forgotten skills of listening and speaking as well as being equipped with supplementary materials was pointed out to be the strengths of the new textbook. To improve the textbook, some suggestions have been offered by teachers (e.g., paying more attention to literacy skills; including more authentic, and meaningful conversations in the students' book; presenting the positive and negative aspects of the target and international cultures; abandoning written tests; etc). What teachers expect is that their voices be heard and their perspectives be taken into account by the pertinent authorities.

This is the first time that an English national textbook development project by the Ministry of Education has gone through such an extensive program evaluation. Two points are worth considering here: First, enormous differences among the Prospect 1 end-users (both teachers and students) from many aspects such as being from diverse economical conditions, geographical positions, and having various cultural values made the development project much more challenging for the textbook development team members because the textbook has been expected to work for a nation and meet a variety of expectations. Thus, one should be fair in any evaluation and judgment of the textbook both at the development and the application phases. Second, it must also be noted that one round of evaluation is never enough for such a huge project at the national level. It is hoped that those interested will carefully put the project under their lens once more to come up with more cases of weak and strong points. Such revisions will prove to be invaluable when similar national textbook development projects are to be launched once more by the Ministry of Education in the future. Improvement and modification will not come true unless willingness and compliance is ensured from different sides of top-down policy makers, executive staffs like the textbook development team members, and bottom-up fraction of school teachers and students.

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The Differences of Multiple Intelligence Representation in English and Chinese Textbooks: The Case of EFL & CFL Textbooks in Thailand

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Abstract—So far, there have been many research achievements about foreign language textbooks which apply multiple intelligence theory, but not the contrast study of different types of foreign language textbooks. This research studies locally-designed English and Chinese textbooks in primary schools in Thailand and analyses the distribution of multiple intelligence shown in activity parts of textbooks. From contrast, we find that among textbooks used by pupils, the ones which are most spatial intelligent in activity show similarity, meanwhile, different languages types such as Chinese and English lead to discrepancy of other intelligences. This paper is made to explain the factors and then provide a reference to future multiple intelligence design of textbooks which use English and Chinese as the second language.

Index Terms—textbook, multiple intelligences, practice activities, comparative analysis

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1983, 'Multiple Intelligence Theory' was proposed by Howard Gardner, a psychology professor in Harvard University. This theory demolished the idea of unitarily of traditional intelligence and pointed out that human intelligence was consist of multiple intelligences. For example:

Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence means core operating ability to use language accurately. When we are communicating by listening, speaking, reading and writing, we are meant to make full use of important components of this intelligence. (Bellanca etc., 2004, p.73) The major learning activities of language intelligence include telling jokes and stories, writing letters and poetry, reading, writing, using language for specific purposes. recalling information and learning new languages. (Oliveira, 2009)

Logical/ Mathematical Intelligence is ability to use numbers, identify image, read and understand abstract symbols as well as understand complicated relation of mathematical reasoning and the process of scientific inquiry. In addition, it also involves deductive, inductive reasoning, logical thinking and the processes of problem-solving (Gardner, 1993, p.20)

Visual/Spatial Intelligence which means abilities to have an accurate insight into the world, create individual visual experience and give visual inspection to color, pattern, shape and structure, such as drawing and pattern design.

Bodily/ Kinesthetic Intelligence is to use body to express emotions, play games or create new products. (Gardner, 1993, p.19) Physique intelligence is an ability to make us control and understand body movement, operate objects and build a harmonious relationship between body and mind. In teaching situation, methods to arouse physique intelligence can help students to experience their body movements, including performance, echomotism, handcrafting activities which are good to better development of physique intelligence.

Musical Intelligence means the sharp awareness when one is in a certain environment and abilities to use a series of music elements, such as pitch, rhythm and intonation. (Bellanca etc., 2004, p.93) In children's foreign language teaching, poetic rhymes are essential. The cultivation of music intelligence is mainly by music creation, rhythm exercise, pitch training, background music activities, singing and ballad.

Intrapersonal Intelligence Intra is relatively independent and to understand one's own feeling and motivation, so students need enough time to make thinking, self-reflection and self-assessment. Class teaching with self-introspection method shows the most basic information: student must be responsible for their study, learn to think independently, learn by themselves and reflect on themselves about their study and experience.

Interpersonal Intelligence, which is different from emphasizing on introversion, freedom and introspection, stresses on extroversive characters when communicating with others, that is to say the abilities to understand and interact with others. Nowadays, learning class which shares with the society is especially important, so the cultivation of abilities to interact with other, such as cooperation training, learning cooperation, communication, group work, team competition and conflict disposal, all need interpersonal intelligence.

Naturalist intelligence, is the eighth intelligence by Howard Gardner in 1995 after his other seven intelligences. It means abilities to identify animal and plant species in surrounding environment and classify natural creatures. Children are junior natural observers, so the addition of this intelligence cultivation into children's foreign language teaching can meet the requirement of children's psychological cognition development. (Esta Masoomeh & Nafisi Mahdieh, 2014)

According to Gardner (1983), intelligences are various; each human intelligence should be stimulated. In children's foreign language teaching, individual difference should be given full consideration; children's different intelligences should be used to arouse their interests to learn foreign language, while textbook design should also meet the need of various children intelligences.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Based on multiple intelligence theory, many researchers have studied the multiple intelligences shown in class teaching activities. But since textbooks are mainly used in language teaching, Textbooks have been analyzed in order to know how they responded to MI theory. Palmberg(2002) reports a study conducted at Abo Akademi University in Finland by a group of student teachers, participants in an EFL methodology course. The student teachers they wanted to find out the proportional distribution of exercises that catered for each of the nine intelligence types in that particular coursebooks. The analysis revealed the 97% of the 300 exercises of the textbook were categorized as verbal/linguistic, 76% intrapersonal, 25% interpersonal, 8% logical/mathematical, 5% bodily/kinesthetic, 5% spatial/visual, 3% naturalistic, 2% musical, and 0% existentialist.

Botelho's (2003) studied at the College of Arts and Sciences of Ohio University, USA. which aimed to analyze current EFL/ESL textbooks in order to know if they respond to MI theory and how their activities help enhance Brazilian EFL learners' intelligences. She found that 75% of activities mainly cater for the verbal/linguistic, spatial/visual, interpersonal intelligences and intrapersonal, The logical/mathematical, bodily/kinesthetic, musical/rhythmic, naturalist, and existential intelligences were observed in less than40% of all the activities in the books. In the similar vein, Carolina Leonardi de Oliviera (2009) analyzed the two English textbooks utilized in Porto Algercituy, Brazil; and came to conclusion that verbal/linguistic, spatial/visual, interpersonal intelligences and intrapersonal these four type of intelligences were appeared mostly in the textbooks. Yasemin Kirkgoz (2010) studied the locally-published ELT textbooks in Turkey and found that naturalistic intelligence was the least type and no activities were found that catered for existential intelligence in any of textbooks.

Several studies have been investigating in Iran textbook,for example, Razmjoo, S. A., & Jozaghi, Z. (2010) analyzed in each book of the series and shows that there exists a pattern of some of the intelligences-addressing through different levels. Along the same line, Yoones Taase (2012) analyzed the locally-designed EFL textbooks in high schools in Iran and found that verbal/linguistic and visual/spatial were the most predominant intelligences followed by logical/mathematical, Interpersonal and interpersonal in much lower ratio. Bodily/kinesthetic,musical and naturalistic intelligences were not found in any percent. Similarly, Estaji,Masoomeh. & Nafisi,Mahdieh (2014) did similar investigation in which they investigated the Iranian young learners' textbooks and the materials for four level.

Some study object has turned to analysis English for Specific Purposes (ESP) textbooks, for example, Soroor Ashtarian (2014) studied on the representation of Multiple Intelligences in ESP Textbooks with the case of nursing for careers. The results indicated that textbook was rich in addressing verbal intelligence. Recently, Al-Omari1, Bataineh, Smadi (2015) analyzed the Jordanian   four levels of the textbooks , They found that the verbal/linguistic, intrapersonal and spatial/visual intelligences were the most predominant intelligences and the incorporation of multiple intelligences is fairly unbalanced among the four levels of the textbook

Reviewing the findings of related literature reveal that most of all have already been analyzed in ESL & ESP textbooks. However, as the comparison of textbooks for different foreign languages the Chinese scholars Zhang Li and Zhou Xiaobing (2012) who compared English and Chinese textbooks for children and found that there were different intelligence distributions in Chinese and English textbooks. But they only analyzed the design of interpersonal intelligence activities in textbooks and pointed out that comparing with developed children's English textbooks Chinese textbooks need more attentions and more various exercises. The paper only discussed in detail in interpersonal intelligence, but not the reasons of difference.

From above achievements, there are many research achievements about English language textbooks with multiple intelligence theory, but not the comparison of textbooks for different foreign languages, not even the analysis of different intelligences in textbooks for different foreign languages. Furthermore, no researched have been done in South East Asia Country English textbook. Therefore, this study aims to investigate what are the most and least dominant intelligences in foreigner language textbook in Thailand. Meanwhile, we try to find reasons to provide a reference to future multiple intelligence design of textbooks which use English and Chinese as the second language.

III. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

In Thailand, as a foreign language, English has a long history and a mature learning scale; while Chinese, as a rising foreign language, has developed rapidly in recent years. This paper has studied two series of the most representative foreign language textbooks, Project Play &Learn as English textbook and Experiencing Chinese as Chinese textbook.

Both are regional foreign language textbooks issued and given key promotion by Basic Committee of Ministry of Education in Thailand. Project Play &Learn written by The Office of the Basic Education Commission of Thailand. The compiling concepts of Project Play &Learn blend three theories: Project-Based Approach theory, Brain-Based Learning theory and Multiple Intelligence theory. This book was published between 2006 and 2010 by major publishers for ESL/EFL teaching and learning.

While Chinese Experience written by cooperation between The Office of the Basic Education Commission of Thailand and The Office of Chinese Language Council International – Hanban and China Higher Education Press of China with was published in 2011 year. This textbooks by major publishers for CSL/CFL teaching and learning which experience-oriented Chinese teaching characters, focuses on listening and speaking and becomes one of the earliest Chinese textbooks entering into the mainstream national education system in Thailand.

Hence, in this present study, two nationally published ELT & CLT textbooks used in Thailand primly schools. Both compiling concepts are experience-oriented learning and have many activity exercises, so they have comparability and research value. This paper studies following questions

1. What's the distribution of multiple intelligences in EFL and CFL Textbooks?
2. Does the presentation of multiple intelligences reflect language difference?
3. Does the presentation of multiple intelligences in textbooks reflect the compiling concepts of textbooks?

IV. METHODS

(i) Materials

This research compares regional English textbooks with Chinese textbooks in Thailand primary schools. Project Play &Learn have 6 books, one book each grade and eight passages each book, so 48 in all. Chinese Experience has 12 books, one book each term and eight passages each book, so 96 in all. Although they have different lesson number, both are for 1-6 grades in primary school. This paper has made statistics about all exercise activities. Exercise activities in this paper include traditional language point exercise, experience-oriented and activity-oriented exercises.

(ii) Instrumentation

The research method is mainly the multiple intelligence item list. Based on the framework of Gardner's (1999) Multiple Intelligence theory, when designing multiple intelligence list and English activity exercise, this research mainly uses the theories and research achievements of Berman, 1998; Christison, 1996 &1998; Lazea, 1993 (quoted in Botelho, 2003) for reference. Meanwhile, recently, both Kirkgoz (2010) and Arikan，Soydan, Isler (2014) have studied textbooks for primary school and provided detailed titles in their researches.

V. DATA COLLECTION PROCEDURES

For the related studies in the area of ELT/ ESP(Palmberg,2002;Botelho's,2003;Carolina Leonardi de Oliviera,2009; Razmjoo, S. A., & Jozaghi, Z., 2010; Yasemin Kirkgoz,2010; Yoones Taase, 2012; Razmjoo and Farmer, 2012; Al-Omari1, Bataineh, Smadi, 2015) meaning that verbal intelligence has the highest frequency of occurrence. A reasonable justification for this finding is the fact that a language textbook should focus on the linguistic intelligence type to a great extent. Hence, as both series of textbooks are for foreign language cultivation, they have content of linguistic intelligence cultivation. Therefore, we will emphasize on exercises developing linguistic intelligence and other intelligences. As Gardner says, few kinds of intelligences play independent role; in integral learning experience, all intelligences interact with each other. So do the textbooks in this paper. In a certain activity, there are multiple intelligences at the same time instead of an independent intelligence. Therefore, this paper made statistics by distribution of each intelligence, and our method is as follows:

e.g. 1 p.7, 12th textbook, Chinese Experience

Listen to the record and read. Then three students each group, you should point at the pictures (with your fingers) and make conversations with the given sentences.

In this activity, 'three students each group' needs their abilities of cooperation and communication and thus it can cultivate children's interpersonal intelligence; use fingers to 'point at the pictures' can attract more attention by body movements; make conversations according to pictures make children's spatial and linguistic intelligences exercised. Being analyzed in detail, this activity shows four intelligences; therefore we will record linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, body intelligence and interpersonal intelligence each for one time, as follows:

TABLE I:
MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE RECORD

Linguistic Intelligence	Logical Intelligence	Spatial Intelligence	Body Intelligence	Musical Intelligence	Interpersonal Intelligence	Intrapersonal Intelligence	Natural Intelligence
1	-	1	1	-	1	-	-

Table 1 displays the record of one activity caters for linguistic intelligence, spatial intelligence, body intelligence and interpersonal intelligence.

Not include the verbal/Linguistic Intelligence, as for all other seven intelligences, Project Play &Learn is 1291 times while Chinese Experience 867 times. The formula of intelligence distribution rate will be used to measure below:

$$\frac{\text{Distribution of Logical intelligence}}{\text{The total number of seven intelligences without repetition}} \times 100$$

= per cent accuracy

The rates of other intelligence will be used the same formula.

VI. RESULTS

We have made statistics of the distributions of seven intelligences in two series of textbooks; please see details in the following table:

TABLE II:
DISTRIBUTIONS OF SEVEN INTELLIGENCES IN TEXTBOOKS. INTELLIGENCE TYPES (F%)

Intelligence type	Project Play & Learn Total F%	Chinese Experience Total F%
Logical Intelligence	144 8.76	238 27.15
Spatial Intelligence	385 29.78	333 38.41
Bodily/ Kinesthetic Intelligence	259 20.03	90 10.38
Musical Intelligence	53 4.41	17 1.96
Interpersonal Intelligence	264 20.42	129 14.88
Intrapersonal Intelligence	168 15.31	43 4.96
Natural Intelligence	18 1.39	17 1.96

Table 2 displays the distribution of Multiple Intelligence Types in the Project Play & Learn and Chinese Experience.

As Table 2 shows, Project Play & Learn, the most frequently represented intelligence types are Spatial intelligence (29.78%), Interpersonal intelligence (20.42%), Body intelligence (20.03%), Intrapersonal intelligence (15.31%), Logical intelligence (8.76%). And the less commonly addressed intelligence are Music intelligence (4.11%), Natural intelligence (1.39%).While Chinese Experience 38.41% of which caters predominantly for Spatial intelligence. Logical intelligence (27.15), Interpersonal intelligence (14.88%), Body intelligence (10.38%). The less commonly addressed intelligence types in this book are Intrapersonal intelligence (4.96%), Music intelligence (1.96%), Natural intelligence (1.96%).The percentages of intelligence types are illustrated in figure1:
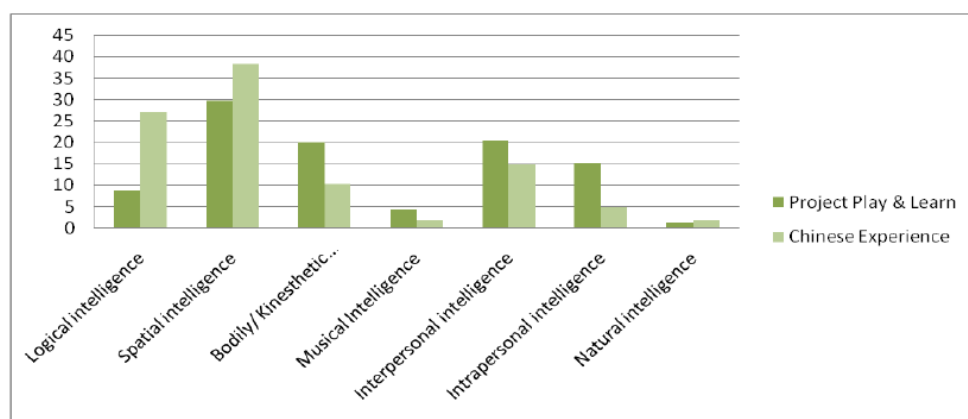
Figure 1.Percentage of intelligence types in two books

Researching the above two series of textbooks, we have found similarities and differences, details are as follows:

A.   The Similarities of Multiple Intelligence Distribution

1. Both English and Chinese textbooks have the visual/spatial intelligence most; Project Play & Learn (29.78%) while Chinese Experience (38.41%) which are close to 1/3. We can see that the visual/spatial intelligence in Children's textbooks is very developed. In general, there are colorful designs, patterns and pictures in textbooks to arouse students' spatial intelligence which meets the requirement of children's psychological development. As the result of Zhang Li and Zhou Xiaobing (2012) who researched four Chinese textbooks for overseas children have found that

the visual/spatial intelligence ranked first in multiple intelligences, accounting for 35.80%. It shows that 1/3 of exercise activities in Chinese textbooks are for visual/spatial intelligence development. Botelho (2003) revealed that it seems more visual/spatial intelligence input is offered to young and beginner learners.

2. As for the Music intelligence and Natural intelligence, Both English and Chinese textbooks were less representative. As for music intelligence, Project Play & Learn (4.41%) while Chinese Experience (1.96%); natural intelligence, Project Play & Learn (1.39%) while Chinese Experience (1.96%). As children have a natural curiosity with the surrounding world and poem is essential in children's development. Although linguistic textbooks should focus on linguistic competence cultivation, as children's foreign language textbooks, they should also ensure the cultivation of music and natural intelligences when they meet the requirement of children's cognitive development psychology.

B. The Differences of Multiple Intelligence Distribution

From comparison, we can see their differences. Chinese textbook Chinese Experience focus more on logical and spatial intelligences while English textbook Project Play & Learn focus more on interpersonal, body and intrapersonal intelligences. The reasons might be as follows:

1. As for interpersonal intelligence, Project Play & Learn ranked second with (20.42%) while Chinese Experience ranked third with (14.88%). As Chinese researcher Zhang Li and Zhou Xiaobing (2012) pointed out that interpersonal intelligence activities are mainly in forms of discussion and communication, game, action, dialog, performance and survey which are not various enough. After research, we found that Project Play & Learn covers all these forms while Experiencing Chinese did not include survey activity. Maybe focusing on interpersonal intelligence, Chinese Experience is still has some way to go on that percent and types when compared with English textbooks.

2. In Bodily/ Kinesthetic Intelligence, Project Play & Learn ranked third (20.03%) which is far over the fourth (10.38), Chinese Experience. The reason is that the teaching idea of Project Play & Learn is based on project learning and one or two works need to be finished in the form of body intelligence when learning every passage. At the same time, there are a lot of games which need body coordination in textbooks. Therefore, textbooks show more body intelligences.

3. In intrapersonal intelligence, Project Play & Learn accounts for 15.31% which is far above the Chinese Experience, 4.96%. Project Play & Learn has three types of intrapersonal intelligence: 1, Knowing yourself, such as talking about your family and hobbies; 2, Assessment,   make an assessment on you works and give suggestions; 3, Reflection, as for grammar, students should reflect on the knowledge they have already known and understand the connection of these sentences themselves. For example: Look and think. Then listen and repeat. In another practice such as: Think back. Point and say the words that have the same vowel sound as 'ee' in 'feel'. Chinese textbooks have the single intrapersonal intelligence cultivation, for example: Have you been to the summer camp? What activities do you want to take part in? These questions are very simple just knowing myself. By comparing, we found that English textbooks can give more cultivation of student's thinking-independently ability and focus more on intrapersonal intelligence than Chinese textbooks.

4. In visual/Spatial Intelligence, Chinese Experience accounted for (38.41%), ranking first, and was higher than Project Play & Learn (29.78%). The reason is Chinese textbooks focus on words when learning and have a lot of pictures, such as Please answer questions according to following pictures. As for logical intelligence, Chinese textbooks are higher than English textbooks. When learning sentences, most exercises of passages are pictures, put words in order, fill the blank with number and match, for example:

Figure 2 .Chinese Experience, Level 4   P.24

Use the above Chinese characters to make a sentence in the blank circles

This exercise needs children to put sentences in order. What's more, in almost every lesson, students learn the strokes of Chinese characters. This exercise needs students to observe and make connections to find the Chinese characters having the same strokes. In this way, logical intelligence is developed.

Figure 3. Chinese Experience Level 4   P.25

According to the above strokes, please find out the Chinese characters with the same strokes and then coat them with paint.

Figure 4. Chinese Experience Level 4 P.25

VII. CONCLUSION

According to what have been analyzed above, the reasons why English and Chinese textbooks have the different distributions of multiple intelligences show that English and Chinese are different languages, so the emphasis of linguistic training is different. As Chinese is an isolating language, its syntactic relation is expressed by function words and word order, so it has various types of sentences. The Chinese textbooks which are for pupils haven't had complex syntactic constituents yet; the major activities and exercises are based on visual cognition and focus on word cognition, put words in order and the connection between Chinese characters and Chinese phonetic transcription. Therefore, Chinese textbooks show more spatial and logical intelligences than English textbooks.

In English textbooks, visual/spatial Intelligence, bodily/ kinesthetic intelligence and interpersonal intelligence are comparatively balanced. Meanwhile, English sentences widely use the morphological change of word as grammatical devices; the sentences have strict structure and students have to think independently of the morphological change. Therefore, English textbooks show intrapersonal Intelligence.

Textbooks can truly reflect the teaching concepts of compilers. For example interpersonal intelligence and intrapersonal intelligence, as can be vividly revealed in Table 2, English textbooks are better than Chinese textbooks. Because the exercises of English textbooks are not only linguistic training, but also the ability cultivation of group cooperation spirit and interaction with others, they also focus on children's personality cultivation and independent thinking chances for them. Meanwhile, Chinese textbooks only have linguistic training most and pay less attention on the cultivation of cooperation spirit and independent thinking than English textbooks. Therefore, we hold that the excellence of English textbooks should be learned as a reference for Chinese and other foreign languages.

APPENDIX. THE MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE CHECKLIST USED

(intelligence Types and the Corresponding Textbook activities representative in textbooks)

Intelligence Types	Sample activities
Verbal/Linguistic Intelligence	Listening Discussions Debates Writing
Logical/ Mathematical Intelligence	Read and match Think back and say the words that start the same. Play more or less. Play how many? Make & Play. Guess your friends heights. take turns measuring, Play 'Class Survey' game. Play a true/ false game.
Visual/Spatial Intelligence	Draw Point the picture and say the words Look the picture and match Make my color book
Bodily/ Kinesthetic Intelligence	Play Touch something Green/purple Pont and say Make A Christmas Tree Play Animal X walk around table
Musical Intelligence	Listen sing and act out Play D around us Run to D when music stops and Say Sing I have two hands.
Interpersonal Intelligence	Draw an apple and finger race in teams. Put work on board.. Vote for your friends. Play good morning game. Throw a ball to a friend and say… Play who am I Read a card from worksheet. Let your friends guess.
Intrapersonal Intelligence	Show you feeling about project Make 'My Family Photo'. Which picture do you like? Write about yourself on a card Choose the work you like and tell why.
Natural Intelligence	Growing Seeds Talk about parts of plants Make plant picture, Match the shadows to the animals. Find more animals on the internet English camp

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The Effect of Reconstruction as a Noticing Strategy on Iranian Female First Grade High School Students' Writing Ability

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Abstract—**Most Iranian high school and university students suffer from lack of enough knowledge of writing and are not able to communicate via this skill properly. To help Iranian EFL learners improve their writing skill, in the present study attempts were made to investigate the effect of reconstruction, as a noticing strategy, on first grade high school female students' writing ability. To this end, 96 participants were selected via convenience sampling technique and were divided into two groups—experimental and control (48 participants each). Before beginning the treatment, the pretest was administered to the two groups. The experimental group reconstructed the original extracts during 10 treatment sessions each took 40 minutes while the control group was taught writing skill through explicit explanation without reconstruction. Finally, the posttest was administered to both groups. The data collected were analyzed running ANCOVA and the results showed that the main effect of the treatment was significant.**

Index Terms—**noticing, reconstruction, writing ability**

I. Introduction

A. Overview

It is about two decades that many scholars have debated that second language acquisition (SLA) is the result of what learners pay attention to and become aware of in target language (TL) input. In other words, they believe that people learn more about things they attend to in comparison to the things they do not (Schmidt, 2010).

The most challenging claims in the role of noticing have been posed by Schmidt (1990) and Ellis (1995). Schmidt (1990) argued that attention plays a crucial role in learning and claimed "there can be no learning without attention", but he was not the only person who believed in such a strong claim (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Ellis (1995) also asserted in his models that noticing is the primary step for learning and evoked "no noticing, no acquisition". However, such claims are in dispute; for example, Reber (1989) as a psychologist and Doughty (2001, in Ellis 2008) believe in unconscious learning it means learning without awareness is possible. But Schmidt (1994) pointed out "it is not clear to what extent such learning is robust and long-lasting or peripheral and fragile". He believes that the role of unconscious learning has been exaggerated (Ellis, 2008). Schmidt's idea, eventually, resulted in his proposal of 'Noticing Hypothesis' and its underlying hypothesis called 'Noticing the Gap'.

The role of noticing and consciousness in SLA has gained increasing support recently. Reviewing a number of empirical studies related to the notion of noticing, both Long (1983, 1988; in Cross 2002) and Ellis (1990; in Cross 2002) concluded that conscious learning is a contributory factor in SLA.

Eventually, receiving adequate evidence in favor of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis, language teachers can take advantage of stimulating cognitive processes and benefit from the idea in successful teaching/ learning processes by planning instructional syllabuses and educational materials that provide more noticing opportunities for learners on one hand, as well as tasks and strategies that require or attract learners' conscious attention on the other, in order to facilitate learning.

A level of awareness is an essential part of language learning process. This particular level is mentioned by psychologists as 'attention' and by linguists as 'noticing' (Zhang, 2012). To investigate the effectiveness of attention/noticing in language learning one should consider noticing strategies such as highlighting, think aloud, and reconstruction.

The present study investigates whether reconstruction as a noticing process can benefit learners in their writing ability which is really important in communication.

B. Statement of the Problem

The growth of science in the world in different disciplines such as technology, business, humanities as well as academic ones especially international relations between the universities, scholars, journals, and students requires writers' competence in order to make them able to communicate with others effectively all around the world via E-mails, articles, letters, and books that reflect one's knowledge and power of writing. Unfortunately, after being taught English for many years—sometimes from kindergarten to university and at least about six years in secondary and high school—'most Iranian learners lack the ability to write properly' (Shokrpour and Fallahzade, 2007; Rasouli & Abbasvandi, 2013).

Shokrpour and Fallahzade (2007) in their study point out Iranian EFL medical students have problems both in language and writing skills, but with a higher percentage of problems in writing skills. They assert what our students need, in addition to language knowledge, is writing skills. Their investigation on learners' problem showed that Iranian learners have problem in grammar, syntax, and punctuation too.

Rasouli and Abbasvandi (2013) back Shokrpour and Fallahzades' findings and say that "this has always been detected by the raters" they write "the raters found learners' writing poor in vocabulary and grammar" and suggest for promoting writing quality improving students' writing knowledge are in all aspects required.

C. Significant of the Study

Communication via writing is a daily need for various classes of society in one way or another. So, boosting students' knowledge and power of writing must really be a crucial part of language teachers' efforts and responsibilities. To this end, language teachers should be equipped with techniques and strategies that facilitate writing.

The results of the previous studies concerning noticing are mixed. For example, 'Krashen (1983) believes that acquisition is a subconscious process while Schmidt (1994) knows acquisition as a conscious process and finally some others like Tomlin and Villa (1994) claim that acquisition is an amalgam of conscious and subconscious processes' (Soleimani, Ketabi, & Talebinejad, 2008).

Regarding to such disagreements Green (2012) expresses that "Somebody had this to say and somebody thought this". He exemplifies if there are two students who are alike in every respect, but one notices more language than the other, we would expect the one who notices more to learn better and quicker. Jeremy Cross (2002) in his article 'noticing in SLA' argues that 'noticing' has gained wide support on the basis of intuition and assumption rather than on the findings of related and exhaustive empirical research. Consequently, the effect of noticing in learning a second language still requires more experimental work and if it gets verified that noticing can positively affect learning, we can easily utilize its strategies such as reconstruction in our teaching approach because it is not costly, nor difficult. So, learners may then notice a particular linguistic feature in input while following a formal instruction as consciousness raising (Cross, 2002).

D. Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of the present study is to enhance EFL learners' writing ability. To this end, the secondary purpose is to see whether reconstruction positively affects the writing of Iranian students studying in high school, especially the first graders.

E. Variables

 - Independent variables: reconstruction
 - Dependent variable: students' writing ability

F. Research Question

Does reconstruction significantly affect Iranian female high school students' writing ability?

G. Research Hypothesis

As a noticing strategy, reconstruction improves the Iranian EFL learners' writing competence.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

The frustration of achieving high levels of competence by language learners in communicative classrooms led scholars to think about what communicative approaches lack; and it is certainly 'focus on form'. As Baleghizade and Derakhshesh (2012) bring from Long (1991), teaching language bits are not fruitful and language learning is a complex process of cognitive development not such a simplistic matter. He does not approve communicative approach since it ignores grammar.

Ellis (2008) suggests that:

One reason why learners fail to achieve high levels of competence in communicative classrooms may be their failure to attend to form. That is, because the activities they engage in are meaning-focused, they do not notice features such as past tense markings … such an interpretation is compatible with NOTICING and OUTPUT HYPOTHESIS. (p. 827)

So, in recent years SLA studies put more emphasis on the concept of attention and noticing eventually (Gass & Selinker 2008; Ellis 2008; Cross2002; Noonan 2004; Greene 2012; Baleghizade & Derakhshesh 2012; Doughty 2003, Zhang 2012; Sysoyev 1999).

According to Cross (2002) there are some techniques such as awareness/ consciousness/ attention raising, and noticing (the gap) that can be utilized by language teachers to facilitate learning by influencing the complex processes of it. It seems to be helpful to review some definitions of the term 'noticing'. Some influential definitions have been given by Schmidt (1994), Tomlin and villa (1994; in Ellis 2008), and Robinson (1995) which are brought respectively.

A. Definition of Noticing

• **Schmidt's definition of noticing.** Schmidt (1990, 1994, and 2001) defines noticing as the process of attending consciously to linguistic features in the input and believes that it is necessary for learning.

• **Tomlin and Villas' definition of noticing.** Tomlin and Villa's (1994; cited in Ellis 2008) definition of detection is closely associated with Schmidt's noticing. They define it as a cognitive registration of sensory stimuli, "the process that selects or engages a particular and specific bit of information.

• **Robinson's definition of noticing.** Robinson (1995; Robinson 2002) suggests that noticing means detection and 'rehearsal'. Rehearsal, here, suggests that learners must make some conscious effort to memorize the new forms they have noticed.

'Attention' in SLA was conceptualized in terms of 'consciousness' initially. Krashen in 1981(cited in Ellis, 2008) used the terms 'conscious' and 'unconscious' to characterize processes responsible for 'learning' explicit knowledge and 'acquisition' of implicit knowledge, respectively. Not surprisingly, such a rigid distinction followed by scholars' controversies over the idea. McLaughlin (1990; cited in Ellis, 2008), for instance, viewed it untenable and argued that it is not amenable to empirical studies. But more much clarification to the role of consciousness has been done by Schmidt's contributions.

B. Schmidt's Contributions of Consciousness

Reviewing the related literature up to the end of the1980s, Schmidt (1990) introduced three types or levels of consciousness: 1) consciousness as intention, 2) consciousness as attention, and 3) consciousness as awareness; and put some claims forward about each to clarify them.

1) Consciousness as intention: refers to the differences between 'incidental' and 'intentional' subject. For example, learning new vocabulary or structures through reading which is not the aim of a reading text, definitely, comprehending it can be the main goal of such tasks. On the other hand, the latter is goal-oriented and requires learners' deliberate attention to the subject for detection. For example, when the L2 learners fail to notice an issue since it is processed differently in learners' first language or L1 (Schmidt, 2010).

2) Consciousness as attention: refers to a variety of mechanisms or subsystems, such as alertness, orientation, detection, facilitation, and inhibition that their common function is controlling information processing. As Schmidt (2010) says consciousness as attention seems to be heart of the matter and learners need to pay conscious attention to the form, irrespective of the way they acquire that piece of knowledge of language, incidentally or intentionally. While there is not any evidence against the claim that people learn much less about the things they do not attend to (Logan, Taylor, and Etherton, 1996 in Schmidt, 2010), the important question in Baars' (1988) idea is 'whether more attention results in more learning'.

3) Consciousness as awareness: is most controversial in SLA. In 'implicit learning', Reber (1967, 1993) proposed that learning takes place without awareness. He points out that people acquire knowledge without conscious effort to learn and are not able to express it. On the contrary, there are some others, like Barrs (1988), who believe that awareness and attention are closely linked and "what we are aware of is what we attend to" so it must be concluded that if attention is necessary for learning then perhaps awareness is as well (cited in Schmidt 2010).

Schmidt's (2010) solution was to classify three levels for awareness: *perception, noticing,* and *understanding*. Perception implies mental organization and the ability to create internal representations of external events. But more noticeable issue in Schmidt's classification is the distinction he has made between 'noticing' and 'understanding' as different levels of awareness; that just one of them is crucial for acquisition language.

C. 'Noticing' versus 'Understanding'

According to Schmidt (2010), noticing and understanding differ from each other. 'Noticing' refers to the "conscious registration of attended specific instances of language" and 'understanding' points to a "higher level of awareness that includes generalizations across instances" (p.725). Schmidt's proposal is that "the lower level of awareness is necessary for second language acquisition, while the higher level is facilitative (p. 721-737)". In other words, 'noticing is required for SLA, but 'understanding' not.

Schmidt's claim about the position of noticing is backed by Ellis's (1997, 1999) models. They also show that noticing is the very first step of the processes responsible for input to be intake. In addition to Ellis's models, there are some other models of scholars based on different points of view that support Schmidt's ideas about the influential role of noticing in language learning.

D. Some Models and Hypotheses Based on Different Points of View That Support the Role of Noticing

● ***Ellis's (1997) model 'the process of learning implicit knowledge'.*** Ellis shows his model of 'the process of learning implicit knowledge' as the following diagram:
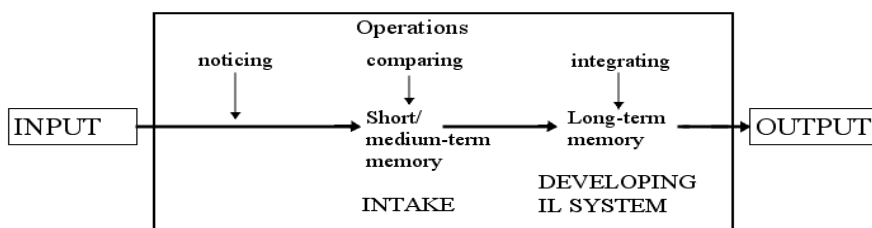

Figure 1: The process of learning implicit knowledge from R. Ellis (1990, p.119)

He put his model forward based on the theory of SLA in which two different stages are involved; in the first stage input becomes intake by means of involving learners noticing language features in the input, absorbing them into their short-term memories and comparing them to features produced as output. In the second stage, on the other hand, intake is absorbed into the learner's interlanguage system (IL) and changes to this system only occur when language features become part of long-term memory (Zhang, 2012; Cross, 2002).

● ***Ellis's (1999) model 'the cognitive process in SLA'.*** Ellis in 1999, proposed a model in which the role of noticing was given great importance. It became a consensual model and drew attentions to the cognitive progress in cognitive approach, in other words, what a learner does with input. This framework which explains the language learning from a cognitive perspective, also asserts that noticing is the first stage of language acquisition.
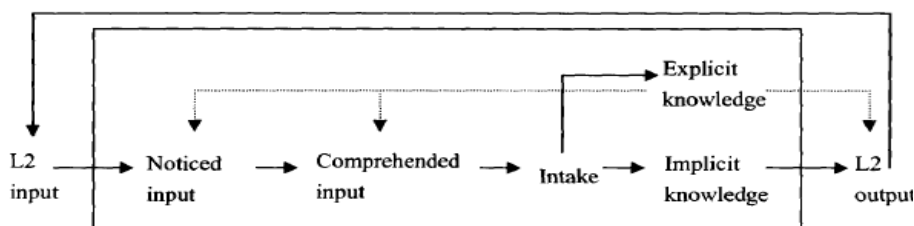
Figure 2- The framework for investigating L2 acquisition (Adapted from Ellis 1999, p. 349)

In this framework, the initial role is given to noticing. That part of input which has been noticed by the learners functions as a primary device that prepares the input for further analysis (Zhang, 2012; Cross, 2002).

According to Zhang (2012), there are some other supporters of the idea that noticing is a very low/beginning level of consciousness, for instances, Gass (1988) evokes "noticing is the first stage of language acquisition" and Batstone (1994) claims that "noticing is the gateway to subsequent learning" (p. 581).

● ***VanPatten's (1996) model 'Input Processing' or (IP) model.*** As its name conveys Input Processing Theory of VanPatten (1996) is based on information processing viewpoint. It expresses that since working memory is limited in capacity, attending to different stimuli in the input simultaneously is very difficult in practice. He believes that a key intentional process can be the solution. He called such a process as 'detection' and claimed that detecting one bit of information can lead in detection of other bits. For VanPatten the main problem was how learners chose certain stimuli to detect.

● ***Swain's (1985, 1995) 'Output Hypothesis'.*** In her model Swain claims that language production may result in noticing by the learners to the problems they have in their existing knowledge in comparison to the target language; it means that output enables them to 'notice the gap' and consequently leads them to what they need to know, and finally leads them consciously to attend to something they want to detect about the target language. This conscious recognition of their linguistic deficit that may make learners to work on those features of language that were not match to the target ones echoes the 'Noticing Hypothesis' (Zhang, 2012).

● ***Long's (1983, 1985) 'Interaction Hypothesis'.*** Long (1985, cited in Zhang, 2012) added a new factor to Krashen's 'Input Hypothesis' and proposed a new theory called 'Interaction Hypothesis'. He believes that "interaction and input are two major players in language acquisition" (Brown, 2007; p.305). Currently researchers, who have conducted studies to examine interaction theory, reveal that interaction can stimulate noticing (Zhang, 2012).

● ***McLaughlin's (1987) model 'Attention-Processing'.*** McLaughlin and his colleagues' model (cited in Brown 2007) avoided any direct appeal to a consciousness continuum and explained the process by forming four cells, instead. They allocated two mechanisms named as 'controlled' and 'automatic' processes to information processing and two categories of attention known as 'focal' and 'peripheral' for learning to occur (Brown, 2007) .Thus as the following table conveys based on this model, there can be four possible processes:

1) Focal attention-Controlled process; 2) Focal attention- Automatic process; 3) Peripheral attention-Controlled process; 4) Peripheral attention-Automatic process

Attention to formal
properties of
language

Controlled   Automatic

information
processing
proces

Focal   formal rule learnig   test situation

Peripheral   implicit or analogic learnig   Communication
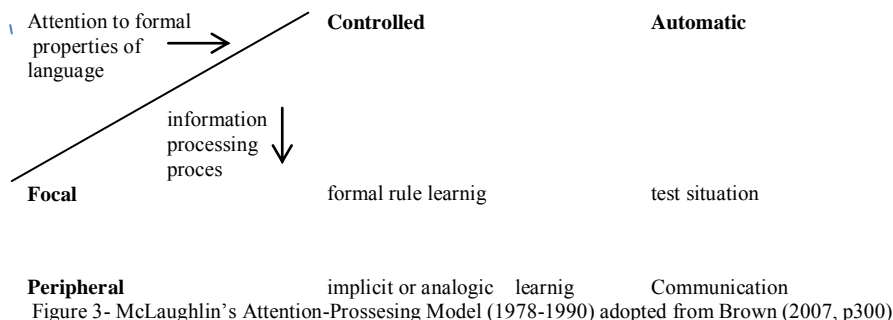
Figure 3- McLaughlin's Attention-Prossesing Model (1978-1990) adopted from Brown (2007, p300)

Zhang (2012) has summarized Brown (2007, p. 299-302) and brought that the processes which are capacity limited and temporary are 'controlled' and those which are relatively permanent are 'automatic' ones. To continue s/he added that in both ends of this continuum of processing, attention on the task at hand can be either focal or peripheral, considering that focal attention does not mean "conscious" attention, and peripheral attention does not mean "subconscious" attention here; s/he also has brought from Hulstijn (1990) that both focal and peripheral attention can be quite conscious. Thus, second language learning can be considered as a movement from a controlled process with focal attention to an automatic process with peripheral attention. Attention is an indispensable factor in language learning (p.582).

• **Robinson's Multiple-Resource Model.** One of the most impressive works on the role of attention is the one of Robinson's (1995a, 2003). He distinguished three senses of attention: 1) Attention as selection which is corresponding to the first stage in an information processing model where input is perceived; 2) Attention as capacity which is corresponding to the central control and decision-making stage; 3) Attention as effort which is referring to the sustained attention involved in response execution and monitoring. The second one coincides with Schmidt's 'noticing'.

• **Kihlstrom (1984) suggestions concerning short-term memory.** 1) consciousness and short-term memory are essentially the same; 2) language items must be processed in short-term memory in order to be stored in long-term memory; 3) Those items which are not processed into short-term memory or not further encoded into long-term memory from short-term memory will be lost.

Schmidt (1990) concluded, "If consciousness is indeed equivalent to the short term store, this amount to a claim that storage without conscious awareness is impossible" (p.136).

Another model with regard to memory is the following:
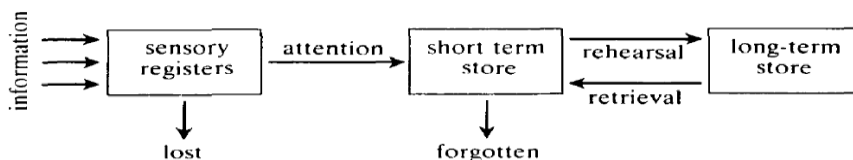
Figure 4- Consciousness in a multistore model of memory (after Kihlstrom, 1984)

Schmidt (1990) expressed that in spite of the simplicity of some models, there are two points shared by them that one can take advantage of in relation to such discussions like the present. The first point is the identification of short term memory with consciousness and the second one is the claim that processing in short term memory is necessary for permanent storage.

E. 'Noticing Hypothesis' vs. 'Noticing the Gap Hypothesis'

S Schmidt (1990, 2001) proposed these hypotheses after encountering two different situations that are called by him as their origins. First he put forward the well-known 'Noticing Hypothesis'— a hypothesis that claims input does not become intake for language learning unless it is noticed, that is, consciously registered. One of the situations that resulted in emerging noticing hypothesis was a case study (Schmidt, 1983, 1984) of uninstructed (naturalistic) learner of English who was given pseudonym 'Wes' by Schmidt. He tried to understand why 'Wes' continued to say sentences like:

-*'Yesterday I'm go beach'* and *'Tomorrow I'm go beach'* (with no articles, no prepositions, and no tense marking) (the example is adopted from Schmidt, 2010; p.723)

The other situation was a case study of Schmidt's own learning Portuguese during five months living in Brazil.

In spite of the beliefs in the 1980s whose emphasis were on unconscious process of learning and unconscious nature of linguistic knowledge, Schmidt's case study of 'Wes' showed that through naturalistic learning learners' fluency, vocabulary, listening comprehension, conversational ability, and strategic competence may develop quickly , however, his development in the area of grammar (morphology and syntax) is very limited. In the second study, Schmidt took a

Portuguese class himself for five weeks, and then he continued learning the language just through interaction with native speakers. Frota and Schmidt found that some frequent forms in input were not acquired until they were noticed in the input consciously. They also found that native speakers' correction of his grammatical errors were not effective in many cases because he was not aware that he was being corrected by them. So, they put a new hypothesis forward which was slightly different from noticing hypothesis called '*Noticing The gap'*— "the idea that learners must make conscious comparison between their own output and target language input in order to overcome errors" (Schmidt, 2010). Schmidt (1990) claims that there are some factors that influence noticing in the input.

F. Factors That Influence 'Noticing'

- *Instruction*. (also called expectations) may increase the likelihood of noticing features in input through the establishment of expectations.
- *Frequency*. The likelihood that an item will be noticed and integrated into the interlanguage system is increased when that item appears more frequently in the input due to repeated instruction or by way of teacher talk. Therefore, the more frequent an item, the greater number of opportunities for noticing exist.
- *Perceptual salience*. Schmidt (1990) says, "We observed that a number of the forms I noticed late were phonologically reduced, and some were thus rendered homophonous with other morphemes" (p.143). He brings from Slobin (1985) "the less salient a form, the less likely it is to be noticed and such forms include those morphemes that are bound, contracted, or unstressed" and from Skehan (1998) "the more prominent a language form at input, the greater the chance it will be noticed" (p.143).
- *Skill Level*. Skill level, according to Schmidt (1990), refers to the extent to which individuals are able to routinize previously met structures. This processing ability in turn determines how ready learners are to notice new forms in the input.
- *Task demands*. As cross (2002) noted an instructional task causes learners to notice particular features in a way; such a way is 'Task demand'

Noonan (2004) summarizes feasibility of factors mentioned above in teaching as follows:

√ Explicit instruction—instruction explaining and drawing attention to a particular form

√ Frequency—the regular occurrence of a certain structure in input

√ Perceptual Salience—highlighting or underlining to draw attention to a certain structure

√ Task Demands—constructing a task that requires learners to notice a structure in order to complete it.

Cross (2002) also introduces 'comparing' as another influential factor on noticing. 'Comparing' refers to the comparison made by learners between their observed input and typical output based on their existing interlanguage system. In other word, they must be aware of 'mismatches' and consciously 'notice the gap'. According to Gass and Slinker (2008) learners pay focal attention to a specific feature of the language, say, 'mismatches' between TL forms and learner-language forms through interaction (e.g., negotiation, recast).

Leow (1997, 2000; cited in Schmidt, 2010) used a clever crossword puzzle task as input to manipulate the focus of learners' attention when exposed to instances of Spanish stem-changing verbs .S/he divided subjects to three groups: unaware, low aware, and high aware; and found that those who demonstrated a higher level of awareness (i.e. understanding) outperformed low aware and unaware groups.

Mackey (2006) investigated whether feedback promotes noticing of L2 forms in a classroom context, and whether there is a relationship between learners' reports of noticing and learning outcomes using multiple measures of noticing and development. The findings of this study revealed that learners reported more noticing when feedback was provided, and learners who displayed more noticing developed more than those who exhibited less noticing (Gass & Selinker, 2008; Schmidt, 2010; Al-Hejin 2005).

Izumi (2002) conducted an empirical study to compare the effects of output and enhanced input on noticing and development and found that output groups participants demonstrated more noticing and more learning than did control group, and that enhanced input subjects exhibited more noticing but not more learning.

In an experimental research Baleghizade and Derakhshesh (2012) asked the learnersto transcribe their own recorded lectures, correct their mistakes and hand them in to their teacher for additional correction. Finally, the corrected version was returned to the students to prepare themselves for the second oral presentation. The results showed since task repetition provide an opportunity for the learners to produce language, notice the errors in their output, and correct those errors through substantial noticing function of the output has had a positive effect on the learners accuracy.

Soleimani, Ketabi, and Talebinejad (2008) conducted a research on three homogeneous groups; one experimental and two comparison groups. The subjects in the experimental group and comparison group1 worked on writing a contrast paragraph using underlining helpful points of a contrast paragraph written by a native while in the comparison group 2, the teacher drew the learners' attention to the form before a problem arises and the study procedure started with the teacher's explicit teaching of paragraphs of contrast using a deductive method. The results showed that the experimental groups outperform the comparison group 2 who was taught traditionally and were in support of noticing.

In an empirical research done by Song (2010) the experimental group was asked to do output practice and received the input passage as a model essay to be learned from whereas the CG received the same passage as a reading

comprehension exercise. The results of this study showed that the differences between the EG and the CG were statistically significant. Therefore, he argued that output may promote noticing on the relevant input.

Rasouli and Abbasvandi (2013) in their study 'the effects of explicit instruction of grammatical cohesive devices on intermediate Iranian learners' writing' revealed that the instruction encouraged the learners to use more cohesive writings in their required tasks.

In another survey Shokrpour and Fallahzade (2007) worked on the problems that medical sciences students of Shiraz University, Iran, faced while writing reports. Their findings indicated that Iranian EFL medical students had problems both in language and writing skills, but with a higher percentage of problems in writing skills. They concluded although grammar, vocabulary, and syntax are essential for a well written report, but language accuracy cannot alone result in effective writing; what our students need is also writing skills.

Khatib and Alizade (2012) in an attempt to solve learners' problems in using past tense English verbs in writing were conducted a study to examine the effects of using two different types of output tasks on noticing and learning them. Two experimental groups were given picture-cued writing and reconstruction tasks, but the comparison group did comprehension check-up tasks. The results of the statistical analyses revealed that only the reconstruction group improved in their noticing of the target feature. However, both experimental groups equally promoted their learning of the form.

Bandar Al-Hejin (2005) mentioned a study conducted by Jourdenais, Ota, Stauffer, Boyson, and Doughty in1995 as a stronger evidence for the facilitative role of noticing in acquisition of second language. In his article, he has also referred to many other empirical researches related to the issues of awareness, attention, and noticing; but as he mentioned, they are not all similar and the results are various. On the contrary, Schmidt (2010) claims that "most empirical studies have been supportive of the Noticing Hypothesis". These controversies show that there is still a need for more empirical work on the noticing issue in order to reach more supportive results, on the other hand, since noticing is an unobservable issue, assessing it must be done cautiously under certain conditions.

G. How to Assess the Role of 'Noticing'

In empirical researches three approaches are mostly utilized to assess the role of noticing:

1) Highlighting particular linguistic feature as providing input enhancement conditions (Sharwood Smith, 1993 cited by Zhang). Zhang (2012) also writes that in a study conducted by Doughty in 1991, using materials with highlighted relative clauses in the text, experimental group outperformed control group in knowledge of relative clauses (Zhang, 2012).

2) Asking students to report what they had noticed during task completion retrospectively. Researchers examine retrospective *think-aloud* to assess the extent to which learners noticed highlighted input. A study of this kind shows a group of 14 adults receiving enhanced input made more reference to Spanish verb forms during think-aloud than the group receiving no input enhancement (Zhang, 2012).

3) Inferring noticing from observable interactions such as negotiation of meaning, conversaitional adjustments, request for modified input, and language related episodes (Zhang, 2012). Thornbury (1997) explains tasks that provide noticing opportunities this way: they are essentially meaning-focused, allow the learner to devote some intentional resources to form, and provide both the data and the incentive for the learner to make comparison between interlanguage output and target language models. Two generic classroom task types that meet these criteria are '*reformulation*' and '*reconstruction*' tasks.

In reconstruction activities, the learners are supposed to reconstruct the teacher's text or a provided text by the teacher. Thus the reconstructed version is available for matching with the teacher's original text. Such activities force learners' attention on forms and activate bottom-up processes in comprehending a text, so communicative activities are not necessarily engaged; this producing activity may prompt L2 learners to find out some target linguistic problems in their output and may bring something they need to discover about L2, in their attention and suggests that since noticing is a conscious cognitive process, it is theoretically accessible to training and development. So, teachers' role is to develop noticing strategies that learners can apply independently and autonomously (Thornbury, 1997).

III. METHOD

A. Design

In this study a quasi-experimental method of research with pretest-posttest control design was used. The design is schematically shown below:

EG   T1   X   T2
CG   T1   T2

B. Participants

Ninety-six first grade female students aged from 14 to 16 were selected conveniently from Kosar High School in Alborz province, Iran. Afterward, four classes out of five that all were taught by the same teacher and obviously the same method were taken under the study to attend in their English classes for 10 sessions and conduct the research.

C. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were a pretest to assess students' knowledge of writing in advance and a posttest to compare probable changes to students' ability of writing after the treatment. They were two writing tasks through which students were supposed to write about 10 lines and explain an event that had happened in the past. The tests were designed like a part 3 writing task from Key English Tests for schools (KET) and students were asked to answer questions such as "When was it? Who were there? What special thing happened or what special thing you did?" A scoring model based on International English Language Testing System (IELTS) scoring criteria for writing tasks was used for scoring; I just added marks (points) to its different parts by which students received 3 points for the task completion, coherence and cohesion; 3 for the range and appropriateness of vocabulary they chose; and 4 points for forms and grammatical range and accuracy –10 points in total to score the participants' writing objectively and to avoid bias.

D. Procedure

First, the participants were chosen based on convenient sampling among from the first grade high school students of Alborz province. Then, they were divided into two groups, that is, experimental and control groups with 48 students in each. At the beginning of the study, I gave both groups a writing task as the pretest by which they were asked to write almost 10 lines about their last trip and/or about a special event that had happened to them. Students were informed that they were supposed to write answers to questions like the followings "Where did you go on your last trip? When did you go there? Who did you go with? What did you do there? What special thing has happened to them? When was it? Where was it? And how it happened?"

The first step of treatment got started with work on writing ability of the experimental group by giving them written reconstruction sheets and asking them to fill in the extracts the same as the original one to draw their attention toward forms they were taught and made them compare their completed texts with the original ones as matching to find out their problems. In the first session following the school's normal syllabus, I taught the students passive form of English and read an exercise from Azar's book (1999) fully without any missing words. Thereafter, they worked in pairs on reconstruction sheets on which verbs were missing and were asked to reconstruct the text based on what they had heard. After that the original text with no missing word was distributed to students to match their answers with the correct form. Finally, they were given an unseen text and were asked to reconstruct it individually.

In the second session, I wrote down few lines on the board and asked students to read it, after that the board got erased completely and the same lines was written on the board again but this time, punctuation marks were omitted. Afterward students were asked to reconstruct the text in pairs. The activity was followed by an unseen extract without punctuation marks to be reconstructed as solo work. The same way took place with capitalization, spelling, punctuation, simple and continuous present tense, simple past tense, and articles a/an/the in the rest of sessions. So, the experimental group received a treatment as an especial way of teaching writing through which they were directed to notice the English written forms by means of reconstructing short texts they were exposed to their original version via a visual channel like handouts and board or audio one like the time I was reading the extract loudly in advance.

During 10 sessions of treatment which lasted for five weeks, the control group wrote writing assignments without special treatment, they were taught as usual based on their teacher's instruction and high school syllabus which mostly emanated from deductive teaching and explicit explanation of grammatical points. Writing skill was not taught separately but students were assigned to write; when they encountered a problem they were given an explanation, for example, explanation about usage of comma or other points. Finally, both groups were asked to complete the second writing task. This time, they were ordered to write about their last birthday. They were informed that they were supposed to write 10 lines and answer to questions like the followings "When was your last birthday? Did you have a party? Who did you invite? What was the best gift and who gave it to you; if you had not a party, "What did you do? Did you go out? What did you eat? Who did you go with? What happened? Did you have a good time" and the like.

Since scoring learners' writing was difficult and subjective to a large extent, IELTS criteria for scoring were used— task completion, coherence and cohesion, range of vocabulary and appropriateness, and range of structures and accuracy. So, I allocated 10 points to the writing task and divided these 10 points to 3, 3, and 4. Three points were allocated to the number of sentences that were correct or had minimal mistakes with no damage to the message of written sentences as task completion, coherence, and cohesion. Three points were allotted to the range, variety and appropriate vocabulary used in their writing, and 4 points were allotted to forms such as spelling, capitalization, punctuation, and accuracy like third person/plural s, past mark ed, articles a/an/the , etc. were included in these four points. To be more objective and reliable in scoring another policy was asking one of my colleagues to score the papers based on the model and criteria provided by me, as the second rater. Finally, the correlation coefficient was calculated between the two series of the scores given by both raters. The results showed that they were highly correlated in both experimental and control groups pretests and posttests.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Since in this study there was a pretest or covariate which might affect the groups' scores on the posttest, ANCOVA was run to adjust or remove the effect of it.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GROUPS' SCORES ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST

group		pretest	posttest
experimental	Mean	4.87	7.56
	N	48	48
	Std. Deviation	2.367	1.878
	Minimum	1	3
	Maximum	10	10
control	Mean	7.06	7.44
	N	48	48
	Std. Deviation	2.521	1.832
	Minimum	1	3
	Maximum	10	10
Total	Mean	5.97	7.50
	N	96	96
	Std. Deviation	2.669	1.847
	Minimum	1	3
	Maximum	10	10

As it is evident in Table 1 the mean score and standard deviation of the experimental group on the pretest were 4.87 and 2. 367 and they were 7.56 and 1.878 respectively on the posttest, and the mean score and standard deviation of the control group on the pretest were7.06 and 2.521 and they were7.44 and 1.832 respectively on the posttest.

TABLE 2
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S SCORES ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST AS PRODUCED BY ONE-SAMPL EKOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST[c]

		pretest	posttest
N		48	48
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	4.88	7.56
	Std. Deviation	2.367	1.878
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.187	.153
	Positive	.187	.131
	Negative	-.106	-.153
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.297	1.060
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.069	.211

Note. a. Test distribution is Normal ; b. Calculated from data; c. group = experimental

As Table 2 shows the experimental group's scores on pretest and posttest were distributed normally ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 3
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE CONTROL GROUP'S SCORES ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST AS PRODUCED BY ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST[c]

		pretest	posttest
N		48	48
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	7.06	7.44
	Std. Deviation	2.521	1.832
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.196	.162
	Positive	.122	.096
	Negative	-.196	-.162
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.355	1.124
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.051	.160

Note. a. Test distribution is Normal; b. Calculated from data; c. group = control

As Table 3 shows the control group's scores on pretest and posttest were distributed normally ($p > 0.05$).
Obviously, for running ANCOVA first assumptions of it must be checked. Here in figure 1 similar slopes are shown on the regression line both groups.
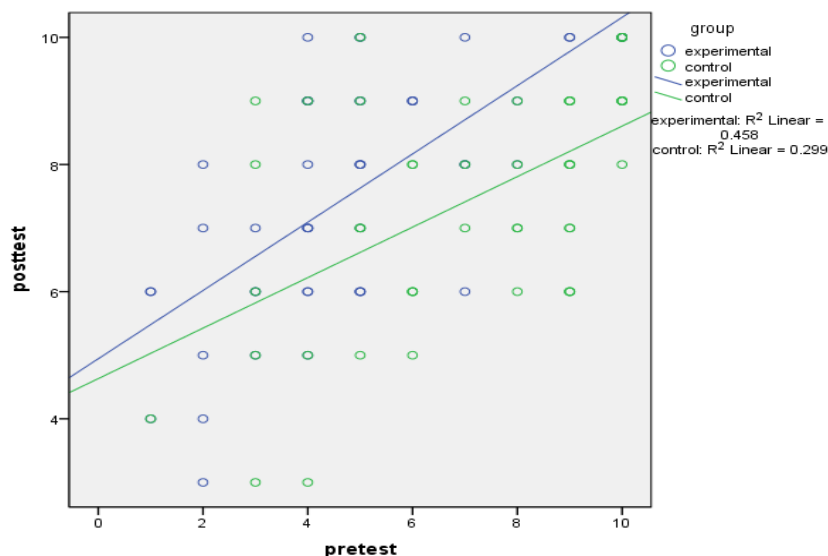
Figure 1: The homogeneity of the slopes of regression lines as produced by scattered dots

Since the lines run parallel, their slopes are homogeneous for all groups concerning both pretest and posttest implying that there was no interaction between the covariate and the treatment. Thus, one of the requirements of ANCOVA was fulfilled. Another assumption which is fulfilled here is linearity of the relationship between the dependent variable and the covariate.

TABLE 4
THE HOMOGENEITY OF THE SLOPES OF REGRESSION LINES AS PRODUCED BY TEST OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POSTTEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	123.441[a]	3	41.147	18.875	.000
Intercept	306.871	1	306.871	140.767	.000
group	.326	1	.326	.150	.700
pretest	122.150	1	122.150	56.032	.000
group * pretest	2.737	1	2.737	1.255	.265
Error	200.559	92	2.180		
Total	5724.000	96			
Corrected Total	324.000	95			

Note: a. R Squared = .381 (Adjusted R Squared = .361)

Table 4 shows that the slopes of regression lines was homogeneous for all groups [$F_{(1, 92)} = 1.255$, p = 0.265, p > 0.05] and it means that the assumption has not violated. This Table and Figure 1support each other and indicate that there was no interaction between the treatment and the covariate.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GROUPS' SCORE ON THE POSTTEST
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POSTTEST

group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
experimental	7.56	1.878	48
control	7.44	1.832	48
Total	7.50	1.847	96

Table 5 shows that the experimental group's mean score and standard deviation on the posttest were 7.56 and 1.878; while those of the control group were 7.44 and 1.832 respectively.

TABLE 6
THE EQUALITY OF VARIANCES OF THE GROUPS' SCORES ON THE POSTTEST AS PRODUCED
BY LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES[A]
DEPENDENT VARIABLE:POSTTEST

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.466	1	96	.497

Since Sig. is greater than.05 in the table 6, it is inferred that variances of groups' scores on the posttest were equal. The distribution of both group's scores on the pretest and posttest as produced by histogram and normal curve showed normality. (see Appendix)

When all the requirements of ANCOVA (the normal distribution of the data, the linear relationship between the scores of groups in the pretest and posttest, the homogeneity of the slope of regression lines for all groups, and the

equality of variances across groups) were fulfilled, the researcher ran ANCOVA the results of which are reported as follows:

TABLE 7
THE RESULTS OF ANCOVA AS PRODUCED BY TEST OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POSTTEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	120.704[a]	2	60.352	27.609	.000	.373
Intercept	304.216	1	304.216	139.167	.000	.599
pretest	120.329	1	120.329	55.046	.000	.372
group	25.769	1	25.769	11.788	.001	.112
Error	203.296	93	2.186			
Total	5724.000	96				
Corrected Total	324.000	95				

a. R Squared = .373 (Adjusted R Squared = .359)

Table 7 shows that the main effect of the treatment (reconstruction) is less than .05, in other words, is significant $[F_{(193)} = 11.788, p = 0.001, p < 0.05, Eta = 0.112]$. So, the hypothesis of the study was verified, and the effect size of the independent variable (or the change on the dependent variable) has been to the extent of 0.112. That is, 11.2% of the change on the dependent variable (writing ability) was due to the effect of the independent variable (reconstruction).

TABLE 8
THE GROUPS' ESTIMATED MARGINAL MEANS ON THE POSTTEST
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POSTTEST

group	Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval	
			Lower Bound	Upper Bound
experimental	8.069[a]	.224	7.624	8.513
control	6.931[a]	.224	6.487	7.376

Note. Covariates appearing in the model are evaluated at the following values: pretest = 5.97.

As it is evident in Table 8, the marginal or adjusted means of the experimental group is 8.069; while that of the control group is 6.931. Figure 2 below is also a support to the information in Table 8 and shows that the effect of covariate has been removed statistically.

Figure 2: Estimated marginal means of the groups on the posttest as produced by profile plot

V. DISCUSSION

After meeting the requirements of ANCOVA and running it, the outcome showed that the effect of reconstruction, as the independent variable of the present research, on writing ability as the dependent variable was significant $[F_{(193)} = 11.788, p = 0.001, p < 0.05, Eta = 0.112]$. So, it is inferred that the change on dependent variable had taken place as the result of the treatment. In other words, it is deduced that reconstruction can make learners notice the target forms and lead them to perform more properly. Consequently, the hypothesis of the research was verified.

The verification of the hypothesis of this research resulted in the support of the results of other experimental studies conducted earlier; especially the works of Soleimani, Ketabi, and Talebinejad (2008); and Khatib and Alizade (2012) that had studied the effect of noticing in different ways on Iranian learners' writing ability. Of the two studies, the former proved that noticing is a requirement for the acquisition, and the latter showed that reconstruction improved learners' noticing of the target feature. Rasouli and Abbasvandi (2013) also concluded that learners' attending to cohesive devices improved learners' use of them.

The findings of this study are also backed by Schmidt's (1990) 'Noticing Hypothesis' that says it is conscious registration of stimuli in input that leads to input become intake and learning language takes place only when input is noticed. Other ideas in support of the effectiveness of noticing in learning language that are backed by the findings of this research are mentioned in chapter two in details like Ellis's (1997; 1999) models, as an example. He believes noticing is one of the very beginning and crucial steps for language learning. As another, Swain's (1983) Comprehensible Output Hypothesis (COH) that says output is as important as input in a successful language learning process. She believes that noticing is another function of output functions and learners may notice the problems they have in their existing knowledge in comparison to the target language while producing. Since writing is a productive skill the results of this study also goes along with Swain's idea.

VI. CONCLUSION

The present research was conducted on 96 Iranian female first grade high school students of Alborz province, Iran to examine the effect of reconstruction, as a noticing strategy, on learners' writing ability. The result of this quasi-experimental research with pretest-posttest control design showed that reconstruction can positively affect writing ability because analysis via ANCOVA revealed that the main effect of the treatment has been significant [$F_{(193)} = 11.788$, $p = 0.001$, $p < 0.05$, Eta = 0.112]. So, it is deduced that the change on dependent variable had taken place as the result of the treatment and consequently the hypothesis of the study was verified. Hence, reconstruction can certainly be utilized as a technique for noticing by language teachers especially for improving learners' writing skill.

VII. IMPLICATIONS

According to the findings of the current study teachers can take advantage of reconstruction tasks and activities while drawing their students' attention to forms via a noticing strategy to improve their learners' writing competence. Reconstruction characteristics make utilizing it feasible in educational environments. It is economical in three dimensions: money, time, and human resource.

Reconstruction is not costly because it does not need special space and equipment and can be utilized in a classroom just by writing the extracts on the board or paper. It also does not need extra sessions because it does not need a long stretch of time to perform and can be done in a few minutes. Moreover, it is easy to explain to teachers how to prepare reconstruction tasks and activities, and how to administer them in classrooms, so training teachers does not need much time and money. Thus, it is really helpful to utilize it as a teaching technique in favor of improving writing skill.

VIII. RECOMMENDATION FOR FURTHER STUDIES

There are many issues related to this study that are worthy to work on. For example, the future researchers may investigate the effect of reconstruction on male learners' speaking or various grammatical patterns. This study dealt with the learners of only elementary level. Reconstruction may be tested on the learners of various levels. In addition to reconstruction, other noticing strategies such as underlining and highlighting may be tested on some other areas of language such as vocabulary, idioms, and important target points.

Shokrpour and Fallahzade's (2007) investigation on learners' problems showed that Iranian learners have problem in grammar, syntax, and punctuation too; and "it has always been detected by the raters" (Rasouli & Abbasvandi, 2013, p. 21). All these problematic areas can also be examined through utilizing different noticing strategies.

APPENDIX
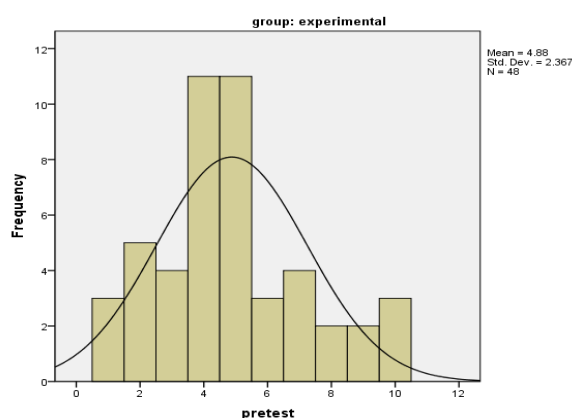
The distribution of experimental group's scores on the pretest as produced by histogram and normal curve
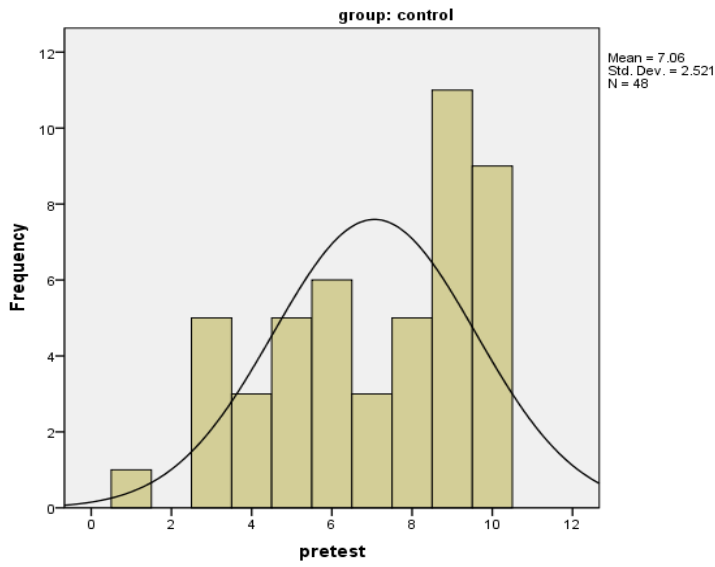
The distribution of control group's scores on the pretest as produced by histogram and normal curve
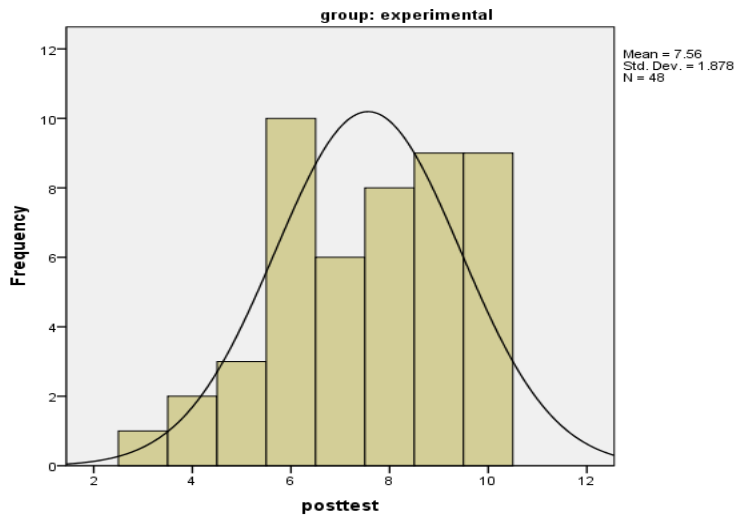
The distribution of experimental group's scores on the posttest as produced by histogram and normal curve
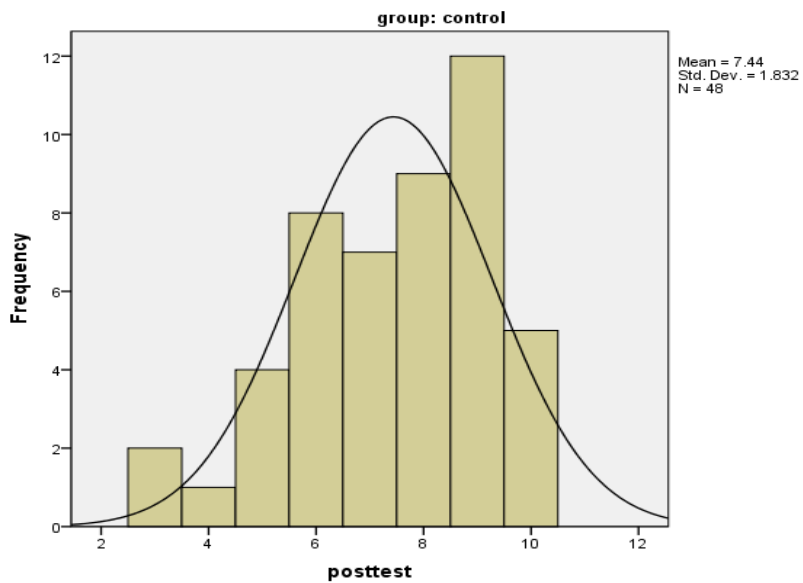
The distribution of control group's scores on the posttest as produced by histogram and normal curve

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Reflection of Hemingway and Fitzgerald's Health Problems in Their Literary Heritages

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Abstract—**This paper will demonstrate how Ernest Hemingway and F. Scot Fitzgerald's experience with their own health problems, influence on their life and writing. Both of them consumed alcohol a lot and they took several physical problems from drinking. While they were fighting with different illnesses and problems, they managed their creative writings forward to illness and death. From the First World War; Hemingway had physical and emotional injuries that according to them wrote his *A Farewell to Arms*. As F.Scot Fitzgerald's wife, Zelda had mental problem, that time physical penance and healthcare were main themes in his writing.**

Index Terms—**Hemingway, Fitzgerald, illness, insomnia, depression, psychiatric**

I. INTRODUCTION

This paper is about two of the greatest writers of the world whose heritages have their own specific role in the literature.In 20[th]century Ernest Miller Hemingway and F. Scot Fitzgerald occupied a prominent place in American Literary history andboth of them had health problems that it can be seen their reflection on the writers life and works.

It can be said when people are in positive mood they are most creative) and in fact mental illnesses such as depression or schizophrenia reduce creativity."People who have worked in the field of arts throughout the history have had problems with poverty, persecution, social alienation, psychological trauma, substance abuse, high stress" (Takahiro, 2009) and other such environmental factors that are related with developing and possibly causing mental illness. "Therefore it is probably that when creativity itself is associated with good moods, gladness, and mental health, pursuing a career in the arts might bring problems with stressful environment and income" (Flaherty, 2005).Also it can be mentioned physical problems such as heart attack, liver damage, and blood pressure are other subject that can decrease creativity.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are a lot of researchers and literary sources that wrote about Hemingway and Fitzgerald's life and literary heritages. The published source *Hemingway the Writer's Art of Self-Defense* was done by Benson Jackson J.,in 1969. "According to Professor Benson, Ernest Hemingway and his writing have had the curious quality of seeming to be one thing and turning out, time after time, to be something else entirely. At first he appeared to be a cocky young journalist who wrote stories about tough people on the fringes of society, and yet in the collected stories, the stories concerned with relatively normal people in domestic situations far outnumber those concerned with gangsters, boxers, and prostitutes. Those works that deal with hunting and fishing, his themes are more concerned with the mental and moral conditions of the participants than with the physical aspects of the sports themselves"(Benson, 1969).

The next literary source is *A Historical Guide to Ernest Hemingway; the editor is Linda Wagner Martin, Oxford university press, 2000*. Linda Wagner Martin writes on twentieth-century American literature, biography, women's writing and pedagogy. "By the author each volume as well contains a capsule biography and illustrated chronology detailing significant cultural events as they coincided with the writer's life and works, while photographs and illustrations dating from the period capture the flavor of the writer's time and social milieu. Equally accessible to students of literature and of life, the volumes offer a complete and rounded picture of each writer in his or her America. Here at the turn into the twenty-first century, Ernest Hemingway has become synonymous with American writer. Writing is serious business, Hemingway reminds us, the most important business anyone can undertake" (Wagner, 2000).

A research was done by Matthew J. Bruccoli that he stated "By the end of 2005, there were more than one hundred books about Fitzgerald, containing compilation essays. Only completely committed specialists are familiar with most of these works, and only the largest research libraries hold all of them. Some researchers outside of the academic groves need a Fitzgerald vade mecum to provide the facts and details. Serious Fitzgerald readers will study everything he inscribed. Everything means everything. Some of it is uneven; but it is all Fitzgerald, and it all connects. At that time

review his best books if necessary with the help of other works to found the information that Fitzgerald built into his creative writing." (Tate, 2007).

The next book is the *The Far Side of Paradise, a biography of F. Scott Fitzgerald* by *Arthur Mizener and a new introduction by Mathew J. Bruccoli, 2006*. In this source Mizener noted that "there are three concentric areas of interest in a study of Scott Fitzgerald. At the heart of it is *his work*, for he was a *natural writer* if only in the sense that from his grade-school days until the end of his life nothing was ever quite real to him until he had written about it. *Zelda* is the second area of interest for a study of him, only less absorbing than the first, and, because his imagination worked so immediately from his experience, very related to it. The third area of interest is the *time and place* in which he lived. His time and place haunted him every minute of his life and the effect of his preoccupation is what most obviously distinguishes his work from that of the good sociological novelists like Doss Passos on the one hand and, on the other, from that of the emotional and self-regarding novelists"(Darzikola & Keshmiri,2015).

The next literary source that has much useful information is *The Cambridge Companion to F. Scott Fitzgerald. It has been published in 2002*and this book has different analysis of Fitzgerald's creative writing, and the consequences their receptions. Another interesting subject that reader can find of this volume is about Fitzgerald's life and gives a special picture of social and cultural background of America in the twentieth century. Fitzgerald's reputation, in the new millennium, is firmer than it has ever been and his celebrity resides in his achievements as an American writer whose masterpieces continue to be passed on to new generations of readers throughout America and the world" (Prigozy, 2002). One of the essays is related to the paper topic is "A lost decade: exploring F Scott Fitzgerald's contribution to the illness canon through the doctor-nurse series and other healthcare stories of the 1930s by Kerr L. According this research F Scott Fitzgerald spent the 1930s writing about illness themes while he struggled with tuberculosis, insomnia, alcoholism, heart disease and the mental illness of his wife Zelda. During this decade, Fitzgerald published six stories that prominently feature hospitals and healthcare professionals. These stories, the 'doctor-nurse stories', along with nine additional published stories that touch upon medical themes have not previously been investigated as a thematic grouping. This paper explores the 1930s stories in the context of Fitzgerald's life and career in order to highlight his significant yet previously undervalued contribution to the canon of illness literature and his work's relevance to the field of literature and medicine" (http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22628406).

The next related essay is Sleeping and waking, by F. Scott Fitzgerald. He wrote in this paper: When many years ago he read Ernest Hemingway's *Now I Lay Me*, he thought there was nothing further to be said about insomnia. After that he saw that that was because he had never had much; it appears that every man's insomnia is as different from his neighbor's as are their daytime hopes and aspirations"(http://theessayexperiencefall2013).

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The researcher read books and papers that present the major issues and concerned of in theme of illnesses and creativity. Next, the required information has been collected by library research, internet surfing and journal analyses. In this paper, it has been tried to show parts of Ernest Hemingway and F.Scot Fitzgerald's life by studying of their biographical work to get a clear picture of their response to the age that both of them lived in. At the next stage the health problems of two authors, Hemingway and Fitzgerald has been examined by reading and analyzing different critical works.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Hemingway was distinguished to have an uncommon illness, Hemochromatosis and because of this problem he became bipolar. On his life a logical looking for a psychiatric perspective is with hisfamily of origin.Hemingway wrote,in *A Moveable Feast,*"Families have many ways of being dangerous" (Hemingway, 1964), and they were dangerous to him in different ways, not the least of that was the genetic heritage they gave to him. Hemingway's father who was a physician had health problems and suffered from depression and his family was in bad condition because of his dramatic and unpredictable mood. Finally Dr. Hemingway could not accept his health problems and financial concerns so in the last month of 1928 killed himself by shooting in his head. He took his life and maybe released himself from all problems but put very bad effect to his family (Mellow and Hemingway, 1992).

Ernest mother, "Grace Hemingway, suffered from episodes of insomnia, headaches, and nerves. Some of others family members, Grace's brother, Leicester, and Clarence's brother, Alfred had similar problems" (Reynolds, 1986). Ernest's siblings have been identified in same condition because his sister Marcelline had depression problem and when she died the family suspected suicide.] is other sister, Ursula, and his brother, Leicester committed suicide" (Burgess, 1987). ., (Reynolds, 1986). So, it can be said the Hemingway family has a history of health problems and suicide.

"Throughout the 1924 episode, Hemingway quickly wrote seven short stories. In 1934, he experienced another immense accession of energy,that he depicted as *juice* and found to be *bad as a disease*" (Baker, 1969).One of events that deeply mirrored on Hemingway's life and writings was his eye injuring that occurred when he was an amateur boxing. For this reason he rejected to become a soldier in world wars and accepted as an American Red Cross ambulance driver in Italy. There he was injured from fight fields that it was another mirrored event on his life and creative writing.

When Hemingway was working as a reporter he had begun drinking large amounts of alcohol. "Hemingway's first marriage failed and escalated with the worsening of his relationship with his mother and his father's suicide was reason of his daily drinking in the early 1920s" (Lynn, 1987). "Because of consuming alcohol he presented to a physician complaining of stomach pain, was found to have hepatic damagein1937" (Ibid).

It can be said Hemingway's drinking affected on his works and his body and many times he was told to quit alcohol but he did not accept. "And when his third wife ,Martha, visit him in hospital and saw alcohol bottles near him it was time that the death knell sounded for his third marriage" (Lynn, 1987).

"Another reason of his drinking was his father suicide. In 1957, Hemingway's friend AJ Monnier inscribed directly, my dear Ernie, you *must stop* drinking alcohol. This is clearly of the most importance, and I shall never, never insist too much" (Monnier, 1957).Hemingway could not give up and the physical problems that he took from drinking were overweight, high blood pressure, hearing sounds in his head, and signs of cirrhosis of the liver.

In Hemingway's creative works; there is an adaptive defensive strategy for dealing with disorder moods and suicidal impulses as Baker noted that for Hemingway, "the story ached to be told" (Baker, 1969). Hemingway in *A Farewell to Arms*, wrote about Fredrick Henry, a young man who was injured in the First World War and while he was in hospital. fell in love with an American Red Cross nurse "His fiction character, Henry was injured in similar manner and geographical location as was Hemingway while he served as an ambulance driver on the Italian front" (Hemingway, 1929). "Hemingway too fell in love with an American nurse, and the two entered into alove affair. Hemingway and his nurse probably never consummated their relationship, and though he hoped to marry her, in the end she did not accept him in a letter when he returned home to Chicago" (Baker, 1969).

Also it can be mentioned from the First World War; Hemingway had physical and emotional injuries that writing bout those wounds and applying twists offantasy may have served a defensive role for him. In 1960, he started to lose his battle with depression and suicide.As he sent a letterto his friend, A.E. Hotchner, "I'll tell you, Hotch, it is like being in a Kafka nightmare. I act cheerful like always but am not. I'm bone tired and very beat up emotionally. He began to worry that his friends were plotting to kill him and that the FBI was monitoring him" (Lynn, 1987). Maybe these paranoid illusions are because of his bipolar illnessand much drinking alcohol.

One of the Hemingway's final year's problems was his departing of FincaVig because of Fidel Castro enforcing and Hemingway was not happy in last years of his life due to the fact that FBI control center bothered him and he was worry for his money and security. In Mayo Clinic, many times he was treated by electroconvulsive therapy .Unfortunately, shock therapy damaged his memory and for this depriving he could not remember what he need to shape his writings. In the *New York Times*, A.E. Hotchner explained that the novelist "was afraid that the FBI was after him, that his body was disintegrating, that his friends had turned on him, and that living was no longer an option. Writes Hotchner, Decades later, in response to a Freedom of Information petition, the FBI released its Hemingway file. It revealed that beginning in the 1940s J. Edgar Hoover had placed Ernest under surveillance because he was suspicious of Ernest's activities in Cuba" (Swaine, 2011).Hotchner states: "In the years since, I have tried to reconcile Ernest's fear of the FBI, which I regretfully misjudged, with the reality of the FBI file. I now believe he truly sensed the surveillance and that it substantially contributed to his anguish and his suicide" (Ibid.).

When Hemingway's illnesses increased and he aged his literary creations like *Across the River and into the Trees* and *Islands in the Stream*were criticized but Hemingway's name was recuperated by his*The Old Man and the Sea* "Hemingway's use of writing as adefense mechanism is suggested by his own words in response to reading F. Scott Fitzgerald'sarticle, *The Crack Up*, which told the tale of its writer's own struggle with depression.Hemingway thought Fitzgerald should understand work was the thing that would savehim if he would only 'bite on the nail' and get down to it, honest work with honest fiction, aparagraph at a time" (Baker, 1969).

While F. Scott Fitzgerald was fighting with different illnesses such as tuberculosis, insomnia, alcoholism and heart disease, he managed his creative writing forward to illness. Another reason to write this form fiction was his wife Zelda's mental illness. As well as in the middle of his life he stung by malaria. He believed that alcohol drinking improved his creative powers as he stated that "a short story can be written on the bottle, but for a novel you need the mental speed that enables you to keep the whole pattern in your head" (Ed Day, 2003).

During the mid-1930s, Fitzgerald's health deteriorated as his alcoholism intensified, and he was repeatedly hospitalized. In the fall of 1936 Fitzgerald suffering Hemingway's reference to him in *The Snows of Kilimanjaro* as a drunken, pitiful failure, tried to rededicate himself to writing. He worked intermittently on an historical novel set in ninth-century France. Begun in 1934, the novel was never completed, though *Redbook Magazine* bought four installments, now known as the *Count of Darkness* or *Philippe* stories. He had more success with *Author's House* and *Afternoon of an Author*, autobiographical essays or stories that appeared in *Esquire* in 1936. The following year he wrote *Financing Finnegan*, a story about an editor and agent who have to support a brilliant but unreliable author; the story, published by *Esquire* in 1938, amusingly reflects Fitzgerald's relationship with Perkins and Ober.

It can be said, Fitzgerald works in 1930s had covered to aspects of literature and medicine. All through these days, physical penance and healthcare were main themes in his writing.

As Hemingway and Fitzgerald mirrored their personal experience in their works; Fitzgerald's wife mental problem formed his creative writing "Although, Fitzgerald had been drafting the manuscript, that would gradually become

Tender is the Night since 1925, his 1932 notebooks reveal that Zelda's illness was the determining factor in his final approach to the novel" (kerr, 2012) which finally focused on the disintegrating marriage of this couple.

Fitzgerald suffered of insomnia and mental crisis that they have shown in a three- part article for Esquire magazine. Also in *The Crack-Up*, he stated "that you don't feel until it's too late to do anything about it, until you realize with finality that in some regard you will never be as good a man again" (https://www.goodreads.com/user).

When *Tender is the Night* was being written, Fitzgerald's alcoholic characters became more. Also it can be seen the trace of illnesses and alcoholism in his *Babylon Revisited* and *A New Leaf*, *Crazy Sunday* and *Family in the Wind*.

In 1935, because of Fitzgerald's tuberculosis outbreak he was sent to hospital again. "Between 1932 and 1937, Fitzgerald was admitted to hospital eight times for alcoholism, chronic inactive fibroid tuberculosis, or both, and once for an ailment tentatively diagnosed as typhoid fever" (kerr, 2012).these diseases became main theme in his works, *"The Saturday Evening Post*, which published all the early 1930s alcoholic stories except *Crazy Sunday*, would eventually decline Fitzgerald's work on topics like alcoholism and mental illness, considering them taboo and unsuitable for their mainstream audience" (kerr, 2012).

One of places that Fitzgerald used to write his works was Johns Hopkins Hospital that there was inpatient. "[I] realized after I left the place that I had been accumulating material for some writing and hadn't known it at the time, So followed One Interne [1932] a short story with a hospital as its scene" (kerr, 2012).Fitzgerald's the six doctor-nurse stories were written according this visit.

When Fitzgerald found out because of illnesses could not write well in a letter mentioned to her wife: "Well, that was the time of my two-year sickness, T.B., the shoulder, etc. and you were at a most crucial point and I was foolishly trying to take care of Scottie and for one reason or another I lost the knack of writing the particular kind of stories they wanted" (kerr, 2012).

Edward J Gleason explained that "nearly all of Fitzgerald's *Esquire* stories and even his final novel *The Last Tycoon* offer a parade of doomed characters and are full of images and allusions that reveal Fitzgerald's depressed state of mind. Even in *The Last Tycoon*, an incomplete masterpiece that would be published after Fitzgerald's death, the character Cecelia is a patient with tuberculosis who relays her story from a sanatorium" (Kerr, 2012).

Again Fitzgerald's alcohol and sweetened coffee drinking sent him to bed. That time he was writing *the love of the Last Tycoon* and inscribed to Zelda: "The cardiogram shows that my heart is repairing itself, but it will be a gradual process that will take some months. It is odd that the heart is one of the organs that do repair itself" (Bruccoli, 1981).According to Petry hinting Fitzgerald is, "the greatest example of an American author whose private life is reflected, consciously or otherwise, in virtually everything he wrote" (kerr, 2012).

But this paper should not be full without analysis of the last works of the author. So, the first of the posthumously published works of Fitzgerald worth to be mentioned is *The Love of the Last Tycoon*. It would be his final treatment of themes central to his work, particularly the pursuit of the *American Dream* of success and the fulfillment of heroic aspirations.

This novel is commonly measured a roman a clef, enthused by the life of film producer Irving Thalberg, on whom protagonist Monroe Stahr is based on. He finds himself not only trying to get love and accomplishment in a world of cut-throats, but struggling for his own life. He is working unbreakable to make admirable movies and preserve his standards against aggressive studio forces. Stahr personifies Fitzgerald's image of the tycoon, the pioneer, who believed his quest had dominated American history and had supplied a model for Fitzgerald himself: "It is the history of me and of my people. And if I came here yesterday like Sheilah I should still think so. It is the history of all aspiration – not just the *American Dream* but the human dream and if I came at the end of it that too is a place in the line of the pioneers" (Fitzgerald, 1987).

The novel follows Stahr's promoting power in Hollywood, and his conflicts with rival Pat Brady, a character derived from studio leader Louis B. Mayer. The comments for the novel were firstly gathered and edited by Edmund Wilson, and the uncompleted novel was published in 1941 by the title of *The Last Tycoon*. The title was supplied from a list of rejected working titles in Fitzgerald's comments for the novel; although there is now critical agreement that Fitzgerald planned *The Love of the Last Tycoon* to be the book's title. Wilson provided a text of *The Last Tycoon* for the common reader, accumulating the episodes into chapters. By this redacting, Wilson aimed to represent the episodes in much more completed form than in Fitzgerald's draft.

Fitzgerald, in his last novel appears to have mastered lots of the inadequacies of his preceding writings and was prepared to symbolize convincingly in *The Last Tycoon* the tragic ideal with which he had established his profession as a writer. *The Last Tycoon* remains a demonstration to Fitzgerald's literary genius. "The revised edition of this novel won the Choice Outstanding Academic Books award of 1995" (Fitzgerald, 1941).

The next posthumously printed fiction *is The Crack-up* in August 1945. It should be noted that Fitzgerald was piously and economically at a low point in 1935. His plots had become slackly created and his heroes were unpersuasive. *The supreme achievement of the human mind* was perceptibly the ideal that Fitzgerald had set for himself as a writer. But the tragedy of his life was that he never attained the ultimate security for the affable personal situations that might have allowed him to achieve it. At the time of his *crack-up,* Fitzgerald appeared to have felt that he was no more able to write even the type of stories that the magazines would prefer to publish. This drying up of his source of earnings, jointly with Zelda's weakening condition and his own worsening healthiness, made his vision undeniably

bleak. He was an ill, weary, depressed man of thirty-eight who felt he had lost the capability to think deeply. For the first time in his occupation he was creating actually hack work which was different from commercial work.

"In *The Crack-Up* he explained that he no longer believed Life was something you dominated if you were any good" (Fitzgerald. F. Scott, 1945) but instead found him helpless and emotionally bankrupt, both as a human being and as a writer.

In his influential review of *The Crack-Up* Lionel Trilling recognized Fitzgerald's *heroic awareness*: "The root of Fitzgerald's heroism is to be found, as it sometimes is in tragic heroes, in his power of love" (Bloom Harold, 2006).

"In 1999, Modern American Library asked scholars, critics and authors to list the greatest novels of the last 100 years. *The Great Gatsby* was ranked 2nd just under James Joyce's *Ulysses*; *Tender is the Night* came in 28th. Ernest Hemingway placed 45th for *The Sun Also Rises* and came in 74th for *A Farewell to Arms*" (F. Scott Fitzgerald).

Fitzgerald's 1930 decade can be considered as a dark period, in which his illness especially his alcoholism, and Zelda's hospitalization had a deep impact on his core identity and his writing, notably in *Tender is the Night*, Fitzgerald's personal tragedy.

V. Conclusion

One of events that deeply mirrored on Hemingway's life and writings was his eye injuring that occurred when he was an amateur boxing. For this reason he rejected to become a soldier in world wars and accepted as an American Red Cross ambulance driver in Italy. There he was injured from fight fields that it was another mirrored event on his life and creative writing. Hemingway in *A Farewell to Arms*, wrote about Fredrick Henry, a young man who was injured in the First World War and while he was in hospital fell in love with an American Red Cross nurse same as him. It can be said Hemingway's drinking affected on his works and his body and many times he was told to quit alcohol but he did not accept and that time his third wife, Martha, left him. When Hemingway's illnesses increased and he aged his literary creations like *Across the River and into the Trees* and *Islands in the Stream* were criticized, but Hemingway's name was recuperated by his *The Old Man and the Sea*.

While F.Scott Fitzgerald was fighting with different illnesses such as tuberculosis, insomnia, alcoholism and heart disease, he managed his creative writing forward to illness. Another reason to write this form fiction was his wife Zelda's mental illness. Fitzgerald's wife mental problem formed his creative writing. As well as in the middle of his life he stung by malaria. He believed that alcohol drinking improved his creative powers. Also it can be seen the trace of illnesses and alcoholism in his *Babylon Revisited* and *A New Leaf*, *Crazy Sunday* and *Family in the Wind*.

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Coherence in Translation: from Reader's Cognition- With *Ulysses* as Case Study

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Abstract—Leech and Short suggested that a progressive tendency in fiction is to dispense logical connections between sentences, and to rely on inferred connections, or simply juxtaposition (Leech & Short, 1981). Coincidentally, translators tend to make implicit coherence relations explicit for reader's easy perception. The two opposite trends provide a perspective on the study of the translation of modern literary works. The question how the tendency of making everything explicit would affect reader's cognition would be of particular value and interest. This paper aims to study the coherence in the translation of Ulysses from the view of reader's cognition. The method used is to examine the two existing translations of *Ulysses* and suggest for improvements.

Index Terms—coherence, *Ulysses*, reader's cognition

I. INTRODUCTION

Cohesion is defined as a network of lexical, grammatical and other relations which provide links between various parts of a text while coherence is a network of conceptual relations which underline the surface text (Baker, 1992). Halliday and Hasan identify five main cohesive devices in English, namely as reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical cohesion.

Hoey sums up the difference between cohesion and coherence as follows:

We will assume that cohesion is a property of the text and that coherence is a facet of the reader's evaluation of a text. In other words, cohesion is objective, capable in principle of automatic recognition, while coherence is subjective and judgments concerning it may vary from reader to reader. (Hoey, 1988)

From Hoey's summary we could say that cohesion is a surface relation and coherence is a conceptual relation. Both cohesion and conceptual network constitute the coherence of a text. Cohesion is capable of being recognized automatically as they lie in surface expressions, while coherence involves reader's interpretation and real world knowledge.

In the discussion of coherence, I would like to broaden the perspective and use Robert de Beaugrande's idea (1980), in which coherence is defined as the procedures which ensure conceptual connectivity, including logical relations, organization of events, objects and situations, and continuity in human experience.

II. CASE STUDY AND DISCUSSIONS

Before studying the translation of *Ulysses*, a paragraph from *The Pilgrim's Progress* is selected to demonstrate the style of coherence in traditional English novels. Evangelist tells Christian about Wordly-Wiseman in the following paragraph.

The man that met thee, is one Worldly-Wiseman, and rightly is he so called; partly, because he favoureth only the Doctrine of this world (therefore he always goes to the Town of Morality to Church) and partly because he loveth that Doctrine best, for it saveth him from the Cross; and because he is carnal temper, therefore he seeketh to prevent my ways though right. (Bunyan, 2003)

The paragraph demonstrates the abundant use of linking words. The conjunction "therefore" in the last sentence is a strong cohesive marker in English to link the two sentences and guides readers to interpret the sentences as causal relation.

The heavy use of linking words may sound redundant for readers nowadays, yet, is essential in John Bunyan's writing. The book, as an allegory of Christianity doctrine, insists upon that only those with unswerving faith will get to the Heaven. The cohesive markers ensure a clearly articulated discourse, which leaves no room for alterative interpretation, and in turn, meticulously guiding reader's reception, as in preaching.

The Pilgrim's Progress, representing the extreme of explicit coherence relations, while *Ulysses*, demonstrating the very end of implicit coherence relations, in between them there is a continuum.

The first example is selected from the sixth episode which details Bloom's journey to the cemetery and his activities in the cemetery.

Picador, 1997, p84

Glad to see us go we give them such trouble coming. Job seems to suit them. Huggermugger in corners. Slop about in

slipperslappers for fear he'd wake. Then getting it ready. Laying it out. Molly and Mrs Fleming making the bed. Pull it more to your side. Our winding sheet. Never know who will touch you dead. Wash and shampoo. I believe they clip the nails and the hair. Keep a bit in an envelope. Grows all the same after. Unclean job. (Joyce, 1997)

金隄译，《尤利西斯》上卷，人民文学出版社 1994 年版，p131

喜欢送我们走，来的时候太麻烦她们了。这个活儿似乎挺适合她们。躲在屋角里，偷偷摸摸的。穿着软底鞋，轻声轻气、蹑手蹑脚的，怕惊醒他呢。然后，准备入殓。给他打扮。莫莉和菲莱明太太铺床。再往你那边拉过去一点儿。我们的裹尸布。谁知道死后谁来摸你？洗身子，洗头发。她们大概还给剪指甲，剪头发。用信封装一点儿留下。以后还照样长呢。不洁的活儿。(Jin, 1994)

萧干，文洁若译，《萧干译作全集》第一卷，太白文艺出版社 2005 年版，p194

我们来到世上时给了她们那么多麻烦，所以她们乐意看到我们走。她们好像适合于干这种活。在角落里鬼鬼祟祟的。拉着拖鞋，轻手轻脚地，生怕惊醒了他。然后给他装裹，以便入殓。摩莉和弗莱明大妈在往棺材里铺着甚么。再往你那边拽拽呀。我们的裹尸布。你绝不会知道自己死后谁会来摸你。洗身子啦，洗头啦。我相信她们还会给他剪指甲和头发，并且装在信封里保存一点。这之后，照样会长哩。这可是件脏活儿。(Xiao, 2005)

Comparing the two versions of the paragraph, Jin Ti maintains the inferred linkage while Xiao Qian and Wen Jieruo make it explicit. Xiao and Wen add "所以" to suggest causal relation between the clauses in the first sentence. Similarly, the translation "then getting it ready" and "laying it out" is another example. Xiao and Wen translate it as "然后给他装裹，以便入殓。" and add "并且" to produce an overt semantic link between "I believe they clip the nails and the hair" and "keep a bit in an envelope".

By comparison, we observe Xiao and Wen tend to make inferred logical relations explicit. This is reasonable in translation process, for translators are first readers in decoding the text and tend to produce coherent relations when reading. As a result, translators are highly likely to express inferred coherence in surface structure.

Joyce experimentally uses stream-of-consciousness technique in his prose. Cohesive and syntactical incompleteness are prominent features in *Ulysses*, which accounts for loose connections between the sentences. The use of inferred linkage aims to leave room for reader's interpretation and imagination. Readers have to to judge whether the two clauses in the first sentence suggests a causal relation. Joyce juxtaposes "then getting it ready" and "laying it out" to suggest two separate actions. However, the translation "然后给他装裹，以便入殓" narrows down the possible interpretations and obliges readers to perceive it as a cause-effect clause. Similarly, the author does not suggest sequential order of "clipping the nails" and "keep it a bit in an envelope". "并且" is a strong cohesive marker in Chinese and suggests one action goes after another.

"The bed" is a co-referent of coffin. English readers would naturally refer the bed to the coffin because of the definite article "the". "铺床" could not produce the same textual referent. We could repeat the word coffin and translate it as "铺棺材". Similarly, the final phrase "unclean job" does not bear a definite article to refer to any specific referents. Xiao and Wen add "这" to refer to "clipping hair and nail".

In the latter version, it seems that "来到世上时" and "往棺材里铺着什么" over interpret the original. The word "coming" may be interpreted as their visit and coming to this word if not too far-fetched. "往棺材里铺着什么" narrows down the semantic field of "making the bed". The tendency of over interpreting the source text transgresses the author's intention, for it tells less than what the original says.

Under closing reading, we could see that Xiao and Wen rearrange the thematic structure of the source text. In the second sentence, "Job" is the theme, which acts as a point of orientation and contributes to the development of the later stretches "seems to suit them". The rheme "seems to suit them" is the goal of the discourse and is more communicatively important then the theme. Interchanging the theme-rheme position may lay emphasis on a less communicatively message. Likewise, the translation "我们来到世上时给了她们那么多麻烦，所以她们乐意看到我们走" could be explained by the same reasoning.

After identifying the theme and the rheme, we have to consider the possibility of keeping the same pattern in the target language. The translation "这个活儿似乎挺适合她们" preserves the thematic pattern of the original without distorting the target text, and therefore, changing the thematic structure"她们好像适合于干这种活" is unnecessary.

Thematic structure is a text-based pattern. The overall choice and ordering of theme and rheme plays an important role of organizing a text, for it controls information flow. In *Ulysses*, the pattern of thematic structure is bizarre to us. Unlike the conventional given-new pattern for them-rheme position, which ensures smooth flow of information, Joyce manipulates to arrange new information at theme position. For example, "them" in the sentence is given in the first sentence and should be placed at theme position for readers to retrieve it from the previous sentence; "glad to see us go" again is new information for readers but the author places it at theme position. The thematic pattern of the source text aims to ensure irregular information flow and confuse the reader with enigmatic effect. Xiao and Wen transgress the author's intention and move the retrievable subject "我们" "她们" to the theme position, adding "這" to mark the theme, hence provide a clear orientation for readers. It makes "我们来到世上时给了她们那么多麻烦，所以她们乐意看到我们走", "她们好像适合于干这种活", "这可是件脏活脏活儿。" give higher intelligibility than the source text. Joyce captures the writing of the works at a level that is below complete utterance. Syntactic and cohesive incompleteness,

together with the unconventional thematic structure, create an enigmatic texture. The prominent feature is seen as a distinctive element in Ulysses. Translators should be aware of the aesthetic style and try to preserve it.

Picador, 1997, p104

Whores in Turkish graveyards. Learn anything if taken young. You might pick up a young widow here. Men like that. Love among the tombstones. Romeo. Spice of pleasure. In the midst of death we are in life. Both ends meet. Tantalising for the poor dead. Smell of grilled beefsteaks to the starving. Gnawing their vitals. Desire to grig people. Molly wanting to do it at the window. Eight children he has now. (Joyce, 1997)

金隄译，《尤利西斯》上卷，人民文学出版社 1994 年版，p163

在土耳其，墓地里还有妓女。不论甚么事，只要年轻都能学到手。在这里说不定能找到个年轻寡妇呢。男人们喜欢这个。墓碑丛中的恋爱。罗密欧 ³。寻欢作乐添点儿作料。在死亡中享受生命。相反相成。叫可怜的死人看着眼馋。饿汉闻到烤肉的香味。心里火烧火燎的。喜欢吊人的胃口。莫莉愿意在窗口干。不管怎么说，他有八个孩子。(Jin, 1994)

萧干，文洁若译，《萧干译作全集》第一卷，太白文艺出版社 2005 年版，p226.

在土耳其，坟墓里照样有窑姐儿。只要年轻的时候就着手，凡事都能学到家。在这儿你兴许还能够勾搭上一位小寡妇呢。男人就好这个。在墓碑丛中谈情说爱。罗密欧 ¹⁴⁰。给快乐平添情趣。在死亡中，我们与生存为伍 ¹⁴¹。两头都衔接上了。那些可怜的死者眼睁睁望着，只好干着急呗。那就好比让饥肠辘辘者闻考牛排的香味，馋得他们心焦火燎。欲望煎熬着人。摩莉很想在窗畔搞来着。反正管理员已经有了八个孩子。(Xiao, 2005)

The above paragraph depicts Bloom's interior monologue at the graveyard, where he reminisces his suicidal father and the tragic death of his son. The textual incoherence leaves much room for reader's interpretation and imagination. We should identify the stylistic value of the textual incoherence, which resembles the chaotic state of Bloom's psychic flow, with frequent interruption of one impulse after another, as if a vivid picture of flickering consciousness. Regarding the wide association gap between sentences hardly can one assert an authentic interpretation so readers have to link them conceptually.

In Jin's version, "相反相成" fails to produce the coherence in the target text. The source text mentions whores in the graveyard and further states that men may pick up a widow there. The context carries strong implication of sexuality. Referring to *Oxford English Dictionary,* the word "end" possesses the meaning of "the completion of an action; the accomplishment of a purpose" or "an intended result of an action; an aim, purpose" (OED 2007). To place "ends" in the context, "both ends meet" probably could be interpreted that both men and widows satisfy their desire in the graveyard. A suggested version may be "各自达到目的".

When reading, the sentence "Smell of grilled beefsteaks to the starving" is defamiliarising that hungry men appear in the graveyard and readers soon turn out to find that it does not make sense. Then readers would habitually retrieve the last sentence and try to make the coherence possible. Then they realise it is a metaphor.

Xiao and Wen add "那就好比" to link the two sentences. In the cognitive process, the defamiliarising effect lost and readers are only possible to perceive it linearly as a metaphor. As a result, the rise and fall in the continuity of reading experience lost.

Likewise, the translation "Gnawing their vitals" is another example how translator's interpretation affects reader's perception. The word refesr to "parts or organs of the human body" "essential to life, or upon which life depends" (OED 2007). The figurative meaning is to describe the irresistible seduction for the dead while keeping it out of reach. When readers perceive the phrase "gnawing their vitals", a picture that the dead are biting and chewing their bodies appear in mind. The intense feeling is closely associated with the seduction that is beyond the control of mental will. The two translations, "心里火燒火燎的" and "馋得他們心焦火燎", are sensible interpretations, but not strong enough to maintain the intensity of the convulsive impact. A suggested version could be "咬自己的身体".

Moreover, according to *The New Partridge Dictionary of Slang and Unconventional English*, the word "grig" is an Irish slang and means "to annoy, to tease" (Dalzell & Victor, 2005). In fact, Bloom is just an ordinary man who struggles to earn a living in Dublin. Because of his identity as the descendent of immigrants, other characters in the novel either mock him or treat him only with polite deference. The translations, "喜欢吊人的胃口" and "欲望煎熬着人" are too formal to shape Bloom's character. The sentence could be translated as "急死人了", or more colloquial "急得不行了".

"Romeo" in the second sentence has no co-referent in the text. The word recalls the scene of Shakespeare's play Romeo and Juliet. In Act V, Romeo learns the death of Juliet and returns to Verona to see her for one last time. The scene in Romeo and Juliet coheres with what "love among the tombstones". The ability to reconstruct the coherence between love among the tombstones and Romeo depends on reader's knowledge Shakespeare's play, rather than textual reference. Footnoting is added in both versions to provide the background information.

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³ 在沙士比亚悲剧《罗密欧与朱丽叶》中，罗密欧最后是在朱丽叶的墓中见到她的。
¹⁴⁰ 指罗密欧掘开墓门，见到服了安眠药后昏睡中的朱丽叶。参看《罗密欧与朱丽叶》第 5 幕第三场。
¹⁴¹ 这是把"在生存中，我们与死亡为伍"一语倒过来说的。参看本章注〔59〕。
〔59〕这里，马丁．坎宁翰只引用了祷文的上半句，下半句是："我们与死亡为伍。"

The sentence "In the midst of death we are in life" is worth discussing. The sentence, is the absorption and transformation the first anthem of *Book of Common Prayer*, *Oxford Dictionary of Quotations*. Intertextuality, a term coined by Julia Kristeva, explains how the sentence functions at multi-levels in terms of reader's cognition.

Referring to *Oxford Dictionary of Quotations,* the sentence comes from the following:

In the midst of life we are in death

from whom can we seek help?

From you alone, O Lord,

who by our sins are justly angered. (Knowles, 2004)

In our physical existence, each moment of everyday people are physically dying. The God is the one and only can save us. First of all, the depiction creates textual coherence that the live and the dead are in the same place. Joyce modifies the religious saying to achieve parodic effect, which could be a symbolic meaning to British suppression over Ireland in reader's interpretation. "Bloom's status as the descendent of immigrants and his Jewish heritage make him vulnerable to the ridicule and disdain of many throughout the novel" (McKenna, 2002). The lack of knowledge of basic Catholic traditions marks him an outsider. We could see how Joyce portraits the subtilties of Bloom's character. His confusion about the saying soon after the funeral, can either tell readers he is an outsider, or satirical and humorous mimicry on Catholicism. The translation"在死亡中享受生命" is one possible interpretation but denies other possible interpretations. "在死亡中，我们与生存为伍" would be better as it provides the depiction of the scene. It is suggested that footnoting should be added to provide the background information.

It is possible to achieve both parody effect and intertextuality in Chinese. The modified Confucian saying "未知死,焉知生" may serve as an example. But it is not a desirable technique in translating literary works. The main theme of chapter six is religion. The absorption and transformation of the saying in *The Book of Common Prayer* introduces Christianity creed to Chinese readers. Domestication will fail to meet the aim. Facing the dilemma, footnoting seems to be the only method.

Picador, 1997, p658

…the Lord Mayor looking at me with his dirty eyes Val Dillon that big heathen I first noticed him at dessert when I was cracking the nuts with my teeth I wished I could have picked every morsel of that chicken out of my fingers it was so tasty and browned and as tender as anything only for I didn't want to eat anything on my plate those forks and fishslicers were hallmarked silver too I wish I had some I could easily have slipped a couple into my muff when I was playing with them then always hanging out of them for money in a restaurant for the bit you put down your throat we have to be thankful for our mangy cup of tea itself as a great compliment to be noticed… (Joyce, 1997)

金隄译,《尤利西斯》上卷，人民文学出版社 1994 年版，p1013

…还有市长大人也用他的色鬼眼睛瞅着了我瓦尔．狄龙是个大异教徒我在甜品上来后就已经注意到他了我正在用牙咬核果呢我恨不得把手里的鸡啃得干干净净的真好吃又黄又嫩从没有这么恰到好处的只不过我不愿把盘子里的东西吃得一点都不剩那些餐叉和切鱼刀也都是正牌纯银的我要是也有几把就好了其实我那时拿在手里玩的时候很可以顺手塞两把在我的手笼里的而且在饭馆里不论你吃一点点甚么他们都眼巴巴的望着你的钱我们就是喝一杯破茶也得感恩的能被请到就是很大的荣幸了… (Jin, 1994)

萧干,文洁若译,《萧干译作全集》第三卷，太白文艺出版社 2005 年版，p1473

市长大人也曾用那双色迷迷的眼睛打量我，我最初是在饭后吃甜品的时候留意到那个大异教徒维尔．狄龙的 我正在用牙齿嘎吧嘎吧地磕着核桃壳 我巴不得能用手把每一口鸡肉都撕下来 香喷喷 烤得焦黄焦黄的 要多嫩有多嫩 不过我并不想把盘子里的东西统统吃光 那些叉子和切鱼刀都是纯银的 还有检验印记哩 我巴不得有那么几把 其实我蛮可以假装摆弄着玩 很容易就能往我的皮手笼里塞进一副哪怕在饭馆里往喉咙咽下那么一点点东西 你也得指望让他们清帐 抠抠搜搜地喝上一杯茶 我们也要当成是莫大的荣幸 受了待见就得表示感谢 (Xiao, 2005)

Mrs. Molly's unspoken monologue on the bed, twenty-five thousand words divided into eight sentences without punctuation , represents the very end of the continuum. The paragraph is selected from the second sentence, in which Molly recalls Val Dillon's interest in her and the dinner.

The lack of punctuation is the saliency of the last chapter. Joyce manipulates not to use punctuation, for he wishes to eliminate pauses and interruptions in reading process. Readers are drawn to plunge into the tides of Molly's inmost thought, which is flowing like a continuum, so does Joyce's prose.

Tracing back to Shang Dynasty, people used space to punctuate the inscriptions on bones or tortoise shells and this helps us understand punctuation in a broad sense. The spaces between the sentences interrupt the continuity of the pattern, hence cause frequent interruptions, by creating visual stops in reading process. Jin's version, serving as a counter example of punctuating the monologue, as long as the text is translated and grouped into meaningful units, readers can comprehend the content. In dealing with the special pattern in the last chapter, translators might as well free themselves from the stereotype that punctuation is a must element of a text.

In the paragraph, Molly recalls two dinners. The first half tells us about the sumptuous meal and the last sentence "we have to be thankful for our mangy cup pf tea itself as a great compliment to be noticed" tells us about the poor stuff provided by O'Rourke. the organization of the events in the novel scatter in different chapters. The sudden shift of

Molly's impulse imitates the randomness of human thought.

In Xiao and Wen's translation, "其实我蛮可以假装摆弄着玩", is subjunctive mood in Chinese and misrepresents the organization of the event. "I wish I had some I could easily have slipped" is subjunctive mood while "when I was playing" is an action performed by Molly.

Comparing the two translations, the translators give two entirely different versions for the sentence "then always hanging out of them for money in a restaurant for the bit you put down your throat". The theme dinner is a superordinate and a chain of hyponyms "dessert" "nuts" "chicken" "forks and fishslicers" "the bit" "mangy cup of tea" running through the discourse constructs a macro-structure. The pronoun "them" in the sentence "then always hanging out of them" denotes the forks and fishslicers, which are indispensable for constructing the coherence chain. However, this essential part lost in the translation, hence readers could not reproduce the macro-structure to comprehend the discourse.

Referring to *OED*, "hanging out of" means "something that hangs or is suspended" (OED 2007). Literally, it is a scene that Molly is swaying the forks and fishslicers to and fro. Yet, it does not make sense that Molly is playing the utensils for selling them for money. The hallmarked utensils and the sumptuous dinner, all contrast "the irritating domestics economies which Bloom's limited income imposes on them", and "Molly would like more clothes and new corset to control her figure" (Blamires, 1966). Other plots help explain the reason she would like to sell the hallmarked utensils for having a meal and associates the dinner with the poor treatment. Based on the supporting evidence, we could infer that "then always hanging out of them for money in a restaurant for the bit you put down your throat" should be comprehended as a complete unit, in which "you" refers to an indefinitely specified person.

In this aspect, the pronoun "them" is essential in the chain to generate the original coherence. The suggested version could be "然后经常拿餐叉切鱼刀出来玩玩卖个钱当作往喉咙咽下的那一点点东西的饭钱". Low formality of register is a reflection of Molly's education level and social status.

Discussion

The earlier claim that translators should preserve the aesthetic style is also on the ground of preserving the macro-texture in *Ulysses*.

Picador, 1997, p.658

Mr Bloom entered and sat in the vacant place. He pulled the door to after him and slammed it twice till it shut tight. He passed an arm through the armstrap and looked seriously from the open carriage window at the lowered blinds of the avenue. (Joyce, 1997)

金隄译，《尤利西斯》上卷，人民文学出版社 1994 年版，p.131

布卢姆先生登上车，坐在剩下的座位上。他随手把车门带上，又重新打开，使劲撞了两次，把门撞紧了才放手。他伸出一只胳膊，套进车侧的拉手吊带，神情严肃地从敞开的车窗里望着马路边那些挂着帘子的窗户。(Jin, 1994)

萧干，文洁若译，《萧干译作全集》第三卷，太白文艺出版社 2005 年版，p.194

布卢姆先生上了车，在空位子上落座。他反手带上车门，咣当了两下，直到把它撞严实了才撒手。他将一只胳膊套在拉手吊带里，神情严肃地从敞着的车窗里眺望马路旁那一扇扇拉得低低的百叶窗。(Xiao, 2005)

In fact, Joyce uses different writing techniques in each chapter. The above paragraph is selected from the beginning of chapter six. Joyce also uses conventional narrative techniques for a large proportion of the book. Comparing the above paragraph with Bloom's monologue, we observe a gradual change from coherent texture to incoherent texture, signaling the change from authorial perspective to Bloom's inmost world, and finally fusing into one. The formless pattern in monologue contrasts with the regular pattern in narration. Jin's translation is able to signal the internal deviation in the chapter and this alerts the reader to the shift of narrative perspective.

The tendency of filling up the inferred linkage and interpret the source text clearly would be problematic for interior monologue. The term interior monologue, translated from French "monologue intérieur", is vague in meaning. In stream-of-consciousness novels, the term suggests the "content of consciousness in its inchoate stage before it is formulated for deliberate speech" (Humphery 1955). The technique shows a difference from dramatic monologue and stage soliloquy. Joyce uses interior monologue to make author's interference absence so that readers can peep directly into the character's inner world. Reviewing the translations "我们来到世上时给了她们那么多麻烦，所以她们乐意看到我们走。""然后给他装裹，以便入殓。" "并且装在信封里保存一点。" "这可是件脏活脏活儿。" "在死亡中享受生命" "那就好比让饥肠辘辘者闻烤牛排的香味" reappear author's interference and direction to control reader's interpretation.

Richard Ellmann is also in favor of the same argument and he puts it as "Joyce's development of the interior monologue to enable his readers to enter the mind of a character without the chaperonage of the author, seems a discovery he might have been expected to make" (Ellmann, 2003). Making the suspended plots explicit and clarify the vagueness in the source text would turn the interior monologue into an exposition. Adequate readers would be discouraged by the premature disclose of suspended plots and over-interpretation of the works. Therefore, the consideration of the narrative technique also justifies the suggested versions.

In all, the idea of readerly and writerly text, proposed by Roland Barthes, provides another perspective for discussion.

The writerly text is a perpetual present, upon which no consequent language (which would inevitably make it past)

can be superimposed; the writerly text is ourselves writing, before the infinite play of the world (the world as function) is traversed, intersected, stopped, plasticized by some singular system (Ideology, Genus, Criticism) which reduces the plurality of entrances, the opening of networks, the infinity of languages. (Barthes, 1974)

Readerly text and writerly text mark the distinction between traditional novels and modern novels. Readers are guided on clear-signposted road when reading traditional novels. The reading process is passive and the interaction with readers does not enjoy the first priority. A writerly text highly values the plurality of interpretation and reader's active involvement. Readers are people who construct the meaning of works in a galaxy of signifiers. *Ulysses* is a fine example of writerly text. The sentences form obscure and interactive coherence relations so that readers are able to associate in sequential order or leaping at random among sentences. The piecemeal distribution of events creates enigmatic effect, confusing reader's perception like a puzzle. Hardly can anyone assert an authentic interpretation. The Roman poet Horace claimed that literature is sweet and useful as far as two thousand years ago. Since then, education and entertainment have been the kernel attributes of literature. Pleasure of reading *Ulysses* literally comes from the interplay between the reader and the text. In this aspect, when considering translation strategy, translators should also take author's intention, aesthetic effect, stylistic value and the function of the literary works into consideration.

In the interview with Jacques Benoîst-Méchin, Joyce replied as "I've put in so many enigmas and puzzles that it will keep the professors busy for centuries arguing over what I meant, and that's the only way of insuring one's immortality." (Ellmann 1983). This could be seen as a kind of readership selection. The author pre-assumes a great extent of shared knowledge with readers, Irish history, Shakespeare's plays and Homeric parallels for example. Readers shall take the responsibility to work out the missing parts and construct the meaning in line with their real world experience and knowledge. The obscurity and wide-ranging allusions easily scare away would-be readers. Although a highly intelligible target text allows easy access to Joyce's works, it would, at the same time, obliterate the pleasure of adequate readers.

III.   CONCLUSION

Aesthetic style, author's intention, psychic depiction and enigmatic coherence that are never found in literature before *Ulysses* construct the unique style. Readers would be discouraged by making the implicit coherence explicit or the premature disclosure of suspended plots. Producing a well-articulated discourse would be desirable in normal circumstances. But *Ulysses* is an exception. Making implicit coherence relations explicit at best produces an intelligible target text but at worst deprives reader's rights of interpretation and imagination. It is certainly more a loss than gain for *Ulysses*. Therefore, translators should try to strike an equilibrium of the coherence relations between the source text and the target text.

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The Effect of Collaborative Reasoning Discussion on EFL Learners' Anxiety

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Abstract—This study was an attempt to investigate whether Collaborative Reasoning (CR) had any significant effect on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety. To fulfill the purpose of this study, 60 female students who studied in Iranmehr language institute at pre-intermediate level were selected from a total number of 88 participants based on their performance on a piloted PET (2009) .Then a piloted anxiety questionnaire was assigned to the experimental and control groups having 30 participants each. The same content (2 story books) was taught to both groups throughout the 18-session treatment with the only difference that the experimental group was taught CR strategies while in the control group the common comprehension-based approach was applied. At the end of the instruction, the piloted anxiety questionnaire post-test was administered to the participants of both groups. The mean scores of the groups on pretest and posttest were computed through ANCOVA to investigate the research question raised in the study which led to the rejection of the null hypothesis. Thus, teaching CR strategies proved to have a significant effect on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety.

Index Terms—collaborative reasoning, language anxiety, reasoning, scaffolding

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditional teacher-centered pedagogy dominates in the most of the classrooms that put students under pressure of rote learning and eventually language learning stress (Reznitskaya et. al, 2009).

In recent years, great interest has increased in the study of the role of affective factors in the language classroom. Language anxiety is one of the main problems in language classrooms. One of the recent challenges in second and foreign language teaching is to provide students with an environment which is more learner-centered and low-anxiety.

Anxiety in the classroom context is considered a negative factor that reduces the learner's proficiency and in the anxious situation, it is difficult to think and act clearly. Language acquisition should be accomplished in a low-anxiety environment.

According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), communication apprehension appears to be increased in the language classrooms where the learners do not have any control of the communicative situation, and their performance is regularly observed by both their teacher and peers. Students in teacher-centered classrooms have passive roles that are waiting for their teachers' direction. This kind of evaluation which is based on the predetermined answers put students under stress.

The influence of communicative approach and the interest in communicative competence in language has changed the way of language teaching and the use of activities that perform in language classrooms.

The teacher who creates a comfortable or stress free atmosphere in the classroom will lower the affective filter. Young (1992) suggests that, putting language learners in a group or in a pair situation allows students to exchange and express their opinions and may alleviate language anxiety.

Worde (2003), in his study examined students' perspectives on foreign language anxiety and discovered that a sense of community is a factor that may help learners to reduce the level of their anxiety. In addition, discussing, creating, and thinking in a group create a less anxiety-producing context. In such an environment, students may feel more relaxed to try out new ideas.

Consequently, learning in group is believed to lessen anxiety and provide more chances for students to produce language. This make students feel more confident about communicating in the target language and therefore, it can lead to anxiety reduction.

In this study, the researcher employed Collaborative Reasoning (CR) (Anderson, et al., 2001) to investigate whether it can decrease the pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety. CR is an approach to literature that aims to stimulate critical reading and improve students' engagement. The researcher used CR in the hope that, during CR, students become encouraged to participate in discussions of controversial issues which were raised by the texts or stories they read (Anderson, et al., 2001). In CR, students gather in small groups to discuss a central question about a story they have read (Clark et. al, 2003). This kind of question does not make students feel stressed and they can answer easily

Purpose of the Study

Learners of English language claim to have, a mental block against learning English and they often express a feeling of stress, nervousness or anxiety while learning English Language. This problem exists among ESL/EFL learners from beginning to more advanced levels.

If students feel a sense of belonging and involvement Language anxiety can be reduced. Mechanical repetition in classrooms does not create engagement or involvement in the task and students feel inappropriateness of the situation (Arnold 2003). So the purpose of this study was to find out whether Collaborative reasoning discussion had any significant effect on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety level.

This study was based on the following research question:

Q: Dose Collaborative reasoning have any Significant effect on EFL learners' anxiety?

II. Review of Literature

A. Anxiety

Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) state that "Anxiety is a state of uneasiness and apprehension or fear causes by the anticipation of something threatening". "Anxiety is the subjective feeling of tension, apprehension, nervousness and worry associated with arousal of the autonomic nervous system" (p. 126).

B. Different Types of Anxiety

There are different types of anxiety that are discussed in this part.

1. Facilitating vs. debilitating

Scovel (1978) believes a degree of anxiety may be beneficial for learners. This kind of anxiety is usually referred to as facilitative anxiety that means, through facilitative anxiety students will be encouraged more and they study harder and consequently it makes stronger efforts to succeed in classroom. Facilitating anxiety motivates a person to positively deals with difficulties and to handle challenges. Debilitating anxiety tends to destroy students' learning outcome and damages their self-confidence that can lead to poor performance and low achievement.

2. Trait vs. State

Trait anxiety is a general trait of anxiety, valid in a number of situations (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991). MacIntyer (1995) maintain that "state anxiety is an immediate, transitory emotional experience with immediate cognitive effects" (p.93).

3. Situation Specific Anxiety

Another type of anxiety is situation specific anxiety. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) situation specific anxiety can be considered as a trait anxiety limited to specific situation.

4. Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA)

Researchers proposed a situation-specific anxiety which arises when an individual dealing with foreign language. It is largely independent of other types of anxiety. They called it foreign language anxiety which was responsible for students' negative emotional reactions to language learning (Horwitz, et al., 1986; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1989).

Three components of foreign language anxiety have been identified (Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope 1986):

C. Component of Foreign Language Anxiety

- Communication apprehension
- Test anxiety
- Fear of negative evaluation

Communication apprehension is an individual's level of fear or anxiety that is experienced in interpersonal communicative settings with other people which happens in second or foreign language context (McCroskey, 1978).

Test anxiety arises when students have poor performance in the previous tests, Sarason (1984, cited in Aida, 1994). The students who are nervous in test may not be able to focus on what is going on in the classroom because they tend to divide their attention between self-awareness of their fears and worries and class activities themselves (MacIntyre, 1995; Aida, 1994).

Fear of negative evaluation is defined as "apprehension about others evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, and the expectation that others would evaluate one negatively", (Watson and Friend, 1969 cited in Gardner, 1995; p.92). MacIntyre and Gardner (1991b) express that fear of negative evaluation is closely related to communication apprehension.

D. Language-skills-specific Anxieties

Foreign language anxiety has different aspects, like reading, writing, speaking, and listening anxiety.

1. Language Anxiety and listening skill "Foreign language listening anxiety (FLLA) is the type of anxiety experienced by language learners in situations that require listening" (Bekleyen ,2009, p. 665). MacIntyre (1995) explained the reason for such an anxiety is that learners often concern about misperception of what they listen to and the fear of being embarrassed in classrooms.

2. Language Anxiety and Writing Anxiety The concept of writing anxiety, also called writing apprehension can be defined as a language-skill-specific form of anxiety, unique to the language-particular skill of writing (Bline *et al.* 2001). It includes a fear of the writing process that overcomes the expected gain from the ability to write, which may finally result in permanent tendencies to dislike, evade or fear writing.

3. Language Anxiety and Reading anxiety According to Horwitz et. al. (1986, p. 215) "reading anxiety is a specific type of anxiety from the more general types of foreign language anxiety that have been linked to oral performance". MacIntyre (1995) emphasizes that "when learners feel anxious during reading task completion, cognitive performance is diminished, performance suffers, leading to negative self-evaluations and more self-disapproving cognition which further impairs performance and so on" (p.92).

4. Language Anxiety and speaking Anxiety The fear of speaking in foreign language may be pertinent to a variety of complicated psychological concepts such as communication apprehension, self- esteem, and social anxiety (Young, 1990). Speech communication research has indicated that anxiety may affect an individual's communication or willingness to communicate and produce "communication apprehension", MacCroskey, (1978, P.192).

E. Practical Method for Overcoming Language Anxiety

Anxiety reduction has been confirmed to maximize learning (Horwitz et al 1986; MacIntyre and Gardner 1989, 1991a, MacIntyre 1995). Since anxious people are not very successful in language learning they might be using certain kind of strategies which are quite different from those used by successful learners.

Researchers have suggested a number of activities which can be used to alleviate feeling of language anxiety. Young (1991) maintains that instructors should prohibit those attitudes that negatively influence learners, such as error correction, the authority of the instructor in the class and threaten students for motivating them, should be dismissed (Young, 1991). Krashen (1981) suggests that making the content of teaching interesting will help to reduction of anxiety and it makes students forget that it is in another language .If teacher put the books aside and start talking about something really important, students will listen. Prices' (cited in Young 1991) explained that students would feel more relaxed if the instructors were more friendly and like a friend help them to learn and less like an authority figure make them perform. To decrease anxieties during classroom procedures, instructors can perform more pair work, and more games. Group work influences on the affective concerns of the students and it increases the amount of student talk and comprehensible input (Gardner and MacIntyre, 1993).

According to sociocultural theory, social interaction plays a central role in cognitive development, children learn from a superior person. A sociocultural perspective emphasizes that acquisition of knowledge and skills occurs as we participate in society through interacting with and receiving guidance from more capable peers (Vygotsky, 1978).

Scaffolding is a concept that derives from cognitive psychology and L1 research. In a social interaction, a knowledgeable participant can make a supportive conditions through speech in which a novice student can participate in and extend existing skills and knowledge to a high level of competence. Wood, et al (1976) used scaffolding to illustrate the assistance of more competent people through the performance of less capable person. "Scaffolding consists essentially of the adult controlling those elements of the task that are initially beyond the learner's capacity, thus permitting him to concentrate upon and complete only those elements that are within his range of competence" (Wood et al ,1976, P. 90).

Earlier studies of Vygotsky (1978) emphasis on scaffolding. He believed that when children have social interactions with more competent peers they can move to a higher level of cognitive. In other words they can reach to better understanding of their activity when they work collaboratively with more competent people.

As Ellis (2000), proposes, learning happens not through interaction but in interaction. At first, learners accomplish a new task with the help of another person and then internalize this task in the way that to perform it on their own. In this way, social interaction intervene learning.

F. Collaborative Reasoning

Collaborative Reasoning (Chinn et al, 2001) encourages collaboration by stimulating students' thinking abilities and personal engagement. In this discussion students freely discuss the question and bring reasons for their thinking. The students defend their positions and discuss about their classmates' arguments. CR is going to create a forum for students to listen to each other and think out loud (Clark et al, 2003).

Collaborative reasoning (CR) is a discussion format that is presumed on Vygotsky notion of internalization (1978) and notion of schema (Anderson,et al., 1998; Anderson,et al., 2001). Anderson, et al, pointed out scheme creates a principle for how old knowledge may influence the acquisition of the new knowledge.

The concept of internalization in Vygotsky's work was based on several assumptions. First, the direction of internalization was from interpersonal works to the intrapersonal mind. Thus, the learning process was social in nature. Second, before mastering social skills, the individual needed the assistance of material artifacts and the support of more knowledgeable others to carry out human action (Lantolf, 2000).

Vygotsky believed, "The higher functions of child thought first appear in the collective life of children in the form of argumentation and only then develop into reflection for the individual children" (Vygostky, 1981 cited in chinn et al, 2001, P. 407). When teacher permits students to participate in a form of reasoned argumentation, they may hear several

voices which demonstrate opposite perspectives on an issue. Students are then able to question and reflect on their own thinking (Clark et al, 2003).

Collaborative Reasoning (Chinn et al, 2001) encourages collaboration by stimulating students' thinking abilities and personal engagement. In this discussion students freely discuss the question and bring reasons for their thinking. The students defend their positions and discuss about their classmates' arguments. CR is going to create a forum for students to listen to each other and think out loud (Clark et al, 2003).

Reasoning is an effort to coordinate inferences in order to reach a justifiable conclusion. Usually, reasoning considers as a cognitive action performed by an individual. However, reasoning can refer as a social process. In this case two or more individuals coordinate their thinking for the purpose of achieving Justifiable results. (Moshman, 1995).

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants who took part in this research were 60 EFL female learners who were chosen from a sample of 88 pre-intermediate EFL learners. They were selected randomly and a sample of piloted Preliminary English Test (2009) was administered to them for homogenizing. Classes were held three times a week.

B. Instrumentation and Materials

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the teacher-researcher used the treatment and assessment materials described below.

1. Anxiety questionnaire

The first instrument was the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale (FLCAS) (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). The FLCAS is a standardized 33-item survey that measures levels of anxiety related to three areas: (1) communication apprehension, (2) test anxiety, and (3) fear of negative evaluation. The questioner is in five scales, ranging from strongly agree to strongly disagree. Test retest reliability over a period of eight weeks yielded an r =.83 (Horwitz and Young 1991).

2. Proficiency Test for Homogenization

A 54-item PET (preliminary English Test) test, released by Cambridge ESOL exam (2003), was administered to measure the participants' general proficiency level. The PET is the second level Cambridge ESOL exam for the pre-intermediate level learners. The test consists of four parts.

3. Short Stories

The teacher-researcher chose stories that might create discussion. Each story was 150 to 200 words. The researcher tried to choose the stories that were relevant to life experiences of participants in which they could use their own real experiences.

C. Procedure

First, the sample test had primarily been piloted with 30 EFL pre-intermediate learners .As a result, 60 students were selected as homogeneous for this study. The selected 60 participants were randomly assigned to two experimental and control groups with 30 students in each.

Second, the participants were also asked to complete Horwitz Second Language Anxiety (HSLAQ, 1991) questionnaire.

Third, after homogenizing the participants and getting data of their level of anxiety the researcher started the treatment. One class was the control group receiving non-CR instruction; the other was the experimental group receiving CR learning pedagogy. Each class was held three times a week. CR instructions were given to the participants in the experimental group as treatment. The treatment lasted for the duration of 18 sessions.

3. Performing CR in experimental group

In experimental group, the teacher-researcher at first introduced and presented the CR format to the students before they started their CR discussion. In this regard the students were given a guideline introducing the purposes, the characteristics, the steps and the principles of CR and made a brief 10 minutes presentation about CR at the first session. According to Clarket al., the teacher is advised to take the following steps when conducting CR discussion:

1). After the class reads the day's story, a small group comes together for a discussion, and the teacher reviews the principles.

Each session students should have studied the predetermined pages at home and discuss them in the class. The teacher-researcher introduced the new words, phrases and sentence patterns of the text to the students before they started the discussion to crystal clear every unknown thing related to the text. The discussions were performed in a whole class group design.

2). The teacher (or a student) poses a central question concerning a dilemma faced by a character in the story.

The researcher posed a central question while reading a text concerning a dilemma faced by a character in the text to initiate the discussion. The nature of big question is that nobody not even the teacher, knows the right answers. It is unpredictable how it will continue. The stories used to conduct CR discussions were provided by the researcher .If the researcher judged the stories were too difficult to the students, she would have taught strategies such as read aloud or

giving a holistic review of the written text to help the students acquire information from the stories before the CR discussions started (Anderson et al., 1998).

Furthermore, to facilitate the conversation, the teacher had students review certain rules at the beginning and end of the each discussion (Clark, 2003, p.184-185). These include:
1. Try to stick to the topic.
2. Think critically about ideas, not about people.
3. Remember that we are all in this together.
4. Encourage everyone to participate.
5. Listen to everyone's idea, even if I don't agree with them.
6. Try to understand both sides of the issue.
7. Restate what someone has said if it is not clear.

3). Participants choose their positions. The students who are not sure of their positions can signify that they have not made up their mind yet.

The researcher re-told or reviewed the text to emphasize main points and found evidence from illustrations and text to validate their arguments. The teacher-researcher asked students to express their position. The teacher's presentation of phrases such as "gives reason", "provides evidence", "forms an argument", and "makes an assumption" in discussions only happened when students were novices in the CR context. Some instances that the teacher-instructor used for promoting discussion were; "What do you think (Name)?", "would you like to share anything?"

4). The participants expand on their ideas, adding reasons and supporting evidence from the story and everyday experience.

They understood that the purpose of the discussions is not to come to an agreement. Instead, they comprehended that they need to listen carefully to other people's reasoning to judge the strong and weak point of their arguments, on the basis of evidence from the story or on their own background information.

5). The participants challenge each other's thinking and ways of reasoning.

Students brought reasons and sometimes they violated each other's arguments. They challenged each other's idea.

6). Finally the teacher helps participants to reflect on the discussion by questioning and making suggestions on how to improve future discussions.

While discussion, if the researcher found it was difficult for students to express their thought, he would have modeled her own thinking process to cause students to get acquainted with CR model. The researcher should create opportunities for students to expand and elaborate on their ideas, and should help students build on what other students are expressing.

2. Performance of discussion in control group

The methodology for the control group was different in certain ways as this group was presented with the normal course content and no intervention of CR. During the sessions, the class was observed by the teacher-researcher. In non-CR sessions, the stories were discussed in the same format as short stories with a central question. In the non-CR sessions, the central question may have encouraged the students to express their thoughts even though they were not told to do so. Students took part in a series of discussions with conventional, teacher-controlled participation in which they raise their hands and wait to be nominated by the teacher. Both types of instruction used the same textbook and covered the same material.

Subsequently and upon the end of the treatment period, the participants' performances in both groups were compared on the results of their performance on both the anxiety and communication apprehension questionnaires.

D. The Design of the Study

This study was an attempt to determine the effects of collaborative discussion on the anxiety level of EFL students. A quasi-experimental pretest-posttest comparison group research design was chosen for the study to compare the collaborative reasoning group with the non-collaborative reasoning group in term of learning anxiety. The quasi-experimental design was selected due to the availability of the participants in that randomization was not possible. The independent variable was collaborative reasoning (CR) and the dependent variable was anxiety. Gender and level of proficiency were the control variables of the study.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to compare the effects of CR on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety. The data collection procedure was carefully performed and the raw data was submitted to SPSS (version 19.0) to calculate the required statistical analyses in order to address the research question .This chapter provides the detailed statistical analyses.

A. PET Homogeneity Test Results

The PET was administered to 88 participants to assure the homogeneity of the participants. The descriptive statistics of the participant's scores on PET is provided in Table4.1 below. According to the table, the number of participants on PET Test was 88. Also the mean and standard deviation of the PET scores were 64.10 and 9.67 respectively.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET PROFICIENCY TEST

N	Range	Min.	Max.	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
88	42	43	85	64.10	64.50	61	9.672

The One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test of normality test results in Table 4.2 shows that *p* value, .98 was more than .05. Therefore they are normally distributed.

TABLE 4.2
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY FOR PET TEST SCORES

N	Mean	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Sig.
88	64.10	.389	.984

Therefore those students whose PET score fell within one standard deviation, 9.67, below and above the mean of 64.10 were selected as homogeneous pre-intermediate participants for this study. As a result, 60 students who scored between 54 and 73 were selected for the main study.

Figure 4.1 below graphically demonstrates the distribution of the PET scores on a normal curve.
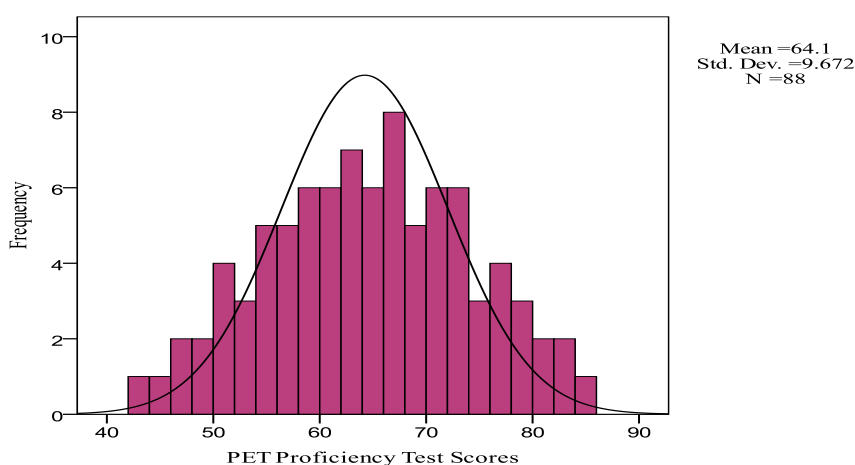
Figure 4.1 Distributions of PET scores

B. Testing Assumptions

1. Normality

In order to check the normality assumption of the scores obtained on the pretest and post-test of anxiety in the two groups, Shapiro-Wilk Test was used. The normality results in Table 4.3 show that the Sig. was .70 and .29 in the control and experimental groups respectively on the pretest of anxiety. The results also indicated that the Sig. was .29 and .07 on the posttest of anxiety in the control and experimental groups respectively. Since the *p* value for all sets of scores are greater than the selected significant level, .05, the normality assumption is met.

TABLE 4.3
SHAPIRO-WILK TEST OF NORMALITY ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF ANXIETY

Variable		Groups	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Anxiety	Pretest	Control	.976	30	.704
		Experimental	.959	30	.299
	Posttest	Control	.959	30	.291
		Experimental	.938	30	.078

2. Homogeneity of the variance

As obvious in Table 4.4, the homogeneity of variance in anxiety was met since the Sig. of Levene's test was .29 on the Post-test of anxiety.

TABLE 4.4
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES ON THE POSTTEST OF ANXIETY

Variable	F	df1	df2	Sig.
Anxiety	1.128	1	58	.293

3. Linearity

To assess the linearity assumption, we check the general distribution of scores for each of groups. The distribution of anxiety scores in Figure 4.2 shows that there appear to be a linear (straight-line) relationship for the control and experimental groups. So we have not violated the assumption of a linear relationship for anxiety.
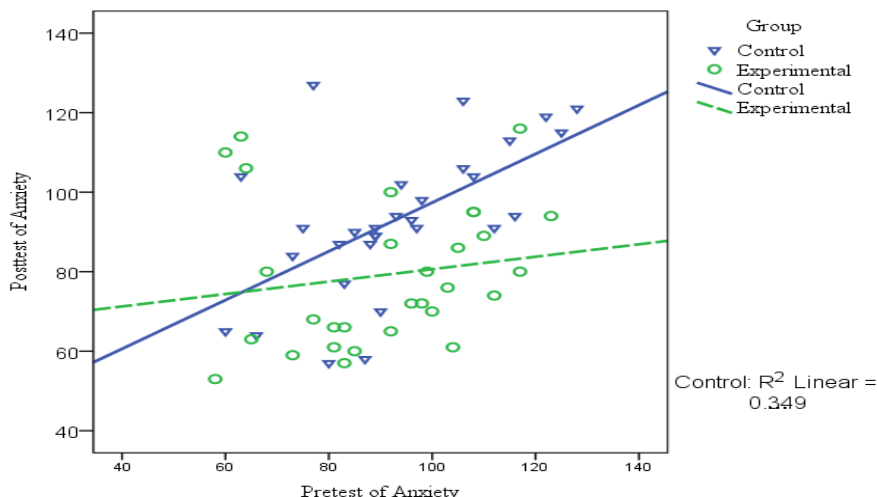
Figure 4.2 Linearity of scores on the pretest and posttest of anxiety

4. Homogeneity of regression slopes

Table 4.5 demonstrated that the Sig. level of the interaction between group and the pretest of anxiety (.07) was more than .05 and therefore not statistically significant, indicating that we have not violated the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes for anxiety.

TABLE 4.5
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS FOR ANXIETY SCORE

Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group * Anxiety Pretest	1013.315	1	1013.31	3.621	.062

C. Testing the Research Question

An ANCOVA was conducted to compare the effectiveness of CR instructional frame to reduce the anxiety of pre-intermediate EFL learners. The independent variable was CR instructional frame, and the dependent variable was learners' anxiety scores. Participants' scores on the pretest of anxiety were used as the covariate in this analysis.

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there was no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurement of the covariate. After adjusting for the anxiety scores on the pretest of anxiety, there was a significant difference between the two control and experimental groups on the post-anxiety scores, $F (1, 57) = 8.65$, $p = .005$, $p < .05$, partial eta squared = .13 (Table 4.6); hence, the first null hypothesis of the present study was rejected.

The results supported the claim that CR instructional frame reduces the anxiety of pre-intermediate EFL learners. In fact, there was a significant relationship between the covariate (pre-anxiety) and the dependent variable post-anxiety), .13, while controlling for the pre-independent variable (group or CA instruction). Also the results showed that the Sig. value of the pretest of anxiety (.003) was less than .05, so the covariate was significant.

TABLE 4.6
ANCOVA: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS ON THE POSTTEST OF ANXIETY AS THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	5671.146[a]	2	2835.573	9.687	.000	.254
Intercept	5943.853	1	5943.853	20.306	.000	.263
Anxiety Pretest	2745.129	1	2745.129	9.378	.003	.141
Group	2533.821	1	2533.821	8.656	.005	.132
Error	16684.504	57	292.711			
Total	467665.000	60				
Corrected Total	22355.650	59				

a. R Squared = .254 (Adjusted R Squared = .227)

D. Discussion

The findings of the study support the use of Collaborative Reasoning as part of the language learning method because of students' anxiety reduction and higher language proficiency. The reason why their anxiety decreased was probably because this learning environment provided opportunities for students to support, encourage, and praise each other. In such an atmosphere, students may feel more relaxed to try out new ideas (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010).

From the results presented in this chapter, it seems clear that the students viewed CR group discussions to be a valuable learning tool, especially as they became more comfortable with each other. Student-led literature discussion is

promoted since it provides students with opportunities to express themselves and requires students to take more responsibility for their own learning.

The result was in accordance with Young (1999) who found that pair and group work could contribute to a low-anxiety classroom situation. From the findings, it was concluded that the pleasant atmosphere can be created by the teacher and foreign language learning anxiety is not something to be overlooked or considered a problem for the students to deal with on their own as cited in (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2010). Moreover, creating, and thinking in a group, rather than in a whole class context, can provide a less anxiety-producing context.

In this study CR approach was successful at offering students opportunities to practice and develop language proficiency skills in the context of English class. Within the time frame of eighteen sessions, they shared different ways of thinking, listened to views of others, valued ideas different from their own, supported their own beliefs, and showed an understanding of others' perspectives.

In general, the results suggest that CR provides a space in which students can respond to text and to each other. They were confident about discussing literary texts, especially as a tool to help them understand what they read, to consider other perspectives, and to express themselves in English. Therefore, Student-led literature discussion can become a regular literacy activity in which peer collaboration is encouraged, personal perspectives are respected and valued, and higher order thinking can be promoted.

Although, the results from this study strongly show that the students adapted a new perspective on discussion. This indicates students are interested to new methods and enjoy partnering with teachers in discovering effective practices in language learning. The students enjoyed the environment of the discussion-based classroom and found it stimulating to work with their teacher collaboratively.

The results from this study stress that literature professors should not automatically view students of literature as proficient users of the target language. All of the students in this study, regardless of their proficiency, were still language learners.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of this study support the use of Collaborative Reasoning as part of the language learning method because of students' anxiety reduction. This learning environment provided more chances for students to support, encourage, and admire each other therefore their anxiety was reduced. In such an atmosphere, students may feel more comfortable and they expressed new ideas. In this study the effect of CR on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety was investigated. The results ($F (1, 57) = 8.65$, $p = .005$, $p < .05$, partial eta squared = .13) supported the claim that CR instructional frame reduces the anxiety of pre-intermediate EFL learners and it has statistically significant effect on pre-intermediate EFL learners' anxiety.

The finding of this study may be useful and beneficial for learners, teachers and material developers. The researcher of this study observed that using the CR instruction in student-led-discussion class could improve students' interaction and reduce the level of their anxiety rather than teacher-led discussion class. In discussion times the participants activated their prior knowledge, used life experiences, and utilized textual information and prior readings. They moved beyond reading as decoding the text. They responded to the text in a way that involved personal experiences and inter-textual connections. In fact, these factors induce some changes in the learners' attitudes, like not being worried about criticisms or evaluations of others in the class. Furthermore, they feel free to discuss about whatever they want and share their information with others.

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Tender is the Night: The Historical Configuration of the Failure of the American Dream

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Abstract—Tender is the Night is F. Scott Fitzgerald's fourth novel with its anti-sentimental language and depiction of events was marked as one of the most outstanding fictions of the 1930s offering a conspicuous criterion of American fiction since the World War I. The influences of a rich history are apparent in it. The most important events, several themes and some critic's idea, major characters in relation to that era, and Fitzgerald's purpose of creating the major hero of the novel who was ruined by means of his own idealism are analyzed in this article. The dominant setting is the chaotic Western world of post-war which reveals new bindings between the content of Tender and the Western history in relation to World War I, and the story of the protagonist is a microcosm of that history, a chronicle of post- war loss of the kinds of identities associated with stable societies, social altruism and personal responsibility.

Index Terms— Scott Fitzgerald, Tender is the Night, American Dream, twenty century, American novelists

I. INTRODUCTION

Under the influential impact of the evolution which American literary style had gone through by the 1930s, as well as the influences of a rich history of literary, intellectual, social, and political factors, Fitzgerald was compelled to employ a prose distinguished from the one he had used in his previous novels. Fitzgerald, who, by now, had gained the experience of concise writing in shorts stories he wrote for magazines according to his financial needs during the depression and also what he wrote for Hollywood studios, chose to apply a style of writing for his new novel which was deprived of the "elaborate and over lapping blankets of prose," as he defined it himself (Fitzgerald, 1964). The influences of a rich history of diverse factors are apparent in it. The present paper aims to analyze this novel as a historical literary master.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Fitzgerald for all time felt a steady pressure from both his spectators and the critics. Spectators asked him to write less sincerely and the critics regarded him as a not serious writer and treated his works with a certain doubt. Peter Quennell (1982) described *Tender is the Night* as "a rather exasperating type of chic". Only some critics and some of his very close friends considered his work as great and blamed him for not employing his talent where it merited.

So far, many essays and articles have been written on Fitzgerald and his work and so many critics and scholars have tried their hands most specifically on *Tender is the Night* to reflect its wonder. It engages high amazement that this work should remind so much and have its impact remain so fresh for such a long time. Fussell (1952) talks of its "hard boiled humor and regarding Fitzgerald's progressive style calls it "as gigantic a landmark as the Great Gatsby". Kennedy(1993) articulates his disdain for the frolicsome kind of reading of Fitzgerald's Tender which would equate "historical fact with fictional recreation". Stern (2001) calls *Tender is the Night* "not a great American historical novel," but rather "a great American novel about history, a chronicle of post- war loss of the kinds of identities associated with stable societies, social altruism, and personal responsibility. The story of Dick Diver is a microcosm of that history". Kazin (1967) emphasizes the theme of fathers. The bad European fathers are unmistakably identified with the American Warrens and the good ones enrich their land and future with "a legacy of magnificent knowledge and civilization". Callahan (1996) suggests we even draw an analogy between Dick's significance as a man in his life story and on a wider scale as "a paradigm of the larger content of the international theme of history".

Thus, Fitzgerald builds up dreams and illusions which fall short of the existing possibilities. He is bared to the stupor of the ideality he had such strong faith in. Crashed by this corruption in his real life, he gives life to the heroes of his stories to represent the disillusionment everyman has always been forced to experience through the ruins of his false vision.

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The foremost novel of Fitzgerald, *Tender is the Night* is the main texts to be examined in this paper. At first the researcher read the major printed and electronic resources that present the main issues related to the theme of disillusionment of American dream, and then a study biographical work on this literary master's life to get a clear picture of his background, his development as writer and his response to the age that he lived in.

The approach to this subject is eclectic, profiting from historical, social, and biographical approaches. A close reading of the mentioned texts will assist the revelation of Fitzgerald's process of disillusionment of *The American Dream*.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The magnificence of *Tender is the Night* and the rich content of its true entity were not recognized until the close of the twentieth century. Before that time, the book had always been superficially read as an insignificant story with a repetitive structure based on a shallow foundation. It was judged and criticized with a presupposition the critics and reviewers had developed surveying Fitzgerald's previous books. As a result, the book was contemplated contemptuously for a long time with no respect for the deep morally and intellectually substantial layers it bore.

While creating the characters of his fourth novel, especially Dick and Nicole, Fitzgerald was stimulated by some events which had occurred in his own life, the people he had met, such as Sara and Gerald Murphy, his wife, Zelda, her mental collapse, her affair with a naval officer, his own emotional conditions, his charm and later disillusionment by his early success, his ambitions and bewilderment, his alcohol addiction and it's inevitable consequences, and also his convincing social allure. According to Fitzgerald's description, none of these facts would confirm that Dick could be identified with the author, as the common supposition suggests (Fitzgerald, 1964). So many critics would certainly diminish the book's massive inherent riches and the sense of the author and the features he bred in his novel. Some reviewers, presents Dick as the man of 1920s throughout the incidence of the events within the book and of 1930s when most current readers read and reviewed it rapidly.

"Fitzgerald ornately defines his approach towards the protagonist of the novel who was unbreakable with "the heightened promises of life", and was to be broken by means of his own idealism and the deceptive, illusory world surrounding him which had aimed at his destruction" (Tate, 2007).

So far, there are still so many false suppositions made of the way Fitzgerald structures his heroes. Fitzgerald had to revise the story several times to come to a final version that might decrease the vagueness concerning the chief causes and the readers' misperceptions of Dick's character, the hero of the book. Then, when he changed the chronological order of the story, he managed to magnify the richness of the material of the book. Cowley(1976) states that "there was a hesitation whether the author had intended to write about a whole group of Americans on the Riviera— that is, to make the book a social study with a collective hero— or whether he had intended to write a psychological novel about the glory and decline of Richard Diver as a person". Plainly by starting with Diver as a young doctor in Zurich, Fitzgerald declared that the novel is psychological story about Dick Diver, and that its social meaning is gained by addition or synecdoche. The other characters are grouped around him in their subordinate roles. From beginning to end Dick is the center of the novel.

Rosemary section in the final edition seems to have conserved its old appeal, but is not as strengthened as the last episodes in which the hero's steady decline is portrayed vehemently. Yet, the first part reminds a different impression in the new revision. We meet the recurrence of the image of a forgotten era which was once discarded with antagonism, and then again, amidst an overwhelming period, sought for uneasily. The last chapters portray Dick not as "the organizer of private gaiety, curator of a richly incrusted happiness" (Fitzgerald, 1934). This is the story of the progressive collapse of the man, who has lost the control over himself. "Different causes could explain his failure first the principles of the social aristocracy and its potentiality for corruption. And then the transference of his vitality to his psychic wife who by absorbing the essence of his life not only survived but also fortified her person" (Dyson, 1990). We can also survey the causes by analyzing his childhood world. Perhaps his drawing on all his resources to let everyone profit his energy had caused his emotional bankruptcy and then his decline. "Whatever the reasons were, definitely we can never come to any decisive conclusion. Yet, we are almost sure that he was progressing through a steady fall and was gently sinking into absolute obscurity" (Kazin, 1967).

Several themes are set in the context of this story. Some are concerned with the devastation of moralities, the chaotic humane relationships, and the corruption of humane values; war as an eminent theme stressing moral chaos, loss and search for identity as an overall theme, Europe and America, past and present, and black and white are among the most recognizable ones. Some other critics have notified other themes too; wealth, the movies, acting, swimming, the New Woman, the fathers, sun and moon, heat and coolness, can be pointed out as the most prominent ones. Reading the story deeply will lead the readers to a broader understanding of the text. The dominant setting is the chaotic Western world of post-war. Thus, new bindings between the content of *Tender* and the Western history in relation to World War I will be discovered. What matters mostly, is the puzzling state of identity.

Dick started out his journey to get hold of a bright future incarnated with infinite ideals, promises, and prospect, distinguished as he was structured with a multi-layer individuality, naive yet complicated, deeply romantic but strongly self-disciplined, extremely excited and hopeful, though intentionally yielding to moralities, educated and experienced, and backed with the inheritance from his forefathers. He is the manifestation of the ideal young, hopeful American

proud of his father's ministerial background and of his ancestors who founded a new history. Kazin emphasizes the theme of fathers and draws our attention towards the duality Fitzgerald believes to be implanted in the legacy of both American and European fathers who are classified as good and bad.

Dick Diver's father, a sincere minister, always followed his slogan of service and politeness. He looked up to his father as a genuine image of the glorious America, equipped with the idealism he has relied on. He sacrifices his resourceful self to be the source of love, salvation and "the last hope of a decaying clan" (Prigozy, 2002) and he is disposed to redeem, to serve, to heal, to create love, and be useful. That's where his allure lies.

Soon Dick become aware of all probable disillusions he had to confront on his way to achieve maturity. Yet, with no faith left for him and the markedly different man he had turned into, he struggled dreadfully to peruse the core of the idealism he had lost everything for and remain brave and kind in reaction to the damaged new world.

Dick's collapse of his utmost qualities and his vital energy is resulted from the permeating corruption of his surrounding world and faith in his pre- war romantic idealism. Dick's surname, Diver, signifies his unending attempt to dive into the moral discipline and identity, creativity, education, and the principles he has to follow like his father and aunts, the qualities which are portrayed in his grand talents and skills in aquatic sports. On the contrary, the word could also be used as a means of depicting his descent, and steady dive into destruction, immorality, privacy, and finally absolute solitude. Fitzgerald indicates Dick's gradual degeneration by once describing him as "Lucky Dick," "the big stiff" (Fitzgerald, 1934), and later as a man who has gone hobble and has lost the ability to "rise on the aquaplane" (Fitzgerald). Relying on his vital, inspiring self, Dick features the symbol of the American redeemer of mankind, to sacrifice all his physical and mental superiorities to save the world and to be the best psychologist. He is the personification of the new world when still shining with the glories of pride and hope, bright ideas, promises, ambitious and idealistic expectations.

Fitzgerald's declares some informal details in this story and with this he aims to point out his fascination with the pre-war manners. Fitzgerald, as the demonstrator of 1920s and 1930s, mostly uses pre-war world background compounded of 19th century sensibilities as the settings of his novels. His characters, many images and attitudes he employs have also been under the influence of the pre-war hints. He desires to represent the values of manners, honor and courtesy of this sophisticated community despite its corrupt propensities. Thus, Dick implies a two – dimensional character to symbolize the young American in his era. Also playing the role of Doctor Richard Diver, he magnifies the ideology of his nineteenth century with its virtues and morality, the qualities obviously implanted in Fitzgerald's own person.

Tender is the Night is not actually believed to be a war novel, yet the best novel created in the lost generation, it focuses on the legacy of war with its firm appeal with the World War I as the book's convincing background. This setting is used to display both the pre-war and post–war worlds and their prominent disparities. Actually, Fitzgerald had never been able to free his mind from the preoccupation with war, what had brought devastating change about to all aspects of human life around the world. All Social, political, and cultural structures were deeply affected by war and its expected consequences. It had caused chaotic turbulences in the political systems of many countries as well. War, both had given rise to radical social and cultural disorders, and encouraged the cause of existential notions and motives in the society. The war ruined the old principles of the governmental and social structures in society and stressed dominance of the wealthy class.

Since it had caused a thoughtful sense of confusion, pessimism and disillusion as its outcome, the First World War in America was reflected in the form of a civil war between the loyal groups and the disenchanted post-war rebels. It raised chaos in principles of the nation and, destroyed the idealism of the Western man of the 18th and 19th and left him completely disappointed in his eternal quest for salvation. Fitzgerald, like Dick, sensed the tragedy of the end of their idealistic hope coming down to them from their good fathers. Yet, realizing its true nature and feeling in their lives, they disproved the dream and its promise as a fundamental, illusory essence to the impressive idea of America. Fitzgerald encompasses his insight of the effect of war on man's life and mind and the vast momentum it gave to the several changes in history and man's view. To Dick no devotion is left in the post-war man to inspire him to sacrifice his life for his morals. Dick grieves over the dead humanitarian and expected world of steady principles which was falsified from the old-fashioned idealism he had inherited as a historical legacy from his fathers: American faith; his lovely safe world, from the early days of 17th century to the immediate pre-war past losing which he never felt at ease again.

In search of a reasonable logic for his choice of war as the setting of his story Fitzgerald digs deep down into the history of the 17th and 18th centuries of Dick's ancestors' American context. There he finds a chain of wars all mingled each leading straight to the other. Thus, he moulds his international theme into the theme of war; the American Civil War adumbrates World War I and the 17th- century anarchy and violence and the American Indian wars are contemplated as an impetus to the Civil War. "Fitzgerald hints at Abe's drunken involvement with Swedish and American blacks in Paris as a war between hostile and friendly Indians" (Fitzgerald, 1934); Fitzgerald gets the opportunity to light up the connections he has continually referred to. Later to uphold exhaustive pattern of war as a basis for the mixture of the main idea, once more, he points that "Dick's career was biding its time, again like Grant's in Galena…" (Fitzgerald).

Thus, Fitzgerald concentrates on war as an influential pattern to viaducts the gap between past and present. We may also foresee Dicks collapse or, the decline of America's idealism, and its promises of a new world of willingness, through Abe North's decline. Furthermore, he creates national figures by making an association between Dick and Abe

and then relating the two to America. As a result, their personal histories could be disguised with national history since they both mirror America's heightened capacity for a romantic life. They also illustrate the dream, and the ideal new visions on which America was founded. The degeneration of the great Abe of the North to an Abe North is an appliance Fitzgerald employs to infer the obliteration of the ideal of the American context inherited from Lincoln.

There are many references to war in the novel among which there are two battle scenes for instance. Fitzgerald does not care for much sentimentality here. The corrupted world he had sacrificed his own world to and the principles he had valued to guide it to salvation, as well as the disturbing annoyance he felt after he realized the battle was not worth fighting. The only thing that helps him cope with the price he has paid to buy Nicole's freedom is the torment he feels for his false recognition from the beginning. His foolishness was falling in love with Nicole in the first place. Thus, he tries to overcome the feeling of hate for himself.

In the last scene Fitzgerald brings all the themes to a stable resolution. He truly hush-up conflicting motifs which start clash and war: past and present, the sexes, wealth and dependence, new irresponsible freedom and old disciplined responsibilities, critical egotism and old courtesies and honor, reliable morality, impetuous fulfillment and considerate self – discipline, the fathers, both American and European, who left a destruction of identity and culture. Before the World War I, both men and women have decided roles and identities on which they could rely. The fact is that war broke all systems of traditional thoughts, sentimentalism, and culture. Rosemary, the symbol of American virtue, achieves her sexual freedom and economic independence. Mary North gains riches, and position through a second marriage. In the uproar of a post- war chaos, Mary, the American woman, becomes even more a feudal subject to her man than she had ever been to Abe. As for American Nicole, from the long list of men, "none of whom she needs obey or ever love" (Fitzgerald, 1934), she chooses the wholly overmastering male. Fitzgerald chooses to show the disastrous post-war world by representing a group of ultramodern women with corrupt interests.

It is noticeable that Fitzgerald did not absolutely believe the feminist disturbances in the society. On the contrary, he expressed rebel impulses towards the shibboleths that had been determining and regulating the lives of the enormous number of the population before the war. However, he was not concerned with feminist movement and its and main beliefs. He was mostly after the symbolic role it could play to meet the supplies of the essential change. Fitzgerald was to observe the challenge to make a change in the anarchic economical social, political, and cultural orders. Fitzgerald makes the notion of freedom of all moral standards in the theme of the New Woman who was unconventional from the whole restrictive rules of the past. This, he skillfully nurtures as one of the major concerns of the novel and associates it with his other main points.

Fitzgerald argues that following the idea of the women's liberation from the pre-war identities and limiting standards in a recently constituted world of the post-war is intended to finish up in a succession of a childish immaturity. It may also be relevant to men's condition in the new, unstable world concerning their social status, identity and the new tendencies and features they acquire from the society. Women stripped off from the preceding traditions and are in a continual effort to follow men's motto which Fitzgerald questions its validity. In his novel, he observes that by the obliteration occurring to social institutions and values and with money as the dominating force to gain power and social stature, the only obtainable means for both men and women to make a new system of morals would be nature, selfish wishes, and personal perspectives. The idea could be pursued in the post- war aristocracy and the widespread capitalism of the era. Released from the restricted world of the past, by the war and its supplementary social and economic ramification, into an amorality which require no sense of responsibility, men and women practiced a sense of immature irresponsibility. Without his sense of responsibility he is deteriorated into the level of the supplies of power, money, or desire. Later Baby Warren follows her ancestor's example as a symbol of the fickleness of aristocracy. Baby, as an ideal, descendent of Warren inheritance, has always been in quest of a doctor to buy the responsibility of the Warrens to him to take care of Nicole and to reimburse for their short-comings. In his novel, Fitzgerald entails that the disdainful irresponsibility of the Warrens testifies to their unfounded identity. They really belong to nowhere, although everywhere is home for them. He observes that the breakdown of American culture is originated from the irresponsibility and hateful characteristics of Warren like inheritors of America whose popular culture is molded into immature sentimentality.

Rosemary's Daddy displayed "a father complex so obvious that Dick winced for all psychologists" (Fitzgerald, 1934). The movie and the role Rosemary played in it depicts Fitzgerald's attitude towards the respect the American social system pays to crooks like Nicole's and Baby's daddy who have spoiled American culture with their corrupt origin prosperity. Here, Fitzgerald blends all the most significant themes pervading the novel: war, Warren fathers and their inheritance and the New Woman. The novel includes a fine comparison between Devereux and his European complement Senor Pardo Ciudad Real to suggest the common international corruption. The luxurious Hotel des Trois Mondes, symbolically refers to both internationalism and the sexual demi-monde. Furthermore, it has turned into an international fact that the new children declare their freedom within the corrupt legacy their parents have left them. At the end of the novel, the victorious enduring ones along with the inheritors of this spiteful legacy are the homosexual, Royal Dumphrey, the Mckiscos), as well as Mrs. Abrams. On the contrary, the Diver fathers, those standing as the icons of "good instincts, respect, courtesy, and into social forgetfulness, all alone, Dick stands at his father's grave and hopelessly says goodbye to the huge cultural heritage which is doomed to obliteration: "Good-by, my father-good-by all my fathers." (Fitzgerald).

Later, Fitzgerald learns to discard the idea that the disturbance of the Romantic idealism and ambitions lies in the decline of the society in which the visionary resides. In other words, he delivers the idea to the reader that the super dream is responsible for its breakdown since it bears the heart of corruption in its very existence. It is a self-begotten, pained, and illusory image with no real referent outside the mind of the dreamer. In a totally unsentimental fade – out, Dick resigns to his loneliness in his final return to the awful emptiness of his "Sole self" in upstate New York- "almost certainly in that section of the country, in one town or another" (Fitzgerald, 1934). The hero leaves off the stage and we lose sight of him without getting a chance to express our compassion or regret for his dying fall.

V. CONCLUSION

In his fourth novel, *Tender is the Night*, Fitzgerald inserts his sensitiveness and his knowledge of the brutalities in civilized people's behavior while appreciating their shallow vitality which, in his last novel, is really affected and drawn away by undercurrent unhappiness. First of all the hero, preserves his dominance to all the other personae all through the novel. Thus, looking for the reasons of his collapse is significant. A variety of explanations are provided among which we can state his wife's enormous wealth. The book casts an intensely pessimistic outlook on the subject and relates Dick's doubts over his good fortunes and achievements in his bright magnificent days to its puritan roots. Scott Fitzgerald arranges the whole thing so that life would take the responsibility to do it for him. *Tender Is the Night* restates the indispensable theme and complicates it. Diver is the man with the inborn capacity for romantic speculate, temporarily a member of the American leisure class of the twenties. His intellectual and creative energies have been diverted from normal inspired channels and expended on the effort to avert, for a handful of the very rich, the American dream from revealing its frightening realities.

Dick is a product of his civilization and shares its characteristic dearth: the illusions of everlasting strength and health, and of the essential decorum of people; illusions of a nation, the lies of generations of American politicians, historians, publicists, fireside poets, and similar confidence-men, who had no such easy excuse. This intrinsic romantic has been further damaged, by the particular forms of sentimentality of his own generation.

The man is potentially noble, but with the fatal flaw of imagination conditioned by the superficial symbols and incentives of his culture that is brought against the conditions of enticement represented by Nicole, the granddaughter of a "self-made American capitalist", and of a German Count, and her family is placed in perspective by Fitzgerald's recurrent analogies with feudal aristocracy. Yet behind this frontage of glamour and power lies unnatural desire and parody.

Through Nicole, Fitzgerald conveys, all that is sexually and socially pleasing in youth and beauty. Only at the end of the novel she has aged. She is an empty child, representative of her social class, of the etiquette and morals of the 20es, and of the world of principles for which America, like Diver, was once more selling its soul. But it is mainly Nicole's appearance of everlasting youth that allows Fitzgerald to exploit her as a central element in the narrative correlative he is constructing for his vision of American life. Uncommonly he handles her in a way that goes beyond social criticism, entering, and the realm of religious apprehension. Diver, at the end of the novel, with full awareness of the oath, blesses the Riviera Beach before returning to the dimness of small-town America. He never neglected to keep it grounded in a precise social and economic world, and it is in this realm that most of his correspondences are established. Nicole is the typifying object of her class and society, particularly in the terms she proposes for the obliteration of her victim's moral and rational integrity. Basically some controlling lines of theme can be observed in this novel. The man of imagination is damaged by that American dream. On the historical level, the critique is of the error of American romanticism in attempting to exceed and thus escape historical responsibility. On the economic level, the critique is of the lethal beauty of American capitalism, its destructive appeal and irresponsibility. On the religious level, Fitzgerald intermittently insinuates the possibility that human kind are prone to muddle themselves with the obvious similarities between the city of man and the city of God, paying scant attention to their more radical disparity. Rosemary Hoyt brings from Hollywood to Europe the latest American version of the dream of youthful virtue and through her eyes, Fitzgerald gives us his first complicated glimpses of the Divers, and their hangers-on, at the Americanized Riviera. Because of Rosemary's sensitive but undisciplined insights, Fitzgerald can insist on the ironic tensions between the richest texture of social form and the hidden actuality of moral agony. Rosemary manifests the effects of Hollywood sentimentality on the powers of American insight and imagination. Immature and egotistic, she provides one more symbol of the corruption of imagination in American civilization; without resources for escape such as are available to Dick Diver.

Rosemary is for this novel the objectified image of Fitzgerald's new world. Only intermittently, Dick Diver escapes the limits of this frightening world and only as the delusion fades, he achieves a minimal salvation, a few devastated fragments of reality, including the secrecy of professional and social breakdown.

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Research on the Translation of Liquor Brands in Huaian City

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Abstract—**In this paper, combining with the British translation theorist, Peter Newmark, on the classification of text types, namely, the expressive text type, the informative text type and calling attention text type, the author puts forward the latter two kinds of text types are fit for the translation of liquor brands. In the process of translation of liquor brands, on the premise of adhering to the principles of commodity brand translation and *Cuisine Translation Principles*, we should also consider the local liquor culture characteristics. At the same time, we should adopt the legal requirements of developed countries to add warnings of excessive drinking is harmful and no drunk driving to liquor product logos.**

Index Terms—**Huai liquor, the principles of liquor brands translation, Chinese pinyin domestication translation strategy, warnings**

I. INTRODUCTION

Chinese liquor culture has a long history, its fame does not only come from its extensiveness, profoundness, vast territory and variety, but also from its unique fragrance, mysterious brewing process and production of liquor, which enjoys a good reputation both at home and abroad. In terms of the types, there are five main categories: liquor, rice wine, beer, fruit wine and mixed wine. If we classify liquor according to their different flavors, there are maotai-flavor, luzhou-flavor, light fragrant flavor, rice fragrant flavor, phoenix fragrant flavor, sesame fragrant flavor , fermented bean fragrant flavor and special fragrant flavor, altogether 8 categories (Gao, 2002). Huaian City, the capital of the Grand Canal, is famous for its production of liquor, whose liquor production can date back to western Han Dynasty, and became famous in Tang Dynasty .But the persons who made Huai liquor very famous all over old China were two emperors, namely, Emperor Yangdi Sui and Emperor Qianlong. One legend says when Emperor Yangdi Sui was en route to Yangzhou to appreciate garden flowers, he tasted Shuanggou liquor,one of famous brand liquors in Huaian, leaving such autograph, which says "If you want to appreciate the beautiful scenes, come to Yangzhou City. If you want to drink best liquor, drink Shuanggou liquor" (P.99). Emperor Qianlong in Qing Dynasty loved Yanghe liquor (another famous liquor in Huaian City) very much , not only did he name it as one of royal liquors , but also inscribed his autograph "Yanghe liquor is fragrant in flavor ,it is really good liquor" (P.101). It is said that Emperor Qianlong used Yanghe liquor as the liquor to keep healthy, he drank 50-100ml Yanghe liquor every day, which contributed greatly to his longevity of eighty-nine years old. Among more than two hundred emperors in the past dynasties in China, he enjoyed the longest life. In the modern and contemporary international and domestic liquor and wine fairs, Huai liquors have won gold and silver medals many times.

II. PRINCIPLES TO TRANSLATE BRANDS OF LIQUOR AND WINE

As for brands of imported liquor and wine, they should still adopt their original English brands. As for domestic liquor and wine, they should adopt their registered English names. If the liquor or wine doesn't have registered English names, they should use Chinese pinyin (Foreign Affairs Office of Beijing Municipal Government, Office of Citizens in Beijing Speaking Foreign Languages Organization Committee, 2011).

III. THE TRANSLATION PRINCIPLES ABOVE ARE TOO GENERAL, SIMPLE, IT CAN'T SATISFY THE NEEDS TO PROMOTE CHINESE LIQUORS AND WINES TO THE WORLD MARKET

The British translation theorist Peter Newmark put forward in his book *The Exploration of Translation Issues that* different texts have cognitive meaning, communication meaning and associative meaning, which can be divided into expressive function, informative function and calling attention function according to their different functions .In terms of different texts, there are "expressive texts", "informative texts" and "calling attention texts" altogether three categories. "Expressive texts" include literature works, personal letters, autobiographies and prose, etc. Its core function is to express feelings." Informative texts" include non-literary works, textbooks, academic papers and articles on newspaper and magazines etc. "Calling attention texts" include product manuals, notices, instructions, publicity, advertisements, etc (NewMark, 2002). As we know, "informative texts" and "calling attention texts" themselves possess functions to provide "information" and "calling attention", so providing information and exerting influence on the

audience is the main purpose of these two kinds of texts .It goes without saying that liquor brand translation belongs to the latter two, namely "the informative texts" and "calling attention texts". This is because liquor translation should not only provide accurate information of liquor to the target language receivers (including brand names, the types of liquor and wine, liquor fragrant flavor types, its compositions, liquor degrees, producing areas, excessive drinking hazard warning and qualified product logos, etc.), What is more important is that liquor translation possesses functions for the publicity of the liquor products, advertising, sales promotion, so the translation principles above can't meet the needs of the liquor and wine translation, which still needs to be supplemented further. My suggestions are as follows:

Liquor Brand Translation

Liquor brand translation is the key to successful promotion .This is because the brand is the "eye" of product, if the "eye" of product is "charming", "hooking consumers' soul", it can expect consumers to accept and buy the liquor products, to some extent, choice of words during liquor brand translation is the first consideration for the translators. Liquor brands are roughly classified into four categories: brands named after the original production areas; brands named after celebrities or noble families; brands named after brewing materials or processes; brands named after the traditional Chinese medicine and brands named after implications, expectations and blessings (Wan, 2000). The former two types can use Chinese pinyin + type of liquor or wine, while the latter two types can use free translation + liquor or wine types so that the target language receivers can understand the compositions of liquor or wine and the enterprises' wishes and expectations for their potential consumers.

A. Brands Named after Original Production Areas, Celebrities and Noble Families

This kind of liquor brand translation can use special nouns (Chinese pinyin: names of production areas and names of noble families) + nouns with common meaning (product properties), which is the basic principles of commodity translation. The reason why liquor-making enterprises use the production areas, names of celebrities and noble families is that they are sure these names are well- known at home and abroad, there is no barrier to the understanding of Chinese pinyin to international friends .The use of common nouns to translate these brands is to convey the information of the types of products and the use of them. If we also use Chinese pinyin for these common nouns, the information of product properties and their uses has not been conveyed to target language receivers. That is to say, the result of translation behavior is failure.

Translation of brands named after production areas:

茅台(Moutai); 泸州老窖(Lou Zhou Lao Jiao); 蒙古王(Mongolian King); 牛栏山经典二锅头(Niulanshan Classic Erguotou). 哈尔滨啤酒(Harbin Beer).

Translation of brands named after celebrities and noble families:

康雍乾御酒(Kang Yong Qian); 孔府家宴酒(Confucius); 西夏王冰白(Xixia King Ice Wine); 太白酒(Taibai Liquor); 文君酒(Wenjun Liquor).

According to the principles of translation above, although the liquor products above are domestic and even international famous brands, there are some problems for their brand translation. For example, brands named after the production areas: Maotai, LouZhou Lao Jiao, Mongolia King and Niulanshan Classic Erguotou are highlighted for their information transmission of production areas, but they haven't passed on the information of product properties and their uses to target language receivers. Only the translation of the brand Harbin Beer is correct. The problem in the translation of brands named after celebrities and noble families is that the former two has only conveyed the information of celebrities, lack of product properties and their uses .The latter three are correct.

The referential translation can be Moutai Liquor, Louzhou Liquor, Mongolian King Liquor, Niulanshan Classic Liquor, Kang Yong Qian Liquor and Confucius Liquor.

B. Translation of Brands Named after Materials and the Technologies of Liquor Brewing

In China , there are a lot of brands named after brewing materials, such as 五粮液(Wuliangye), 枸杞酒(Gouqi Wine), 白糯米酒(Glutinous Rice Wine), 黑糯米酒(Black Glutinous Rice Wine), 雅妍樱桃果露酒(Yayan Cherry Liquor), 雅妍苹果酒(Yayan Apple Wine), 雅妍草莓酒(Yayan Strawberry Wine), 张裕干红葡萄酒(Chang Yu Dry Red Wine).

The production of liquor in China is mainly divided into three stages： distilling stage , brewing stage and diluting stage , so some of the liquor companies name their liquor brands after their liquor-making technologies,for example ,古井大曲(Gujingdaqu), 泸州老窖头曲(Luzhoulaojiaotouqu), 郎牌特曲(Langpaitequ).

The problem of brand translation above is that brewing materials have adopted Chinese pinyin rather than translation from the names of materials. According to the principles of brand translation of commodity, production materials should adopt free translation (names of materials) + product properties. For example, the former two 五粮液(Wuliangye) fully adopts Chinese pinyin, the material of 枸杞酒(Gouqi Wine) uses Chinese pinyin, product properties uses free translation, which are against the principles of commodity brand translation. This will render the target language receivers to be at a loss by the information obtained, they will mistake wuliangye and gouqi for the names of persons or places, from which they will never know they are materials to make liquor. Among the latter several wine brand translation, only 雅妍樱桃果露酒(Yayan Cherry Liquor) has wrong choice of English words. In English, liquor refers to liquid produced by

boiling or fermenting a food substance, while wine refers to liquid made from grapes and other fruit(The Advanced Learner's Dictionary of Current English with Chinese Translation, 1963). Obviously, 雅妍樱桃果露酒 is wine, not liquor.

The referential translation can be 五粮液(Liquor From Five Grains), 枸杞酒(Chinese Wolfberry Wine) and 雅妍樱桃果露酒(Yayan Cherry Wine).

C. Medicinal Liquor and Health Liquor Named after the Traditional Chinese Medicine

There are many kinds of medicinal liquor and health liquor in China. More famous medicinal liquor and health liquor mainly include: 虎骨酒(Tiger Bone Liquor), 三蛇酒(Liquor Of Three Kinds of Snakes), 熊掌药酒(Bear Pawn Medicinal Liquor), 灵芝酒(Ganoderma Lucidum Liquor), 海马酒(Hippocampus Liquor), 雪蛤大补酒(Frog Tonic Liquor), 鹿尾巴补酒(Deer Tailed Tonic Liquor), 人参酒(Ginseng Liquor), 多鞭酒(Liquor Of Animals' Whips), 玉容葆春酒(Liquor To Keep Young And Energetic), 少林药酒(Shaolin Monk Medicinal Liquor), 参杞补酒(Tonic Liquor Of Ginseng And Chinese Wolfberry), 十全大补酒(Tonic Liquor Of Ten Chinese Medicine), 风湿骨痛酒(Liquor To Cure Rheumatism Bone Pain) and 养血愈风酒 (Liquor To Nourish Blood).

It is our translators' duty to translate these Chinese medicinal liquors that can keep healthy, prevent and cure diseases into English. As for medicinal liquor translation, the author thinks that the first important task for the translators is to provide accurate information of medicinal liquor and health liquor products (including name of the brand, Chinese traditional medicine, compositions, prevention or treatment of certain diseases, taboos and qualified product logos, etc.) As for the strategy of translation, we should adopt domestication translation strategy, it is because the function of medicinal liquor and health liquor is for the prevention and treatment of diseases, which is a matter of life and death, so the translation must convey accurate information to target language receivers, and Chinese pinyin is not acceptable at all. English translation must be accurate and idiomatic, which can not be misunderstood by target language receivers.

D. Translation of the Brands Named after Implications, Wishes and Blessings

In China, there are many liquor brands named after implications ,wishes and blessings .such as: 长寿长乐牌(with no Chinese pinyin and English translation), 红福牌(Hongfu), 丰收牌(Fengshou), 牡丹牌(with no Chinese pinyin and English translation), 双喜牌(Shuangxi), 天一牌(Tianyi), 万事如意牌(Wangshiruyi), 凤凰牌(Phoenix) and 劲牌(Jing Wine) etc.From the brands above ,there are only two brands,凤凰牌(Phoenix) and 劲牌(Jing Wine) having English translation and only 劲牌(Jing Wine)'s translation is correct, because 凤凰牌(Phoenix) has not provided information of product properties. As for the translation of these implications, wishes and blessings in the brands, we should also adopt domestication translation strategy(or free translation) to convey liquor enterprises' goodwill to their potential consumers.

The referential translations can be as follows: 长寿长乐牌(Longevity And Happiness Liquor); 红福牌(Happy Liquor); 丰收牌(Harvest Liquor); 牡丹牌(Peony Liquor); 双喜牌(Double Happiness Liquor); 天一牌(God Bestowed Liquor); 万事如意牌(All The Best Liquor); 凤凰牌(Phoenix Liquor) and 劲牌(Jing Wine) etc. Though "Double happiness" seems ridiculous to target language receivers, it has long been accepted in English because of sports equipment like table tennis bats. Whether the translation of 劲牌(Jing Wine) can be changed into Strength Liquor ,it is worth discussing , because everyone loves to be strong and vital .

IV. TRANSLATION OF BRANDS OF HUAI LIQUOR

A. The Origin of Huai Liquor and Its Development

More than twenty years ago,scientists of Chinese Academy of Sciences and Chinese Ancient Human Beings' Research Institute found the fossils of ancient apes about 15-12 million years ago in Xiacao Bay (one place in Xuyi County, Huaian City) along the downstream of the Huaihe River ,which they named "Shuanggou drunk apes and the earliest ancient ape fossils so far in China" (P.93). Is it true those apes got drunk by Shuanggou Liquor? The answer is definitely not. According to the scientists findings, those ancient apes were drunk by the fruit wine of the fallen fruits fermented in the cracks of stones. Then, when the hell did human beings begin to make liquor or wine? It is still a mystery.

Based on large amounts of archaeological discoveries, ancient people in Huaiyi (ancient name of Huaian City) had made liquor cups of clay around 6-7 thousand years ago, which means human beings had invented technology to make liquor or wine (Li, 2006). According to *Imperial Mandate On Liquor* "Humans put their left food in the holes near white mulberries, when it got fermented after some time, there would be fragrant smell emitting out of the holes, which they were called technology to make liquor." (P.4). From this inference, most experts think Huai Liquor was made in this technology.

As is mentioned above, Huai Liquor became very famous in Tang Dynasty, so many famous poets left their masterpieces on Huai Liquor. For example, in Shi Gao's *For Fan's Liquor Mill In Lianshui* (one county in Huaian City) "When liquor has just been made, fresh fish is being cooked in pot in the kitchen" (P.93), from which we may infer there were not only big liquor mills to make liquor, but also small liquor mills to make liquor only for the enjoyment of

family members. When Yingwu Wei, another Tang poet, was passing here, he smelled the fragrance of liquor, drank to his heart's content and left his famous poem "When liquor jars open, fragrant smell will spread all over the town for three days, which is ,though, turbid, yet it is the finest cream"(P.93). Another great master of Tang poems, Shi Su was on his way to the south, passing Huaiping Town of Sizhou (present Shuanggou Town, Sihong County) on the eve of Lunar New Year of the seventh year of Yuanfeng, describing the town as "From South Street to North Avenue, there are two liquor mills every three steps"(P.94), which reflects the prosperity of Huai Liquor industry. There are so many beautiful poems on Huai Liquor by great masters of each dynasty, I will not list them one by one here.

Huai Liquor has been developing very fast after the founding of People's Republic of China, especially after the Reform and Opening-up to the Outside World. During the 1980s, there were "san gou" and "yi he"(liquor production bases at that time), "namely, Shuanggou Liquor Production Base, TangGou Liquor Production Base, Gaogou Liquor Production Base and Yanghe Liquor Production Base), so far it has reached more than 20 brands, and each liquor group(the present name of the former liquor production base) has its own product series .

B.   Liquor Products and English Logos

1. Liquor Brands and English Logos of Shuanggou Liquor Group

Shuanggou Liquor Group is located in Shuanggou Town ,Sihong County, Jiangsu Province .Its brands are as follows : 花好月圆(Hua Hao Yue Yuan), 苏冠酒、天生赢家、贵宾酒及双沟酒系列酒. Among these liquor brands, only 花好月圆 has used both Chinese characters and Chinese pinyin (with no English logo), and other brands have only used Chinese characters with neither Chinese pinyin nor English logos.

The referential translations can be as follows: 花好月圆(Happy Marriage Liquor), 苏冠酒(Jiangsu Champion Liquor), 天生赢家(Winners Liquor), 贵宾酒(VIP Liquor) and 双沟酒系列酒(Shuanggou Liquor Series).

2. Brands and English Logos of TangGou Liquor Group

Tanggou Liquor Group is located in Guannan County, Jiangsu Province. Its brands are as follows: 两厢地和、两厢人和、两厢天和, which have only Chinese characters without Chinese pinyin and English logos.

The referential translation can be: 两厢地和(Liangxiang Environment Harmony Liquor); 两厢人和(Liangxiang Relation Harmony Liquor); 两厢天和(Liangxiang Timing Harmony Liquor).

3. Brands and English Logos of Gaogou Liquor Group

Gaogou Liquor Group is located in Lianshui County, Jiangsu Province. Its brands are as follows: 今世缘(King's Luck), 国缘(Guoyuan Liquor), 玉锦缘(Yujin Yuan Liquor) and 高沟系列白酒. The former three liquors have adopted both Chinese and English logos, but the latter one has only Chinese characters without English logo. The proper reason for it is that Gaogou Liquor Group may think 高沟系列白酒 are for the domestic consumers ,not for the international consumers. We may as well add its English logo as: Gaogou Liquor Series . As for the former three English logos, they are correct.

4. Brands and English Logos of Yanghe Liquor Group

Yanghe Liquor Group is located in Yanghe Town ,Siyang County ,Jiangsu Province .Its brands and English logos of Yanghe Liquor Group are: 洋河蓝色经典海之蓝(Yanghe Lan Se Jing Dian ;Spirit Yanghe Classic), 洋河蓝色经典天之蓝(Yanghe Lan Se Jing Dian; Spirit Yanghe Classic, and 洋河蓝色经典梦之蓝(Yanghe Lan Se Jing Dian; Spirit Yanghe Classic. Yanghe Liquor Group has adopted the same English logos for their three different brands of liquors, which are not acceptable, because they will confuse the consumers. The other problem is that they put spirit (product properties) before the special name of liquor group.

The referential translation can be 洋河蓝色经典海之蓝(Yanghe Classic Hailan Liquor); 洋河蓝色经典天之蓝 (Yanghe Classic Tianlan Liquor); 洋河蓝色经典梦之蓝(Yanghe Classic Menglan Liquor). In this way, we not only separate different kinds of liquors from one another, but also we have put the product properties (liquor) at the end of the English logos, which are required by commodity translation principles. The reason why I have not translated 海之蓝, 天之蓝, 梦之蓝 into sea blue ,sky blue and dream blue respectively is that people in the western world have different concept in thinking . Something may mean good in Chinese mind, but it may mean quite opposite in the west, because "blue" has another meaning "gloomy".

V.   ADD WARNINGS THAT EXCESSIVE DRINKING IS HARMFUL AND NO DRUNK DRIVING TO ENGLISH TRANSLATION

There are still no legal requirements that excessive drinking is harmful and no drunk driving on liquor product English logos in China. In the developed countries, it is required by the law to put this warning on liquor product logos, so we must have the following English logo on liquor product: Excessive Drinking Is Harmful. No Drunk Driving.

VI.   CONCLUSION

Huaian is the hometown of liquor and the capital of the Grand Canal, so it is quite necessary to give publicity of its famous liquors to the world market. During the process of translation of Huai liquor logos, we should strictly comply with the principles of commodity brand translation and those of *Cuisine Translation Principles,* combining with the

local liquor cultural features. At the same time, the translation should be in line with the British and American cultures so that they can accept Huai Liquor. Moreover, following the requirements of international liquor brand law, add English warnings that excessive drinking is harmful and no drunk driving signs to Huia Liquor logos.

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Realization of Ideology (Self and Other) in Subtitling: The Case of Argo

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Abstract—This CDA-based study investigated ideological orientations in *Argo* as a political movie and two Persian translated subtitles of it. A combination of four models comprising van Dijk's (2000) framework as the main one, van Dijk's (1997) model, van Dijk's model (2005) and Farahzad's (2007) model as the complementary ones was made. Intertextuality and the macro-level in Farahzad's model were adopted to make the other three models applicable to translation analysis. From forty two subcategories of micro discursive strategies proposed by van Dijk's (2000) framework, 22 of them and derogation from van Dijk's model (2005) were identified in the two translations. Simultaneously, the detected micro strategies were categorized based on negative- other presentation and positive self-presentation macro strategies proposed van Dijk's (2000) framework. In addition, it became clear which translation strategy from van Dijk's (1997) *addition*, *substitution*, or *deletion* had been employed. The findings confirmed that the ideological inclinations manifest themselves in the two translated political texts. Moreover, both translations work toward the negative-other presentation. Also, the most frequent strategies in both translations wereeuphemism and derogation respectively. The results revealed that in subtitle translations of Argo, the two translators not only followed the pattern proposed by Farahzad and van Dijk models, but also some complicated forms of translation strategies were also discovered.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, discursive strategy, ideology, subtitle, audio visual translation, Argo

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, translation scholars' attention has been attracted by politics and translation, ideology and translation. Translators rewrite, reshape, repackage and edit the message of the source text with the likely pattern of ideological inclinations for the consumption of the target audience. As people are interested in knowing about other countries and to keep them in touch with whatever happens in the world, they are in need of media including newspapers, TV or radio. One of the best ways of obtaining such knowledge is watching movies, related to the visual media. However, it should be taken into account that events and realities in movies are not usually (re)presented as they are in reality, but are represented in a way that the movie makers with different attitudes and ideologies intend to show. Thus, political movies can be regarded as being articulated from a particular ideological attitude. When these movies are sent to foreign-language speaking countries, they become subject to local modifications such as dubbing, subtitling, and dubbing as well as subtitling in other languages. As such, people need to bear in mind that translators are primarily social agents cultivating specific ideologies which may influence the way they translate or in other words manipulate a new context in such a way that they themselves intend to convey.

A careful study and comparison of different translations by different translators with different, and sometimes opposed, ideologies of a single text reveals big inconsistencies among them. Translators' choices which originate from preferred ideologies cause some of these differences between ST and TT in a way that can affect the overall representation of a given text. Translation is basically a language-based practice. Language is always ideologically and socio-culturally loaded, and translation seems to be affected by insertion of ideological inclinations. In fact, during the process of translation, some linguistic changes occur which may be ideologically motivated and surely influence the mind of the target audience.

It is quite possible that translators are not even conscious of the effect of ideological inclinations on translation. By considering the above-mentioned issues and the fact that the relationship between Iran and the U.S. has apparently not been very friendly, and this relationship has become one of the significant issues globally, in movies which are ideologically and socio-culturally loaded and are in harmony with the US politics, both the translators and the readers should be more conscious and cautious about opposed and communal or preferred ideologies which influence the text and the minds of target audience. This ideological manipulation indicates the importance of this study. The following questions are raised for this study:

Q1: Do the ideological inclinations in the movie of Argo manifest themselves in the Persian subtitles?

Q2: If the answer is positive, how?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. What Is Critical Discourse Analysis?

Critical Discourse Analysis is an interdisciplinary approach to the study of discourse, which views "language as a form of social practice" (Fairclough, 2001, p. 20). Investigating "the relationship between discourse and power" (van Dijk, 2001, p.363), CDA is a study that addresses social issues (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997). Van Dijk (2001, p. 352) writes "Critical discourse analysis (CDA) is a type of discourse analytical research that primarily studies the way social power abuse, dominance, and inequality are enacted, reproduced, and resisted by text and talk in the social and political context." CDA as an approach to language analysis tries to reveal political implications of text about issues of status. It is a standpoint which focuses on "relationship between discourse events and sociopolitical and cultural factors, especially the way discourse is ideologically influenced by, and can itself influence power relation in society"(Crystal, 2003, p.118). One of the main objectives of the CDA is to show the hidden part of discourse so its aim within translation studies is to uncover the implicit ideologies in translation discourse.

B. Farahzad: Translational CDA Model

Farahzad is the first Iranian scholar who suggested an innovative model for critical analysis of translation in Iran. Farahzad looks at translation from a quite new critical approach on the basis of CDA, Fairclough's (1995a, 1989) approaches the concept of intertexuality. Defining the concept of metatext as a text which is produced by using another text and protext as a text which serves as an object of intertextual community, she differentiates between them. Using intertextuality and CDA, Farahzad does not consider the translation-called metatext, an equivalent of the original text, called protext. According to Farahzad (2009), based on the concept of intertextulity in which "no text is the source of another", "no meta text is equivalent to its corresponding protext" (p.40). So Farahzad believes "the metatext is a continuation of the protext in an intertextual chain, not its equivalent" (p.42).In comparison of metatext and protext for finding out the ideological implications in translation, and to see "whether or not the meta text bears similar/different ideological implications" (2009, p.42), Farahzad adopts a two-level process of investigation under the titles of macro-level and micro-level both of which have subfields. It is clear that her model focuses more on macro-level rather than micro-level since Farahzad believes that translator's comments and presentation of reality, power relations, ideologies and implications are investigated at macro-level.

C. Ideology and Translation

The early hypothesis that expresses the relationships between ideology and language was based on Sapir and Worf's (1956) theory of "linguistic determinism". Introducing the theory of "linguistic relativity", they believe people achieve the social reality that is directed by their language. According to Marx and Engless (1970), ideology is "the production of ideas, of conception, of consciousness". In other words, all things that "men say, imagine, conceive" also "politics, laws, morality, religion, metaphysics, etc." (p.47). On the other hand, ideology refers to the way in which individuals, groups or institutions view the world. In his article entitled "Discourse, Ideology and Translation", Ian Mason proposes that ideology is a "set of beliefs and values which inform an individual's or institution's view of the world and assist their interpretation of events, facts, etc" (1994, p. 25). "Ideologies are the basic beliefs underlying the more specific social attitudes of groups"(van Dijk, 2009, p.81).

CDA analysts believe that translation, like all the other forms of language use, is ideological. Also, "it is always a site for ideological encounters" (Calzada-Perez, 2003, p.2). Román Alvarez & Carmen Africa Vidal point out that "behind every one of the translator's selections, as what to add, what to leave out, which words to choose and how to place them, there is a voluntary act that reveals his history and the socio-political milieu that surrounds him; in other words, his own culture and ideology" (1996, p.5). Therefore, the act of translation is not an innocent one since the translator is influenced by ideological inclinations, which causes him/her to 'manipulate' the source text by making some, deletion, additions and substitutions, and so on. According to Hatim and Mason (2004), 'The ideology of translation' is in fact the orientation chosen by translator related to the social and cultural context (pp.102-103). Also, analysis of target texts would yield fruitful insights for the finding of the implicit ideology and motivation on the part of the agents of the translational action and translation is to be considered within a context in which ideology can pretty well be exercised and negotiated by multiple agents.

III. Methodology

A. Source Material

The present study is a case study since it makes use of the movie Argo (and the two Persian translations/subtitles) as the source material to find appropriate and justified answers to the research questions. In line with the study's needs, Argo as a political movie is abundant in ideological representations. The movie itself is a biased narration of an important historical event; the case is intensified with two ideologically-driven translations by the two translators with opposing attitudes toward the event. The movie was originally produced in English, and also for the present study two Persian subtitles were also accessed and put side by side with the English original version. Therefore, the cuprous of the present study is unidirectional (English to Persian).The duration of the complete version of the movie *Argo* is 120 minutes long. However, from among all the sentences, 147 sentences were recognized as having ideological significance.

B. Theoretical Framework

Generally political translated texts are inconsistent with original ones. In order to classify these visible or invisible transformations or changes based on CDA, several models were studied, none of which seemed adequate individually. So in order to have a more comprehensive model a combination of four models comprising van Dijk's (2000) framework as the main one, van Dijk's (1997) model, van Dijk's model (2005) and Farahzad's (2007) model as the complementary ones which make an adequate model for the present study, was made.

C. Data Collection and Analysis

The unit of analysis included a maximum of sentence but it also included phrases and words. In fact the focus of study was the words and/or phrases which were added, omitted or substituted and contributed to the ideological orientations of the translators. However, since the words and phrases gain significance when they are contextualized, at least, the sentences containing those words or phrases were provided. After extracting the ideologically-loaded sentences and juxtaposing them with their two translations, the researcher analyzed the data based on a CDA approach to find ideological implications and manipulations found in the study. Each original sentence was compared carefully with its two translations to see 1) what micro strategy (from the framework) was employed 2) what macro strategy was intended and 3) through which translation strategy it was achieved. The number of occurrences for each micro and macro strategy and translation strategy for each translator was counted and they were all tabulated.

In the first part all the detected strategies in the two translations were categorized based on van Dijk's Micro Strategies. Simultaneously, the detected micro strategies were categorized based on negative other-presentation and positive self-presentation macro strategies to investigate whether the translator by using that micro strategy gives a negative or positive attitude towards the issue. At the same time the translation strategies (addition, deletion, and substitution) were recognized.

The current study was done through several steps in order to examine the data. Ideologically loaded words and phrases were analyzed by comparing them with their translated text and deciding which discursive strategy and overall strategy from van Dijk's (2000) Framework, and which translation strategy from van Dijk's (1997) (addition. substitution, deletion) by considering Farahzad's (2007) model has been applied rendering them. All data and the frequency statistics were presented in tables in order to count and show the number of frequencies and percentages of different strategies or each technique. The number of each applied strategy was counted to find the most frequent ones. Finally an attempt was made to explain the significance of this using CDA.

IV. Data Analysis

A. Classification of Macro-strategies

In this part Macro Strategies of van Dijk's (2000) framework along with their definitions are explained.

1. Negative other-representation (semantic macro-strategy)

It is an overall strategy which is usually accompanied with positive self-presentation. According to van Dijk's (2000) this strategy is realized by the use of derogatory terms and focusing on the Negative characteristics of the out-group members (p.78).

2. Positive self-presentation (semantic macro-strategy)

Van Dijk's (2000) believes this is an overall strategy used either for individual face keeping or for collective purposes focusing on the positive aspects of a group. This macro-strategy along with negative other-presentation are realized in ideological discourse by others forty strategies in this framework.

3. Classification of micro-strategies

In this part subfields of components of van Dijk's Micro-Strategies along with their defined and explained.

B. Meaning

1. Actor description (Act.Des)

According to van Dijk (2000), actors or society members may be described either positively or negatively as individuals or group members, by their actions or attitude, by their first name or family name, by their role or position, by their group name or relation to their people and so on.

Ex. They're over the walls.

دانشجویان مسلمان پیرو خط امام بالای دیوار ها هستند .

Descriptions are rarely neutral but rather they are ideologically-driven to serve the writer/translator's beliefs. In this case Sepehr, has substituted the underlined words trying to express a positive self-presentation. The word 'they' is described in a more positive way with a phrase which describes and highlights positive aspects of in-groups actors.

2. Empathy (Emp.)

It is showing sympathy or empathy with the in-groups. This strategy usually involves the translator's addition of extra words to the original to make their orientation clearer and also persuade their audience believe it.

Ex. the shah

شاه نگون بخت

In this sample Shahin has attempted to create a positive self-presentation by adding an adjective which does not exist in the original text.

3. Implication (Imp)

This refers to the recipients' inferring the implicit information by means of 'shared knowledge or attitudes as part of their mental models of the event or action represented in the discourse'. Explicit expression of some issues might be inconsistent with positive self-presentation or negative acts of Us so it is left implicit. In other words according to van Dijk (2000) implicitness is because of facekeeping or socio-political conditions.

Ex. Shah […] for more than 37 years, with <u>the United States' support</u> has killed months-old babies in the arms of their mothers.

براي مدت بيش از 37 سال بچه هاي چند ماهه را در آغوش مادرانشان به قتل رسانده

This sentence shows that the U.S is involved in helping Shah and importantly, its support is a lethal aid. It is not essential to explain details in discourse, so in this case by deleting a piece of information the second translator, benefits from implication strategy to keep face and move toward positive- self presentation.

4. National self-glorification Presupposition (N.S.G.)

'Positive references to or praise for her own country, its principles, history and traditions.' National self-glorification is the strategies for positive self-presentation.

Ex.This is the Persian empire

مثال 1.4.... این امپراتوري بزرگ ایران است.

The national self-glorification utilized has an additional nature and moves in the direction of positive self-presentation by using positive references towards the country.

5. Presupposition (Pre. Sup)

A type of semantic implication, presupposition is the 'knowledge assumed to be shared with recipients'. According to van Dijk (2000, p.82) presupposition 'by definition is true whether or not the current proposition is true or false.'

Ex. We're not in the CIA.

چجوري وانمود كنيم كه ما افرادCIA نیستیم.

In this sample Sepehr deliberately has added the underlined phrase. The phrase added by the translator tries to reveal the six American's real identity as he supposes. Using presupposition strategy, in fact the translator presupposes that they are members of CIA, and follows the strategy of negative other-presentation.

6. Situation description (Sit. Des)

Ex. The six of them went out a back exit.

توی اون شرایط گروگان گیریشش تا از کارمندای سفارت از در پشتي فرار كردن

In this sample a descriptive phrase is added to make the situation – Iranians attack to American embassy- clearer and therefore make Americans' action justifiable. So Shahin adds a phrase and moves toward the overall strategy of negative other-presentation.

7. Vagueness (Vag) (Meaning)

Using expressions that lack 'well- defined referents'. This strategy is used in order not to give enough information to the readers/listeners either as a positive self-presentation or a negative other-presentation. These expressions include quantifiers, adverbs, nouns, adjectives, etc.

Ex. This, by the way, is the <u>69th day</u> that the American hostages have been held in Tehran.

در حالي كه <u>چند روز</u> از ماندن آمریکایي ها در تهران ميگذرد.

In the above example, the number of days is not mentioned exactly, which is the sign of 'vagueness' strategy. Sepehr, makes use of vague expressions or unclear terms like the underlined words in the example instead of the original ones in order not to give enough information to the readers as a positive self-presentation overall strategy.

C. Argumentation

1. Illegality (Ill.)

A device by which Other**'s** actions are presented as illegal and out-group members are characterized as criminal as well as law-breaker. The result of employing illegality strategy is negative presentation of Them.

Ex. There are <u>no police</u>.

اینجاهیچ قانونی در کارنیست.

The illegality strategy is used here to show that the Other - Iranian people ─don't follow the law and are represented as law-breakers. In this sample by substituting the word 'هیچ قانونی'- no law- the second translator, i.e. Shahin, obviously gives a negative attitude about the Others which would be inserted to the mind of the readers.

2. Meaning/ Argumentation

2.1.Comparison (Com.) (Meaning/Argumentation)

Comparisons 'occur when speakers compare in-groups and out-groups' positively or negatively.

Ex. The people starved.

این شرایط در نظام شاهنشاهی در حالی بود كه مردم در فقرو گرسنگی به سر می برند

In this case by adding the underlined phrase Sepehr, employs comparison strategies and has derogated the image of Others - Shah's period.This addition mostly has a negative effect on readers' attitude toward the Shah's government and moves them toward the negative presentation of Other.

2.2. Evidentiality (Evi.)

Speakers' providing 'evidence or proof for their knowledge or opinions'. It is carried out by referring to authorities, weather individuals or organizations as well as by different forms of stating how one has obtained the information.

Ex. It says security at Khomeini's home now has been tightened.

شواهد نشان میدهد که مواظبت ها و مسائل امنیتی خانه خمینی بیشتر شده

It can be seen that by not translating the exact words of the original text, the second translator, i.e. Shahin, benefits from evidentiality to prove the credibility of Our claims. In this case the general strategy is positive-self presentation.

2.3.Explanation (Exp.)

'Social psychology uses the notion "Ultimate Attribution Error," according to which negative acts of in-group members tend to be explained (away), whereas the negative acts of out-group members tend to be explained in terms of inherent properties of such actors (e.g., because they are unreliable or criminal). The inverse is true in anti-racist talk …'

Ex. Dying of cancer, the shah was given asylum in the U.S.

شاه که به بهانه ی معالجه سرطان فرار کرد1 ،پناهنده آمریکا شد. که این توطئه جدیدی علیه انقلاب اسلامی بود

In this sample explanation strategy helps Sepehr to the elaborate the issue. By adding the underlined phrases in the translation, Sepehr uses the strategy to say the Otherare unreliable or criminal and to emphasize on the negative action of America and creates a bad attitude toward Them.

2.4. Generalization (Gen)

In generalization, 'concrete events or actions are generalized and possibly abstracted from, thus making the claim broader, while more generally applicable'.

Ex. Half of them think that Khomeini's been too lenient on the ones in the embassy.

تمامی ملت ایران این عقیده رو دارن که حضرت آیت الله امام خمینی با اونایی که تو سفارت هستن زیادی ملاطفت کرده

By using a substituted word the translator shows a positive face of Us. Sepehr, uses the standard expressions ' تمامی ملت ایران' -All nation of Iran- which has been replaced with the whole underlined part to broaden the issue which is a sign of generalization strategy.

2.5. Pseudo ignorance (Pseu. Ig)

While speakers may make pretense of not knowing some specific knowledge, they imply they do. This is especially true about disclaimers such as 'I don't know, but…'.This strategy is employed to depreciate out-groups.

Ex. Sir, if these people can read or add...

من نمیدونم اما اگر ایرانی ها بتونن بخونن و ریاضیات انجام بدن

It is completely clear that Shahin, by using pseudo ignorance strategy and the addition translation strategy feigns not to have knowledge about the issue, but implies that he knows about it. The translator claims about it implicitly but wanted to depreciate out-groups. Negative other-presentation is the overall strategy used here.

3. Rhetoric

3.1. Hyperbole (Hyp.)

'Hyperboles are semantic rhetorical devices for the enhancement of meaning' either forpositive self-presentation or negative other-representation.

Ex. I should've brought some books to read in prison.

بهتر بود کلی کتاب با خودم می آوردم تا آخر عمرم توی زندان میخوندمشون.

In pursuing negative other-presentation and by exaggerating the number of books and the period of imprisonment Shahin employs hyperbole strategy. In this sample the translation strategy of substitution is used to replace the underlined words which convey a kind of attitude that makes a negative image of Iran, so Shahin produces desired effects on the minds of readers.

3.2. Metaphor (Met.)

A thing used a symbol of another. It helps in making 'abstract, complex, unfamiliar, new or emotional meanings more familiar and more concrete'.

Ex. These fucks hit us, we can't hit them back?

اون عوضی های بربر 1ما رو مس سوسک2 زیر پاهاشون له میکنند3

Looking at the underlined phrase the sample reveals the metaphor strategy. In pursuing negative other-presentation the translator employs the metaphor strategy by using the underlined phrase and makes the sentence more familiar and concrete.

3.3. Repetition (Rep.)

This device 'plays a significant role in the overall strategy of emphasizing Our good things and Their bad things.' This can be literal or semantic repetition of a concept.

Ex. You don't wanna be the son of a bitch who started a war.

لازم نیست اون حرومزادهایي که جنگ رو شروع ميکنه شما باشید <u>تکرار ميکنم شلیک نکنید</u>

Through repetition strategy in the example mentioned above Shahin is emphasizing our good deeds or *Our* positive things. This sample of repetition strategies reveals that positive self-presentation strategy is employed here to portray action of American people positively.

4. Topos

4.1. History as lesson (His.)

Relating the present situation to 'earlier (positive or negative) events in history'. It acts like comparison.

Ex. We did suicide missions in the Army that had better odds than this.

<u>گذشته رو یادته؟</u>ما توي ارتش توي عملیاتهایي که شانس شون ازین بیشتر بود همه رو به کشتن دادیم

By employing this strategy Shahin adds a phrase.The situation is compared to negative events in history. This sample conveys a positive attitude toward the CIA member. Because it shows that they don't want to repeat their bad experience.

5. Political Strategy

5.1. Consensus (Con.)

This strategy is used to emphasize 'the in-group unification, cohesion and solidarity against Them'.

Ex. And we cannot really know what it is like <u>inside the prison that was once our</u> embassy.

.و ما <u>ملت آمریکا</u> واقعاً نمیتوانیم درک کنیم که آنها درون زندانی که زمانی سفارت ما بود چه حالی دارند

In this case by addition of underlined words Shahin moves toward the general strategy of positive-self presentation. Here there is a "consensus strategy" which indicates that CIA members advocate American people and protect the civilians by displaying unity and solidarity of the nations against Them.

5.2.Populism (Pop.) (Ppolitical Strategy)

A strategy contrasting 'the people' with 'the elites' and favoring the former over the latter in sociopolitical changes. It is a strategy to indicate that "everybody", supports what the speakers/writers are mentioning against Others.

Ex. The people working here are not diplomats.

<u>همه میدانند</u> کسانی که آنجا کار میکنند دیپلمات و مردان سیاسینیستند

In pursuing the overall strategy of *their* negative action Sepehr employs populism strategy and adds the underlined word to claim that people or everybody advocates the argumentation against the out-group members.

6. Rhetoric/ Meaning

6.1. Euphemism (Eup.)

A semantic move of mitigation, works 'within the broader framework of the strategy of positive self- representation, and especially its correlate, the avoidance of negative impression formation'. By mitigating our bad actions and emphasizing our self-positive presentation it is categorized in the broader framework of the strategy of positive presentation of Us.

Ex. The exiled cleric, <u>Ayatollah</u> Khomeini, returned to <u>rule</u> Iran.

روحاني تبعید شده <u>حضرت آیت الله</u> امام خمیني بازگشت تا ایران را <u>رهبری کند.</u>

By looking at the first sample it can be seen that the translation strategies are addition and substitution and positive self-presentation is the general strategy utilized. Sepehr modifies the neutral effect of the word 'to rule' by employing a substituted word '<u>رهبری کند</u>'

6.2. Derogation

Showing a critical or disrespectful attitude towards Others. This strategy as the reverse one to euphemism moves in the direction of negative other-presentation in a way that gives 'too much' information about Others' bad beliefs and deeds or 'too little' information about Their good ideas and deeds.

Ex. the U.S. and Great Britain engineered a coup d'etat

آمریکا و بریتانیای کبیربا <u>پیش گرفتن حیله های شیطانی1،</u> کودتایي <u>علیه مردم ایران2</u>طراحي کردند

In this sample derogation has been achieved through addition .In this case the Other are represented as a threat , and Sepehr by adding the underlined phrases try to indicate America's aggressive manner toward Iran.

7. Meaning/Lexicon

7.1. Distancing (Dis.) (Meaning/Lexicon)

One of the ways US-THEM polarization may be expressed in talk is by words that imply distance between in-group speakers refer to out-group speakers. This familiar socio-cognitive device may, for instance, be expressed by the use of demonstrative pronouns instead of naming or describing the Others.'

Ex. ...<u>Carter and his administration</u> shameful to talk about human rights

<u>آنها</u> باید از سخن گفتن درباره حقّوق انسانی، شرم کنند.

The pronoun 'آنها' - They- in the sample is indicative of distancing strategy. Using demonstrative pronoun instead of naming or describing Others indicates the division between in-groups and out-groups. Distancing strategy has been achieved through substitution. The result is negative presentation of Them/Other.

8. Norm Expression

In pursuing prejudice, discrimination or anti-immigration policies this strategy is expressed by terms like explicit norm-statement such as what "we" should or should not to do.

Ex. We need some security.

ما باید در سفارت امنیت داشته باشیم.

Shahin uses this strategy to emphasize that diplomat staffs in their embassy must have some security and implies that the Iranian don't pay attention to their rights. In pursuing negative other-presentation the translator employs norm expression by adding the underlined phrase.

D. Data Analysis/ Descriptive Analysis and Results

1. Sepehr's Translation

Table 4.1. Frequency and Percentage of Each Discursive Strategy and the Frequency and Percentage of Each Translation Strategy in Sepehr's Translation.

	Discursive strategy in Sepehr's translation	Frequency /No.	Percentage/ %	Add	Percentage	Del	Percentage	Sub	Percentage	P.S.P	N.O.P.
1	Actor description	18	12.09	11	16.93	0	0	7	9.59	4	14
2	Comparison	2	1.35	2	3.08	0	0	0	0	1	1
3	Consensus	1	0.675	0	0	0	0	1	1.37	1	0
4	Derogation	24	16.11	14	21.54	0	0	10	13.7	0	24
5	Distancing	3	2.02	0	0	0	0	3	4.12	0	3
6	Euphemism	46	30.9	9	13.85	2	18.18	35	47.95	46	0
7	Evidentiality	3	2.02	2	3.08	0	0	1	1.37	0	3
8	Explanation	10	6.72	7	10.77	0	0	3	4.12	0	10
9	Generalization	3	2.02	1	1.54	0	0	2	2.72	1	2
10	Hyperbole	2	1.35	1	1.54	0	0	1	1.37	1	1
11	Implication	7	4.7	0	0	7	63.63	0	0	6	1
12	Norm	1	0.675	0	0	0	0	1	1.37	0	1
13	National self-glorification	2	1.35	2	3.08	0	0	0	0	2	0
14	Populism	5	3.36	3	4.62	0	0	2	2.72	0	5
15	Presupposition	10	6.72	6	9.24	1	9.1	3	4.12	0	10
16	Pseudo ignorance	2	1.35	1	1.54	0	0	1	1.37	0	2
17	Repetition	1	0.675	1	1.54	0	0	0	0	0	1
18	Situation description	5	3.36	5	7.7	0	0	0	0	3	2
19	Vagueness	4	2.69	0	0	1	9.1	3	4.12	4	0
	Total	149	100%	65	100%	11	100%	73	100%	69	80

21 out of 23 strategies in van Dijk's (2000) frame work were detected in Sepehr's translation. As shown in the table from among the 149 cases of the application of different discursive strategies, the strategy of euphemism with a frequency of 46 and percentages of 30.9 % is the most frequent discursive strategy which is used in Sepehr's translation. The most frequent translation strategy of the discursive strategy of euphemism is substitution with the frequency of 35 and percentages of 47.95 %. As it is visible in table 4.1.the second major strategy is derogating with a frequency of 24 comprising 16.11% in which addition is the most frequent translation strategy with the frequency of 14 and percentages of 21.54 %. By looking at the final row it can be see that in Sepehr'stranslation the most frequent translation strategy is substitution with a frequency of 73 while deletion with a frequency of 11 is the least frequent utilized translation strategies

The table below is representative of the frequency of each employed strategy; also it is indicative of whether each strategy has an ideological trend of Positive- Self Presentation and Negative other-presentation. On the other hand by using each discursive strategy of van Dijk's (2000) frame work and derogation from van Dijk's model (2005) translator gives a negative or positive view toward the issues. Therefore table 4.2.has the advantage of showing the most frequent macro strategy. The last two columns displays that the discursive strategies which are employed by the translator in Sepehr's translation move toward the overall strategy of negative other-presentation with a frequency of 80 in comparison to positive-self presentation frequency of 69, indicating the anger of the first translators toward America which are inserted in this translation. On the other hand Sepehr gives a negative other-presentation picture of Other, and emphasizes negative aspect of American activities. The translator also tries to justify Iranian invade to American Embassy. As it was expected, and as the table demonstrates all cases of derogation represents negative other-presentation so that the translator employs them to show negative view toward American activities. While all the detected occurrences of euphemism strategy moves in direction of positive- self presentation.

2. Second translation

The data written in the table 4.3. was obtained through employing the same statistical measurement which was used in table 4.1. table 4.3. Similar to table 4.1., it presents frequencies and the percentages of among the detected discursive strategies of van Dijk's (2000) frame work and derogation from van Dijk's model (2005) at the same time their utilized

translation strategies, but according to table 21 out of 23 discursive strategies were realized to be used in Shahin's translation, in fact no instance was detected in national self-glorification and presupposition strategies.

Table 4.2. Frequency and Percentage of Each Discursive Strategy and the Frequency and Percentage of Each Utilized Translation Strategies in Shahin's Translation.

	Discursive strategy in Shahin's translation.	Frequency	Percentage	Add	Percentage	Del	Percentage	Sub	Percentage	P.S.P	N.O.P.
1	Actor description	5	4.9	4	6.55	0	0	1	3.57	3	2
2	Comparison	1	0.99	1	1.64	0	0	0	0	1	0
3	Consensus	2	1.96	2	3.28	0	0	0	0	2	0
4	Derogation	17	16.66	14	22.95	0	0	3	10.72	0	17
5	Distancing	3	2.94	3	4.92	0	0	0	0	0	3
6	Empathy	12	11.77	9	14.75	0	0	3	10.72	11	1
7	Euphemism	16	15.69	3	4.92	5	38.47	8	28.57	16	0
8	Evidentiality	2	1.96	1	1.64	0	0	1	3.57	2	0
9	Explanation	3	2.94	2	3.28	0	0	1	3.57	0	3
10	Generalization	3	2.94	2	3.28	0	0	1	3.57	1	2
11	History as lesson	1	0.99	1	1.64	0	0	0	0	1	0
12	Hyperbole	6	5.87	0	0	0	0	6	21.42	0	6
13	Illegality	2	1.96	1	1.64	0	0	1	3.57	0	2
14	Implication	8	7.85	0	0	8	61.53	0	0	3	5
15	Metaphor	2	1.96	2	3.28	0	0	0	0	1	1
16	Norm	4	3.92	3	4.92	0	0	1	3.57	3	1
17	Populism	2	1.96	2	3.28	0	0	0	0	0	2
18	Pseudo ignorance	1	0.99	1	1.64	0	0	0	0	0	1
19	Repetition	1	0.99	1	1.64	0	0	0	0	1	0
20	Situation description	9	8.81	9	14.75	0	0	0	0	3	6
21	Vagueness	2	1.96	0	0	0	0	2	7.14	1	1
	Total	102	100%	61	100%	13	100%	28	100%	49	53

As it is visible in Table 4.2, the strategy of derogation with a frequency of 17 and percentages of 16.66 % is the most frequent discursive strategy which is used in Shahin's translation. The most frequent employed translation strategy of the strategy of derogation is addition translation strategy comprising 14. Looking at the table reveals that the most frequent discursive strategies after derogation is euphemism with a frequency of 16 and the percentages of 15.69 in which substitution is the most frequent utilized translation strategies. According to the table, the most percentages of the strategies in Shahin's translation employed addition translation strategy with a frequency of 61 and percentages of 100% while similar to table 4.2. Deletion of words with a frequency of 13 and percentages of 100% is the least frequent utilized translation strategies. Most of the discursive strategies which are used in Shahin's translation move toward the overall strategy of negative other-presentation with a frequency of 53 in comparison to positive- self presentation with frequency of 49, indicating the translator emphasizes on the negative acts of out-group members.

3. Comparison of Findings of Translations

Euphemism with a frequency of 62 has the highest frequency. After euphemism, derogation with a frequency of 41 is the second most frequent discursive strategies which employed by translators. By comparison, out of 23 strategies in van Dijk's (2000) frame work were realized to be used in Sepehr's translation, while 21 out of 23 strategies were detected in Sepehr's translations. The employed discursive strategies by Sepehr with a frequency of 149 is much more than the utilized discursive strategies by Shahin with a frequency of 102 out of 251. The strategy of euphemism with a frequency of 43 and percentages of 30.9 % is the most frequent discursive strategy which is used in Sepehr's translation. While the strategy of derogation with a frequency of 16 and percentages of 16.66 % is the most frequent discursive strategy which is used in Shahin's translation. All the detected strategies are analyzed and categorized under two semantic macro-strategies.

53.69% of the discursive strategies which are discovered in Sepehr's translation work toward the negative other-presentation meaning that it emphasizes bad deed of Others. Also 51.97%of the discursive strategies which are discovered in Shahin's translation are categorized under 51.97% macro-strategy, so the dominant macro-strategy is negative other-presentation in two translations. 251 occurrences of the micro Strategies were detected in the two translations.

V. CONCLUSIONS

The results indicated that both translators employ various discursive strategies to manifest different ideologies. The two translators from different societies with different ideological background tried to represent the same issue based on their own interest. This may have happened consciously or sub-consciously. In addition, the findings of the present research revealed that the most frequent strategies in both translations are euphemism and derogation respectively. Looking from a critical discourse analysis point of view we can see the reason behind the high frequencies of euphemism and derogation strategies. Us-Them polarization is the central notion of van Dijk's (2000) framework, i.e. manifest positive things about Us and negative things about Other. On the other hand, usually ideologies have a

polarized nature .As it was expected, and as the findings demonstrate all cases of derogation represent negative other-presentation, so that the translators employ them to show their negative views toward Other. While all the detected occurrences of euphemism strategy move in direction of positive self-presentation. Euphemism helps the translators to represent Self activities in a positive way. Categorizing semantic micro discursive strategies under a broad category of semantic macro discursive strategy of positive self-representation and negative other-representation reveal that Sepehr's and Shain's translations both work toward the negative other-presentation meaning that they emphasize bad deeds of Others, so the dominant macro-strategy is negative other-presentation in two translations.

The same discursive strategies are employed to convey different ideologies either in favor of Self or in favor of Other. However, there are some commonalities in discursive strategies employed in both translations. For instance, as it was mentioned implicitly in the definition of this strategy and as it was expected, by investigating the detected occurrences of implication strategy in both translations it becomes clear that the only translation strategy is deletion. What is common among the two translations is that the translator tries to transmit as much of the ideological inclinations as possible to the translated texts. This is the dominant stereotype in translating political text so translators have tried to follow it. This is the main purpose of political text ─to represent the issue in favor of their purpose. According to Kress (2003, p. 1) "The world told is a different world to the world shown", then readers should become conscious of the underlying ideologies embodied obliquely through translated texts and which must be uncovered.

Choosing a political film for this study relevantly refers to media power like a vast sea in which movie is one of the ways in its manifestation. It is clear that the media are becoming progressively more global. Movie or film as one of their production can count among media power. This debate is completed by looking at van Dijk's perspective (2000, p. 2) which is "media power is generally symbolic and persuasive, in the sense that the media primarily have the potential to control to some extent the minds of readers or viewers, but not directly their actions". Finally according to Lemake (2006) "As a medium, video or film can accommodate images (as still frames), language, music, and many other modalities in addition to its own unique modality" (p.11).

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The Application of Communication Strategies by Students with Different Levels of Communication Apprehension in EFL Context

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Abstract—**The purpose of this study is to examine different kinds of communication strategies employed by students with different levels of communication apprehension in Iranian EFL context. It also investigates which communication strategies are the most and the least frequent ones used by students with high and low levels of communication apprehension. The research participants watched a short visual story and then retold what they found out. The participants employed thirteen communicative strategies which were ranged from the most to the least frequent for both groups of EFL learners. In terms of the type and the frequency of communication strategies, the outcomes of research revealed that EFL learners with high level of communication apprehension employed a larger number of communicative strategies than EFL learners with low level of communication apprehension.**

Index Terms—**EFL context, anxiety, language learning anxiety, communication apprehension, communication strategies**

I. INTRODUCTION

Different language skills and components in second language learning might be the source of anxiety which create a blockage in language learning processing (Tanveer, 2007). The same as second language learning, in foreign language learning learners might experience different sorts of anxiety. It is believed that oral production in EFL context is to high extent the most severe skill which causes foreign language learners to be anxious. Producing language orally in front of a group of learners and teacher sounds difficult and creates anxiety.

Due to limited amount of exposure in EFL context, the learners find out that the most anxiety producing factor is oral performance. It has been observed that in English as a foreign language context, most learners come across very big problems in oral production. In this respect, Horwitz (1996) claimed that language anxiety refers to feeling of fear, worrisome and stress which foreign language learners experience when they are dealt with various linguistic aspects including performing active and passive skills. He believed that many foreign language learners find language learning context stressful, particularly if they have to perform something using foreign language. Fear of making errors and mistakes and having a tendency to compensate the probable mistakes cause the learners to give up some parts of their oral performance at the expense of employing language learning strategies. Ellis (2005) stated that having difficulties in oral production is to high extent the most widespread problem that almost every foreign language speaker experiences during the process of language learning. Comparing different language skills namely writing, listening, speaking and reading; it sounds that speaking is the most anxiety creating skill for EFL learners.

Language anxiety causes several problems in the process of language learning. It blocks the process of language learning in a way that language learners cannot succeed in achieving different linguistic skills or components of second or foreign language. Language anxiety is classified into different kinds among which communication apprehension is one of the most important ones which impedes second or foreign language learners in performing oral communication. The studies done in this domain indicated that second or foreign language learners experience fear or concern when they tend to speak in front of a group of audience. In order to facilitate oral performance, second or foreign language learners employ different sorts of communication strategies. In this regard, Dorneyei (2007) believed that "the use of communication strategies help second or foreign language learners to get rid of communication apprehension and facilitate the message delivery and meaning convey in performing oral communication" (p. 47).

Daly (2002) proposed that the employment of communication strategies in ESL or EFL context varies from one person to another. The outcomes of several studies in this area revealed that language learners with high level of communication apprehension had a great tendency to use more communication strategies in comparison with those with low level of communication apprehension. As a result, the present study firstly attempts to find out if foreign language learners with high level of communication apprehension employ more communication strategies than learners with low level of communication apprehension; secondly it analyzes what are the most frequent communication strategies used

by both EFL learners with high and low level of communication apprehension; and finally it attempts to find out whether there are any similarities in the frequency and sort of communication strategies used by both groups.

This study tries to examine whether foreign language learners with high level of communication apprehension use great number of communication strategies. It also investigates which communication strategies are more frequently employed by foreign language learners. Regarding Horwitz (2001) and Dorneyei (2007), foreign language learners with high degree of communication apprehension have a great tendency to employ a large number of communication strategies in comparison with the foreign language learners with low degree of communication apprehension. Thus, the main goal of the current study is to explore which group of foreign language learners uses higher number of communicative strategies. In addition, Horwitz (2001) believes that certain numbers of communicative strategies are the most frequent communicative strategies employed by learners with high and low levels of communication apprehension.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The fulfilled researches concerning the use of communication strategies have mostly been conducted in the context of "English as a Second Language", and there are not many studies conducted in EFL context (Horwitz, 2001). Hence, the present study attempts to investigate the use of communication strategies by foreign language learners with high and low level of communication apprehension in Iranian context as an EFL context. The former studies (Schmidt 2008; Dewis, 2009) have mostly studied the sort of communication strategies and there are few studies dealing with the frequency of the use of different sorts of communication strategies used by EFL learners with high and low level of communication strategies. Consequently, the current study investigates both factors (sort and frequency) for learners with different levels of apprehension. It is hoped that the finding can be beneficial to syllabus designers and EFL teachers to introduce and teach tasks and materials which are in harmony with learners' levels of communication apprehension. The research consequences can also help EFL teachers become aware of the sort and frequency of communication strategies employed by learners with high and low level of communication apprehension, so that they would recognize their students' levels of apprehension and help them learn which strategies to use in their oral performance.

Many language learners experience some problems in second or foreign language learning contexts because of the stressful situation and feeling of concern and fear. The anxious learner cannot express the meaning he or she is supposed to convey. According to Horwitz (1995) language anxiety is "the feeling of nervousness, worry or uneasiness felt by language learners, particularly second or foreign language learners" (p. 49).

McCrosky (1999) proposed a measure in order to find out the degree of communication apprehension that a language learner experiences in oral performance. The measure was known as "PRCA" which contained twenty four statements related to communication apprehension. Language learners with high communication apprehension are those who get high score in Personal Report of Communication Apprehension. Language learners with high communication apprehension tend to employ communication strategies in order to solve the difficulties in oral communication.

The major significance of research into foreign/second language anxiety is in the relationship between anxiety and performance in the foreign language. A large number of studies have found that this anxiety is negatively related to language performance. MacIntyre and Gardner (1989) stated that even with large number of variations in research methodologies there is a clear relationship between foreign language anxiety and foreign language proficiency in communicative situations. To cut it short, communication apprehension as one of the sorts of anxiety makes learners employ communication strategies in order to solve their communication difficulties. In the following part, the definition of communication strategies, classification of communication strategies and teach-ability of communication strategies as well as studies conducted in this area will be reported.

Definition and classification of Communication Strategy

Communicative strategy as an important instrument to help ESL or EFL learners to get rid of possible difficulties in oral production has been defined by several scholars. In this regard, Corder (2007) stated that "communication strategy is a systematic technique used by a speaker to express his or her meaning when faced with some problems in language performance" (p. 56). In the same way, Dornyei (2002) believed communication strategies helped learners to have confidence and keep on using the target language in oral interaction.

From the psychological perspective, Færch and Kasper (1983) defined communicative strategy as "potential conscious plan for solving what a language learner assumes as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal" (p. 36). They also explained similar data in terms of an individual's mental response to a problem rather than as a joint response by two people. According to their definition, in general, there are two possible strategies for solving communication problems, namely reduction strategies and achievement strategies. These two strategies had fifteen communicative strategies as their own sub parts. However, Dornyei (2002) proposed fifteen communicative strategies which were widely accepted by most scholars. In this respect, Dornyei's (2002) classification of communicative strategies included: code switching, hesitation, using fillers, word coinage, all purpose words, literal translation, topic avoidance, circumlocution and approximation. Horwitz (1995) listing fourteen communicative strategies as the main strategies employed by ESL learners believed that some students are trapped in a stressful situation when they are speaking in their target language particularly if they are addressing a big or small group of audience. That fearful reaction is intensified if they know that they are evaluated by an outsider or an instructor. Students are worried about

having to communicate in front of a group of audience and they feel highly nervous when they don't understand every part of the target language input presented in the language they're trying to learn.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

The research design of the current study is qualitative. The studies connected to the use of communication strategies by foreign language learners with variant degrees of communication apprehension in foreign language contexts are limited. As it was mentioned in the previous part, the researcher could not find sufficient and verified data in this area to propose research hypothesis. As a result, the researcher proposed three research questions as the foundation of the current study. In the absence of research hypothesis, research question as one of the main properties of qualitative research shapes the base of present study. As Gasps (2010) stated "qualitative research design deals with looking in depth at data in non-numerical form and is especially strong in describing and exploring the phenomena and generating tentative explanations" (p. 56). In the following part, research questions, research participants and instruments will be taken into account.

B. Research Questions

The research questions are as follows:

1. What are different types of Communication Strategies employed by foreign language learners with high level of Communication Apprehension in oral performance?

2. What are different types of Communication Strategies employed by foreign language learners with Low level of Communication Apprehension in oral performance?

3. To what extent are the type and the frequency of the Communicative Strategies used by foreign language learners with high and low levels of communication apprehension consistent with each other?

C. Research Participants and Context

The research participants included thirty EFL learners whose levels of proficiency were pre-intermediate or intermediate. They were learning English as a foreign language in a non-state and non-profit language institute. They had studied English at least for ten semesters at the time of conducting this research task. PRCA- 24 (Personal Report of Communication Apprehension) was employed for dividing subjects into high and low level of communication apprehension. PRCA-24 includes twenty four statements connected to learners' states of fear and nervousness in different contexts. With respect to their responses of given statements in PRCA-24, two groups were selected as research participants each including 15 male/female subjects. With respect to PRCA-24 criterion, they were classified to "EFL learners with high and low levels of communication apprehension" and "EFL learners with low level of communication apprehension" groups.

All research participants were originally from the city of Zanjan and their age range varied from 17 to 21. Although gender was not considered as a variable affecting the research outcomes, the researcher selected the participants from both genders. In terms of the number of languages spoken, all participants were trilingual, i.e., they were able to speak Azeri as their mother tongue, Farsi as their country's official language and medium of educational system and English as a foreign language learned at English institutes.

The audience covered a group of EFL learners from different levels of English proficiency who were informed to attend a context in which they were assumed to play the role of real members of a group listening to a speaker. They were almost twenty learners from the same institutes and were requested to listen to the participants who were retelling a short visual story.

D. Research Instruments

The present study collected data through a background information questionnaire as well as the Personal Report of Communication Apprehension-24 (PRCA-24) designed by Horwitz (2001) which included 24 statements about language learners' level of anxiety or communication apprehension (See appendix A and B). The background information questionnaire included name, age, gender and level of proficiency. It also included a question related to this fact that if they had consciously used any communicative strategies like the use of avoidance of topics, asking for help and also the message abandonments.

PRCA-24 comprised twenty four statements related to learners' state of fear and nervousness in different contexts. "The Criterion of classifying ESL of EFL learners into high, moderate or low level of communication apprehension is a standard criterion which has been piloted for several times with well-known scholars in different settings with different ESL or EFL learners in different socio-cultural contexts" (McCroskey, 2003) According to Horwitz (2001) the participants' scores should range between contexts. She also believes that (2001) the participants' scores should range between games and chatting with her friends in the internet. The notion of "her parents thought she was deeply busy studying while she was doing everything except studying for final exams" was the research instrument that subjects were supposed to retell to a group of unknown audience including twenty male and female language learners who had the permission to help the subject if he or she faced any difficulties in oral performance of retelling the visual short

story. The researcher recorded the voice of the participants who were retelling a visual short story and also the voice of the audience who helped the speakers in some situations to use possible communication strategies.

E. Data Collection Procedure

In order to collect the data, the researcher encountered some problems because initially the institutes did not agree to let this project be conducted at their institutes. But with face to face negotiation and providing some adequate information for keeping all the procedure secure, some agreed with the plan. Finally, the researcher persuaded 2 institutes and guaranteed that every aspect of research related to institutes will be perfectly confidential. Moreover, both institutes asked the researcher to confirm that institutes related aspects of research will be in their access.

Since the approach taken for the current research is qualitative, the researcher tried to have the most natural context for research conduct. For this purpose a created classroom situation which looked like a real situation was made. To create the ultimate naturalness, the researcher provided a classroom in which the audience members were not known to the speaker and the speaker was assumed to address the audience and get the help whenever they were in need of finding a communication strategy to follow the retelling. The procedure of data analysis began with transcription of recorded voices which lasted almost thirty minutes. Through an exact analysis of transcribed data, the researcher tried to collect the communication strategies employed by learners during their retelling. In addition to finding the sorts of communication strategies, the researcher identified the frequency of each communication strategy used by both high and low level of communication apprehension.

The transcription process of collected data and finding various sorts of communication strategies used by the participants and ultimately categorizing them into sorts of communication strategies were quite challenging and time consuming. Descriptive statistics was used in order to analyze the collected data. The number of communication strategies and frequency of the employment of communication strategies were calculated for each participant.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

In both data analysis and discussion three research questions are considered together. Considering the total number and type of communication strategies, twelve types of communication strategies were employed by foreign language learners with high level of communication apprehension. The twelve communication strategies are as follows: literal translation, nonverbal means, code switching, repetition, message abandonment, topic avoidance, approximation, using wrong words, appeal for help, self-correction, using fillers and circumlocution. Coining new words or structure and foreignizing and using all purpose words were not found in speech of foreign language learners with high level of communication apprehension.

TABLE 1
COMMUNICATIVE STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH HIGH LEVEL OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

EFL Learners	MA	TA	C	A	UW	UN	LT	CS	AH	UF	SC	R
1	-	3	4	8	1	5	-	1	10	6	3	13
2	1	2	3	7	6	4	1	2	5	4	4	9
3	4	5	8	11	-	-	2	3	7	8	3	12
4	1	2	5	10	5	1	1	5	7	10	4	9
5	1	5	6	10	3	4	-	-	4	4	4	11
6	-	3	4	5	-	5	2	4	8	5	2	9
7	4	4	5	8	2	4	1	3	4	5	5	12
8	1	3	6	7	3	2	-	4	3	7	8	10
9	-	4	6	10	3	-	2	5	4	4	10	8
10	1	5	5	9	3	3	-	2	6	6	2	8
11	1	1	4	11	5	5	2	8	7	10	7	10
12	-	5	6	9	5	1	-	4	5	12	12	9
13	2	-	5	11	-	1	1	-	9	3	2	10
14	-	5	7	8	4	3	-	5	6	7	5	13
15	1	4	6	9	1	1	-	3	12	7	10	12
Percentage	1.99	5.97	9.37	15.59	4.80	4.57	1.40	5.74	11.37	11.48	9.49	18.17
Frequency	17	51	80	133	41	39	12	49	97	98	81	155

Table 1 shows the type of communication strategies used by learners with high level of communication apprehension. The data analysis indicated that repetition was the most frequent strategy with the total number of 155 and with the percentage of 18.17% and so on.

The analysis of the data gathered for foreign language learners with low level of communication apprehension indicated that thirteen communicative strategies were employed by them. These items included: using fillers, using of nonlinguistic devices, message abandonment, literal translation, code switching, self-correction, topic/concept avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, repetition, using all purpose words, appealing for help and using wrong terms. Learners with low level of communication apprehension did not use two communicative strategies. The surprising fact is that coining new words and foreignizing were common communicative strategies which were not employed by both groups.

TABLE 2
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES EMPLOYED BY ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS WITH LOW LEVEL OF COMMUNICATION APPREHENSION

EFL Learners	MA	TA	C	A	Up	UW	UN	LT	CS	AH	UF	SC	R
1	2	1	-	6	4	1	3	2	-	3	6	3	6
2	-	3	1	5	1	-	2	-	3	-	8	6	3
3	4	5	2	3	-	2	5	1	-	1	4	2	5
4	-	-	2	4	-	-	2	-	3	-	6	4	4
5	-	1	6	3	2	4	-	-	2	1	7	4	3
6	1	-	2	6	-	-	3	-	-	1	5	5	5
7	-	2	2	4	-	5	2	-	-	4	8	2	7
8	4	-	-	1	-	3	1	2	4	-	7	5	5
9	-	3	1	3	1	1	-	-	-	-	8	1	4
10	-	-	-	3	-	2	3	1	-	-	6	3	2
11	-	-	2	5	1	-	2	-	4	-	4	4	6
12	-	1	-	2	-	1	1	1	-	-	3	4	2
13	-	3	-	6	-	2	4	2	4	1	7	1	6
14	-	-	1	4	-	9	-	-	-	-	8	1	6
15	-	1	1	5	1	3	2	1	-	-	3	3	3
Percentage	2.55	4.65	4.65	13.95	2.32	7.67	6.97	2.32	4.65	2.55	20.93	11.16	15.58
Frequency	11	20	20	60	10	33	30	10	20	11	90	48	67

The statistics also show that the most frequent communicative strategy used by foreign language learners with low level of communicative apprehension was using fillers. The total number of using fillers was 90 and its percentage was 20.93.

V. CONCLUSION

The results of the present study proved the existence of high levels of language anxiety in most of the learners. In addition, the researcher witnessed that foreign language learners with high level of communication apprehension used more frequent number of communicative strategies than the foreign language learners with low level of communication apprehension. The researcher also discovered that the foreign language learners with high level of communication strategies were altogether employing 12 kinds of communicative strategies. On the other hand, the communicative strategies employed by foreign language learners with low level of communication apprehension were 13.

In contrast to foreign language learners with high level of communication who did not use three communicative strategies, learners with low level of communication apprehension did not use two communicative strategies. The surprising fact is that coining new words and foreignizing were common communicative strategies which were not employed by both groups, while using all purpose words were used by learners with low level but it was not used by learners with high level of communication apprehension.

Regardless of the level of anxiety and communication apprehension, almost all research participants acknowledged that they have some degree of anxiety and nervousness while they were speaking foreign language in front of others. The fact is that the type and frequency of the use of communicative strategies are in consistency with the level of communication apprehension. Also, the outcomes of this study revealed that the number of communicative strategies employed by learners with high level of communication apprehension was larger than that of the speakers with low level of communication apprehension. Hence, the researcher concluded that the findings of the current research were consistent with the outcomes of the studies conducted by Horwitz (2001) and Dornyei (1995). To sum up, the results presented that the type and frequency of communicative strategies for speakers with high level of communication apprehension was larger than the speakers with low level of communication apprehension and regardless of the type and frequency, the total number of strategies employed by speakers with high communication apprehension exceeded the speakers with low communication apprehension; this outcome showed that the speakers with high level of communication apprehension were concerned and afraid of making mistakes in front of a group of audience.

The current study will have several benefits in the pedagogical domain for both language teachers and curriculum and textbook designers. Furthermore, teachers can be aware of the most frequent communicative strategies and try to make their students become familiar with them and they can also teach communication strategies which are beneficial for students in performing any specific oral task. The results might help those in charge of curriculum development and task designation, since they will have enough information of the communicative strategies used frequently by students in EFL context and introduce tasks and materials which are consistent with learners' level of proficiency and communication apprehension.

Finally, the research findings can help the language teachers to be more aware of the communicative strategies used by foreign language learners in created classroom contexts. Considering Ellis (2004) teachers' awareness of the communicative strategies used by both groups of learners will guide them design and adapt materials that are more favorable to foreign language learning context. Awareness of communicative strategies will surely help teachers reconsider their teaching methods and come up with more influential methods and approaches in teaching English as a foreign language and do their best to lessen the degree of communication apprehension in their students.

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A Cognitive Approach to Ellipsis[*]

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Abstract—The study of syntactic ellipsis represented by generative linguistics has been dominant since 1950s. Comparatively, the cognitive study of ellipsis is fewer and starts later than it. The paper poses challenges and raises questions toward the traditional syntactical ellipsis study, and comes up with its cognitive view of ellipsis. With the development of cognitive sciences, the cognitive study of ellipsis will flourish in the future.

Index Terms—ellipsis, cognitive linguistics, cognitive view, generative linguistics, generative view

I. INTRODUCTION

Ellipsis is a common phenomenon in natural language which has been concerned by domestic and foreign linguistic circle (Ross, 1967; Sag, 1976; Dalrymple et al., 1991; Hardt, 1993; Lobeck, 1995; Merchant, 2001; Lobke, 2010; Chung, 2013; Phillips, 2013). From the data in Table 1, we can see that the syntactical study of ellipsis is dominant among the core journals articles of ellipsis in CSSCI and SSCI data base, there are 120 theses about syntactic ellipsis from the total 253 articles. Comparatively, the ellipsis study from other perspectives is fewer than the syntactical study, for example, there are only 22 articles about the cognitive study of ellipsis.

TABLE 1
DATA OF THE CORE JOURNALS ARTICLES ABOUT ELLIPSIS STUDY

source \ perspective	review	syntax	semantics	pragmatics	discourse	phonology	translation	cognition	total
CSSCI	13	68	0	7	8	2	7	6	111
SSCI	38	52	2	18	15	1	0	16	142
total	51	**120**	2	25	23	3	7	22	**253**

To a large extent, the study of linguistic phenomenon reflects the development trend of linguistics and represents the basic assumptions and guiding ideology of main schools of linguistics, the study of ellipsis phenomenon in this paper is a typical example. The ellipsis study also reflects the total development trend of linguistics: (1) The generative linguistics represented by Chomsky has played a leading role in the development of linguistics since 1950s, therefore, syntactic ellipsis study represented by generative linguistics is dominant in all document literature about ellipsis. (2)The cognitive linguistics begins to show its vigor since the 21st century, compared with syntactic ellipsis study, the cognitive ellipsis study is fewer and starts later than it, therefore, the ellipsis study from a cognitive approach has a broad research prospect and development space.

As we know, generative linguistics and cognitive linguistics are two main current schools of modern linguistics. Some scholars say that cognitive linguistics is the second "cognition revolutionary" toward generative linguistics because their basic assumptions and guiding ideology are opposite to each other. The divergence between generative linguistics and cognitive linguistics is summarized as follows:

(1) Autonomy of syntax thesis vs. symbolic thesis in grammar: According to autonomy of syntax thesis in generative linguistics, grammar is an autonomous system and grammatical rules aren't influenced by other factors except grammatical system such as semantics, pragmatics etc, in other words, grammar can be separated from semantics which reflects the modularity thesis of generative linguistics. On the contrary, cognitive linguistics objects to modularity thesis and assumes that grammar is not an autonomous system, grammar is symbolic and grammatical structures are just another kind of meaningful symbolic unit which is unified by two poles of phonology and semantics. Lakoff (1991) gave a great deal of evidence to prove that pure syntactic rules don't exist, and pointed out that all problems can be solved and explained at a semantic level if we can abandon autonomy of syntax.

(2) Language innatism thesis vs. language usage-based thesis: This divergence reflects different understanding toward the sources of language knowledge between generative linguistics and cognitive linguistics. Generative linguistics assumes that grammar is highly abstract principles and rules which are embedded in language faculty, so grammar or language knowledge is innate, that is language innatism thesis of generative linguistics. Comparatively, cognitive linguistics holds to usage-based thesis and assumes that language knowledge comes from language use, categories and structures in semantics, syntax, morphology and phonology are built up from our cognition of specific

utterances on specific occasions of use (Croft & Cruse, 2004, p.3).

The article first introduces the divergence between generative linguistics and cognitive linguistics which provides a background knowledge for the following study. In section 2, the article reviews the study of ellipsis guided by generative linguistics. In section 3, the article questions the generative view of ellipsis and puts forward the cognitive view of ellipsis which is the main achievement of this paper. In section 4, the article introduces the current cognitive study of ellipsis and provides a new research thought for ellipsis in the future. Finally, the article comes to the conclusion and summarizes the content of the paper.

II.   REVIEW OF ELLIPSIS STUDY IN GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS

Since Ross (1967), many linguists discussed two core puzzles about ellipsis: the first question is what kind of identity relationship between the elliptical part and other syntactical structure it is, the second question is whether the syntactical structure of elliptical part exists or not, if exists, what kind of syntactical structure it is (Chung,2013). The scholars in generative linguistics gave different answers about the above two questions and studied ellipsis from various routes which was summarized by Phillips(2013) as Figure 1:
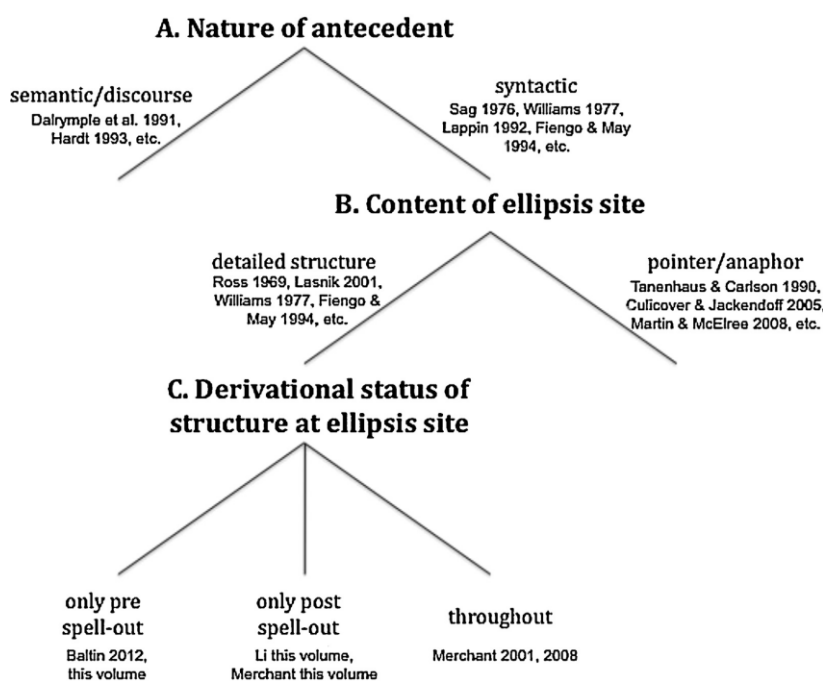

Figure 1. Various routes about ellipsis study in generative linguistics

According to various routes in figure 1, we summarize the main viewpoints of ellipsis in generative linguistics as follow:

Firstly, ellipsis is anaphoric in nature, as it depends on an antecedent in the context for recovery of meaning (Phillips, 2013).

Secondly, the relationship between the ellipsis and its antecedent is subject to a parallelism requirement and shows a formal identity including syntactic identity and semantic identity. The identity relationship can be defined by syntactic structure or semantic representations.

Thirdly, the scholars from the syntactic account hold that the relationship between the ellipsis and its antecedent is syntactic identity because the information of the elided site can be recovered from the syntactic representations of antecedent (Sag, 1976; Fiengo & May, 1994). The reason of the syntactic route is: if the ellipsis and its antecedent are not matched in syntactic structure, the sentence can't be accepted by people. Sag also pointed out that the identity of syntactic structure can't be limited to formal identity, for instance, "entered" and "enter" should be regarded as identity in example (1):

(1) Bob entered the competition and Paul may <u>enter the competition</u>, too. (syntactic identity)

Fourthly, the scholars from the semantic account hold that the relationship between the ellipsis and its antecedent is semantic identity. As for the situation of syntactic mismatch between the ellipsis and its antecedent, however, the sentence can be also accepted by people, the relationship between the ellipsis and its antecedent should be regarded as semantic identity (Dalrymple et al., 1991; Hardt, 1993). For instance, the passive voice and active voice is regarded as syntactic mismatch in example (2), it shouldn't belong to syntactic ellipsis but semantic ellipsis (Hartman, 2011):

(2) This problem was to have been looked into, but obviously nobody did <u>look into this problem</u>. (semantic identity)

Fifthly, as for the content of the ellipsis site, the decision tree continues to be divided into two routes: detailed structure / null copy account and pointer / anaphor account, these two routes stand for two distinguished positions. The

debate between two positions is about whether or not there is unpronounced syntactic structure at the ellipsis site. The null copy account assumes that the ellipsis site hosts a detailed structural representation of the antecedent. Comparatively, the pointer account assumes that the ellipsis site does not include a copy of the antecedent.

Sixthly, the main points of the pointer account can be described as follow: there is no additional unpronounced syntactic structure at the ellipsis site, the recovery and understanding of elliptical content depends on context. Syntax should be matched with phonology, that is, what you see is what you get, therefore, there in no additional unpronounced syntactic structure, no deleted elements and no null forms(Culicover & Jackendoff, 2005). Especially, Culicover & Jackendoff (2005) also put forward bare argument ellipsis and provided evidences for the ellipsis without syntactic structure, for example:

(3) A: When is Robin coming?
  B: ɸ *On Tuesday*.

Seventhly, the null copy account can be divided into three routes according to the derivational status of ellipsis: only pre spell-out, only post spell-out and throughout. All three routes assume that the ellipsis site has unpronounced internal structure. Based on the transformational account of syntax, syntactic structures consist of two representations: phonological form (PF) representation and logical form (LF) representation (Chomsky, 1995). As for the "only pre spell-out" route, or PF deletion route, it assumes that structure is present at the ellipsis from the beginning of the syntactic derivation, but that this structure undergoes deletion at some point prior to the pronunciation of the sentence (Merchant,2001). As for the "only post spell-out", or LF copy route, it assumes that the ellipsis site initially lacks internal structure, and that structure is inserted via a structure copying operation at LF (Fiengo and May, 1994; Chung et al., 1995). As for the "throughout" route, it assumes that the syntactic structure in the ellipsis site is present throughout the syntactic derivation, and is only marked for non-pronunciation at the phonological level (Ross, 1969; Sag, 1976; Merchant, 2001).

(4) Someone was singing La Marseillaise, but I don't know who ɸ. (PF deletion route)
(5) Christina read every book Hilary did ɸ. (LF copy route)

The ellipsis study from various routes in generative linguistics is all involved in two themes: the licensing of ellipsis and the identification of ellipsis, both of them are the constraints of ellipsis. The former focuses on the syntactic environments to permit the appearance of ellipsis, the latter focuses on the recoverability of ellipsis from contexts.

III. QUESTIONS ABOUT THE ELLIPSIS STUDY OF GENERATIVE LINGUISTICS FROM THE COGNITIVE APPROACH

A. Is the Ellipsis Site a Syntactical Unit?

The ellipsis is defined as "mismatching between phonology and semantics" by the school of generative linguistics (Lobke, 2010, p.1). They claim that ellipsis is a syntactic unit in nature with meaning but without overt phonological form. In other words, it means that phonology, semantics and syntax can be separated from each other, which reflects the modularity thesis and the guiding principle of "autonomy of syntax" in generative linguistics.

The generative view of ellipsis is contrary to the symbolic thesis in cognitive grammar. The autonomy of syntax thesis is the serious divergence and debate between generative linguistics and cognitive linguistics because autonomy of syntax makes it impossible to realize the symbolic relationship of grammar (Langacker, 1991, p.533). Langacker pointed out that grammar is symbolic in nature, a symbolic unit is the basic unit and the research object of grammar (Langacker, 1987, p.11). A symbolic unit can be defined as "matching between phonological structure and semantic structure" (Langacker, 1987, p.77), which is shown as figure 2:
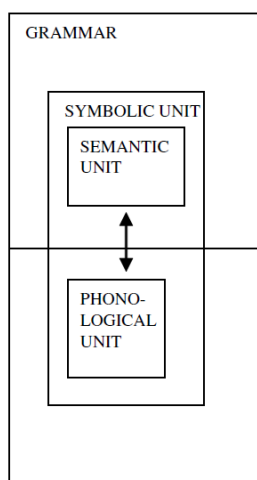

Figure 2. The symbolic unit

According to Langacker's viewpoints, a grammatical unit is a symbolic unit which is "matching between phonology and semantics", a grammatical unit is unified by a phonological unit and semantic unit. Grammar is similar to a coin

with two sides of phonology and semantics, therefore, grammar, phonology and semantics can't be separated from each other. Since ellipsis is a phenomenon of "mismatching between phonology and semantics", it is impossible to be a symbolic unit, in other words, ellipsis is not a legal grammatical unit or syntactical unit. As mentioned above, Culicover & Jackendoff (2005, p.88) also provided evidence in their "*Simpler Syntax*" for ellipsis, they claimed that there is no additional unpronounced syntactic structure, that is, there is no syntactical units in elided site. Therefore, the study of constraints of ellipsis by grammatical rules is meaningless.

Ellipsis can't be generated by grammatical rules, the appearance and use of ellipsis is a pragmatic phenomenon. Chomsky distinguished language knowledge and language competence and paid more attention to the former—universal grammar, language use is not a concern for him. Comparatively, cognitive grammar holds that grammar is usage-based and language knowledge comes from language use, therefore, grammatical rules are not innate. The formative factors of ellipsis are complicated including pragmatic, cognitive, psychological, social and cultural factors etc.

B. Does the Meaning of Ellipsis Only Come from Its Antecedent?

The generative view of ellipsis claims that ellipsis is anaphoric in nature and the recovery of its meaning depends on its antecedent in the context. The cognitive view of ellipsis denies the syntactic structure in elided site, the meaning of ellipsis doesn't only come from syntactic elements including its antecedent. The meaning of elided site is closely related to the meaning of other overt parts in a sentence, to some extent, the meaning of ellipsis is the meaning of a sentence. In the understanding process of ellipsis, it doesn't mean that we first acquire the meaning of elided sites and then acquire the meaning of sentences, however, it is a synchronous process, that is, we acquire both of meanings at the same time, the understanding of sentences means the realization of understanding of ellipsis.

When we start to study the meaning of ellipsis from the meaning of the whole sentence instead of the recoverability of ellipsis, it is simpler to answer the question where the meaning of ellipsis comes from. As for the question where the meaning of a sentence comes from, cognitive linguistics gives us an answer that semantic structure endows the meaning of a linguistic expression including a word or a sentence. What is a semantic structure? a semantic structure is equal to a conceptual structure (Evans & Green,2006). The meaning of a linguistic unit is the conceptual structure which has a conventional relationship with this linguistic unit (Geiger & Rudzka-ostyn, 1993, p.1). Conceptual structure exists in our mind and it is a stable knowledge system of objective world (Li Fuyin, 2008, p.77).

There are two sources of semantic structure: a part of it comes from the conventional meaning of a linguistic expression in a dictionary or linguistic knowledge; the other part of it comes from the encyclopedic knowledge we know about the world (Li Fuyin, 2008, p.79). Cognitive semantics holds to the encyclopaedic view of meaning which is distinguished from the dictionary view of formal linguistics. The function of words is to provide a mental path for us to guide us to find the knowledge domain related to this linguistic expression, in other words, lexical items are points of access to encyclopaedic knowledge (Evans, 2006, p.215). Based on the above viewpoints of cognitive semantics, we can know that the meaning of ellipsis comes from both the conventional meaning of overt linguistic expressions and the knowledge domains related to them including linguistic knowledge, context knowledge, situational knowledge and other encyclopedic knowledge etc. Therefore, the meaning of ellipsis doesn't only come from its antecedent which only plays a pointing role and provides a mental path for us to acquire encyclopedic meaning of ellipsis in the understanding of ellipsis.

C. Is the Recovery of Elided Site Equal to the Understanding of Ellipsis?

The recoverability of ellipsis is one of two study themes of ellipsis in generative linguistics, the recovery of elided site means the understanding of ellipsis. So far, generative linguistics hasn't provided powerful proof to verify the mental reality of recovering process or filling process of ellipsis in our mind. Does the understanding of ellipsis appear after the recovery of elided site? Can the recovery of ellipsis guarantee the understanding of ellipsis? It is a question. The recoverability of ellipsis doesn't mean the real recovery process of ellipsis in practice. The recoverability of ellipsis only tells us that an elliptical sentence has a correspondent full sentence in form, it can't explain the understanding process of ellipsis. The construal of a sentence is a cognitive process in mind not as simple as the recovery of syntactic elements.

The construal process of ellipsis is the process of acquiring the meaning of ellipsis. Language itself doesn't encode meaning and only acts as a prompt in the meaning construction (Evans, 2006, p.162). Cognitive linguistics assumes that meaning construction is not structural but conceptual (Evans, 2006, p.363). Langacker (1990, p.2) holds that meaning is equal to conceptualization, it is a dynamic process. He also points out that meaning is a function of both the content and the construal. Conceptualization is not only a process but a result that various cognitive abilities (or construal) act on semantic content. Semantic content is provided by cognitive domains, cognitive abilities are our organizing models of knowledge structure such as ICM, image schema, frame, cognitive reference-point, figure-ground model, mental space and so on. Based on the viewpoints of cognitive linguistics, the understanding or construal process of ellipsis is not a simple recovery process but a conceptualization process. We must study two aspects of conceptualization — cognitive domains and cognitive abilities (construal) if we want to know how ellipsis is construed by us. Therefore, the basic task of ellipsis research is to find a unified cognitive mechanism or cognitive model which can explain various ellipsis phenomena.

In short, the cognitive view of ellipsis is summarized as follows: (1) Grammar or syntax is symbolic in nature, a symbolic unit is "matching between phonology and semantics", however, ellipsis is "mismatching between phonology and semantics", therefore, the elided site is not a symbolic unit or a syntactic structure. (2) Since elided site is not a syntactic structure and is not limited to grammatical principles of generative linguistics, therefore, ellipsis can't be generated by grammatical rules. (3) Chomsky, the representative of generative linguistics, distinguished language knowledge and language performance and focused on the former and ignored the use of language. Cognitive linguistics objects to the dictionary view of generative linguistics and holds to the encyclopaedic view and assumes that language knowledge comes from language use, based on viewpoints of cognitive linguistics, the meaning of ellipsis does not only come from its antecedent but from both linguistic knowledge and encyclopedic knowledge. (4) One of guiding principles in cognitive semantics is that meaning construction is conceptualization, the process of obtaining the meaning of the elided site and the whole sentence is also a process of conceptualization. The understanding or construal process of ellipsis is not a simple recovery process but a dynamic process of conceptualization, a result that cognitive abilities act on semantic content.

IV.   THE STUDY OF ELLIPSIS IN A COGNITIVE APPROACH

There are not much achievements of the cognitive study of ellipsis in domestic and foreign linguistic circle, which includes the following three aspects:

A.   Types of Ellipsis and Prototype Theory

Quirk(1985) is the first linguist to divide ellipsis into various types according to family resemblance, first he established five criteria for ellipsis and then divided ellipsis into six types according to the degrees of strictness including strict ellipsis, standard ellipsis, quasi-ellipsis, situational ellipsis, structural ellipsis and semantic implication. The strict ellipsis accords with all five criteria, which is the best example, the central member and the prototype of ellipsis. Comparatively, semantic implication is the marginal or peripheric member, that is, strictly speaking, it doesn't belong to ellipsis any more, so Quirk named this type of ellipsis as "semantic implication". Let's compare the following two sentences:

(6) I'm happy if you are φ. (φ=happy, strict ellipsis)

(7) φ Frankly, he is very surprised. (φ=I speak/am speaking frankly, semantic implication)

B.   The Exploration of Cognitive Models of Ellipsis

Wu Dilong and Zhao Yan (2010) explained semantic ellipsis with idealized cognitive model; Zhang Tianwei (2012) analyzed ellipsis from conceptual metonym; Yang Leida and Zhao Genglin (2013) put forward a cognitive network model for ellipsis; Tang Yinyi (2013) provided a cognitive mechanism for semantic ellipsis with conceptual blending theory; Xia Riguang (2010) analyzed discourse ellipsis with figure-ground theory etc.

C.   The Empirical Research of Ellipsis

Some scholars began to study event-related brain potentials of ellipsis (Martin, 2012); Martin & McElree (2009) revealed the relevance of language understanding with memory representation by the eye movement method and speed-accuracy tradeoff procedure; Poirier & Shapiro (2010) tested the processing time of sluicing sentences with prime effect; Johnson (1994), Tesak et al.(1995) and Hardt (1997) studied ellipsis with a corpus-based approach etc.

In addition to the above achievements, Langacker (2012) studied ellipsis in coordination sentences from the cognitive perspective, Culicover & Jackendoff (2005) tried to analyze ellipsis from the interface between syntax, semantics and cognition. With the development of cognitive linguistics, cognitive psychology, neurolinguistics, psycholinguistics and other cognitive sciences, the cognitive study of ellipsis will gain new development and breakthrough.

V.   CONCLUSION

If cognitive linguistics is the second "cognition revolutionary" toward generative linguistics, it can also say that the cognitive study of ellipsis is the "cognition revolutionary" toward the generative study of ellipsis. The paper poses challenges and raises questions toward the traditional syntactical ellipsis study, and comes up with its cognitive view of ellipsis. The main viewpoints of cognitive view of ellipsis include: there is no syntactical structure in elided site, the meaning of ellipsis is from both linguistic knowledge and encyclopedic knowledge, the construal and understanding of ellipsis is a dynamic process of conceptualization. Cognitive linguistics is a linguistics research paradigm which absorbs achievements comprehensively from cognitive sciences and has a strong vitality and explanatory power, the cognitive study of ellipsis will flourish with the development of cognitive sciences in the future.

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The Relationship between Iranian EFL Students' Language Proficiency and Their Cross-cultural Speech Act Knowledge

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Abstract—It is about three decades that the term communicative competence has been utilized in EFL literatures. Pragmatic knowledge is one of the main aspects of the communicative competence. This study intended to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL students' language proficiency and their cross-cultural speech act knowledge. To this end, 50 EFL students from Islamic Azad university of Tehran were selected through quota sampling. The instruments utilized in this study were IELTS test and Discourse Completion Task (DCT) test. The Pearson Correlation was utilized to compare the scores obtained from the students' language proficiency and their scores of cross cultural speech act knowledge. As the results of this study showed, there was a negative correlation between students' scores in language proficiency and their scores of cross cultural speech act knowledge.

Index Terms—communicative competence, pragmatic knowledge, speech acts, language proficiency, gender

I. INTRODUCTION

Clarifying the role of language in political and economic arrangements, in modern world, is indicating that finding the new way for language teaching is of great importance not only for academic needs but also for routine daily needs. Consequently, during the history of language teaching this want has been considered as the first priority for scholars in TEFL. Initially they try to define language teaching in compliance with new findings in linguistics. After that, they designed different methods and techniques. Passage of time brought the efficacy of those methods under question. Under such circumstances, scholars revised those methods repeatedly (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). In parallel with those efforts new variables were introduced to this field. One of the important variables was pragmatic knowledge.

Pragmatic knowledge is one of the aspects of communicative competence. Communicative competence was introduced by Hymes (1972) as a reaction to Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance. Chomsky (1965) divided competence and performance; he described 'competence' as an idealized function that is located as a psychological or mental property and 'performance' as the production of actual utterances. In other words, competence involves "knowing" the language and performance involves "doing" something with the language. The first scholar who criticized Chomsky's distinction between competence and performance was Hymes, who believed Chomsky did not pay attention to communicative competence. He defined communicative competence not only as an inborn grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in different communicative situations. Therefore, he brings the sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's linguistic view of competence.

Hymes believes that the language users must follow two purposes in language learning. The first purpose is the ability to use grammatical rules and the second purpose is to form correct utterance and knowing how to use that utterance appropriately in a context. According to Hymes, to be communicatively competent; we should be capable of making 4 kinds of assessments about a sentence:

1): How much the sentence is possible or grammatical?
2): How much the sentence is feasible (semantically possible)?
3): How much the sentence is appropriate?
4): How much the sentence is actually done?

It was after Hymes' definition of communicative competence that the models of communicative competence were originated. One of these models was proposed by Bachman (1990). Bachman was the first applied linguist who mentioned pragmatic aspect explicitly. He developed a model of communicative language ability in which three components were: language competence, strategic competence and psychomotor skills. In this model, language competence was, in turn, divided into two components, organizational and pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is a central component in Bachman's (1990) model of language competence. According to Bachman, pragmatic competence is the capability to utilize the language in order to clearly state different functions and on the

other hand, to explain their illocutionary force based on the sociocultural context. In Bachman's model, pragmatic competence is not subjugated to grammar and text, but it is equal with formal linguistic and textual knowledge and interacts with organizational competence in complicated manners.

After Hymes (1972), the second scholar who criticized Chomsky's dichotomy of competence and performance was Halliday (1978). He identified language as "a social fact and a reality" (p.2). According to Halliday, people in their everyday life play a certain role in the social structure. They confirm their own roles, set up, and transfer the shared systems of knowledge. As Halliday argued, language does not only include sentences, but it contains text or discourse. In other words, language is the exchange of meanings in interpersonal contexts. Halliday rejected Chomsky's dichotomy of competence and performance because according to him, the potential of meaning was covered by both knowing and doing. According to Fulcher and Davidson (2007), there seems to be five important principles for these communicative competence approaches:

1. Communicative competence is comprised of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and communication strategies. The first goal of a communicative approach should be to make easy the merging of these types of knowledge for the learner.

2. A communicative approach should be established on the learner's communication needs. These needs must be indicated regarding grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence.

3. The foreign language learner should be provided with an opportunity to participate in meaningful communicative interactions with native speakers. This principle is a challenge for teachers and program designers.

4. At the first steps of second language acquisition, we have to use better those aspects of communicative competence, which the learner has progress in it through acquisition and utilizing the native language.

5. The first objective of a communication-based second language program should be to supply the learners with the knowledge, and the experience required to fulfill their communicative needs in the second language.

The models of communicative competence were proposed after Hyme's definition of communicative competence. The first and most persuasive model of communicative competence was proposed by Canale and Swain (1980). They differentiated between communicative competence and performance (cited in Uso´-Juan & Martı´nez-Flor, 2006). Canale and Swain's model consisted of four main competences: Grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence. Grammatical competence involves the knowledge of the language code including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of spelling and pronunciation, word formation as well as sentence structure. Sociolinguistic competence comprises the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use in a specific situation. Strategic competence includes the knowledge of using verbal and nonverbal communication strategies. Finally, discourse competence is dealt with the knowledge of achieving coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text.

The second model was proposed by Savignon (1983). Savignon's model contained the same four competencies mentioned in the Canale and Swain's (1980) model. It also contains grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competence (cited in Uso´-Juan & Martı´nez-Flor, 2006). Grammatical competence involves the knowledge of the language code including knowledge of vocabulary, rules of spelling and pronunciation, word formation as well as sentence structure. Sociolinguistic competence comprises the knowledge of the sociocultural rules of use in a specific situation. Strategic competence includes the knowledge of using verbal and nonverbal communication strategies. Finally, discourse competence is dealt with the knowledge of achieving coherence and cohesion in a spoken or written text. The main difference between Savignon's model and Canale and Swain's model is that Savignon believes, since all components are interrelated, there is a relationship among the components of the models to show how an increase in only one component produces an increase in the overall level of communicative competence. Although Savignon's model solved one of the criticisms to Canale and Swain's model, it was criticized because it still did not take into account the pragmatic component.

The first applied linguist who mentioned pragmatic aspect explicitly in his model was Bachman (1990), who developed a model of communicative language ability in which three components were: language competence, strategic competence and psychomotor skills. Language competence is, in turn, divided into two components, organizational and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence consists of grammatical competence and textual competence. Pragmatic competence comprises two parts: illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Illocutionary competence is about the pragmatic conventions to do language functions satisfactorily. Sociolinguistic competence refers to the knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions to do language functions properly in a specific context.

Bachman considered two more components of communicative language ability, namely strategic and psychomotor skills. Pragmatic competence is a principal component in Bachman's model of language competence. It integrates the capability to utilize the language to clearly state different kinds of functions and interpret their illocutionary force in discourse according to the sociocultural given context.

Pragmatics has been defined in various ways. Crystal (1997, p. 301) considered pragmatics knowledge as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the restriction they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (quoted in Kasper & Rose, 2001). To conclude, Crystal believed that pragmatics dealt with studying communicative action in its sociocultural context. Communicative action comprises implementing speech acts like requesting, complimenting, apologizing, and complaining and involving in various kinds of discourse.

Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) divided pragmatics into two components: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. According to Kasper & Rose (2001, p.2) "pragmalinguistics referred to the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings. Such resources include pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts." Leech (1983, p. 10) identified sociopragmatics as "the sociological interface of pragmatics." As Kasper & Rose argued sociopragmatics refers to "the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. Speech communities differ in their assessment of speakers' and hearers' social distance and social power, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in particular communicative acts" (p.2).

Speech act is one of the most important aspects of pragmatic knowledge. According to Olshtain and Cohen (1991, p.19), "speech acts are often but not always the patterned, routinized language that native and pragmatically nonnative speakers and writers in a given speech community use to perform functions such as thanking, complimenting, requesting, refusing, apologizing and complaining".

Shatz and McCloskey (1984; cited in Bialystok, 1993) believed that preschoolers know much about various speech acts. They argued that by age two children are able to identify between speeches acts like questions and non-questions without caring about how they are made. According to them, there are some children under the age of two who can identify different kinds of questions: yes/no questions from wh- questions.

As children enter the school years, there is an enlargement in the range of language functions for them. One of the facets of pragmatic competence is the capability to modify the form of speech to consent to contextual factors. This act of manipulating is shown by children's role to utilize and interpret these forms as indirect requests. While developing this aspect of competence, little children frequently make apparent errors. For example, notice the following telephone conversation between a child and an adult:

The caller says, *"Is your mother home?"*

The child says, *"Yes"*.

In the mentioned case, the child who is talking on the telephone is not able to recognize the question as an indirect request for calling his mother. Becker (1982), records the variations happening in children's planning of requests from the earliest efforts based on gestures, sounds, and simple utterances to requests based on well-formed syntactic structures, and by about age three to the incorporation of some indirect requests. Children's control over requests is very complex by age five, involving different indirect forms and utterances that contain sequencing several steps to reach the requested aim. The ratio of indirect to direct requests goes up between the ages of about three and five years. After that age, it stays comparatively unchanged until about age eight.

One of the issues in the pragmatics domain is consciousness or unconsciousness of pragmatics knowledge. The first researcher who considered the consciousness or unconsciousness of pragmatics was Wolfson. Wolfson (1981) believed the native speakers' pragmatic knowledge is unconscious in most of the times. She supported her claim with several types of evidence in which speakers do not have reliable information about the ways they utilize the language. According to her, bilinguals sometimes switch from one language or different kinds of languages to another language unconsciously. Some other researchers like Kendall (1981) and Ochs (1979) reject Wolfson's hypothesis.

According to Ochs (1979), pragmatic knowledge is not always used in an automatic manner and unreflectively. Conversations vary a great deal based on spontaneity and planning. On the other hand, Kendall (1981) pointed out that some people's preplanning telephone conversations or writing consists of a large amount of conscious and careful considerations in discourse organization. There are various conditions in which producing an appropriately polite language are very important. The learners may be concerned about how to address teachers and many aspects of utilizing personal address are not unthinking reaction to a determining context but stand for strategic and sometimes manipulative options. Therefore, we can say that pragmatic knowledge is somehow conscious and to some degree convincible to consciousness; however all pragmatic knowledge cannot be convincible to consciousness.

Teaching pragmatic knowledge in foreign language and second language context is different. As Bardovi-Harling (1992) argued, EFL learners and instructors pay more attention to grammatical development and have difficulty in sociocultural norms and pragmatic knowledge. The reason is that the second language learners are better in pragmatic knowledge because they are in the atmosphere of the target language.

Learners who learn the language while living in the target culture are inclined to regard pragmatics as important, emphasizing on pragmatic errors more than grammatical errors. The high importance they place on pragmatics seems to be because they interact daily with natives of the target culture. On the other hand, learners who learn the language in a classroom outside the target culture seem to be less sensitive to suitability and to place more importance on grammatical accuracy instead (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996).

According to Kasper and Rose (2001), not all EFL classrooms are weak sources of pragmatic information. On the other hand, learning the language in the target culture will make learners more sensitive to the importance of pragmatics because the amount and quality of relevant input and the chances for relevant practice will be greater than in a classroom in the back home. As opposed to second language learning atmosphere, in EFL contexts the amount of speech acts is low, and the typical interaction patterns limit pragmatic input and opportunities for practicing discourse organization strategies (Kasper, 2001; Eslami-Rasekh, 2005). There are some qualities in the EFL context that prevent

pragmatic learning. These are large classes; limited contact hours and little opportunity for intercultural communication are some of the (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005).

Schmidt (1993) claimed the difference between first and second language pragmatics is that since adults can report their comprehensions much more readily than children can, it is possible to inspect the role of noticing and understanding in the evolution of pragmatic ability by adult second language learners directly, by asking learners to report their experiences. For second language acquisition, focusing on linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features is required. Fox (1987) believes pragmatics principles are better represented as associative networks rather than as propositional rules.

One of the issues in teaching pragmatics to EFL students is which one will be better in pragmatic knowledge, students with higher proficiency knowledge or students with lower proficiency knowledge. Takahashi and Beebe (1987) proposed the positive correlation hypothesis. Based on this hypothesis, proficiency knowledge in second language is positively related to first language pragmatic transfer. Here, second language learners with low proficiency level rarely display first language pragmatic transfer in second language context than second language learners with high proficiency level. The reason is that low proficiency second language learners do not have essential linguistic knowledge to transfer pragmatic knowledge of their own native language. Second language learners who are highly proficient probably show sociocultural norms of their native language in second language production. The reason is that they have control on the target language.

Trosborg (1987) performed a comparative research about apology strategies. In her research, Trosborg used various proficient groups of Danish students of English using role-play. In this study, twelve native English speakers and twelve Danish students of English participated. These two groups were in low level, intermediate level, and advanced level. In her study, Trosborg did not discover the obvious proficient influence on L1 pragmatic transfer based on reoccurrence of apology strategies utilized by these three levels of learners, comparing with those Danish native speakers and those native English speakers.

In another study, Takahashi (1996) inspected transferability of five Japanese indirect request strategies into English. In this study, Takahashi investigated the interaction between transferability and the amount of imposition included in a request situation and the interaction between transferability and learners' second language proficiency. 142 freshmen Japanese students of English participated in this research. Based on this study, Takahashi argued that learners' transferability was affected by the various amount of imposition implied by its communicative goal. He also concluded that neither a positive correlation nor a negative correlation between first language pragmatic transfer and second language proficiency. She believes the reason is that both low proficiency learners and high proficiency learners depend on their native language request rules in an equal manner, in the case that they perform their requests in the target language.

The researches performed in the domain of cross-cultural pragmatics have demonstrated that speech acts realization varies from a language to another. This diversity across languages leads to misunderstanding. Thomas (1983) called these misunderstandings as pragmatic failure. Thomas believes pragmatic failure happens when the second language learners exchange the rules of first language pragmatics with the rules of second language pragmatics. This causes most of the EFL learners cannot communicate with people from other cultures. Hence, one of the important issues in the EFL classrooms is teaching of pragmatics knowledge. There is a controversy among the EFL researchers whether pragmatics knowledge is teachable. The majority of these researchers (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig, 2003; Kasper, 2001; Kondo, 2008) have faith in teachability of pragmatics knowledge; however, they apply different approaches to teach pragmatics. Meier (1997), for example, preferred a cultural approach to instruction of pragmatics to make best use of their contextual and cultural insights to assist learners to be good understanders of their own world and others. Bardovi-Harlig (2003) believes that the best place to teach pragmatics is classroom.

As Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008, p.10) put it, Iranian EFL learners do not have the opportunity to have an encounter with target language speakers and the target culture. Therefore, it is difficult to teach target language pragmatics to them. According to them, communication of EFL learners with native speakers may cause pragmatic failure because of the "lack of pragmatic knowledge of the sociocultural norms of the target community." Therefore, to decrease pragmatic failure or communication malfunctioning between native and non-native speakers, pragmatic competence should be acquired. Learners should use the language effectively to understand the language in context.

One of the issues in the domain of pragmatics and pragmatics teaching is the effect of students' language proficiency on their pragmatics knowledge. The purpose of this study is to know how the language proficiency can affect on EFL students's pragmatics knowledge. Since many language teachers are still uncertain to teach pragmatics in their classrooms, this study can be helpful to show whether pragmatics knowledge is teachable or not. In other words, by determining the level of non-native speakers' ILP (Inter Language Pragmatics) knowledge and comparing the result with their language proficiency knowledge, it can be understood whether the students with high level of proficiency are also good in pragmatic knowledge or not.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

A. Participants.   In the present study, the participants were 50 individuals studying at Azad University of Tehran. 25 participants were males and 25 were females. The subjects were all native speakers of Persian and their age ranged from

20 to 30. The subjects were all chosen through quota sampling. The quota sampling is a kind of sampling in which the researcher subdivides the population into classes or categories (e.g. males and females). In this kind of sampling there is non- random sample selection. This kind of sampling is useful when the time is limited and the research budget is very tight. Based on its characteristics, quota sampling was utilized, because in this study there were two groups of males and females and the selection of the subjects was not based on randomization, and the researcher selected EFL senior undergraduates and EFL graduated students.

B. Instruments. The main instruments utilized in this study were IELTS test and DCT test. IELTS test was utilized to measure the learners' language proficiency and it was taken from the series of IELTS books. Since the proficiency test was taken from the IELTS test, and the IELTS test is a standardized test, it can be said that the validity and reliability of the proficiency test was substantiated. 30 questions were selected from the collection of IELTS tests in order to assess the language proficiency of the subjects. The time limit for this test was 30 minutes.

After the IELTS test, Discourse Complement Task (DCT) was administered to the participants. According to Varghese & Billmyer (1996, p.40), "DCT is a questionnaire containing a set of very briefly described situations designed to elicit a particular speech act". The DCT test was designed by Jalilafar (2009) and the time limit for this test was 10 minutes. The validity and reliability of this questionnaire was substantiated through a pilot study carried out with 10 students by Jalilafar.

C. Procedure. In the data collection phase, the following steps were taken:

1. At first, the IELTS test was administered. The students were told about the source of questions and the way of taking the test. Using dictionaries was forbidden by the test takers throughout the test.

2. After administering the IELTS test, the DCT questionnaire was administered to the participants. Since majority of the participants were unfamiliar with DCT questionnaire, the way of doing the DCT questionnaire was explained by the tester in advance. For example, the tester asked the participants to put themselves in each of the conditions in the DCT questionnaire and try to answer the questions as fast as possible.

Although the DCT questionnaire was in English, the students were allowed to use their native language, Persian to express their intentions and the request and apology strategies. This was due to the fact that although all of the participants were able to read and understand the questions in English, they were unable to transfer their ideas in English. The participants' answers were translated into English. To ensure the validity and correctness of the translations, the data were checked by some skillful experts in the field.

III. RESULTS

The present study intended to find answers to the following question and hypothesis:

RQ: Is there any significant relationship between Iranian EFL students' language proficiency and their cross-cultural speech act knowledge?

NH_0: There is no any significant relationship between Iranian EFL students' language proficiency and their cross-cultural knowledge of speech acts.

In order to inspect the above-mentioned question and hypothesis, the Pearson Correlation was utilized (Table 1.1). In the following Table, The relationship between the students' LP and their cross-cultural knowledge of speech acts (in this case, requesting speech act) was inspected.

TABLE 1.1
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE LP VARIABLE, AND REQUESTING VARIABLE

		LP	Requesting
LP	Pearson Correlation	1	-.322[*]
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.013
	N	50	50
Requesting	Pearson Correlation	-.322[*]	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.013	
	N	50	50

In Table 1.1, the correlation between Iranian EFL students' language proficiency and their cross-cultural speech act (requesting) knowledge is illustrated. As the Table 1.1 shows, students' language proficiency scores has a meaningful relationship with their cross-cultural speech act (requesting) knowledge (r= -.322, p<0.05). This correlation is a negative correlation. This shows, the more the students' scores in language proficiency, the less their scores in cross-cultural speech act (requesting) knowledge. Hence, the result of this study rejects the research's null hypothesis because as the results of this study showed there is a negative significant correlation between students' language proficiency and their cross-cultural knowledge of speech acts.

IV. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study showed that there is a negative correlation between students' scores in language proficiency and their scores of cross cultural speech act knowledge. In other words, there is no relationship between

EFL students' language proficiency level and their pragmatic knowledge. This finding is similar to Takahashi's (1996) finding. Takahashi discovered that proficiency level of L2 learners does not have any impact on their pragmatic competence. In other words, Takahashi found that there is a negative relationship between the learners' scores in language proficiency and their scores of cross cultural speech act knowledge. The finding of this study is also in par with a study performed by Kim (2000). According to him, proficiency level does not have any influence on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. This might be due to the fact that EFL learners just learn English in the classroom; therefore, the problem is lack of access to authentic materials. As Barron (2003, p.10) also argued, increased grammatical proficiency may or may not lead to an increase in pragmatic abilities. "It may allow the learner to construct or overuse a structure, which is pragmatically less effective."

Since the students' language proficiency does not affect their pragmatic competence, pragmatics instruction can be started from the beginning stages in EFL classrooms. Instructors should provide the learners with authentic situations in classrooms. More authentic materials need to be learnt by the EFL learners instead of mastering simple rules of the language. By providing the learners with different communication opportunities, they will gain a fair amount of knowledge of the language or in other words, a proper competence.

V. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

The studies to investigate the effect of gender on pragmatic competence (PC) and the effect of language proficiency on pragmatic competence (PC) are scarce in pragmatics domain. More studies are required to consider these issues. In the future researches it is better to utilize a broader sample to increase the generalizability of the research.

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The Relationship between Cognitive and Meta-cognitive Strategy Use and EFL Listening Test Performance

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategy use and Iranian EFL learners' listening test performance and whether advanced, upper-intermediate, intermediate Iranian EFL learners differed using these two strategies. More specifically, this study tried to examine Iranian EFL students' use of different cognitive and metacognitive test taking strategies and the most and the least frequent uses of these strategies by students while they are performing listening comprehension tests. The participants were 96 male and female Iranian EFL university students with the age ranging from 20 to 24 years old. The collected data included listening comprehension, achievement test scores, and responses to a Likert-scale cognitive and metacognitive questionnaire. Transcription of retrospective interviews was also used to clarify further the quantitative analyses. Results of the analyses indicated that Iranian EFL students participating in this study resorted more to metacognitive strategies than cognitive strategies. The use of the mentioned test taking strategies had a positive correlation with the listening test performance, and it seemed different across the proficiency level of the students in which the students at higher levels of listening ability used these strategies more often than less successful listeners did. The finding of the study also suggested that the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies could account for variation in EFL listening achievement and need to be encouraged, trained, and promoted by EFL teachers.

Index Terms—cognitive strategies, metacognitive strategies, listening test

I. INTRODUCTION

Advances made in foreign language teaching and testing , cognitive psychology and information processing systems have allowed studies to be conducted to categories test taking strategies utilized by EFL learners when they are performing different language tasks including reading, listening, writing and speaking. However, few studies in the EFL language testing literature have looked at the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies and its relationship to proficiency level in listening comprehension tests. Thus, the current study tried to examine Iranian EFL test takes reported strategy use in a listening test and its relationship with their listening test performance.

Cohen and Upton (2007) define test-taking strategies as kinds of processes of which test takers are aware at least to some extent. In cognitive strategies, respondents use their language knowledge and world knowledge to do a task. Language knowledge mainly is divided into two types: organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge (Bachman, 1990). World knowledge is considered as general knowledge, which includes economy, business, politics, environment, and science that may concern the tasks. The information pertaining to metacognitive strategies are under the domain of all this knowledge. (Bachman and Pulmer, 1996). Examples of cognitive strategies are inferencing, making prediction, translating, summarizing, linking with prior knowledge or experience, memory strategies, retrieval strategies, and guessing meaning from context. (O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Oxford (2012) said that metacognitive strategies encompass new information to the old one, selecting, deliberate thinking strategies, planning, monitoring, and evaluating thinking process (As cited in Rahimi & Katal, 2012). Ridley et al. (1992) also mentioned that metacognitive strategies help learners handle and inspect learning activities such as conscious monitoring learning, planning and selecting strategies, rectifying errors, analyzing the effect of learning strategies and modifying learning behaviors and strategies when necessary. According to Bachman and Pulmer (1996), factors acting on language test scores should be taken in serious consideration because we should be capable of discussing and exploring differences in language test

performance and similarities between test performance and language use in cases other than tests. This enhances the importance of strategic competence in L2 use, learning or testing. Iranian EFL test takers need to get familiar with test taking strategies more systematically either in their language classes or in special strategy training courses. Strategies may not be fully reported in listening process by virtue of the necessity of cognition for the task. (Anderson, 1991; O'Malley and Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1993) but the complexity of giving an account of listening strategies does not reject the possibility of manipulating verbal reports as data (Ericsson & Simon, 1993). Hartutlu and Cylan (2014) investigated the relationship among listening proficiency, motivation, and metacognitive strategy use. They found using translation in listening skills would not lead to success due to the interference of the first language with the process of listening. In addition, learners who were in trouble with high level of anxiety and lack of confidence were unlikely to succeed in listening. They also indicated a positive correlation between listening proficiency and extrinsic motivation in the fact of no significant correlation between listening proficiency and intrinsic motivation. In an overview of theories and practices in the field of metacognitive knowledge and language leaning, Rahimi and Katal (2012) found that learners with conscious steps to understand what they are doing and using many various strategies may be more successful learners. They also indicated that using meta-cognitive strategies provide learners with the ability to plan, control and evaluate their learning, which finally leads to gaining higher achievement and better learning outcome in both face-to-face and virtual environment. Rahimi and Katal (2012) in another study aimed to investigate metacognitive listening strategies awareness among Iranian EFL university and high school students. They brought to light these students appeared different regarding to their metacognitive strategies in general and in person knowledge and mental translations. Wang (2015) on a small-scale intervention study examined the impact of a metacognitive approach to listening instruction. According to the findings of the study, metacognitive pedagogical cycle may positively affect learners listening proficiency and it may play a part in learners' growth in three aspects of metacognitive knowledge including person, task, and strategy knowledge. Rahimi and Abedi (2014) studied Iranian EFL learners listening self-proficiency and its relationship with their metacognitive awareness of listening strategies. The result indicted a positive and significant relationship between listening self-efficiency and metacognitive awareness of listening strategies in general. Further listening self-efficiency was positively and significantly related to planning-evaluation and problem solving strategies and inversely to mental translation strategies. Selamat and Kaur Sidhu (2013) investigating the effects of metacognitive strategy training on lecture listening comprehension abilities of undergraduate students in Malaysia revealed that it was difficult for first year tertiary level students to understand university lectures in English and also they had problem in keeping up their concentration during lectures. However many students were not aware of the strategies that they could use to further their understanding of lectures more effectively.

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Two hundred and seventy three volunteer students from Shahab Danesh Institute of Higher Education in Qom, Iran initially took the TOEFL sample test. Based on the results of the TOEFL sample test, 96 students were selected for the present study. The subjects' ages were from 20 to 24 years old. They were from three majors including Information Communication Technology (ICT), Computer Engineering, and Electrical Engineering. Of the students, 39 were females and 57 were males. The participants were grouped into three levels based on their scores on IELTS listening test: The advanced level, (Group 1), the upper intermediate level, (Group 2) and the intermediate level, Group 3). Among them, eight (i.e. four advanced and four intermediate) test takers were selected for retrospective interviews.

B. Instrumentations

1. TOEFL PBT (Test of English as a Foreign Language Paper- Based Test)

"Long man Preparation Course for the TOEFL Test" (Phillips, 1996) was selected to provide a reliable and valid test to have a group of homogeneous subjects in terms of English proficiency among 273 students. Only section two and three of this test (structure and written expression and reading comprehension) were utilized in this study. There were totally 90 (40 structure and written expression and 50 reading comprehension).

2. IELTS Listening Comprehension Test

The listening test, derived from "Focusing on IELTS: Listening and Speaking Skills (Macquarie University 2004, p.44-50)", consisted of 40 questions, 27 fill-in-the-blanks and 13 multiple-choice questions. It was structured in four sections of conversations and monologues in order to measure students listening proficiency

3. Cognitive and Meta-cognitive Strategy Questionnaire

As soon as the students finished the test, they were asked to fill in the questionnaire adapted from Vandergrift cited in (Archer 2002) and Vandergrift (2003) to measure cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. The strategy questionnaire consisted of 25 Likert-scale items. It was piloted for reliability estimates prior to its actual use.

4. Immediate Retrospective Interviews

The qualitative data in this study was what the test-takers had to say about their own strategy use. The interviews were carried out to gather extra information in relation to the research questions. For interview, the students were ranked in three different levels of listening proficiency based on their scores in the listening proficiency test, advanced, upper intermediate and intermediate levels. Eight participants were chosen from the subjects, four from the advanced

group, and four from the intermediate group. The interviewees were interviewed individually. The interviews were conducted in Persian and lasted about 30 minutes. First, the participants were asked about their attitudes towards learning English and listening in English. Then they listened again to the IELTS listening test but this time with pauses on each section. They were then asked to report on strategies they used when attempting to complete the listening comprehension test in their examination.

C. Procedures

This study was carried out in four phases. **In phase one**, a sample of TOEFL PBT including only the reading and structure questions were conducted for 273 voluntary junior and senior students majoring in ICT, computer engineering, and electrical engineering in order to select a group of subjects who had a good or moderate command of English. **In phase two**, a sample of listening comprehension test derived from IELTS was administered to 96 subjects who had been selected in the first phase. **In phase three,** immediately after conducting the listening test, the students took a questionnaire on how they thought while completing the test. **For conducting the last phase**, the interview, the students were ranked in three different levels of listening proficiency based on their scores in the listening proficiency test: advanced, upper intermediate and intermediate levels. Eight people were chosen from the participants: four from the advanced group and four from the intermediate group. The interview was audio taped and transcribed for further analysis. Distributions for the cognitive and metacognitive strategies were made. The descriptive statistics of the test-takers' test scores and strategy use categorized by success were provided to see the relationship between cognitive and metacognitive strategies and the listening test performance at various listening proficiency levels. The data used in the present study were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The quantitative analysis was based on the listening comprehension test scores and listening strategy questionnaire while the qualitative analysis was based on the interview transcription. The quantitative data analyzed in the study were computed utilizing the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 17.0.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Subjects' Performance in the Listening Test

The subjects had 30 minutes to do the 40 items of the IELTS listening test. Table 4-1 presents the scores of the subjects in IELTS listening test.

TABLE 1
THE SCORES OF ALL PARTICIPANTS IN THE IELTS LISTENING TEST

	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Variance
96	10	38	22	6.413	41.136

This SD shows that the subjects' scores are quite variable from 10 to 38. Moreover, with a mean of 22, about half of the total score of 40, the students had a rather high listening proficiency.

B. Subjects' Responses to the Questionnaire

TABLE 2
DISTRIBUTIONS FOR THE COGNITIVE AND META-COGNITIVE STRATEGY USE VARIABLES

Variable	M	SD	Skewedness	Kurtosis	Median	Mode
Cognitive Strategies	3.164	0.618	-0.77	-2.828	3.208	3.208
Meta-cognitive Strategies	3.454	0.589	-0.47	-2.808	3.682	3.052

Table2shows the distributions for the cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy use variables. According to the above table, the mean for cognitive strategy is 3.164, and the mean for meta-cognitive strategy is 3.454. It can be assumed that test-takers used meta-cognitive strategies more than cognitive strategies.

TABLE 3
T-TEST RESULTS OF COGNITIVE AND META-COGNITIVE STRATEGY USE

Variable	Cognitive Strategies		Meta-cognitive Strategies		T-Test
	M	SD	M	SD	
Listening Test	3.164	0.618	3.454	0.589	0.252

In table 3, mean scores (M) and standard divisions (S) in using cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies are compared. The results of T-test show that there is a significant difference between groups in using cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. Meta-cognitive strategies are utilized more than cognitive strategies.

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BY SUCCESS

Variables	Level of Success	M	SD
EFL Listening Test Performance	Intermediate	15.735	1.543
	Upper-Intermediate	23.122	2.990
	Advanced	34.154	2.641
Cognitive Strategies	Intermediate	2.642	0.786
	Upper-Intermediate	3.367	0.737
	Advanced	3.375	1.018
Meta-cognitive Strategies	Intermediate	2.936	1.038
	Upper-Intermediate	3.740	0.568
	Advanced	3.966	0.959

Table 4 shows the mean and standard deviation for the three dependent variables across different proficiency levels. It means the test-takers of each of the three proficiency levels use meta-cognitive strategies more than cognitive ones. The difference between the advanced and upper-intermediate test-takers' use of cognitive strategies was not significant because their mean of performance is almost the same. However, intermediate test-takers utilized less cognitive strategies than advanced and upper intermediate test-takers did. That the advanced test-takers use more metacognitive strategies than the upper intermediate ones distinguished their achievement levels. As a whole, the table shows that these three groups of test-takers use more metacognitive strategies than cognitive strategies.

TABLE 5
FACTORIAL MANOVA RESULTS FOR SUCCESS LEVELS

Dependent Variables	df	F	p	η^2	D^2
EFL listening test performance	2	21.943	.000	.740	1.000
Cognitive strategies	2	.502	.000	.110	1.000
Metacognitive strategies	2	2.609	.000	.171	1.000

Table5 presents the results of the factorial MANOVA. The results showed that there was a statistically significant difference in the use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies among advanced, upper intermediate and intermediate students. It can be concluded that the factorial MANOVA was significant because the small p values suggested that the chance of the results being attributable to Type I. error was small; and the Eta squares showed that the effects explained nontrivial portions of the variance in the dependent measures.

C. Relationships between Cognitive and Meta-cognitive Strategies and EFL Listening Test Performance

For this purpose, Pearson Product Moment correlations between cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies and listening test performance were conducted. The results obtained are as follows**:**

TABLE 6
PEARSON PRODUCT MOMENT CORRELATIONS BETWEEN COGNITIVE STRATEGIES, META-COGNITIVE STRATEGIES, AND LISTENING TEST PERFORMANCE

		Metacognitive Strategy Use	Cognitive Strategy Use	Listening Test Performance
Cognitive Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation	0.643		0.328
	Sign. (2-tailed)	0.050		0.050
	Number	96		96
Metacognitive Strategy Use	Pearson Correlation		0.643	0.486
	Sign. (2-tailed)		0.050	0.050
	Number		96	96

As you see the results of the above table, the correlation between listening test performance and meta-cognitive strategies is 0.486 and it is significant at the 0.05 level. Table 4 also shows that the correlation between cognitive strategies and listening test performance is 0.328. Finally, the results obtained from conducting Pearson Product Moment correlations showed that the correlation between meta-cognitive strategies and cognitive strategies is 0.643 and it is significant at the 0.05 level.

D. Qualitative Data Analysis

For the immediate retrospective interviews, the transcribed data was analyzed based on the three categories of meta-cognitive strategies, such as planning, monitoring, and evaluation and eight categories of cognitive strategies, i.e., inferencing, elaboration, imagery, summarizing, translation, prediction, memory, and retrieval. The interview was conducted on eight participants, four from the advanced, and four from the intermediate group. In the category of **"planning"** in meta-cognitive strategies**,** the frequency of "self-management" used by advanced listeners is much higher than that of intermediate listeners. From the comparison, when listening to the text, the advanced listener adopting selective attention and self-management understood the condition and tried to get in the frame of mind to understand English. However, the intermediate listener had comprehension difficulty due to the speed of speaking and could only focus on certain parts of the text. In the category of **"inferencing"** in cognitive strategies, advanced listeners when listening to a foreign language tried to guess the meaning of the unfamiliar idiom by the use of context and logic

and utilized inferencing strategy but intermediate listeners relied on native language and used translation instead of solving their comprehension problem through deploying other listening strategies. In the category of **"summarizing"** in cognitive strategies**,** the advanced listeners understood that in the listening test, there might be some modification in the speakers' utterances and sometimes it is needed to match what is seen on the question paper with what is heard on the tape. Therefore, note taking or summarizing was considered useful for the advanced listener. Whereas the intermediate listeners considered that whatever was heard on the tape and was close to the key words used in the questions could be the best answer and did not take paraphrasing or speakers' modifications into consideration. In the category of **"self-monitoring"** in meta-cognitive strategies, advanced listeners' deployment is much more than the intermediate listeners are. The big difference presents the dearth of monitoring awareness in intermediate listeners. The qualitative results demonstrated that most cognitive strategies occurred in association with metacognitive strategies. For example, test-takers need to be metacognitive to use cognitive strategies such as elaboration, inferencing, and transferring.

Based on the method of stratifying groups for the 25 cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies used by the 96 subjects, the present study found that the learners used "selective attention" of planning in metacognitive listening strategies most. Besides, "evaluation" in meta-cognitive strategy is the second mostly used strategy. Accordingly, summarizing and translation as cognitive strategies were the least strategies that they utilized in the listening test performance. **The first research question** aimed mainly to investigate cognitive and metacognitive strategies used by EFL students while performing a listening comprehension test. Findings indicate that, in order to understand the listening passages, most of the learners still paid attention to bottom-up processing and relied on the meaning of words, phrases, and details while listening. The results of the study show 82% of the learners indicated that note taking was the least often used strategy and learners used "selective attention" of planning in metacognitive listening strategies most. Besides, "evaluation" in metacognitive strategy was the second mostly used strategy. Accordingly, summarizing and translation as cognitive strategies were the least strategies that the learners utilized in the listening test performance. The most frequent use of "planning" (items 1, 3, 5, 12, 16, 22) was surprising since participants had limited resources to know about the content before listening; however, they adopted the strategy of planning most frequently. **The second question** of the present study dealt with the relationship between the students' use of test-taking strategies and their listening test performance. This study revealed that there was a positive correlation between the score of the learners in listening test performance and their total scores in the questionnaire. The analyses so far clearly support the conclusion that the use of cognitive strategies was closely related to the use of meta-cognitive strategies and that the use of both cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies were correlated with the students' test performance to a certain degree. Although it is true to say that students easily resort to strategies to compensate for a deficit in knowledge, we cannot deny the fact that students may use strategies to obtain higher scores. **The last question of the present study** investigated the difference of the listeners' proficiency level using their cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies. The results demonstrated that advanced listeners adopted listening strategies more frequently than did upper intermediate and intermediate listeners. The study also revealed that advanced listeners adopted metacognitive strategies more frequently than upper intermediate and intermediate listeners did. Whereas advanced listeners used 77.58% of the three metacognitive strategies; planning, monitoring, and evaluation, upper intermediate listeners utilized 68.23% of metacognitive strategies, and intermediate listeners used 34.16% of metacognitive strategies. This result is consistent with the studies by Teng (1998), Goh (1998), Vandergrift (1997,2003), and Chao (1996), the results of which suggest that high-proficient listeners adopt more strategies than low-proficient listeners and the use of metacognitive strategies; planning for listening, self-monitoring, and evaluation of one's own performance and problems, are associated with better listeners. The main reason might be that advanced listeners understand the conditions better and it helps them arrange for those conditions. Since the strategy of self-management focus on the relation of listeners' comprehension of the conditions, which is similar to the top-down processing in listening comprehension, this can reflect that advanced listeners tend to understand the conditions in order to accomplish listening tasks successfully. Moreover, intermediate listeners adopted slightly more "directed attention" than advanced listeners did. In contrast, advanced listeners and somehow upper intermediate listeners, used more "self-management" and "selective attention." Accordingly, advanced listeners appeared to use "elaboration" strategies more effectively, and accumulated meaning as the new linguistic input interacted with previous knowledge sources.

IV. CONCLUSION

This study was motivated by the theory that students' differences in listening test performance can be related to their characteristics (Bachman, 1990). The findings of this study suggested that cognitive and meta-cognitive strategy use could explain variation in language test performance. The use of cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies across the different proficiency groups (advanced, upper intermediate and intermediate groups) differed quantitatively and qualitatively. The results of the present research showed that the test-takers utilized meta-cognitive strategies more than cognitive strategies. In addition, according to the findings of the present the use of cognitive and, particularly, meta-cognitive strategies can account for variation in language test performance across different achievement groups. By comparing advanced, upper intermediate and intermediate listeners' performance during the listening test, the quantitative and qualitative analyses in the present study provided an insight into the variations in the strategies listeners at different proficiency levels may employ. The advanced listeners' strategies can provide instructors useful teaching

guidelines to design various activities for students to practice. The present study assured the crucial need for teaching metacognitive strategies to EFL listeners. Students need to be taught how to listen, reflect on listening process, and consciously use the metacognitive strategies of planning, monitoring, and evaluation.

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Application of Task-based Learning in Chinese Context[*]

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Abstract—**Task-based language learning (TBL) and teaching plays significant role in developing Chinese English learners' linguistic competence. In Chinese English-teaching context, the discussion concerning how to change learners' role from passively receiving to autonomously participate through the long-term TBL application lingered on and on. This paper attempts to discuss TBL in foreign language teaching, and the problematic issues related to TBL implementation, furthermore, it takes whether TBL is superior to the traditional teaching approach, and conductive to involve learners into the communicative classroom actively into serious consideration.**

Index Terms—**task-based learning (TBL), linguistic competence, foreign language teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

There is a widespread view that the objective of foreign language teaching is to develop learners' linguistic competence as well as communicative competence. It indicates that language learners can be taught how to use a second or foreign language more effectively in the foreign language learning experience. Most importantly, language learners should be made aware of how foreign language is used as a communication tool in their learning experience. Over the last few decades, there has been an increasing interest in the research of task-based language learning and teaching since the 1980s (e.g. Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996; Bygate, 2001; Nunan, 1989 & 2004; Ellis, 2003).

Dated back to the 1970s, task-based approach is indirectly initiated and gradually developed by scholars, emphasizing on the communicative approach and learner-centered rather than teacher-centered approach to foreign language teaching (e.g. Brumfit, & Johnson, 1979). Additionally, TBL is regarded as an effective approach to foreign language teaching based on the theory and research (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 1989 & 2004). It is widely acknowledged that task-based approach is superior to the traditional approach to foreign language teaching, (e.g. grammar translation, PPP approach, audio-lingual approach).

This paper attempts to firstly review the literature of task-based learning (TBL), concerning the definition of *'task' and TBL,* the contributions of TBL to SLA and foreign language teaching, and the problematic issues related to TBL implementation. Under the ground of the framework of TBL initiated by Willis (1996), lastly, I will propose a specific task designed for Chinese senior high school students in terms of developing EFL learners' linguistic skills and communicative skills.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. The Definition of Task

Nunan (2004) stated that most of language educators and teachers were not familiar with what the actual task was. Thus, understanding the exact definition of task would be beneficial for helping teachers achieve language pedagogy as to develop learners' 'interlanguage system'. However, many linguists hold different views on the identification of task in the language pedagogy. Long (1985 cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 4) states that the 'task' is related to hundreds of things people would do in the daily life (e.g. "painting the fence, dressing a child, buying a pair of shoes, making airline reservation", etc. cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 4). While, Ellis (2003) argued that non-linguistic outcome has been emphasized based on Long's definition. It implies that language learners' attention would be more on the communication and interaction rather than on the language forms. Thus, it can be argued that Long's view of task may neglect emphasizing the importance of linguistic features in the communicative language learning. In some sense, the foreign language outcome might not be achieved.

Contrasted to Long's perception, Breen (1989) argued the distinguished definition of task at the pedagogical perspective and states that 'task' is a 'work-plan' aiming to draw learners' attention on the meaning in the language use. Breen (1989) also pointed out language learners could be engaged in the real communicative environment through classroom activities settings, such as the 'group problem-solving, simulations and decision-making'. He elaborated the broad scope of task as the 'pedagogical task', which is similar to the notion of 'pedagogical task' defined by Richards et

al (1985). It is apparent that the classroom outcome would be achieved by the accurate exchange of language meaning rather than rough communication. This hypothesis is also be supported by other researchers. Skehan (1996) argued that task is a kind of meaning-based activities concerned with the 'real world'. Thus, a focus on meaning is the substantial characteristic of task. Most importantly, the 'goal' and classroom outcomes should also be concerned as the component of the task, which are suggested by Willis (1996): 'tasks are the activities where target language is used by the learner for a communicative goal in order to achieve an outcome' (p. 23).

Additionally, Ellis (2003) also defined 'task' as a 'work-plan', but he focuses on the acknowledgement of language production by saying "…A task is intended to result in language use that bears a resemblance, direct, to the way language is used in the real world..." (p. 16). This definition focuses on the pedagogical outcome, i.e. how language is used spontaneously in the target language environment. Moreover, Ellis (2003) put forward the communicative task, which "requires students to pay attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources" (p. 16). It seems that learners might generate the language with the knowledge they have know. Language input and language output are probably processed based on their knowledge articulation. Ellis (2003) also discussed the differences between task and exercise. He pointed out 'task' is 'meaning-focused', while 'exercise' is 'form-focused' in the language use (p. 3). According to Nunan (2004), task is defined from the pedagogical perspective. He stated that:

"Task is a piece of classroom work that involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is focused on mobilizing their grammatical knowledge in order to express meaning, and in which the intention is to convey meaning rather than to manipulate form." (p. 4).

Clearly, it emphasizes language learners' attention will be drawn to focus on language meaning rather than merely on language form in the communicative tasks. Nunan (2004) shows that the natural process of learner's performance in the task might be sequenced through analysing the language features by language input, consolidating the knowledge by conducting the tasks, and then generating the accurate language by what they have learned. Pedagogically, it illustrates that language learners will be engaged in the communicative activities to learn how language is used in their target language and then express the grammatical meaning they have examined.

B.   The Definition of TBL

Having discussed the definition of *task* above, it is apparent that *task* has different dimensions. It can be described that the communicative task should be related to 'real-world' situation. The goals and perspectives for educators to design tasks should be concrete. Significantly, learners' attention would be focused on the meaning rather than merely on grammatical form when they are involved in the communicative task. Thus, applying task for language teaching is not only to help learners to use language effectively, but also focus on the accurate use of language (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004).

According to the Willis's (1996) notion of task, TBL can be defined as one of the communicative approach to foreign language teaching, in which learners' 'communicative purpose' for target language learning will be eventually achieved by tasks with a variety of activities. TBL is a sort of learner-centered language teaching approach which concerns on language learners' actual performance in the communicative tasks. Additionally, TBL attempts to engage learners in the interactive context to fulfill the task, where learners' language system will be developed through the process of performing the task (Skehan, 1998). Thus, the perspective of applying TBL in the foreign language classroom is to make aware of language learners' conscious identification of foreign language learning and effective communication. Therefore, the discussion on the value of TBL related to the pedagogical outcome of TBL will be presented in the next section.

C.   The Contributions of TBL

Ellis (2003) mentioned that *'task'* would be of great value in providing the opportunities for language learners to experience the 'real-time communication', in which language learners would develop the competence in communicating fluently and effectively. In other words, learners will be engaged in using target language in an actual context when tasks are implemented in a language class. The similar perspective is ascertained by Nunan (2004) who highlighted that language learner will be given the chance to experience the communicative language use through 'task-focused' approach. Learners will be developed to acquire skills and strategies in using language for effective communication (Nunan, 2004). Furthermore, learners will become the active participants in the communicative classroom in the interactive activities settings (ibid).

Moreover, Task-based language teaching (TBLT), which focuses on the 'meaning-based learning' and 'students-centered' teaching approach, would make learners have a sense of accomplishment when they perform task successfully (Prabhu, 1987). Inspired by Kolb (1984) and Kohonen's (1992) model of experiential learning, Nunan (2004) claims that it provides the theoretical evidence of TBLT in achieving the second language teaching outcome. Thus, Nunan (2004) concluded TBLT is beneficial in developing language learners' foreign language ability as their existed knowledge has been put into the real language use. In addition, TBLT focuses on learners' performance in the manipulation of language knowledge as well as autonomous learning.

TBL, aiming at developing language learners' language accuracy and fluency, provides the ground of facilitating L2 acquisition (e.g. Nunan, 1989; Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003). One of the attractive feature of TBLT defined by Ellis (2003) who points out that task-based approach emphasizes on the 'syllabus', 'methodology' and 'what can be taught and how

to teach' (p. 30). It indicates that the *task* is of great value for the communicative language curriculum design and appropriate use of teaching method. Another supportive view is made by Willis (1996) who claims that TBL integrates the "best insights from communicative language teaching with an organized focus on language form" (p. 1). Thus, TBL approach perhaps will deal with the constraints of merely form-focused or communication-focused approaches since fluency and accuracy are highly emphasized.

All these noticeable features of the foreign language teaching mentioned above are attributed to the value of TBL. Nunan (2004) claims that TBLT that is a 'flexible and contextual sensitive approach' would facilitate foreign language learners' learning and teachers' teaching within different language background. TBLT becomes an innovative foreign language teaching around the world (Nunan, 2004). According to Nunan' findings and empirical studies in 2004, TBLT has been drawn by many educational institutes and ministries of educations in some Asia countries, such as Japan, China, Singapore, Korea, and Malaysia. It would be summarized that TBL not only focuses on the development of learners' communicative competence, but also facilitates their L2 learning process.

D.   The Critical Views of Problematic Issues Related to the Application of TBL

According to the contributions of TBL discussed above, it is conceivable that TBL is an attractive approach to language researchers and practitioners. Apart from the benefits of TBL, there are some variable factors would affect the successful possibility of TBL application, such as the teaching method, flexible time, language materials, the decisions concerning on the content of syllabus design, learners' language level and individual differences (e.g. Prabhu, 1987, Willis & Willis, 2001; Nunan, 1989 & 2003; Swan, 2005).

Swan's (2005) assertion can be one the instances more associated to my teaching context-based in a secondary school. He points out the factors affecting the TBL implementation are mainly from the large classroom size in the secondary school classroom and the existed 'unmotivated' young learners. In such circumstances, TBL might not provide much opportunities and time for adolescents to experience language drills and practices, i.e. "memorize word list, learn grammatical rules by heart or translate sentences" (Swan, 2005, p.383). Swan (2005) also cited Skehan's (1994) argument and then investigated TBL might fail to develop learners' ability to produce accurate language with grammatical features.

Thus, it is clear that TBL would have problems in affecting learners' grammar acquisition. It can also be argued that the application of TBL lies in helping learners achieve fluent and accurate performance in the mastery of language process. Swan (2005) indicated that language learners would face the problem in achieving 'fluency and accurate language production' in a simultaneous and spontaneous way (p. 387). Then, the process of 'negotiation of meaning' in TBLT is also argued when learners are at the noticing stage and interaction stage (Swan, 2005). He argues that teachers often feel frustrated about the learners' involvement in the communicative language environment, i.e. accurate interaction in the task, interference of their counterparts' errors, ignorance of teachers' control, L1 use for the effective communication (ibid). Hence, classroom management seems to be challenging for teacher to concern the appropriate use of TBL to engage learners to perform tasks effectively in the 'mixed-level classes'.

Moreover, Ellis (2003, p.31) cited Kumaravadivelu's (1993) statement by saying "methodology becomes the central tenet of task-based pedagogy, in that no attempt is made to specify what the learners will learn, only how they will learn" (p. 31). It indicates that linguistic outcome might not be achieved, such as grammar acquisition. While, it implies that TBLT only highlights the focus on the students' action in the foreign language learning process rather than the linguistic point and language content. In addition, Ellis (2003) states that "the rationale for task-based syllabuses is largely theoretical in nature, there being little empirical evidence to demonstrate that they are superior to linguistic syllabuses" (p. 210). Under the ground of these assumptions, it may not be convinced that TBL is the most effective approach in the second language teaching. It is doubted that TBL would be done successfully in the practice of teaching foreign language. In light of these problematic issues of TBL, it seems that many researchers suspect the value of TBL (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Swan, 2005).

It is worth mentioning that those problematic issues discussed above might be supported with the empirical studies in the Asian countries context. Some Linguists found that teacher may not perform very well in the sequencing stage while implementing TBL. Classroom management is one of the substantial factors in affecting the successful of TBL application in the L2 classroom, which is supported by Carless's (2002) empirical study in the Hong Kong primary schools. 'Large classroom size', 'teachers' low language proficiency' and insufficient knowledge of task-based approach, 'traditional examination-based syllabi' and the frequency of L1 (Cantonese) use are the situational factors occurred in the process of TBL (Carless, 2002). It shows that the teachers have difficulties in controlling the learners' performance in performing tasks because of the classroom 'noise and disciplines' when learners are involved with the task (ibid).

Similarly, by citing Li's (2003) study based in Mainland China, Littlewood (2006) found that many teachers were often frustrated in applying communicative activities and tasks because of the inadequate time and learners' reluctant attitude. The frequency of L1 use in TBL is attributed to learners' low foreign language level (ibid). By illustrating most researchers' observation in many Asian countries (e.g. Hong Kong, Mainland China, South Korea and Japan), Littlewood (2006) reveals that English teachers are often lack of confidence and concrete objectives on the application of TBLT, which was resulted from their own language development and experience, classroom management, plus language learners' levels as well as individual differences. These empirical evidences are relevant to the literature

argument of TBL done by Ellis (2003) and Swan (2005).

As for the problems concerned for the application of TBL, many researchers suggest different ways to deal with these problems existed in the implementation of TBL. The 'quality' of task design with simple or complex form should depend on specific pedagogical perspective (Skehan, 1998). Also, appropriate sequencing process in a task-based language class should also be considered based on the learners' target language needs (ibid). Willis and Willis (2007) points out the classroom time should be used properly based on the curriculum design. Additionally, well-designed of tasks with appropriate materials for the specific instruction might promote language learners' ability in the fluency of meaning expressing and accuracy of linguistic features use (e.g. Skehan, 1998; Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003; Swan, 2005).

Overall, TBL attempts to develop language learners' 'receptive skills and productive skills' as well as promoting their 'academic language proficiency' (Duran & Ramaut, 2006). Then, Richards and Rodgers (2001) stated that the input material for TBLT could be books, newspaper, video, TV and so on. While, the in-put materials should be neither too difficult nor too easy so that learners will have enthusiasm and confidence to perform the task (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). Additionally, Willis (1996) says that the TBL framework would help teachers approach in-class task with challenge but without too much risk. Thus, TBL framework seems likely to help teachers to deal with time management, to conduct L2 input materials, to change the traditional classroom condition, to change teacher and learners' roles in the TBL classroom. In light of these suggestive standpoints, the next section of this essay will discuss the TBL would be probably implemented based on the specific teaching context in the Chinese secondary school.

III. The Application of Task-based Approach in the Chinese Context

A. Brief Description of My Teaching Context

As some circumstantial factors mentioned by many linguists (e.g. Swan, 2005; Littlewood, 2006) are relevant to my teaching context in China. It reflects that some variable factors, possibilities and challenges might be of considerations for implementing the TBL in my specific context. It needs to point out the classroom size of senior high school is often ranged in 40-50 students in the secondary school (e.g. junior high school and senior high school). The students' language level is varied from high, intermediate to low. Most importantly, the time set for English class is arranged in 45minutes for only one lesson each day, approximately 3 hours a week, around 40 weeks a year. In that situation, communicative approaches to foreign language teaching involved with so much communicative activities and specific tasks are often ignored.

Therefore, the approach to foreign language teaching in the secondary school is more teacher-centered rather than learner-centered. PPP (presentation, practice, production) and grammar translation are widely used as the main teaching methodology in the secondary English teaching in China. All these intentions mainly depend on the much emphasis of the school entrance examination launched by the Chinese Ministry of Education. Thus, teachers' teaching perspectives focus much on the development of learners' linguistic competence but less on their communicative competence. It is resulted that teachers have occupied a large amount of talking time for the explicit grammar instruction at the beginning of class. To some extent, with the misunderstanding of CLT, teachers often neglect students' achievement for accuracy so that students can not express their meaning that is grammatically acceptable. TBL is also misunderstood by many teachers in the secondary school because they regard *task* as the exercise and grammar drills. They do not know how to design and sequence the appropriate communicative tasks which not only focus on the language point acquisition, but also the pragmatic language use.

From learners' perspective, my target students who are within low intermediate level aged from 16-18 in the senior high school play passive roles in the language learning. Most importantly, most of my students with low proficiency of oral performance can not express themselves clearly though they spend plenty of time on studying grammar rules. Also, they are reluctant to speak out in front of the class when they are involved in the interactive tasks in the paper-based and blackboard-based classroom. Their objective of learning is not clearly stated, what is more, concrete instruction for tasks and activities are also approached with fewer targets by teachers. Therefore, most learners found that English class is boring, as a result, their motivation, confidence and enthusiasm for English learning is low. Thus, currently senior high school English teachers have to concern on how to make English teaching more communicatively and creatively. Furthermore, they need to consider how to make learners feel more confident and enjoyable in the L2 learning experience.

B. Application

1. The aim of the task design

Based on the brief description of my specific teaching context in one of the senior high schools in China, applying tasks in its foreign language teaching process seems very urgent. It is because of the value of TBLT in developing language learners' linguistic competence, but also their communicative competence (e.g. Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 1989 & 2004). In light of showing the application of tasks in senior high school English teaching grounded in Chinese context, I would like to design a specific task based on the course book of senior high school curriculum. The major purpose of presenting the task is making students aware of what task is, as well as providing a rough introduction to process task design for teachers. Most importantly, my attempt is to make senior high school students have conscious sense of the accurate grammatical structure as well as actual foreign language use. Overall, the task would be designed in

accordance with my target learners' language ability. Inspired by many linguists' concerns on TBL (e.g. Willis, 1996; Ellis, 2003; Nunan, 2004; Willis and Willis, 2007), the focus of the task is going to be involving learners in the creative and communicative environment where they can get access to the 'real language use'.

2. The rational for the task design

Having discussed the definition of task above, it is apparent that meaning is one of the significant characteristics of *task* when 'meaning-focus' is highlighted by many linguists (e.g. Skehan, 1998; Nunan, 2004). Other importance dimensions of task are pedagogical outcome and goal, which are mainly discussed by Skehan (1998) and Willis (1996). Thus, it is not surprising that the task design should take these dimensions into serious consideration. In addition, Skehan (1998) suggests that the 'task-like' activity should be related to the real world. Moreover, Willis and Willis (2007) suggest task should be based on learners' interest. Learners should be engaged in the classroom tasks to produce their own meaning and complete the task so as to achieve language learning outcome (Skehan, 1998). Thus, in terms of the real language use, learners' language needs, interests and learning outcomes, these general discussions provide an explicit guideline for task design,

In light of these rational and criteria for the design of 'task-like activity', learners' engagement in the real language use and meaning-focused performance seem to be an essential consideration for designing a task with fun and excitement. With the serious consideration of the task design and my specific context, I would like to propose a task for the senior high school students to engage in the 'real language use' with less difficulties and more confidence. The topic is the "good manner" in unit 6 associated with the course book set for senior high students who are in grade one, aiming at showing students how to behave acceptably and politely if they were involved in some specific situation. This topic is more related to learners' actual performance in their daily life so that they might discuss it with high motivation based on their personal experience. Most importantly, this task attempts to help students learn some new words and useful expressions, socialized etiquette. In a word, learners will be involved in the 'real-time communicative environment' with this motivating topic and rich opportunities to interact with each other in the communicative classroom.

3. The sequence of the TBL lesson

As the issues concerned in TBLT, it is important for teachers to consider what will happen when learners are given the opportunities to experience communicative L2 learning? Regardless of a task as a 'workplan', to what extension of consideration the task designer should concern? And how TBL might promote L2 learners' learning? By taking into account of these considerations in TBLT, the understanding of TBL can be explored deeply by looking at the TBL framework proposed by Willis (1996). It might be of a help for teachers to reflect how TBLT can be achieved with the parallel tasks and phases. Three phases which are 'pre-task', 'task-cycle' and 'language focuses' provide teachers with explicit procedures to conduct the TBL lesson with specific task in the classes. Thus, the specific sequence for this TBL lesson has been followed gradually concerning on the basis of TBL framework.

4. The evaluation and proposed suggestions

With the consideration of my target students' learning ability, this TBL lessons including simply tasks intends to engage students in the communicative tasks to have a certain opportunity to speak with confidence and enthusiasm. Many 'task-like activities' (e.g. brainstorming, group discussion and 'comparing activity') have been simply adopted to draw learners' attention to the specific topics. Learners probably will be aroused to focus on the meaning first and then focus on the form, depending on teachers' sequence of communicative tasks and explicit instruction for follow-up tasks (ibid). All these principles are basically followed by Willis' (1996) framework and other researchers' emphasis (e.g. Skehan, 1998; Willis and Willis, 2007). It is widely acknowledged that learning a foreign language should be associated with vocabulary learning, sentence structure learning and techniques for effective communication. Thus, this TBL lesson is probably simplified by conducting the specific communicative activities with specific task sequence and group or pair works' discussions, aiming at approaching the communicative tasks effectively and making learners learn interactively.

Additionally, this TBL lesson would be differentiated from the traditional English class as it will be approached through computers. PowerPoint soft with visual aid has been applied to conduct this TBL lesson more creatively in the computer room. Accordingly, computer-assisted language teaching would involve EFL learners in an authentic environment with visual aids and authentic materials (Bax, 2003). Thus, this kind of teaching approach for TBL lesson may help teachers to change the traditional classroom from boring one to arousing one' interests with the exciting pictures. For the whole sequence of the TBL lesson, the teacher acts as the 'monitor', 'adviser', 'instructor', 'chairperson' to discern what they will teach and how they will approach the tasks to students. Therefore, the students seem likely to perform the task actively with teachers' proper instructions, classroom controlling, communicative task setting. Thus, in light of these possible benefits of this TBL lesson, it might be desirable to see that the outcome would be achieved.

However, the potentiality of this TBL would be concerned by the classroom management. Time management is regarded as an important factor in the TBL setting (Willis, 1996), thus, I have simply set the expected time for each task phase so as to minimize the classroom time with endeavors for this TBL lesson. This is the proposed sequence to approach each task phase in the TBL lesson. However, it might also be challenging and risky for the time management and classroom principles. Thus, it might seem to be difficult for teachers to complete all the activities as planned with time limit in the class, plus other classroom risk, such as classroom chaos. The proper consideration for this issue might

be dealt with by setting additional lessons for the continuous sequence of this TBL lesson. Additionally, another limitation of this TBL lesson is a lack of the authentic materials for the 'good manner' with some native-like texts. Thus, in terms of this limitation, my target students may not acknowledge the native-like context in this TBL lesson.

With the potential limitations of this TBL lesson, the future improvements would be probably focused on the development of rich authentic in-put materials for the task design. The certain time and proper classroom management might be controlled depending on the syllabus design. If it is possible to change the L2 education program for the implementation of TBL, the school authority may take the TBL designers' teaching needs and learners' leaning needs in the English classes into specific consideration by specifying sufficient time for English classes. Though many constraints and potential limitations might affect the successful implementation of TBL in the Chinese context, the English teacher might also implement task-based approach in their English teaching practice with long-term endeavor.

IV. CONCLUSION

With the overview of the theoretical background and practical part of TBL, it seems that TBL is superior to the traditional teaching approach as learners play the active role in the communicative classroom. The learners' role would be changed from passively to actively by the long-term TBL application. The language classroom would be changed from the quiet one to the active and communicative one. Language learners will be given the chances to experience real language learning with the rich authentic material input. Learners' linguistic skills and communicative skills would be developed through task-based approach. TBL might help language learners manipulate their language knowledge and express meaning fluently and accurately in the long-term project. In short, TBL seems like an effective approach to promote L2 learners' foreign language learning and develop their linguistic competence and communicative competence. It is admitted that there would be challenging and risky for teachers to implement TBL effectively in the foreign language classroom, especially in the secondary school context. However, personally, its advantages might far overweigh its disadvantages.

In short, according to my teaching context in China, it seems that task deign would be a complex work for English teachers as it is time-consuming. Thus, it might be suggested that teachers who are working in the EFL context can work cooperatively with their colleagues to design the tasks for one English session. Teacher can also be together to discuss how to develop the TBL lesson more effectively if time is available. With the consideration of teachers' language development, they might be suggested to take a English teaching training program to learn how to apply TBL effectively for speaking, listing, reading and writing so as to achieve pedagogical outcome. Overall, there is a growing need of task-based teaching approach to help learners promote target language learning in the EFL context in China.

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The Effect of Teaching Communicative Strategy on EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate

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Abstract—While attaining language proficiency has turned to a main concern of many, how to do so is still one of the biggest secrecy in TEFL field. With regards to improving learner's language proficiency, MacIntyre postulated willingness to communicate (WTC) as one of the best predictors of being a proficient learner. Moreover, perceiving the status quo of many competent learners who avoid communication as well as their narrow chance in getting proficiency, the researcher attempted to investigate whether teaching communicative strategies affected learners' WTC in general. For this purpose sixty students homogenized in terms of their language proficiency through PET, were randomly divided into two groups of control and experimental. A WTC and a communicative strategy questionnaire were administered before and after the treatment as pretest and posttest. The experimental group underwent 16 sessions of treatment and nine communicative strategies were taught. The results of the WTC pretest and posttest scores of the two groups were compared through ANCOVA which demonstrated significant difference between the two groups, with the experimental group outperforming the control group.

Index Terms—communicative strategy, compensatory strategy, willingness to communicate

I. INTRODUCTION

The decade of 70s is well recognized for the dramatic changes in the field of second language teaching. The emerging continuum of methods in the field of second language teaching aiming at creating communicative speaker mostly had a short shelf life and failed (Larson-Freeman, 2003). According to Richards (2006), the ever growing need for finding competency in interaction motivated the researchers to search for a new method that would enable learners to communicate. Nurturing learners to become communicatively competent, Skehan (1998) suggested giving considerable latitude to language learners so that they would be inclined to interact. Beside all the emphasis on creating the potential to use language communicatively, what has concerned the disciples of CLT method is dealing with passive students who show little signs of intention for interaction and who prefer to remain silent.

On the one hand, one can refer to McCroskey and Richmond (1987) who recognized individual characteristics such as anomie, self-esteem, cultural diversity, shyness, degree of familiarity, communicative apprehension, introversion, extroversion, self-efficacy, self-perceived communicative competence, sex, and age as being highly associated with talking behaviors and frequency of talking in both first and second language. On the other hand, one can point to others who diagnosed situational variables as an influential factor (e.g., Dörnyei, 2004; MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, & Noels, 1998). For the first time, McCroskey and Baer (1985, as cited in MacIntyre et al., 1998) referred to the concept of *willingness to communicate* (*WTC*) in native language for explaining the variability in talking behavior in L1. MacIntyre et al. (1998) delved into WTC in second language and converged some affective and social variables into a pyramid-shaped heuristic model to explain —the probability of initiating communication when there is a chance (p. 573).

Since increasing WTC among language learners lead to more successful language acquisition (MacIntyre & Doucette, 2010), researchers have attempted to explore how WTC can be improved among EFL learners. As a result, MacIntyre and Donovan (2004) emphasized that being reticent and unwilling to communicate generally has an unfavorable consequence for language learners. On the whole, people who are unwilling to communicate usually run the risk of being considered inefficient in comparison to others who are equally-experienced and qualified (Richmond & Roach, 1992).

Additionally, considering Iran in which English is learned as a foreign language, language classes are the rare opportunities for interaction and communication in English language. Therefore, in such a circumstance learners' unwillingness to communicate in classes could fade away the possible impact of teaching-learning process and thus influence the final outcome.

Equipping learners with learning strategies, specifically communicative strategies may be a plausible solution to this important problem. Since Many studies have provided evidence regarding the effect of strategy instruction on variables

which contribute to the quality of learners' communication and oral production (Tavakoli, Dasjerdi, & Estalkhi, 2011) as well as learners' motivation, self-efficacy and anxiety (Oxford, 1990) , it can be assumed that strategy instruction, namely communicative strategies instruction, could make some learners more willing to communicate.

Purpose of This Study

Since Many studies have provided evidence regarding the effect of strategy instruction on variables which contribute to the quality of learners' communication and oral production (Tavakoli, Dasjerdi, & Estalkhi, 2011) as well as learners' motivation, self-efficacy and anxiety (Oxford, 1990), it can be assumed that strategy instruction, namely communicative strategies instruction, could make some learners more willing to communicate.

Regarding the problems about unwillingness to communicate such as silence, hesitation, and incompetent students and with respect to the abundant evidence in terms of the influential effect of strategy training on various aspects of language learning, the purpose of this study was to determine whether teaching communicative strategies could significantly influence EFL learners' willingness to communicate.

In order to investigate the impact of teaching communicative strategy the following research question was formulated.
1) Does communicative strategy instruction have a significant effect on EFL learners' willingness to communicate?

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A. Willingness to Communicate in First Language

For the first time McCroskey and Baer (1985) introduced the term *Willingness to Communicate* in first language (As cited in MacIntyre et al., 1994). McCroskey is one of the prominent researchers who has dedicated many studies on WTC in native language. According to MacIntyre (1991), McCroskey referred to WTC as a reasonable explanation for all of differences in humane communication behavior. McCroskey and Richmond (1987) figured out that the causes of fluctuations in amount of talking are considerably rooted in personality. They also emphasized that situation can impact WTC but "individuals show a regular tendencies across situation". (p. 216)

McCroskey (1994) developed an instrument that measures WTC in various contexts with various receivers. He searched for antecedents, variables that lead to differences in WTC. McCroskey and Richmond (1994) considered introversion, anomie, alienation, self-esteem, cultural divergence, communication skill level, and communication apprehension as the strong antecedents of WTC.

B. Willingness to Communicate in Second Language

While many research dedicated to investigate the impact of psychological and social factors in L1communication, a void of research felt in second language acquisition field (Dörnyei, 1995). Apparently, just a limited number of factors were recognized as predictors of L2 communication. Some factors like anxiety, motivation, self-confidence, have no role in L2 learning (MacIntyre et al. 1998). The premiere studies that integrated some psychological factors with L2 acquisition can be referred to Gardner`s (1985*) Socioeducational model* and Clément's (1980) *social context model.*

MacIntyre (1994) noted that he expanded these two above-mention models by the compounding WTC notion that he retrieved from McCroskey. He stressed that reasons of being willingness or unwillingness to communicate in L1 isn't generalizable to L2 and maintained that variables influencing WTC in L2 are much more complex than variables influencing L1. He also postulated that the distinction between WTC in Ll and L2 rooted in social, political and intergroup issues that aren`t influential in WTC in L1. Therefore, model of structural model, Path model and pyramid model of WTC appeared that is the magnification of many psychological factors that integrated to L2 learning (Kim, 2004). Later, Yashima (2002) and Hashimoto (2004) based on MacIntyre et al. (1997) model added other factors to WTC.

1. Pyramid Model

In 1998, MacIntyre, Clement, Dörnyei, and Noels defined WTC as "the probability of engaging in communication when free to choose to do so" (p.546). They developed a comprehensive model of willingness to communicate in L2. Dörnyei (2005) described WTC model as

Composite ID (individual difference) variable that draws together a host of learner variables that have been well established as influences on second language acquisition and use, resulting in a construct in which psychological and linguistic factors are integrated in an organic manner. (p. 202)

MacIntyre and et al (1998) described the heuristic model of WTC as a pyramid-shaped structure that includes six categories. All the variables in the pyramid model are hypothesized to have two different influences on WTC "situational influences" and "enduring influences".

"Enduring influences" can be defined as long-term properties of the environment or person that can possibly apply to any situation, while "situational influences" can be described as more transient and dependent on the specific context in which a person functions at a given time". (MacIntyre et al., 1998, p. 546).

MacIntyre and et al. (1998) Hypothesized that three layers on the top of pyramid have situational influences and we can considered them as the most direct and probable cause of L2 communication. The three layers closest to the top of the pyramid are Communication Behavior (L2 use = Layer I), Behavior Intention (WTC = Layer II), and Situated Antecedents (Desire to Communicate with a Specific Person = Layer III). The bottom three layers comprises of —

Layer IV (Motivation Propensities), V (Affective-Cognitive Context), and VI (Social and Individual Context = the bottom of the pyramid) .They have relatively stable, enduring influences on the process of L2 communication.
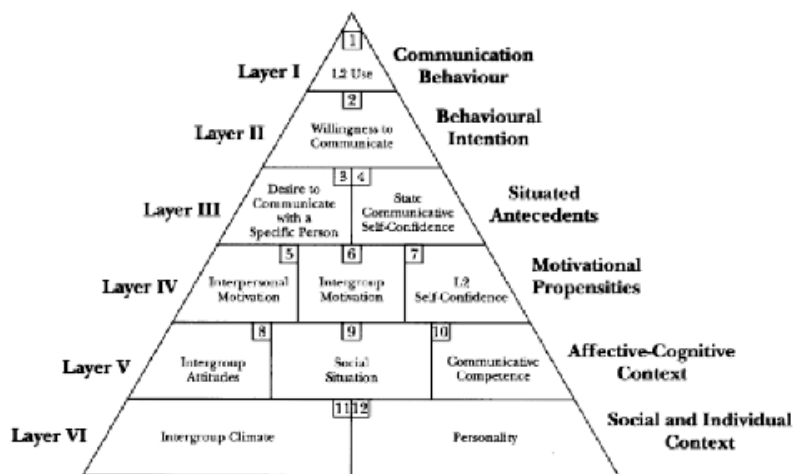

Figur 1. Heuristic model of variables influencing WTC (Source: MacIntyre, Clément, Dörnyei & Noels, 1998, p. 547)

C. Communication Strategies

According to Tarron (1981) in decades of 50s and 60s, there was a void of no systematic work about the developing second language acquisition. He believed that in decades of 70s some research were dedicated to distinguish the differences between first and second language acquisition and subsequently on error analysis. He explained that the result of all these research laid the foundations for emerging a new notions such as 'approximate system', 'transitional competence' and 'interlanguage system'.

Based on Richards (1978) the concept of Interlanguage that analyzes the process of second language learning is drawn from studying on language of pidgins, Creole, regional dialect and English as a foreign language.

Considering the interlanguage as a series of system (Ellis, 2003) different types of interlanguage have been introduced. Farch and Kasper (1984) divided interlanguage to three parts, interlanguage as a linguistic process, interlanguage as a learning process, and the interlanguage as a communication process. In studying of learning process of interlanguage system, the concern is identifying the processes involved in language learning as well as strategies which the learners draws upon in developing his interlanguage system.

1. Teaching Communicative Strategy

Farch and Kasper (1984) recommend teaching communicative strategy to language learners and argued that by teaching communicative strategy explicitly, learners become aware of their implicit knowledge of communicative strategy besides they learn how to use communicative strategy in informal and formal situation.

Dörnyei (1995) is one of the advocates of communicative strategy teaching. He underestimates the generalizability of those studies that didn`t support teaching of communicative strategy. He claimed that those studies that don`t support communicative strategy teaching are based on two or three typologies while there are variety of communicative strategy. On the other hand many researchers conducted some research to underpin efficiency of teaching communicative strategy (e.g., Farch &Kasper, 1984; Maleki, 2007).

Dörnyei (1995) criticized the process of teaching second language in language classes. He believed that lack of proficiency in many language learners, to a large portion is due to overlooking teaching communicative strategy. He also maintained that by teaching communicative strategy learners sense of security and self-confidence would be enhanced.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study were 60 pre-intermediate EFL learners selected from among an existing intact group of 88 students based on their scores on a sample language proficiency PET (the 60 students whose scores were one standard deviation above and below the mean were chosen) and randomly assigned to two groups; the experimental and the control group.

B. Instrument

To accomplish the purpose of this study, the researcher applied two instruments: PET as a general proficiency test to homogenize the participants and one questionnaire that measured the participants' willingness to communicate. The WTC Scale adapted from MacIntyre, Baker, Clément, and Conrad (2001). The scale consisted of a total of 27 items that

measure L2 WTC in four basic skill areas (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) and the participants' willingness to communicate inside and outside of classroom.

C. Procedure

1. Procedure in Phase 1

At thr first step, PET was administered to 88 pre intermediate learners and sixty students who scored one standard deviation above and below the sample mean were chosen and then randomly divided into two groups; one experimental group that contained totally 30 participants and one control group that contained totally 30 participants.

In order to understand the effect of communicative strategy training on students' willingness to communicate, one questionnaire was distributed among all participants in the control and experimental groups. The questionnaire was the WTC questionnaire which measures the degree of WTC among language learners.

2. Procedures in Phase 2

Nine communicative strategies (Circumlocution, appeal for help, approximation, time-stalling devices, message abandonment, confirmation check, comprehension check, clarification request and all-purpose word) from Dörnyei and Scott's (1995) taxonomy were selected for the instruction to the experimental group. Reasonable body of research suggests teaching these strategies since they encourage language learning and increase risk-taking of language learners (e.g., Dörnyei, 1995; Farch &Kasper, 1984; Maleki, 2007). Dörnyei (1995) believes that teaching these strategies increases learners` motivation to initiate conversation, gives them a sense of security, and helps them stay in conversation.

The treatment was conducted during 16 sessions and each communicative strategy was taught in one session. Three sessions were dedicated to communicative strategy review. In each session, the explicit communicative strategy lasted for 40 minutes. The students were encouraged to work in groups. They were also informed of the rationale and value of communicative strategy instruction. They were given a list of names and examples of communicative strategy. Table 3.2 gives a summary of the objectives of communicative strategy instruction in each lesson. Each communicative strategy was taught based on Dörnyei`s (1995) suggestion for teaching communicative strategies. Based on his suggestion communicative strategy instruction should follow the following steps:

1. Raising learner awareness about the nature and communicative potential of CSs by making learners conscious of strategies already in their repertoire, sensitizing them to the appropriate situations where these could be useful, and making them realize that these strategies could actually work.

2. Encouraging students to be willing to take risks and use CSs.

3. Providing L2 models of the use of certain CSs through demonstrations, listening materials and videos, and getting learners to identify, categorize, and evaluate strategies used by native speakers or other L2 speakers.

4. Highlighting cross-cultural differences in CS use might involve various degrees of stylistic appropriateness associated with CSs (e.g., in some languages particular CSs may be seen as indications of bad style).

5. Teaching CSs directly by presenting linguistic devices to verbalize CSs which have a finite range of surface structure realizations.

6. Providing opportunities for practice in strategy use appears to be necessary because CSs can only fulfill their function as immediate first aid devices if their use has reached an automatic stage. (pp. 62-64)

To encourage learners to use communicative strategy, they were encouraged to practice it through activities. For practicing circumlocution and approximation students were asked to define and describe objects. In order to learn to use approximation, students were given plenty of synonyms as well as a dialogue in order to practice approximation through the dialogue.

The activities focusing on appeal for help, confirmation check, comprehension check, and clarification request involved the employment of different tasks in which students practiced asking for the cooperation of their interlocutors. For example, in using appeal for help one participant had to pretend that she did not know one key word. For confirmation check students were paired up and practiced a dialogue in which one of the interlocutors could not understand something and the other interlocutor had to explain it for each other. For comprehension check, students practiced check question through a dialogue. Moreover, for clarification request students were paired up and played chain misunderstanding. That is, a student sat in a circle and pretended not to understand what other interlocutors said and asked for repetition. Furthermore, for topic avoidance, students were taught how to go off the point and evade answers. For hesitation devices, students had to insert hesitation devices through a dialogue.

At the end of the treatment period, the two mentioned questionnaires were administered to both the control and the experimental group in order to see whether there were any changes in students communicative strategy use as an indication of the validity of communicative strategy instruction and subsequently in WTC to verify the null hypothesis of the study

D. Data Analysis

The collected data fed into SPSS. To come up with reasonable answers to the research question ANCOVA was run.

IV. RESULT

Participant Selection

In order to come up with two groups of homogeneous participants, the control and experimental group, the researcher needed to select eighty eight participants and then select sixty homogeneous participants.

1. PET Administration for Homogenizing the Participants

In order to homogenize the participants, the PET was administered to the 88 non-randomly selected pre-Intermediate EFL learners. The descriptive statistics of the participants' scores on the PET is provided in Table 4.1 below. According to the table, the mean and the standard deviation of the scores were 63.97, 65 and 10.56 respectively.

TABLE 4.1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET

Statistics

PET

N	Valid	88
	Missing	0
Mean		63.9773
Median		65.0000
Mode		59.00[a]
Std. Deviation		10.56124
Minimum		40.00
Maximum		85.00

Figure 4.1 below shows the histogram of the PET scores of the 88 students who took the PET from whom the main participants of the study were to be chosen.
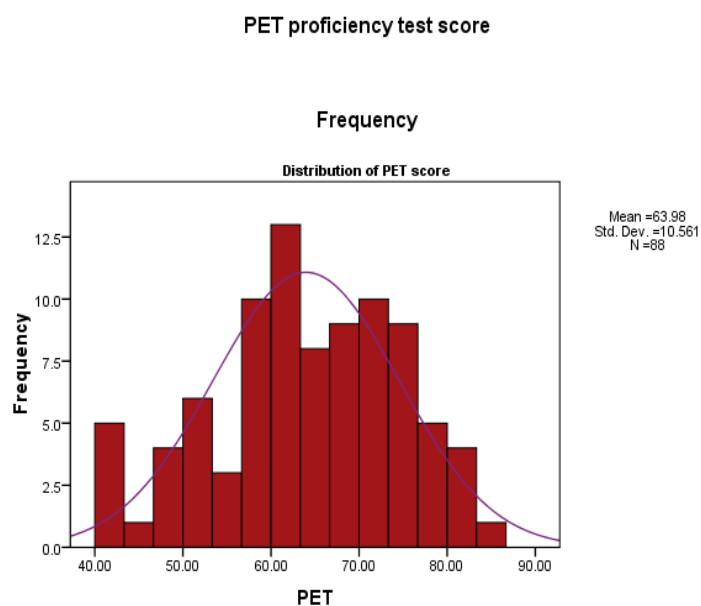
Figure 4.1 distributions of PET score

In order to answer the research question of the study an ANCOVA had to be run among the pretest and posttest WTC scores of the two groups. The focus of this part is analyzing the data obtained by WTC questionnaire.

2. Testing the Assumptions for running ANCOVA

2.1 Normality

In order to check the normality assumption of the scores obtained on the pretest and posttest of WTC in the two groups, Shapiro-Wilk Test was used. The normality result in Table 4.2 shows that the p value was .40 and .32 in the control and experimental groups respectively on the pretest of WTC. The results also indicated that the p value was .091 and .53 on the posttest of WTC in the control and experimental groups respectively. Since the *p* values for all sets of scores are greater than the selected significant level, .05, the normality assumption is met.

TABLE 4.2
SHAPIRO-WILK TEST OF NORMALITY ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF WTC

Variable		Groups	Statistic	df	Sig.
WTC	Pretest	Control	.946	30	.400
		Experimental	961	30	.325
	Posttest	Control	.940	30	.091
		Experimental	.970	30	.534

2.2 Homogeneity of variance

As demonstrated in Table 4.3, the homogeneity of variance in pretest and posttest WTC scores was met ($F_{(1, 58)}$ = .513, *p*= .48>.05).

TABLE 4.3
LEVENE'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES ON THE POSTTEST OF CS

Variable	F	df1	df2	Sig.
WTC	.513	1	58	.477

2.3 Linearity

To assess the linearity assumption, the researcher checked the scatterplot between the covariate (pretest scores) and the dependent or response variable. Figure 4.3 demonstrates the data points for these variables along with the regression line and the Loess line. As demonstrated in Figure 4.2, there appears to be a linear (straight-line) relationship between the covariate and the response variable in both groups and thus running ANCOVA is legitimate.
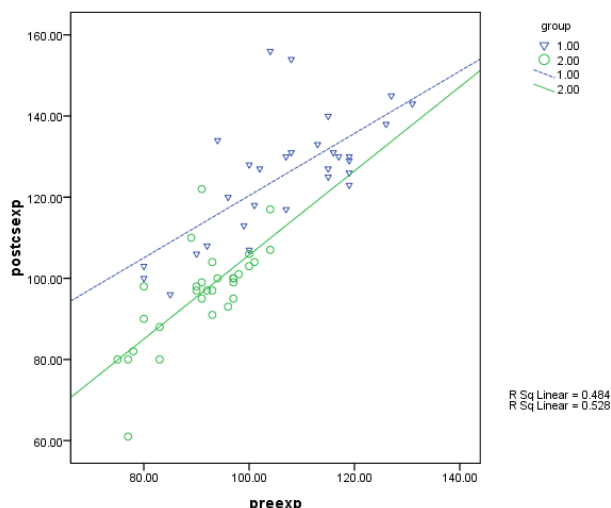

Figure 4.2 the Scatterplot for Checking the Linearity Assumption

2.4 Homogeneity of Regression Slopes

In order to check the assumption of the homogeneity of regression slopes, the researcher checked the interaction between the covariate and the grouping variable. The results in Table 4.4 (*F*= 1.204, p= .27>.05) demonstrate that the interaction was not statistically significant, indicating that the assumption of homogeneity of regression slopes was met.

TABLE 4.4
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS FOR WTC SCORE

Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Group * WTC Pretest	34.076	1	34.07	1.204	.27

2.5 The Results of ANCOVA

The null hypothesis of the current study stated that communicative strategy instructional does not have any statistically significant effect on the intermediate EFL learners' WTC. In order to check the null hypothesis, a one-way between-groups analysis covariance (One-way ANCOVA) was used. Table 4.5 displays the descriptive statistics of the WTC pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control groups. As demonstrated in Table 4.5, the mean of the pretest WTC scores turned out to be 60.53 and 57.33 for the experimental and control groups respectively. Moreover, the WTC posttest scores were calculated to be 75. 4 and 59.3 for the experimental and control groups respectively.

TABLE 4.5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF WTC

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
postexp1wtc	30	60.00	91.00	75.4000	7.92029
preexp1wtc	30	49.00	77.00	60.5333	7.70460
precont1wtc	30	39.00	76.00	57.3333	9.77447
postcont1wtc	30	45.00	80.00	59.3333	9.84127
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Table 4.6 below demonstrates the between-subject results for the ANCOVA. As shown in Table 4.6, pretest WTC score was a significant covariate (F (1.57) = 105.90, p= .0005<.05). That is, the two groups were significantly different in terms of WTC prior to the treatment.

TABLE 4.6
TESTS OF BETWEEN SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: Post exp

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	6880.645[a]	2	3440.323	121.102	.000	.809
Intercept	463.671	1	463.671	16.322	.000	.223
Pre exp	3008.579	1	3008.579	105.904	.000	.650
Group	2622.984	1	2622.984	92.331	.000	.618
Error	1619.288	57	28.409			
Total	280796.000	60				
Corrected Total	8499.933	59				

a. R Squared = .809 (Adjusted R Squared = .803)

However, the results indicate that ($F_{(1, 57)}$ =92.3, p = .0005< .05, partial eta squared = .618) there was a significant difference between the two groups after the treatment far beyond the pretest differences. This indicated that the communicative strategies instruction had a significant effect on the EFL learners' WTC.

V. DISCUSSION

Since the introduction of WTC in second language, a great deal of attention has been devoted to investigating how WTC can be reinforced in language learners (Osterlan, 2014; Riasati, 2012). Base on the result of this study and observing the behavioral communication of students, after 16 sessions of teaching communicative strategy students' use of strategy dramatically increased and learners were perceived more willingness to communicate.

The students in experimental classes believed that teaching communicative strategy helped them to deal with unpredicted problem while speaking. One student stated since practicing on communicative strategies she wasn't double minded to speak up. Another student said that after learning the communicative strategies she wasn't afraid of raising her hand anymore and volunteered for interaction or providing responses to the posed questions. Another student said that she felt less anxious since she knew how to evade answers whenever she could not communicate.

Beside all the controversial debates about the usefulness of teaching communicative strategy, the result of this study indicates that teaching nine communicative strategies could significantly influence the use of communicative strategy. These changes in students' behavior could be referred to teaching communicative strategy.

Moreover the result of this study revealed that learners' total WTC was affected by communicative strategy instruction. It can be concluded that this result somehow is in concordance with MacIntyre and Noels (1996) finding. They believed that strategy training helps learners to control their emotions and attitudes and gives them more motivation and encouragement to learn more skills. In sum, teaching strategy help learners overcome the psychological barriers in learning.

VI. CONCLUSION

An ANCOVA was performed to analyze the data obtained by the WTC questioner before and after the treatment. The result (F (1, 57) =92.3, p = .000, p < .05) showed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control group in terms of the improvement in total WTC. Therefore, it can be claimed that teaching communicative strategies significantly affect the participants´ performance in the experimental group on the posttest and they performed better than the control group. So, teaching the nine communicative strategies positively influenced the use of communicative strategy in the experimental group. The reason for this improvement could be attributed to the explicit communicative

strategy instruction. Based on Dörnyei (1996) teaching communicative strategies explicitly increase learners' awareness in the use of strategies. Based on this idea, one can draw the conclusion that by teaching nine strategies learners become aware of communicative strategy use. So, based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that teaching communicative strategies can influence learner's willingness to communicate. Aditionally, syllabus designers and materials developers have to provide the content of teaching material with comprehensible and proper tasks and exercises to familiarize learners with communicative strategy concept and its features.

APPENDIX. WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE QUESTIONNAIRE INSIDE THE CLASS ROOM

Directions: This questionnaire is composed of statements concerning your feelings about communication with other people, in English. Please indicate in the space provided frequency of time you choose to speak in English each classroom situation.

If you are almost never willing to speak English, write 1. If you are willing sometimes, write 2 or 3. If you are willing most of the time, write 4 or 5.

1 = Almost never willing
2 = Sometimes willing
3 = willing half of the time   4 = usually willing   5 = Almost always willing

Speaking in class, in English
1. Speaking in a group about your summer vacation.
2. Speaking to your teacher about your homework assignment.
3. A stranger enters the room you are in, how willing would you be to have a conversation if he talked to you first?
4. You are confused about a task you must complete, how willing are you to ask for instructions/clarification?
5. Talking to a friend while waiting in line.
6. How willing would you be to be an actor in a play?
7. Describe the rules of your favorite game.
8. Play a game in French, for example Monopoly.

Reading in class (to yourself, not out loud)
1. Read a novel.
2. Read an article in a paper.
3. Read letters from a pen pal written in native English.
4. Read personal letters or notes written to you in which the writer has deliberately used simple words and constructions.
5. Read an advertisement in the paper to find a good bicycle you can buy.
6. Read reviews for popular movies.

Writing in class, in English
1. Write an advertisement to sell an old bike.
2. Write down the instructions for your favorite hobby.
3. Write a report on your favorite animal and its habits.
4. Write a story.
5. Write a letter to a friend.
6. Write a newspaper article.
7. Write the answers to a "fun" quiz from a magazine.
8. Write down a list of things you must do tomorrow.

Comprehension in class
1. Listen to instructions and complete a task.
2. Bake a cake if instructions were not in Farsi.
3. Fill out an application form.
4. Take directions from an English speaker.
5. Understand an English movie.

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Reading Strategies Used by High Scoring and Low Scoring IELTS Candidates: A Think-aloud Study

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Abstract—This study investigated the differences in the type and frequency of strategies used by high scoring and low scoring Iranian IELTS candidacies. The participants were required to read two types of Academic IELTS reading comprehension texts. The study used think-aloud procedures to have an in-depth investigation of reading strategies used by the readers while doing the reading module of the IELTS test. The strategies that emerged from the think-aloud procedures were coded and categorized based on Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of reading strategies. Then, the strategies used by the two groups were compared in terms of type and frequency. The results demonstrated a major difference between the two groups of candidates in the use of compensation and metacognitive strategies among the other strategies offered by Oxford (1990). The high scoring readers employed these strategies in different ways and more frequently than the other group.

Index Terms—reading strategies, IELTS reading module, think-aloud procedure

I. INTRODUCTION

From a psycholinguistic viewpoint, reading is a kind of problem-solving activity in which the readers have an active role by constantly constructing meaning and testing hypotheses based on their background knowledge of the reading content and their knowledge about the language system. As Block (1986) states:

The thoughts that wander and rush through the minds of readers, the searches and struggles for meaning , the reflections and associations, are hidden from the outside observer. Yet this struggle and search for control are the core of reading comprehension (p. 463).

In comprehending a text, it has been found (e.g. Quiroz, 2014; Lee-Thompson, 2008; Lau & Chan, 2003; Fitzgerald, 1995) that readers employ a wide range of strategies to manage their interaction with written texts. Reading strategies can be defined as "deliberate, goal-directed attempts to control and modify the reader's efforts to decode text, understand words, and construct meanings of text" (Afflerbach, Pearson & Paris, 2008, p. 368).

Reading is the most essential skill for academic learning in EFL contexts. Moreover, it is the most available source of information and necessary input for EFL learners. Reading comprehension is also critical for EFL learners since it is one part of widely-used English proficiency tests such as the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) which continues to be a rigorous measure of English language proficiency in the world, and other international tests as well.

IELTS tests are offered in more than 140 countries four times a month ("IELTS Test Takers", 2015). There is no such thing as a pass or fail in IELTS. Results are reported as band scores on a scale from 1 (the lowest) to 9 (the highest). IELTS has two versions: IELTS Academic and IELTS General Training. IELTS Academic is for test takers who plan to study at undergraduate or postgraduate levels, and for those seeking professional registration. IELTS General Training is for test takers aiming to migrate to an English-speaking country (Australia, Canada, New Zealand, UK), and for those wishing to train or study at below degree level.

Focusing on the Academic IELTS Reading Module, this study using think-aloud procedures and a follow-up interview aims to detect the reading strategies employed by 8 Iranian high scoring IELTS candidates and 16 low scoring candidates so as to find out any differences between the two groups in terms of the type and frequency of strategies they used while doing the reading texts.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Reading strategies have attracted the attention of many researchers since the late 1970s. Since then, research in reading has shifted away from viewing reading as a product to focusing on the process of reading (Cohen & Macaro, 2007).

Following Hosenfled (1977), a pioneer in this area of research, a number of researchers began to focus on the relationship between reading proficiency and specific strategy use and tried to classify reading strategies of successful and less successful readers. Block (1986), for example, employed think-aloud protocols to study the strategies used by EFL readers enrolled in freshman reading courses in the USA. She found that, in contrast to the less skilled readers, the more skilled readers were able to integrate their understanding of the reading passage with information which they found about the text structure. Later, Parry's (1991, 1993) research widened the scope of the research conducted on the relationship between reading strategies and reading comprehension success by taking other variables such as cultural and L1 backgrounds into account. Anderson (1991) also carried out a study to investigate the Spanish-speaking students' use of reading strategies in two reading tasks: taking reading comprehension test and reading academic texts. He detected about 47 strategies which he classified into 5 general categories: surprising, support, paraphrase, coherence, and test taking. Moreover, he found that high scoring readers applied more but not necessarily different strategies than did the low scoring readers. He stated that the better readers could apply and monitor their strategies more effectively when reading a text.

After Anderson's (1991) finding of the monitoring strategies used by more skilled readers, the significance of metacognitive strategies in reading comprehension success was emphasized by Carrell (1989, 1992) and Carrell, Gajdusek, & Wise (1998). They asserted that "successful comprehension was associated with metacognitive strategies which involved the monitoring of cognitive strategies" (Cohen & Macaro, 2007, p.192). Huang and Tseng (2000) also conducted a study on the strategies used by successful EFL learners who obtained paper-based TOEFL scores of higher than 600 and found that these EFL learners used more metacognitive strategies than other test takers.

Continuing this line of research, a number of other studies investigated the relationship between reading proficiency and strategy use in different contexts (Alavi & Bordbar, 2012; Tsai, Ernst, & Talley, 2010; Grabe, 2006; Lau & Chan, 2003; and Carrell and Grabe, 2002) and they all have found the presence of positive relationship between the two variables.

More recently, Ghavamnia, Ketabi, & Tavakoli (2013) used qualitative data obtained from a think-aloud technique and a follow-up interview to investigate the differences in the type and frequency of strategy use by four more proficient and four less proficient readers. According to their findings, the more proficient readers utilized more meaning-oriented strategies, while the less proficient readers adopted a word-centered model, trying to process word meaning rather than trying to comprehend and retain the meaning of the text. Hong-Nam & Page (2014) also investigated the metacognitive awareness and reading strategy use by Korean university students in Korea. Problem-solving strategies were the Korean students' most preferred strategies. The relationship between strategy use and reading proficiency was linear, while a curvilinear relationship between strategy use and English proficiency was found.

In another study, Quiroz (2014) investigated the reading strategies of 19 undergraduate students who varied in reading proficiency by the use of the think-aloud procedures and semi-structured interviews. What is new about this research is that the researcher focused on the strategy use of good and *average* readers, in contrast to the research previously described which included two groups of good and poor readers in their studies. She also considered the effect language background (Chinese or Spanish) on the use of reading strategies. Her findings suggested that differences in strategy use between readers with different reading proficiency are only apparent at the syntactic level, whereas readers' L1 can affect the types of reading strategies they use when they encounter unfamiliar vocabulary in their L2 (at the vocabulary level).

Overall, these studies provide evidence of the relationship between reading comprehension and strategy use. Findings reveal that learners "who are more proficient in English show greater awareness of reading strategies, use strategies more often, and apply them more efficiently when reading difficult L2 text" (Quiroz,2014, p.16). It can also be concluded that the think-aloud procedures have been proved to be effective for collecting data on strategy use. However, very little is known about the specific strategies used by the learners while answering reading questions of widely-used English proficiency tests such as IELTS and TOEFL by the use of the think-aloud procedures.

The present study focusing specifically on the Academic IELTS Reading is the first attempt to introduce the reading strategies used by the Iranian IELTS candidates with different reading scores using the think-aloud procedures. Therefore, the study aims to fill the gap in the literature by answering the following questions:

1. What are the type and frequency of reading strategies used by Iranian IELTS Academic candidates doing the reading module of the test?

2. Is there any significant difference in the strategies used by the high scoring and low scoring IELTS candidates while doing the reading module?

III. Methodology

In this study, 35 male IELTS candidates participated in an IELTS mock exam. According to the exam results and based on purposive sampling, 24 participantes-16 low scoring and 8 high scoring candidates participated in the study and were asked to think aloud as they read two IELTS reading passages. In order to have a thorough picture of the

participants' performance, the think aloud sessions were videotaped and used for further analysis. In the final phase they were interviewed by the researchers.

A. Participants

This study started out with analyzing the exam result of 35 Academic IELTS candidates in an IELTS mock exam. They were all male university graduates, aged 25 to 35. All passed some preparation courses in IELTS. They had never been living in English-speaking countries and they were not the students of TEFL. Table I illustrates the participants' demographic characteristic**s.**

TABLE I.
DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS

Number of participants	24
Age	25-35
University degree	Bachelor and above
Gender	Male
Level	IELTS Academic candidates

It should be explained here that in an IELTS exam each candidate receives four scores for four sub-tests including listening, reading, writing, and speaking on a Band Scale from 1 to 9. Then the four individual scores are averaged and rounded to produce an Overall Band Score. In this study, the participants had been categorized according to their Academic Reading Band Score. Among the 35 participants in the IELTS mock exam, 8 participants who scored 6.5 out of 9 or higher (high scoring candidates) and 16 candidates who scored 5.5 out of 9 or lower (low scoring candidates) participated in the think-aloud sessions.11 participants who scored 6 out of 9 were considered as ambivalent, and therefore were excluded from the study. The following table presents the participants' categorization in this study.

TABLE II
PARTICIPANTS' CATEGORIZATION

Groups	IELTS Academic Reading Band Score(1-9)	Number of participants
Group A (High scoring)	6.5 and higher	8
Group B (Low Scoring)	5.5 and lower	16

B. Materials

In order to fulfill the purposes of the study, two Academic IELTS Reading passages were chosen. The first passage was followed by True/False/Not given questions in which the readers decided if the information in the text agrees with the information in the question. The second passage was followed by matching paragraph headings in which the readers selected the headings of paragraphs and matched them to the paragraphs from a text. The reading test was adopted from IELTS tests, extracted from the books *Cambridge IELTS* 8(2011) and *Cambridge IELTS* 9 (2013) by University of Cambridge ESOL examinations.

C. Video Recording

Video recording was chosen for this research for capturing much of the useful data on video tape. While audio tape may just record the students talk, on its own, would not have been enough to represent the complete picture of the readers' process of answering to reading comprehension questions. In fact, readers' gestural reactions, different stages of circling and underlining some words and part of the text, the frequency of turning the pages, the number of checking the time, and some other details cannot be captured only by audio recording.

D. Follow-up Interview

In order to triangulate the data along with the think aloud sessions, follow-up interviews were conducted too. The interview sessions were held after watching the recorded video of each participant. The open-ended questions in an interview were:
  1. Before you start reading, what do you usually do?
  2. For answering reading comprehension questions, do you prefer to begin with the questions or the passage? Why?
  3. To what extent are you familiar with reading strategies?
  4. What do you usually do to tackle a problem while reading a text in English?
  5. What do you usually do when you have finished answering the reading questions?

E. The Main Task

Concurrent think-aloud technique was the main data source to investigate the reading strategies employed by high scoring and low scoring Iranian IELTS candidates while doing the academic reading module of the test. Before the experiment, instructions were given to the participants in separate sessions, to make them more familiar with the think-aloud procedures and to know how to do the tasks; then, the participants performance was videotaped for further analysis.

F. Procedures

The experiment started out with 24 IELTS candidates. They were asked to take part in the think-aloud session followed by a follow-up interview. The participants were asked to read two reading passages of IELTS Academic module. Then the participants' think-aloud sessions were transcribed, codified and classified according to Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of language learning strategies which can be applied to the four language skills including reading. Oxford (1990) divides language learning strategies into two broad categories, direct and indirect, which are further subdivided into six groups. Direct strategies are divided into *memory*, *cognitive* and *compensation* strategies; indirect strategies are divided into *metacognitive*, *affective* and *social* strategies. These six major strategies are further divided into other sub-categories. For example, memory strategies are divided into (a) creating mental linkage, (b) applying image and sound, (c) reviewing well, and (d) employing action. By analyzing the data retrieved from the think aloud sessions, the type and frequency of reading strategies used by high scoring and low scoring Iranian IELTS candidates were identified, compared, and contrasted.

IV. RESULTS

The analysis of the think-aloud sessions illustrated that the participants used four types of reading strategies among the six major reading strategies defined by Oxford (1990). The participants were conscious of their cognitive process during reading and were able to use a wide range of strategies to comprehend the IELTS passages better. The videotaped think- aloud sessions were transcribed. The raw data were coded and classified into six categories based on Oxford's (1990) taxonomy of Language Learning Strategy.

To answer the first research question in relation to the total use of strategies and their frequencies, Tables III, IV, V, and VI were compiled. Overall, the 24 participants in this study used 504 cognitive strategies.

TABLE III
COGNITIVE STRATEGIES USED BY THE TWO GROUPS

Cognitive Strategy	Frequency
1. Highlighting and underlying	105
2. Translation	97
3. Getting the idea quickly	96
4. Rereading	78
5. Pausing and thinking	40
6. Changing the reading rate	23
7. Skipping	20
8. memorizing	18
9. Reasoning deductively	14
10. Predicting	8
11. Summarizing	2
12. Note taking	2
13. Paraphrasing	1

As shown in Table III, the four most frequently used cognitive strategies are highlighting, translation, getting the idea quickly by scanning and skimming the text, and rereading.

TABLE IV
METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES USED BY THE TWO GROUPS

Metacognitive Strategy	Frequency
1. Self-monitoring	30
2. Planning	22
3. Self-questioning	10
4. Paying attention	8
5. Self-evaluation	8

As can be seen in Table IV, 78 metacognitive strategies were utilized by the two groups, with self-monitoring and planning being the most frequent.

Table V displays that 38 propositions were allocated to compensation strategies.

TABLE V
COMPENSATION STRATEGIES USED BY THE TWO GROUPS

Compensation Strategy	**Frequency**
1. Using linguistic clues	28
2. Using other clues	10

The least number of strategies used by the participants belonged to the affective strategies (Table VI), only being used 15 times by the two groups.

TABLE VI
AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES USED BY THE TWO GROUPS

Affective Strategy	Frequency
1. Making positive statement	11
2. Lowering anxiety	4

Among the six categories of Oxford's (1990) taxonomy, memory strategy and social strategy were absent in the data retrieved through think aloud sessions in this study.

In order to answer the second research question, the strategies used by the low scoring and high scoring readers were compared. Because the number of participants in the two groups was not equal an average frequency of each strategy was calculated. Tables VII, VIII, IX, and X intensely summarize the data elicited from the think aloud sessions. To be more objective, in each part, an example of one of the participants' comment is provided.

TABLE VII
AN AVERAGE FREQUENCY OF COGNITIVE STRATEGIES USED BY EACH GROUP

N	Cognitive strategies	Group A N=8	Group B N=16	Examples
1	Highlighting	4	4.50	" I am circling these two key words, husband and the Noble Prize
2	Translation	2.80	4.60	The participants translated the intended points into L1.
3	Getting the idea quickly	3.75	4.12	"I am going to skim the paragraph for the main idea"
4	Rereading	3.25	3.25	"Oh, I did not understand it, again".
5	Pausing and thinking	1.87	1.56	"let me see. The text said she helps her sister but here is her sister's contribution,…"
6	Changing the reading rate	1.25	0.81	"I found it, so let's read the sentence slowly and carefully."
7	Skipping	1.50	0.5	"I don't need to read this Part"
8	Memorizing	1.5	0.37	"I should keep these keywords in my mind".
9	Reasoning deductively	0.87	0.43	"in the previous part the writer said she was poor so …"
11	Predicting	0.75	0.12	"This paragraph is about her marriage. So the paragraph about her children will come next."
12	Summarizing	0.25	0	"Therefore, in brief it is about improvement in different species."
13	Note taking	0.12	0.06	"I am going to write down these key words next to the paragraph".
14	Paraphrasing	0.12	0	"Okay it's saying that it relates to life span which is caused by energy reservation."

Table VII shows that the two groups made use of different types of cognitive strategies offered by Oxford (1990) and the major difference in the use of cognitive strategies between the two groups is related to the translation strategy. The low scoring readers used more of this strategy while reading the IELTS reading texts.

TABLE VIII
AN AVERAGE FREQUENCY OF METACOGNITIVE STRATEGIES USED BY EACH GROUP

	Meta-cognitive Strategy	Group A N=8	Group B N=16	Examples
1	Self-monitoring	2.12	0.81	"oh, I misunderstood this part her husband died in 1906"
2	Planning	1.87	0.37	"I have to read the title and instruction before starting to read the questions."
3	Self-questioning	0.50	0.33	"What does this mean in this sentence?"
4	Paying attention	0.75	0.12	"Be careful this part of the text is about her childhood".
5	Self-evolution	0.87	0.06	"I understood just 10% of the paragraph".

As Table VIII presents, the high scoring readers employed more metacognitive strategies than the other group while reading the texts. It is also shown that self-monitoring is the most frequent metacognitive strategy used by high scoring IELTS readers in this study.

TABLE IX
AN AVERAGE FREQUENCY OF COMPENSATION STRATEGIES USED BY EACH GROUP

	Compensation Strategy	Group A N=8	Group B N=16	Examples
2	Using linguistic clues	2.50	0.50	The word immortality is new but I know the meaning of mortal and (im–) makes it negative."
3	Using other clues	1.00	0.12	"I did not understand the meaning of this paragraph but because it was the final paragraph of the text, it might be a conclusion which included suggestions for the future plan so I selected the statement that related to future measures."

Table IX manifests that the high scoring group used more compensation strategies than the low scoring group. Reading compensation strategies are types of strategies which help learners overcome knowledge gaps in grammar, and especially, in vocabulary while reading a text in the target language. Linguistic clues are language-based clues used to guess the meaning of unknown words. Other clues other than the linguistic clues are also available to the readers which

come from different sources such as "knowledge of context, situation, text structure, personal relationships, topic, or general world knowledge" (Oxford, 1990, p. 49).

TABLE X
AN AVERAGE FREQUENCY OF AFFECTIVE STRATEGIES USED BY EACH GROUP

	Affective Strategy	Group A N=8	Group B N=16	Examples
1	Makin positive statements	1.50	1.12	*"It's ok if I made a mistake".*
2	Using progressive relaxation	1.00	0.31	*"I need to close my eyes for few seconds then I will continue".*

According to Table X, the participants in the study used *making positive statement* and *using progressive relaxation* to lower their anxiety and encourage themselves while reading the passages.

All participants were asked to take part in an interview in Persian with the researcher. They did not know anything about reading strategies but when the researchers talked about some cognitive or metacognitive strategies they used and mentioned in their videos, they considered them IELTS techniques or tricks. In sum, the IELTS candidates in this study used different strategies even though some of them were not aware about the types of strategies they used while reading.

V. DISCUSSION

The 22 types of strategies elicited from the think-aloud procedures indicated that the participants applied a wide range of strategies to comprehend the passages and answer the question more accurately.

In order to answer the first research question, we were interested in identifying the type and frequency of reading strategies used by Iranian IELTS Academic candidates doing the reading module of the test. This is shown in Tables III through VI.

Almost all the IELTS candidates in this study (Table III) favored using a wide array of cognitive strategies while reading the two passages. They all used the underlining/highlighting strategies for answering all the questions. This could be explained by the fact that, as the participants explained in the follow-up interview, in IELTS preparation courses and IELTS tutorials in Iran, this reading strategy which is usually taught and the learners are encouraged to use the underlining and cycling strategy to able to answer the questions quickly.

Translation is the second frequent strategy used by the participants in this study. This tendency may be related to the Grammar Translation method which is still used in Iran education system. This finding supports the investigations that found translation as the most common strategy employed by both high scoring and low scoring readers (Quiroz, 2014; Ghavamnia et al., 2013; Du, 2000). Quiroz (2014) finds the use of this strategy helpful and asserts that students should be encouraged to use their first language reading skills when reading English texts, as it facilitates their comprehension and improves their English literacy development.

The participants in this study did not favor the strategy of note taking while reading the texts. However, Oxford (1990) indicates that note taking is a very important strategy for reading. Based on this finding, it seems this strategy needs to be taught and emphasized in the Iranian reading classes and IELTS preparation courses.

Unlike the results of studies by Goh and Kwah (1997), Magogwe and Oliver (2007) and Ghavamnia et al., (2013) in which a low level of preference for affective strategies has been reported, the participants in this study used affective strategies such as using positive statements to encourage themselves to continue and to decrease the tension and heavy mental load of reading comprehension test. In the follow-up interview, the participants justified some gestural behaviors gleaned from their videos as their personal relaxing strategies.

The other two strategies, offered by Oxford's (1990) taxonomy: Memory and social strategies, were completely absent in this study. The finding of the study done by Ghavamnia et al., (2013) also indicated that memory and social strategies were among the least used strategies in their studies.

In presenting the second research question, we were interested in a more detailed analysis and identification of similarities or differences among the two groups of IELTS candidates in terms of reading strategy use. The think-aloud procedures revealed some differences and similarities in strategy use between the two groups under investigation.

Translation, as mentioned before, was the most frequent strategy used by the Iranian IELTS candidates in this study. However, the low scoring readers made use of this strategy considerably more than the high scoring group. More importantly, the two groups differed in the way they employed this strategy. The low scoring readers in this study relied heavily on word by word translation of sentences. They translated each word without paying attention to the words' parts of speech and the contexts in which they had been used. On the contrary, the high scoring readers did not regard the words or phrases as isolated items and were aware of the significance of the context. Moreover, the high scoring readers in this study utilized deductive reasoning with translation to comprehend the sentences better. This finding lends support to Anderson's (1991) statement that "successful strategic reading was not only a matter of knowing what strategy to use, but also... knowing how to use a strategy successfully and to orchestrate its use with other strategies" (p.468).

Rereading is another frequent cognitive strategy used by both groups in this study. However, there is a difference in the use of this cognitive strategy among the participants. The high scoring readers stopped reading and reread only the

difficult part as soon as they faced any problem in understanding the text, but the low scoring readers usually reread some phrases or sentences of the text haphazardly.

Similarly, the two groups in this study were found to use the skipping strategy but in totally different ways. The low scoring readers' problem with skipping was that sometimes they skipped important parts of the text. It was also observed that sometimes the low scoring readers skipped a part in the text but they were not completely sure that they did something right, therefore; they went back and reread the skipped part.

Predicting is another cognitive strategy to skip unnecessary information which was used differently by the high scoring readers. An example from the given test in this study can clarify the point. After reading the sentence: "Mary took over the teaching position her husband had held", most of the high scoring readers thought aloud that "this sentence implies that her husband has died or works somewhere else". Then they skipped two paragraphs quickly and noticed the phrase "the sudden death of her husband…", and then answered the question quickly and correctly. Whereas the low scoring readers mostly selected "teaching position" as a key phrase and spent a lot of time finding the relevant information.

Into the bargain, the low scoring readers in this study were found to have difficulties in finding synonymous words and sometimes linked synonymous phrases carelessly without reading the whole sentence. The following example may clarify the point. The participants were asked to decide whether the sentence: "Marie stopped doing research for several years when her children were born" was True, False, or Not given. And the related sentence in the text was "the births of Marie's two daughters, Irene and Eve, in 1897 and 1904 failed to interrupt her scientific work". Some of the low scoring readers could not associate the word "research" with "scientific work". They said the statement was *Not Given*. Similarly, some other low scoring readers linked birth and born, stop and interrupt, and research and scientific work, but they concluded that the statement was *True* without paying attention to the word *failed* that completely changed the meaning of the sentence. In fact, forming a haphazard link between synonyms without careful reading of the sentence was a prevalent problem among the low scoring readers in this study.

With regard to the metacgnitive strategies, the high scoring IELTS candidates in this study used more of these strategies such as self-monitoring and planning than the other group. There is in line with the findings of other studies in the literature (e.g. Hong-Nam & Page, 2014; Rezvani & Tavakoli, 2013; Ghavamnia et al., 2013; Yin & Agnes, 2001; Alderson, 2000). All these studies concluded that good readers are more aware of metacognitive knowledge and use metacognitive strategies more frequently than poor readers. The high scoring readers in this study had more tendencies to utilize planning as an important metacognitive strategy. They read the test instruction before beginning to answer the questions while the low scoring readers began in haste. The high scoring readers in this study read the instruction, the title, and the introductory paragraph carefully. As they stated in the think-aloud sessions, they believed that the introductory paragraph of the passage could give them the holistic view of the text. In other words, the difference between the two groups of readers was that the high scoring readers were aware that spending few minutes reading the introduction could help them answer the questions accurately.

Based on the results of the study, it seems the use of compensation strategies by the high scoring readers is one of the main reasons that lead them to comprehend the texts more deeply. In other words, utilizing compensation strategies had made all the difference for the high scoring readers. It was found that the high scoring readers in this study used linguistic and other clues to guess the meaning of difficult words successfully. However, the low scoring readers withdrew answering difficult or seemingly difficult questions mainly because they did not know the meaning of some words in the sentences. One example retrieved from think-aloud session may shed light on the idea. One sentence of the passage was "Marie was remarkable for her prodigious memory". *Prodigious* was a difficult word for almost all the participants. However, most of the high scoring readers attempted to understand the main idea and guessed the meaning by paying attention to the linguistic clues. One of the high scoring readers facing this word said: "I do not know the meaning of prodigious but as it ends in *'–ous'*, it is probably an adjective and because *remarkable* is a positive adjective so prodigious seems to be a positive adjective as well".

In a nutshell, the findings indicate that the major problems with the low scoring Iranian IELTS candidates in this study were related to the lack of compensation and metacognitive strategies in their strategy repertoire. On the contrary, the high scoring candidates in this research deployed compensation strategies frequently and, more importantly, effectively in their reading process. Effective employment of *self-monitoring* and *planning* as two types of metacognitive strategies were also observed to be the keys to the success of the high scoring readers in this study. Our findings are compatible with other studies (e.g., Ghavamnia, et al., 2013; Alderson, 2000; Chamot and El-Dinary, 1999), which concluded that the use of a wide range of compensation and metacognitive strategies is one of the characteristics of successful and strategic readers.

VI. Conclusion

The present study adopted a qualitative approach to investigate the reading strategies of 8 high scoring and 16 low scoring Iranian IELTS candidates while reading two types of Academic IELTS reading tasks by the use of a think-aloud technique and a follow-up interview. In general, the results obtained from the analyses of the think-aloud sessions showed that:

1. There was no great difference between the high scoring and low scoring readers in the use of cognitive strategies in terms of frequency. However, the high scoring readers made use of cognitive strategies such as *translation* and *skipping* more frequently and in different ways while doing the reading module of the IELTS test.

2. High scoring readers used metacognitive strategies such as *self-monitoring* and *planning* more frequently than the low scoring group.

3. The high scoring Iranian IELTS candidates in this study used dramatically more compensation strategies than the other group. This difference mainly affected the results of the test and helped the high scoring readers to comprehend the text better.

4. Affective strategies were more or less used by both groups. It seems that they used these strategies unconsciously for reducing the mental load of the reading tasks.

5. Memory strategy and social strategy were not used by the two groups in this study.

The findings of this study may have a number of implications for language pedagogy. Reading is the most important skill in EFL contexts in which there is a close relationship between the EFL learners reading proficiency and academic success (Nakatani, 2005). Given the significant of reading skill in EFL learners' academic and learning context, the teachers need to equip themselves with efficient reading strategies to become more proficient readers. According to Salataei & Akyel (2002) and Davis, 2010) strategy instruction has a positive impact on learners' reading strategy use and reading success. Therefore, the strategies detected to be used by high scoring readers (i.e. compensation and metacognitive strategies) in this study might be useful in reading comprehension courses with a focus on strategy instruction.

EFL teachers and specifically IELTS preparation instructors can also use the think-aloud technique used in this study "as a basis for designing teachable reading comprehension strategies (p.153). Moreover, the use of thinking-aloud procedure/s "provides a way of assessing learning so that, even when overall effects on performance are good, failures to learn specific strategies can be detected" (Bereiter & Bird, 1985, p. 154).

To pave the way for better research in the future, this study needs to consider some limitations. First, all participants of the study were male Academic IELTS candidates which limits the generalizability of the findings to both male and female candidates. Secondly, all the participants in this investigation had passed some IELTS preparation courses. If the candidates who had not attended any IELTS preparation courses were also included in this study, it would have given us a better picture of strategy use among the Iranian IELTS candidates. Finally, the participants' educational backgrounds were not considered in this study. A similar study can thus be conducted considering the effect of the participants' educational background on using different reading strategies.

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Gary Snyder and China

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Abstract—**Gary Snyder had a close relationship with Chinese culture. From the Chinese poet Hanshan to Chinese ancient poems, from Chinese Zen to Chinese Confucianism, he experienced a kind of cultural influence which was totally different from the western one. Under this kind of influence, he has changed to live an oriental lifestyle and created his works with Chinese traits. The contents, the writing skills and the thoughts of his works embody the traits in a whole way. Meanwhile, as one of the representatives of the Beat Generation, his works with Chinese features have made a difference on the development of the literature of the Generation.**

Index Terms—**Gary Snyder, Han Shan, Zen, Confucianism, Chinese ancient poems**

I. INTRODUCTION

Gary Snyder, an outstanding representative of the Beat Generation, was born on May 8, 1930 in San Francisco, California, and is well known not only for his advocacy of environmental protection and ecological concerns, but for his translation and imitation of classical Chinese poetry and a great interest in the philosophies of the East, especially of the ancient China showed in his works. Under the influence of Ezra Pound and Kenneth Rexroth, Gary Snyder became fond of Chinese poetry and the philosophy of Lao Tzu and Chuang Tzu and received a "whole-round influence of Chinese culture"(Ou Gong, 1994, p.33). He read the *Tao Te Ching*, translated the poems of Han Shan, a hermit poet living in the T'ang Dynasty, and assimilated a lot of Chinese cultural elements in his own poetry. Once he said: "I tried writing poems of tough, simple, short words, with the complexity far beneath the surface texture. In part the line was influenced by the five- and seven-character line Chinese poems I'd been reading, which work like sharp blows on the mind." (Donald, 1960, p.420-421)

II. SNYDER AND HAN-SHAN, A CHINESE MONK AND POET

Han-shan, or Han-shanzi, was a monk in T'ang Dynasty, famous for his Zen poems and his madness as well as for being translated and introduced to the West by Snyder. From the introduction in the preface of *Riprap & Cold Mountain Poems* written by Snyder, we can get a clear impression of Han-shan:

Kanzan, or Han-shan, "Cold Mountain" takes his name from where he lived. He is a mountain madman in an old Chinese line of ragged hermits. When he talks about Cold Mountain he means himself, his home, his state of mind. He lived in the T'ang dynasty—traditionally A.D.627-650, although Hu Shih dates him 700-780. This makes him roughly contemporary with Tu Fu, Li Po, Wang Wei, and Po Chu-i. His poems, of which three hundred survive, are written in T'ang colloquial: rough and fresh. The ideas are Taoist, Buddhist, Zen. He and his sidekick Shih-te (Jittoku in Japanese) became great favorites with Zen painters of later days—the scroll, the broom, the wild hair and laughter. (Snyder, 1982, p.33)

In 1950s and 1970s, Han-shan became the idol of the Beats and Hippies. They imitated Han-shan's long hair, bare foot, ragged clothes and madness. And they also read Snyder's version of poems, did research on the Zen principles embodied in Han-shan's poems and applied them in reality to show their opposition to the modern hypocritical civilization.

Then, what made Snyder interested in Han-shan's poetry and enabled it so popular in America?

In 1952, Snyder lived in San Francisco studying Chinese and Japanese in the Department of Oriental Studies at the University of California at Berkeley. While at Reed, he had already begun practicing sitting meditation, zazen (Can Chan), and in Berkeley "became acquainted with the warm, relaxed, familial, and devotional Buddhism of traditional Asia in the atmosphere of the Berkeley Buddhist Church."(Murphy, 2000, p.7) He also felt a strong affinity for China, in part as a result of an experience he had as a child, which he has retold in several different interviews. He recounts going into the Seattle Art Museum and seeing a room full of Chinese landscape paintings. At that moment he felt a deep shock of recognition because they looked to him exactly like the Cascades, with which he was already familiar. He felt that "the Chinese had an eye for the world that I saw as real." (Snyder, 1980, p.94) Visiting China in the early 1950s, however, was not an option.

Later with Shin-hsiang Chen, he ultimately translated twenty-four of the Cold Mountain Poems of Han-shan. These vivid translations are an excellent adaptation of Han-shan's poetry to Western sensibility and taste, and they remain great favorites of readers oriented toward mountains and the out-of-doors.

Although he looked like a mad monk, Han-shan actually is a master of Zen Buddhism. He lived in the Kuo-ch'ing Temple of Cold Mountain in Tian Tai, now a part of Zhejiang Province. His friends were birds, clouds and creeks besides Shih-te (Shi De), another mad monk in the mundane eyes. The four lines from "I Settled at Cold Mountain

Long Ago" describe his life as such:

>   Thin grass does for a mattress,
>   The blue sky makes a good quilt.
>   Happy with a stone underhead
>   Let heaven and earth go about their changes. (Snyder, 1982, p.43)

Han-shan's 365 poems are full of the thoughts of Taoism and Zen. And many of his poems and behaviors are considered as the famous Koans in the Zen history. For example:

>   My home was at Cold Mountain from the start,
>   Rambling among the hills, far from trouble.
>   Gone, and a million things leave no trace
>   Loosed, and it flows through the galaxies. (Snyder, 1982, p.59)

In order to be "far from trouble", Han-shan often lived in mountainous areas. The earthlings are worried about the so-called trouble everyday, but what is trouble actually? Nothing! No matter what they are, trouble, power or money, they all will "go", and "leave no trace." These words just present the thoughts of Zen Buddhism and Taoism: Nothing is permanent; "a million things" are from nothing and ended in nothing, either.

When Snyder and other Beats and Hippies faced the busy and indifferent society, the cold war and the "hot" war, they were confused, lost, and had no sense of belonging and safety. At that time, the introduction and transmission of Taoism and Buddhism met their mental desire. They found the way to release their emotions and restore their value in life and the world in *Tao Te Ching* and Han-shan's poems. They even found themselves in Han-shan's life style, just as Snyder puts it in the preface of Riprap: "They (Han-shan and Shih-te) became Immortals and you sometimes run onto them today in the skidrows, orchards, hobo jungles, and logging camps of America." (Snyder, 1982, p.33)

III. SNYDER AND CHINESE ANCIENT POEMS

Snyder fell in love with Chinese landscape paintings at the first sight. Since then, he had learnt the Chinese language, read translations of classical Chinese poems. He knew quite well about Wang Wei, Li Po, Tu Fu, Lao Tzu, Chuang Tzu, especially his idol—Han Shan. So it is inevitable that he would use a lot of Chinese materials in his poems. Just as Patrick D. Murphy puts it in *A Place for Wayfaring—The Poetry and Prose of Gary Snyder*: There are four areas that comprise the heart of Snyder's resources for his poetry. The first consists of the cultures of inhibitory or indigenous peoples, particularly the Native American tribes of the Pacific West. The second area consists of the Asian cultures of China, Japan, and, to a lesser extent, India. The third area consists of ecology, a concern of Snyder's throughout his life. The fourth area of resources is a matter of poetics rather than thematics (Murpphy, 2000, p.15-18). It is obvious that Chinese culture plays a very important role in Snyder's poems. According to Ou Gong's data, there are 51 times that Snyder quoted the Chinese culture elements in his poems (Ou Gong, 1994, p.33). We can make a rough list in the following.

First, in the poems collection *Left Out in the Rain—New Poems 1947-1985*:

1) And built a poem to dead Li Po (" A Sinecure for P. Whalen")

2) Wang Wei built his own Deer Park, / Chao-chou left no gate ajar ("Song for a Cougar Hide")

3) Walt Whitman, Hitomaro, Han Shan, / Here / In Berkeley December Twentieth- / Century rain, … ("The Rainy Season")

4) We had ten Zen monks / Down for lunch—/ "tenjin" the head monk said: / in China it was just a bun ("t'ien-hsin") / means "that the heart" / it means a real feed / in Japan today. / "they still have buns in China / called 't'ien-hsin'"—/ Dimsum, in Cantonese. ("Tenjin")

5) Riding the edge makes one crude. / The Chinese poets / I have no heart to read. ("The Ride")

6) Lao-tzu says / To forget what you knew is best. ("High Quality Information")

7) The title "After T'ao Ch'ien"

8) The title "After the Chinese"

9) In China first, the Diamond Sutra pressed / With type of clay, all Sentient Being Blessed. ("A Work for Burke")

Second, in his *Turtle Island*:

10) Mushroom-vision healer, / single flat drum, / from long before China. / Women with drums who fly over Tibet. ("The Way West, Underground")

Third, in the poems anthology *The Back Country*:

11) Our portion of fire / at this end of the milky way / (the Tun-huang fragments say, Eternal Light) / Two million years from M 31 / the galaxy in Andromeda—/ My eyes sting with these relics. / Fingers mark time. ("The Manichaeans")

Of course, it is not feasible to list all the quotations of Chinese culture elements in Gary Snyder's poems here due to the limit of the space. There are still many left. But even from the limited quotations listed above, we also can see how great it is the influence of the culture in this ancient oriental land on Snyder's works.

Patrick D. Murphy reveals in his book *A Place for Wayfaring—The Poetry and Prose of Gary Snyder* that during college and the early years in San Francisco, Snyder's favorite poet was Ezra Pound according to Kerouac and other friends. Certainly, Pound's concerns for the exact word and for the simple, straightforward statement have become a

part of Snyder's poetic principle. Pound's attention to the well-made line and the clean image is clearly evident in Snyder's work.

The syntax of written Chinese is quite different from English, as the former relies on characters rather than on an alphabet building individual words. It is generally thought that English sentences are combined by grammar while Chinese ones by meanings. As a special literature form, classical Chinese poetry has its unique features unlike other Chinese literature forms, namely the concision of language. Limited by its form, poetry should be as concise as possible. Poetic images are often described in blocks and concise phrases without verbs, prepositions or articles. And classical Chinese, even the language of much of the Asian poetry Snyder initially studied, does not employ any tenses. In Snyder's poems the frequent absence of articles, *a* and *the*, stands out along with the frequent absence or lengthy delay of the appearance of any pronouns. Also, he emphasizes the action or event rather than the person causing or witnessing such an event. The poems anthology *Riprap & Cold Mountain Poems* are replete with such Asian poetic influences.

In the poem "Riprap", there are four lines embodying such Chinese features.

ants and pebbles
In the thin loam, each rock a word
a creek-washed stone
Granite: ingrained
with torment of fire and weight (Snyder, 1982, p.30)

In these sentences, none is complete, just some noun-phrases such as "ants and pebbles" and "a creek-washed stone", even the letter "a" in "ants" at the beginning of the sentence is not in capital; there is also no predicate verbs, for example, "each rock a word" or "Granite: ingrained / with torment of fire and weight".

A lot of such examples can also be found in *Left Out in the Rain—New Poems 1947-1985*. For instance, the first stanza in "Bakers Cabin on Boone's Ferry Road" has the same features.

Frogs all night
three white ducks
chanting down the pond
the yowling of the Siamese in heat
the hot iron thud on spitting shirts
Dampish firewood squeaks and burns.
four kittens and a baby squall
in boxes by the kitchen stove. (Snyder, 1986, p.35)

In the poem Snyder always uses present participles to replace the normal English syntax, for example, chanting, yowling, spitting etc. The following two poems have the similar Chinese-style lines as well:

Lines on a Carp
old fat fish of everlasting life
in rank brown pools discarded by the river
soft round-mouth nudging mud
among the reeds, beside the railroad track (Snyder, 1986, p.11)

Ezra Pound is the father of Imagism. The imagists such as him and Amy Lowell are all fond of classical Chinese poetry. The reason that the Imagists found value in Chinese poetry is that Chinese poetry is, by virtue of the ideographic and pictographic nature of the Chinese language, essentially imagistic poetry. The Chinese language is concrete and direct and metaphorical. The history of Chinese writing conditioned Chinese literature to its conciseness and precision. To make fewer words do more work was the cherished aim of literary training in ancient China. Since images need fewer connectives and convey more, it is only natural that they are built into the very texture of classic Chinese poetry. They either juxtapose with, or superimpose or melt into each other, and often form clusters of fused ideas impregnated with power and energy.

So it is no wonder that both champions of Imagism, Ezra Pound and Amy Lowell, are infatuated with Chinese poems. Ezra Pound defines an image as that which presents an intellectual and emotional complex in an instant of time, and later he extends this definition when he states that an image is "a vortex or cluster of fused ideas" "endowed with energy." An Imagistic presentation is hard, clear, unblurred, done by means of the chosen "exact word." An Imagist poem enables the reader to see the physical thing rather than put him through an abstract process. Lucid logical exposition is no good poetry. The best poetic effect is visual and concrete. Thus an Imagist's image represents a moment of revealed truth, truth revealed by a physical object presented and seen as such. An Imagist poem, therefore, often contains a single dominant image, or a quick succession of related images. Its effect is meant to be instantaneous.

Snyder is significantly influenced by classical Chinese poetry, by Ezra Pound, and by William Carlos Williams' dictum "No ideas but in things." So in Snyder's work, the selection of images is also the basic organizing device. "Pine Tree Tops" is a typical example:

in the blue night
frost haze, the sky glows
with the moon
pine tree tops

bend snow-blue, fade
into sky, frost, starlight.
the creak of boots.
rabbit tracks, deer tracks,
what do we know. (Snyder, 1974, p.33)

In this nine-line short poem, there are a series of ten images: "night", "frost", "sky", "moon", "pine tree", "snow", "starlight", "boot", "rabbit tracks" and "deer tracks". These beautiful, quiet and concrete objects suggest a deep, remote and serene atmosphere, making readers feel fresh, calm and enjoyable. This kind of poetic mood is well embodied in Wang Wei's poems. Here is Wang Wei's "Autumn Twilight in the mountains (《山居秋暝》)" translated by Kenneth Rexroth whose translation of classical Chinese poems influenced Snyder a lot:

In the empty mountains after the new rain
The evening is cool. Soon it will be Autumn.
The bright moon shines between the pines.
The crystal stream flows over the pebbles.
Girls coming home from washing in the river
Rustle through the bamboo grove.
Lotus leaves dance behind the fisherman's boat.
The perfumes of Spring have vanished
But my guests will long remember them. (Rexroth, 1970, p.55)

There are more than ten images in this short poem: "empty mountain", "new rain", "bright moon", "pines", "crystal stream", "pebbles", "bamboo grove", "girls", "lotus leaves", "fisherman's boat", "perfumes of Spring", etc. From these two poems we can easily find the influence of Wang Wei's poetry on Snyder's writing style.

Snyder also mentioned Wang Wei in his poem "Song for a Cougar Hide" from *Left Out in the Rain*: "Wang Wei built his own Deer Park". We can sense Snyder's admiration for Wang Wei. So Snyder also went to the rural part of California to "built his own Deer Park."

It is easy to find more examples of image juxtaposition in Snyer's work, such as in "Sustained Yield":

This summer-dry winter-wet
California
manzanita, valley oak, redwood,
sugar pine, our folk
sun, air, water,
our toil,
Topsoil, leafmold, sifted dirt,
hole-in-the-ground (Snyder, 1986, p.134)

Snyder's relaxed and placid mood in a sweet spring of Coyote valley is dearly shown by the underlined images, which look random but are actually selected carefully.

IV. SNYDER AND CHINESE ZEN

Zen is the Chinese Buddhism. It is the combination of Indian Buddhism and Chinese traditional culture (mainly the Taoism and Confucianism). In the ancient India, Zen was a way of meditation, of cultivating one's morality, not just belonging to Buddhism. It originates from India, and then spreads to Japan, and later to China. But it is completely formed in China with the efforts and innovation of Hui Neng, the founder and the Zen master of the Chinese Zen. Zen became popular in the T'ang and Sung Dynasty while the T'ang and Sung poetry flourished. Just as Snyder puts it in *The Real Work*, the great Chinese poets were contemporaries of all the great Chinese masters even though they might not have known each other very much because China had a huge population even then. It was a real cultural climax; poetry and Zen were both at their most creative in China simultaneously. (Snyder, 1980, p.19) In the T'ang Dynasty, the famous poets such as Wang Wei, Po Chu-I (Bai Juyi) and Han-shan were fond of Zen Buddhism. Wang Wei, the most outstanding poet of the Mountain and Water poetic school, lived in a half-hermit life. He had great zeal for discussing Zen with the master monks, and compared himself to Wei Mo Jie, the master of Zen. He was a vegetarian and lived in a house only furnished with a rope bed and the mortar for triturating herbs. He also wrote a eulogy for Master Hui Neng. So in his poems, the approaches and principles of Zen can be easily found. And just due to this, his poetry is characterized by its artistic sense of peace and beauty. Han-shan's Zen poems are especially canonized by Snyder. Han-shan's poems are more colloquial and simpler than Wang Wei's and show the truth and principles of Zen more directly as well. His poems and Snyder's translation of them will be discussed in detail in the following part.

It is reasonable to say that although Snyder went to Japan studying Zen and Buddhism, he is mainly influenced by the Chinese Zen, by the Zen embodied in poems by Han Shan, Wang Wei and other great ancient Chinese poets. Snyder's own words give sound grounds:

I read Ezra Pound's and Arthur Waley's translations of Chinese poetry, a translation of the *Tao Te Ching*, and some texts of Confucius. Within a year or so I went through the *Upanishads*, *Vedas*, *Bhagavead-Gita*, and most of the classics of Chinese and Indian Buddhist literature. The convergence that I found really exciting was the Mahayana Buddhist

wisdom-oriented line as it developed in China and assimilated the older Taoist tradition. It was that very precise cultural meeting that also coincided with the highest period of Chinese poetry—the early and middle T'ang Dynasty Zen masters and the poets who were their contemporaries and in many cases friends—that was fascinating. Then I learned that this tradition is still alive and well in Japan. That convinced me that I should go and study in Japan. (Snyder, 1980, p.19)

At that time, it was not convenient for Snyder to come to China to study Chinese poems and Zen or Zen Buddhism. If it was, Snyder surly would come.

Then what's the relationship between Snyder's poetry and Taoism? Snyder knew *Tao Te Ching* as well as Rexroth, and some of his poems were influenced by their thoughts. For example, all of the following poems have the trace of Taoism: "Without" (*Turtle Island*), "High Quality information" (*Left Out in the Rain*), "The Way Is Not Way" (*Regarding Waves*), "No Matter, Never Mind" (*Turtle Island*), "The Great Mother" (*Turtle Island*), "For Nothing"(*Turtle Island*), etc. Take "No Matter, Never Mind" as an example, in which he obviously assimilated the thoughts of *Tao Te Ching*:

The Father is the Void
The Wife   Waves
Their child is Matter.
Matter makes it with his mother
And their child is Life,
a daughter.
The Daughter is the Great Mother
Who, with her father / brother Matter
as her lover,
Gives birth to the Mind. (Snyder, 1974, p.11)

Tao is the core and the base of *Tao Te Ching*'s thoughts. According to Lao Tzu, Tao is the origin of the universe, of every being:

道生一，一生二，二生三，三生万物。

(Tao gave birth to the One; the One gave birth successively to two things, three things, up to ten thousand) (Arthur, 1998, p.90-91)

But actually Tao is "Void", "Not-being", so Lao Tzu said in Chapter 40:

天下万物生于有，有生于无。

(For though all creatures under heaven are the products of Being, Being itself is the product of Not-being.) (Arthur, 1998, p.86-87)

So "the Father" in the poem "No Matter, Never Mind" is the "Void", the "Tao". From him, all things are generated. Snyder tried to show, in this short poem his understanding of the essence of *Tao Te Ching*, the origin of the universe and the birth of all beings in the world.

V. SNYDER AND CHINESE CONFUCIANISM

In order to avoid the earthly trouble, Han-shan lived as a hermit in the mountainous area. "Let heaven and earth go about their changes" (Snyder, 1982, p.43). Snyder likes this kind of life style and philosophy and he even imitated Han-shan to live in the Sierra Nevada Mountain. He made his living as a lumberman and spent most his time in writing poems and traveling around mountains and forests, just like a hermit. But in addition to being influenced by the hermit spirit of Han-shan and the thought of "doing-nothing" of Lao Tzu, Snyder has also learnt a lot from Confucianism, which instructs people to care about the society and the world. He took part in the anti-war campaign with Allen Ginsberg, and became an eco-activist caring the pain and hardship of our earth as well as being a hermit. He devoted himself to the work of protection of environment and wrote a lot of poems to express his painful feeling for the destroyed nature and advocated people to stop ruining our world. Snyder wrote in "Energy is Eternal Delight": "A young woman at Sir George Williams University in Montreal asked me, 'What do you fear most?' I found myself answering 'that the diversity and richness of the gene pool will be destroyed—'" (Snyder, 1974, p.103)

"Four Changes", a prose written in the summer of 1969 by Snyder, shows his concern about population, pollution, consumption and transformation. In the prose he analyzes the serious conditions of the modern society in four aspects and offers feasible solutions to them. Also, he cares about the environment conditions in China:

Pere David's Deer, the Elaphure,
Lived in the tule marshes of the Yellow River
Two thousand years ago—and lost its home to rice—
The forests of Lo-yang were logged and all the silt &
Sand flowed down, and gone, by 1200 AD—
Wild Geese hatched out in Siberia
head south over basins of the Yang, the Huang,
what we call "China"
On flyways they have used a million years.

Ah China, where are the tigers, the wild boars,
the monkeys,
like the snows of yesteryear
Gone in a mist, a flash, and the dry hard ground
is parking space for fifty thousand trucks. ("Mother Earth: Her Whales", Snyder, 1974, p.47)

The destruction made by the machine and the modern civilization created by humans—"most precious of all things" (Snyder, 1974, p.47), would bring the revenge to them. One day, "May ants, may abalone, otters, wolves and elk / Rise! And pull away their giving from the robot nations." And "The Robots argue how to parcel out our Mother Earth". (Snyder, 1974, p.47)

As an ecological poet, Snyder also pays attention to the deterioration of Chinese cultural and environmental heritage in "To the Chinese Comrades":

What did they leave us.
"K'ung fu-tze, some buildings, remain."
—tons of soil gone.
Mountains turn desert
Stone croppt flood, strippt hills,
The useless wandering river mouths,
Salt swamps
Silt on the floor of the sea. (Snyder, 1968, p.112)

However, Snyder is still fond of China and Chinese culture. When he was asked the question by Chowka "What about their (Chinese people) disaffiliation with their spiritual lineage", he answered:

That doesn't trouble me too much. I believe the Chinese had been pretty well disaffiliated from that already for some time. But, in a sense, the primary values already had sunk in so deeply that they didn't have to articulate them much anymore. Also, as a student of Chinese history, I perceive a little about the cycles that it moves in. if the rest of the world holds together, I would bet that a century and a half from now China again will be deeply back into meditation, as part of the pendulum swing of things. In a way, People's China is a manifestation of wonderful qualities of cooperation and selfless endeavor toward a common goal that were there all along. …The contemporary Chinese look back on Taoism as a heritage in their past that as socialists they can respond to. Buddhism is a foreign religion—it came from India! But the Taoist component in Chinese culture will surely return again to the surface. (Snyder, 1980, p.127-28)

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The Effects of Method, Time and Their Interaction on Learning Grammatical Cohesive Devices

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Abstract—The aim of this study was to find out if Grammatical Cohesive Devices (GCDs) are affected uniformly by explicit, implicit, and incidental teaching methods and if there is any interaction between time and method. Since there were three teaching conditions (independent variables) and four GCDs (dependent variables), a three by four factorial design was used with MANOVA and Mixed Design ANOVA as the main statistical tests. The study used information from 60 intermediate EFL learners randomly assigned to the three teaching conditions. The explicit group was exposed to conscious learning. In the implicit group the learners largely achieved their knowledge from noticing and using GCDs rather than explicit instruction. And finally, in the incidental group, learning took place through reading the selected passages and figuring out the meaning of the texts without any conscious attention to GCDs. After the treatments, the learners took a posttest and the findings revealed that explicit teaching had been the most effective method of all. The interaction effect between time and method was also significant only for ellipsis and substitution.

Index Terms—explicit, implicit, incidental, grammatical cohesive devices

I. INTRODUCTION

Cohesion refers to the quality of a text in which all parts hang together in a logical and smooth way so that the text is easy to read and understand. It is the semantic relation between one element and some other elements in the text that is crucial to its interpretation (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). Knowing how cohesion works is essential for literacy in general and for learning skills in a foreign language in particular. Explicit, implicit and incidental methods of teaching all are known to have significant effects on language learning. However, when the time is kept constant, these methods usually have differential effects. In addition, when there are levels to the dependent variable, usually it is not clear which level is affected more by the teaching method and what the role of time is in relation to that level.

A. Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

This research investigated the effects of Explicit, Implicit, and Incidental teaching methods on intermediate students' performance on GCDs measured by a grammatical-cohesive-devices test. Nurhayati (2012) investigated errors on the use of grammatical cohesive devices in the essays written by 66 students in his study and found more than 12 errors per essay on average. Nurhayati's finding is important because it reveals that grammatical cohesive devices need to be given attention in EFL classrooms. Therefore, investigating which way works better for teaching GCDs or which GCDs need to be given priority in EFL classrooms seems to be a worthwhile endeavor.

Although some studies have already been carried out on the effects of teaching grammatical cohesive devices, most of these studies have focused on just one type of them (Dastjerdi & Shirzad, 2010; House, 1996; Rahimi & Riasati, 2012; Sahebkheir & Aidinlou, 2014). Also, it seems that researches have not adequately investigated whether GCDs are affected by these teaching methods uniformly or differentially. Another issue is the relationship between methods of instruction and teaching time that is felt to be an issue when it comes to learning different forms. These were the problems that this study tried to address.

B. Types of Grammatical Cohesion

The seminal work of Halliday and Hassan (1976) categorizes GCDs into four basic types. These types come in handy whenever someone wants to find a practical means for dissecting and describing texts. According to Halliday & Hasan (1976), the four basic types of GCDs and their definitions are as follows:

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" (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" (pp. 88–89).

3. Ellipsis: Ellipsis is the omission of an element that is required by the grammar of language but is not raised because it is understood to be there by the readers or listeners. The process can, therefore, be "interpreted as that form of substitution in which [an] item is replaced by nothing" (p. 88).

4. Conjunction: Conjunctions connect elements of a text to each other. The connected elements can be words, phrases, clauses, sentences, or even paragraphs.

C. Kinds of Learning and Teaching

1. Explicit learning: Explicit learning is characterized by more conscious operation where the individual makes and tests hypotheses in a search for structure (N. Ellis 1994).

2. Implicit learning: Implicit learning is typically defined as the acquisition of knowledge about the underlying structure of a complex stimulus environment by a process which takes place naturally, simply and without conscious operation (N. Ellis 1994).

3. Incidental learning: Incidental acquisition is generally defined as the "learning something as a by-product of an activity not explicitly geared to that learning" (Hulstijn 2001, p. 271).

Obviously, there should be a kind of correspondence between learners' learning styles and teachers' ways of teaching. Accordingly, it can be concluded that overall there are three types of teaching: explicit, implicit, and incidental.

D. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions of this study were:

1. Do all types of teaching (explicit, implicit, incidental) have uniform effects on the learning of GCDs (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction)?

2. Is there an interaction between time and method with respect to learning different types of GCDs?

The null research hypothesis derived from the research questions were:

$H_0 1$: Types of teaching (explicit, implicit, incidental) do not have uniform effects on the learning of GCDs (reference, substitution, ellipsis, and conjunction).

$H_0 2$: There is no interaction between time and method with respect to learning different types of GCDs.

E. Design of the Study

This study enjoyed a three by four factorial design in which the teaching methods were functioning as the independent variables of the study with GCDs functioning as the dependent variables. A schematic representation of the relationship between the variables is given in Figure 1.1 below.

Independent Variables			
Incidental	Implicit	Explicit	**Dependent Variables**
			Reference
			Substitution
			Ellipsis
			Conjunction

Figure 1.1 Relationship between the independent and dependent variables of the study

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Taghizadeh and Tajabadi (2013) examined the effects of discourse markers training on the EFL learners' writing performance. The participants of this study received instruction on how to use metadiscourse markers in writing essays. Analysis of the collected data showed significant improvement in participants' writing scores.

There have also been some studies on the relationship between the occasions of cohesive devices' use in a text and its overall quality. Johnson (1992) and Meisou (2000) were unable to establish a relationship between the amount of GCDs' use and the quality of students' writings. However, Liu and Braine's (2005) analysis of 50 argumentative writings found a correlation between GCDs' frequency of use and students' quality of writing.

A study by Jalilifar and Alipour (2007) sought to detect the effect of explicit instruction of metadiscourse markers on the reading comprehension of pre intermediate Iranian EFL learners. Three versions of a single text (original, modified, and unmodified metadiscourse-free) were given to the participants. The group with the original text outperformed the group with unmodified metadiscourse-free text; but they were not significantly different from the group with modified text.

Text structure instruction and knowledge have also proved to be facilitative of reading comprehension both in L1 and L2. Two studies that point to this fact are Mandler and Johnson (1977) and Meyer (1979). These researchers also claim that text structure instruction improves recall of information. Both of these findings are in keeping with Britton et al's (1982) theory that texts' surface structure might make their comprehension cumbersome.

Teaching methods are also important in the amount of learning that happens irrespective of what is taught. Rahimi and Riasati (2012) investigated the use of discourse markers in spoken language and compared the results of their explicit and implicit teaching. They also compared their findings with the results obtained from a control group. The control group had received neither implicit nor explicit instruction on the use of discourse markers. The comparisons revealed that the participants' use of discourse markers in the control group was not affected by the instruction. In contrast, the frequency of discourse markers' use had substantially increased in the experimental groups with the students in the explicit group using discourse markers more frequently.

A series of descriptive studies have tried to statistically compare the proportions of grammatical cohesive devices used in different text types. Seken and Suarnajaya (2013) study, for example, indicated that the students used all five types of cohesive devices in their study but there was significant differences in the proportions they used them. Reference with 40.84% was the most frequently used cohesive device, with personal references being the most widely used subgroup. Lexical cohesion occupied the second position with 37.99% followed by conjunction, ellipsis, and substitution accounting for 19.60, 1.35%, and 0.29%, respectively. Nga (2012) did the same thing in the context of ESP. The researcher found that the most frequently used cohesive devices in the reading texts, in order of frequency, were reference (43.98%), conjunction (39.72%), ellipsis (21.99%), and finally, substitution (1.42%). The results of these studies and other similar studies imply that cohesion and coherence have to be given emphasis in teaching all kinds of skills.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study were male and female learners of English in an English language institute in the northwest city of Ardabil in Iran. All of the participants were fluent Persian and Azeri bilinguals. It was suspected that students' proficiency levels might affect the results of the study, so the learners were screened for their proficiency using Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT) and only 60 students of intermediate level with an age range of 14 to 25 were selected.

B. Procedure

In addition to the proficiency test, one pretest, three different types of treatments and one post-test were used in this study. The reliability of the proficiency test was calculated using KR-21 formula which returned $r=.755$. After administering the proficiency test, the participants were divided into three groups of 20 students each. The groups were then named explicit, implicit, and incidental by taking lots and were given a teacher-made GCD pretest. The pretest consisted of 40 items measuring the learners' knowledge of grammatical cohesive devices (GCDs), 10 items for each subcategory (reference, substitution, ellipses and conjunction). The test consisted of cloze items for reference and conjunction and multiple-choice questions for substitution and ellipses. The time allotted to answering the questions was 80-minutes. After the pretesting was done, each group received 4 sessions of 1.5 hours of instruction. Learners in each group were exposed to a different kind of instruction, i.e., explicit, implicit, or incidental. All of the groups read 11 short modified readings with each of the passages having at least four instances of each GCD. The explicit group was exposed to conscious learning. In this group, one session was allotted to clarifying each type of GCDs and the way they were used in the texts. For example, first the definition of reference and its types were given and then some example sentences such as *I sent him a letter* were pulled out from the text and explained to clarify the matter.

In the implicit group the learners were exposed to bold-face-typed instances of grammatical cohesive devices within the same reading texts. Almost no explanation was provided as to what the functions of the devices were or how they related the sentences to each other. To draw the learners' attention to GCDs, they were only enhanced by boldface typing. For example, possessive adjectives and possessive pronouns within the texts were typed in the following way: ***My*** book is here / This notebook is ***mine***.

In the incidental group the learners were exposed to grammatical cohesive devices without any conscious attention to the processes of learning. During the treatment sessions the learners were asked to read the selected passages and the researchers just helped them figure out the meaning of the texts. At the end of the treatments, all participants were given a posttest to answer. The form of the posttest and the time given for answering the questions were the same as in the pretest.

C. Materials

Different instruments were used in conducting this research. The instruments included Oxford Proficiency Test (OPT), Connect 1 and connect 2 textbooks and their workbooks; the third volume of the Interchange 1 by Jack C. Richards (the orange book), its workbook and Practical English Usage.

In order to measure the students' performance in the area of GCDs, a cloze test with 40 items was also developed which was used both at the pretest and posttest stages.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

Since there were four dependent variables in this study, it was clear that the test of choice should be MANOVA. However, there are some assumptions that must be met before running MANOVA. Three of the assumptions of this test apply to almost all parametric tests. According to the first assumption, the dependent variables must be measured at an interval level; the second assumption stresses that the sample selection be random; independence of the observations is the third assumption that should be observed strictly. All these assumptions were met in this study because of the nature of the dependent variables and the sampling procedure that was explained above.

However, there is another important assumption called normality which must be met. But there is a difference in the concept of normality as applied to ANOVA and the concept of normality as applied to MANOVA. In ANOVA normality refers to normality of the distribution of scores in a single dependent variable, that is, univariate normality. But in MANOVA normality refers to the normality of the distribution of all dependent variables' scores collectively, i.e., multivariate normality. Since SPSS does not provide the multivariate normality statistic, Field (2009) recommends that the univariate normality of the distributions of scores in dependent variables be tested. However, Pallant (2013) believes that calculating Mahalanobis distances is enough for checking multivariate normality. Mahalanobis distances are the distances of individual cases from the centroid of all cases. For the multivariate normality to be assumed the maximum Mahal distance should be smaller than the critical value that is calculated for the same number of dependent variables. A small Mahal distance rejects the existence of outliers as well. This value can be calculated using the regression menu in SPSS. Cook's distance, too, shows the overall influence of a case on the model and should not exceed 2. The values for the maximum Mahal and Cook's distances for the data in this study are given in table 4.1. The critical Mahal value for 4 dependent variables in the critical values table is 18.47 which is almost twice as big as the value of maximum Mahal distance in our table. Our maximum Cook's distance is also .134. These two values together mean that multivariate normality had not been violated and that there had been no outliers in our sample.

TABLE 4.1
TESTS OF MULTIVARIATE NORMALITY AND LACK OF OUTLIERS

Residuals Statistics[a]

	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Mahal. Distance	.171	9.097	2.950	2.035	60
Cook's Distance	.000	.134	.018	.026	60

a. Dependent Variable: posttest groups

Box's Test of Equality of Covariance Matrices tells us whether the data violated the assumption of homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices. Box's Test correlates all dependent variables with each other and concludes if the correlation matrices are similar. If the statistic is non-significant, it can be concluded that the matrices are the same. In other words, the null hypothesis of covariance matrices' equality in all groups is accepted. The table below reveals that the assumption of homogeneity had been tenable in this study.

TABLE 4.2
BOX'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF COVARIANCE MATRICES[A]

Box's M	6.782
F	.522
df1	12
df2	15745.154
Sig.	.902

The Multivariate Tests table, which follows Box's table in the SPSS output, helps us to detect if our independent variables (explicit, implicit, and incidental groups) have been significantly different from each other. The Multivariate statistics quoted for the intercept in this table are not important to us because they have nothing to do with our intervention. The important statistical tests for us are the group effects which are given below the intercept. As it can be seen in the following table, all four multivariate test statistics are significant with the F ratios as high as 1173.84. If all four Multivariate test statistics reach the criterion for significance, we can reject the null hypothesis of the lack of difference among the dependent variables confidently. However, if one or some of the statistics are above the criterion level, the best choice for accepting or rejecting the null hypothesis is the robust test of Pillai's Trace, because it is the most powerful of all. Fortunately, all four Multivariate test statistics in our table are significant; therefore, we can conclude that the dependent variables had been different from each other but we do not know yet which dependent variable or variables had been different from the others or in which ways the teaching methods affected them. The ANOVA summary table labeled as Tests of Between-Subjects Effects given shortly after the Multivariate Tests table, and the tables that follow it will help us to find answers to these questions.

TABLE 4.3
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
Intercept	Pillai's Trace	.983	776.754[b]	4.000	54.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.017	776.754[b]	4.000	54.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	57.537	776.754[b]	4.000	54.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	57.537	776.754[b]	4.000	54.000	.000
Posttest groups	Pillai's Trace	.454	4.041	8.000	110.000	.000
	Wilks' Lambda	.553	4.648[t]	8.000	108.000	.000
	Hotelling's Trace	.793	5.256	8.000	106.000	.000
	Roy's Largest Root	.776	10.665[c]	4.000	55.000	.000

In the ANOVA summary or table of the Tests of Between-Subjects Effects below, the group of rows of interest to us is the group labeled Posttest Groups. The values in these rows are the values that we would have obtained had we run One-way ANOVAs on individual dependent variables with multi-level teaching method as our independent variable. In these rows any significant results for the Groups means that the type of teaching had a significant effect on the learning of this dependent variable, but a non-significant result should lead us to conclude that the teaching type had no a significant effect on the learning of the GCD in question. Needless to say that, the lower part of the table, which is not very important to us, is deleted for space limitation.

TABLE 4.4
MANOVA

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	posttest reference	13.300[a]	2	6.650	2.535	.088
	posttest substitution	47.233[b]	2	23.617	7.750	.001
	posttest ellipsis	88.033[c]	2	44.017	15.473	.000
	posttest conjunction	2.633[d]	2	1.317	.562	.573
Intercept	posttest reference	3792.150	1	3792.150	1445.353	.000
	posttest substitution	2829.067	1	2829.067	928.364	.000
	posttest ellipsis	3038.817	1	3038.817	1068.224	.000
	posttest conjunction	4116.817	1	4116.817	1757.084	.000
Posttest groups	posttest reference	13.300	2	6.650	2.535	.088
	posttest substitution	47.233	2	23.617	7.750	.001
	posttest ellipsis	88.033	2	44.017	15.473	.000
	posttest conjunction	2.633	2	1.317	.562	.573

Having talked about the important pieces of information in Table 4.4, when we consider the results for the dependent variables in our study, we see that the results are only significant for substitution and ellipsis with $F=7.750$, $P=.001$ and $F=15.473$, $P=.000$, respectively. We also know that originally we had three groups of explicit, implicit, and incidental teaching. When we put these pieces of information together, the thing that comes to mind is that what makes the students' performance in the three experimental groups different from each other and yields significant results is not their improvement in learning how to use reference and conjunction so much but their learning of how to use substitution and ellipsis. Therefore, the hypothesis that methods of teaching (explicit, implicit, incidental) have uniform effects on the learning of GCDs (reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction) is rejected. However, we still do not know if there had been an interaction between time and method or the extent to which the learners' knowledge of each GCD changed over time as a result of method. To find out about this interaction, we have to run a Mixed Design ANOVA which is suited best for finding such interactions. Tables 4.5 to 4.12 show the contrasts that were created and the Multivariate tests that show the main effects of time and method and the interaction between them (time*method). Of course, the results of four types of Multivariate tests are usually included in Multivariate Test tables in Mixed Design ANOVAs, but since Pillai's Trace is the most commonly reported statistic, other values are deleted from the tables. It should also be kept in mind that all of the assumptions of Mixed Design ANOVA had already been met when we checked for our MANOVA test. The only remaining assumption was Mauchly's sphericity that was met because all of the values calculated for this test were non-significant.

TABLE 4.5
CONTRASTS BETWEEN TIME AND METHOD FOR REFERENCE IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

time	method	Dependent Variable
1	1	Pretest reference explicit
	2	Pretest reference implicit
	3	Pretest reference incidental
2	1	Posttest reference explicit
	2	Posttest reference implicit
	3	Posttest reference incidental

TABLE 4.6
MAIN EFFECTS OF TIME AND METHOD AND THEIR INTERACTION EFFECT IN RELATION TO REFERENCE

Multivariate Test

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
time	Pillai's Trace	.913	198.581[b]	1.000	19.000	.000
method	Pillai's Trace	.166	1.796[b]	2.000	18.000	.194
time * method	Pillai's Trace	.173	1.881[b]	2.000	18.000	.181

Within Subjects Design: time + method + time * method

TABLE 4.7
CONTRASTS BETWEEN TIME AND METHOD FOR CONJUNCTION IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

time	method	Dependent Variable
1	1	Pretest conjunction explicit
	2	Pretest conjunction implicit
	3	Pretest conjunction incidental
2	1	Posttest conjunction explicit
	2	Posttest conjunction implicit
	3	Posttest conjunction incidental

TABLE 4.8
MAIN EFFECTS OF TIME AND METHOD AND THEIR INTERACTION EFFECT IN RELATION TO CONJUNCTION

Multivariate Test

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
time	Pillai's Trace	.887	148.537[b]	1.000	19.000	.000
method	Pillai's Trace	.115	1.173[b]	2.000	18.000	.332
time * method	Pillai's Trace	.161	1.728[b]	2.000	18.000	.206

Within Subjects Design: time + method + time * method

TABLE 4.9
CONTRASTS BETWEEN TIME AND METHOD FOR ELLIPSIS IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

time	method	Dependent Variable
1	1	Pretest ellipsis explicit
	2	Pretest ellipsis implicit
	3	Pretest ellipsis incidental
2	1	Posttest ellipsis explicit
	2	Posttest ellipsis implicit
	3	Posttest ellipsis incidental

TABLE 4.10
MAIN EFFECTS OF TIME AND METHOD AND THEIR INTERACTION EFFECT IN RELATION TO ELLIPSIS

Multivariate Test

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
time	Pillai's Trace	.952	380.881[b]	1.000	19.000	.000
method	Pillai's Trace	.390	5.746[b]	2.000	18.000	.012
time * method	Pillai's Trace	.720	23.200[b]	2.000	18.000	.000

Within Subjects Design: time + method + time * method

TABLE 4.11
CONTRASTS BETWEEN TIME AND METHOD FOR SUBSTITUTION IN DIFFERENT GROUPS

Within-Subjects Factors

Measure: MEASURE_1

time	method	Dependent Variable
1	1	Pretest substitution explicit
	2	Pretest substitution implicit
	3	Pretest substitution incidental
2	1	Posttest substitution explicit
	2	Posttest substitution implicit
	3	Posttest substitution incidental

TABLE 4.12
MAIN EFFECTS OF TIME AND METHOD AND THEIR INTERACTION EFFECT IN RELATION TO SUBSTITUTION

Multivariate Test

Effect		Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.
time	Pillai's Trace	.951	371.923^b	1.000	19.000	.000
method	Pillai's Trace	.236	2.779^b	2.000	18.000	.089
time * method	Pillai's Trace	.627	15.147^b	2.000	18.000	.000

Within Subjects Design: time + method + time * method

Tables 4.6 and 4.8 evidently show that neither methods nor their interactions with time significantly affected the use of references and conjunctions by the learners. The only important main effect with respect to these two dependent variables was that of time effect. All three teaching methods, however, significantly affected the use of ellipsis in addition to time and its interaction with methods. In the case of substitution, as represented in Table 4.12, the main effect of method was again non-significant but the effect of interaction was significant. To sum it all up, the main effect of time was significant for all dependent variables or GCDs; the main effect of method was significant for ellipsis only; and the interaction effect was significant only for substitution and ellipsis. This brings us to the conclusion of partially rejecting the second hypothesis because we have been able to find an interaction effect between time and method in relation to two of the GCDs.

V. CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

The conclusion that can be drawn from the findings of this study is that attributing success in one class or in a course of study to the teaching method only is a mistake. Although some teaching methods are superior to others, the level of students' prior knowledge, the nature of the materials taught, the age of the learners and so many other factors can impact on the outcome of the instruction.

In the case of this study, with the screening done for proficiency and with respect to the relatively limited age range of the participants, their smaller gains in using references and conjunctions and greater gains in using ellipses and substitutions can be attributed to their lack of knowledge of the two latter GCDs with a high degree of confidence. It is clear that, when students already know about something, which was true about reference and conjunction, the amount of progress will be limited. However, if someone does not know how to apply a particular linguistic structure, in many cases a little help will make a sea change. But in the case of GCDs it is not like skills that improve constantly with more instruction and practice. When the use of any GCD is learned, method ceases to have any determining effect. This means that when we speak about methods, we must apply it for the most part to skills not to elements of language that are learned once and almost forever.

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Task-based Language Teaching and Its Effect on Medical Students' Reading Comprehension

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Abstract—**Developing reading comprehension skills is a significant requirement for medical students to communicate with other students and experts in the field. In Iranian EFL context, English is an obligatory course offered in all universities with an emphasis on the reading skill. The most widely applied teaching method in Iranian EFL classrooms is Grammar Translation Method with the result that many students still facing difficulties in reading English materials. With the growing interest in Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT), the present quasi-experimental study aimed at investigating the effect of using this method in improving the reading comprehension skill of medical students. It also aimed to examine whether gender makes a difference in this regard. To these ends, 60 intermediate students comprising 30 males and 30 females studying at the Guilan University of Medical science were randomly divided into experimental and control groups. The experimental group (n=30) received task-based instruction (TBI) based on Willis and Willis' (2007) framework, while the control group was taught using the conventional GTM. Results of independent samples t-test at the alpha level of .05 revealed that TBLT was useful in enhancing the participants' reading comprehension. Paired-samples t-test also demonstrated that both groups progressed after the experiment. Finally, it was found that there was not any difference between males and females who either received TBI or GTM. These findings confirm the usefulness of tasks as valid tools which can be applied to teach reading to medical students.**

Index Terms—**reading comprehension, task-based language teaching, medical students**

I. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, English is regarded as language of science and almost all academic contexts and universities offer courses in English. Being able to communicate is possible when there is a shared language to negotiate meaning, and English language has made scientific communication among academicians feasible. This has changed the status of English from a foreign language to an international means of communication common to all nations throughout the world (Shomoossi, Rad & Rakhshani, 2013). The use of English language is very common among physicians and those involved in medical field; therefore, having good language skills would enable Iranian medical students and nurses to take part in forums and discussions with their counterparts all over the world. One of the important tools through which knowledge in general and scientific information in particular, can be communicated is written stuff; as a result, those who are engaged in the field of Medical Science require an acceptable command of reading skill.

Ellis (2000) defined reading comprehension as the level of text understanding which originates in the interaction between the written words and the way those words activate knowledge outside the text. A common belief is that in the contexts where English is a Foreign Language (EFL), reading comprehension plays an important role, since it is the main means for learning new information and it is considered as the most significant skill needed for the students' achievement and success (Iranmehr, Erfani & Davari, 2011). In other words, the importance and status of reading comprehension skills in Iranian academic contexts, like other EFL contexts, is undeniable. In fact, as Rahimi and Azhegh (2011) pointed out, reading comprehension is often regarded as the main goal of learning the English language. Also, the structure and framework of existing textbooks in Iranian academic contexts clearly verifies the central role of reading comprehension skill, as a great proportion of these textbooks is devoted to flourishing this skill among the learners (Farhady, 2006).

In spite of the fact that in the Iranian EFL context it is tried to improve the students' reading skill, Mirzaei and Azizian (2012) noted that many Iranian university students still lack the necessary skill for mastering the reading comprehension skill. One probable reason for this might be the use of traditional teaching methods like Grammar Translation Method (GTM) and the fact that is method still prevails in many educational settings. In classrooms in which GTM is used, communication is mostly through the learners' native language. The main goal of these classes is fostering students' vocabulary and grammatical knowledge with the use of word lists and explicit teaching of grammar rules by the teacher. Textbooks also play an important role in these classes as they are used to teach the concepts and have the students practice what was taught to them through written or oral drills and translation exercises. Moreover, as Fazilatfar (2010) stated, translation is the key to GTM. In EFL/ESL classrooms which practice GTM there is no chance for the students to create meaning in the English language and they only require the learners to do word by word translation of texts; hence leaving the students bored and frustrated (Richards & Renandya, 2001). Also, in these classes there is no opportunity for the learners to understand the relationship between L1 and the target language. As such, the

language turns into a set of vocabulary items which are tied together, and the students do not show much interest and motivation in learning the English language (Keyvanfar & Modaressi, 2009). Due to the importance of mastering the reading skill and using study strategies and their significance as one of the central needs of the EFL Iranian university students, many English Language Teaching (ELT) researchers has tried to probe these matters more deeply (Hayati & Jalilifar, 2010). Language researchers believe that using process-based teaching methods such as Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) or Task-based Instruction (TBI) can be a solution for solving problems and inefficiencies associated with the use of traditional methods. Process-based teaching methods can also be effective in improving the students' learning process in language courses (Fani, Ghiasi & Ghaneh, 2011).

Using TBLT enables the students to consider different forms of language rather than concentrating on a single form which is mostly practiced in GTM. Whereas GTM leads the students from accuracy to fluency, the aim of TBLT is integration of all four skills and moving from fluency to accuracy plus fluency. Accordingly, TBLT can be regarded as a comprehensive approach which can be adapted to address the needs of all students (Sajjadi, Ahmadi, Heidarpour, Salahi Yekta, Khadembashi & Rafatbakhsh, 2012). In TBLT the focus is on utilizing authentic language and also asking students to do meaningful tasks using the target language. The primary focus of classroom activities is the task that is an activity in which students use language to attain a specific outcome (Nunan, 2004).

There are a number of studies on TBLT and its effect on the reading comprehension ability of the EFL learners; however, these studies in the medical field are very limited. As such, this study aimed to determine the effect of TBLT on reading comprehension skills of a group of medical students, and to this end the following research questions were formulated:

1. What is the effect of TBLT on Iranian medical students' reading comprehension skill?

2. Does gender have any effect on the reading skill of medical students who received TBI or GTM?

In light of the aforementioned research questions, these null hypotheses were formed:

Ho1. TBLT does not have any effect on Iranian medical students' reading comprehension skill.

Ho2.Gender does not have any effect on the reading comprehension skill of medical students who received TBI or GTM.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Task-based language teaching (TBLT) which has attracted unprecedented attention in recent years is regarded as an approach in which meaning is given primacy over form. In other words, in Task-Based Instruction (TBI) instead of engaging the learners in form-focused activities, they perform communicative tasks. As Willis (1996) stated, in TBI learners are supposed to express their own ideas about the topic of the lesson, either orally or in a written mode (Willis, 1996).

Willis (1996) defined the term task as "activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose in order to achieve an outcome" (p. 28).The logic for TBLT as a teaching approach can be found in theories of language acquisition such as those of Long (1996) or Skehan (1998) which emphasize the vital role of meaningful language use combined with opportunities to discover in what ways meanings are generated in the L2.

TBLT is typically based on three stages (Willis & Willis, 2007). The first of these is the pre-task stageduring which the teacher introduces and defines the topic and the learners engage in activities. The activity reflects real life situations and learners focus on meaning. This stage is followed by what Willis (1996) called the "task cycle"during which the learners perform the task, typically a reading exercise or a problem-solving exercise, in pairs or small groups. They then prepare a report for the whole class on how they did the task and what conclusions they reached. The final stage is the post-task phase during which specific language features are analyzed.

There are a number of studies which have explored the effect of TBI on the reading ability of EFL learners. In what follows a number of these studies are reviewed.

In a study by Fani et al. (2011) on the effect of TBLT on EFL high school students' reading comprehension and also their ability in paraphrasing texts, it was revealed that TBI not only positively affected the learners' performance in reading comprehension, but also increased their reading speed and motivation. In a further study, Rahimi and Azhegh (2011) explored the effect of TBLT on reading comprehension ability and also achievement of a number of students in an English for Specific Purpose course. They used two intact classes of engineering students and taught one group based on GTM, and the other one received TBI employing pre-task, task, and post-task stages. Results of the study indicated that experimental group which went through TBI outperformed control group in their reading comprehension.

Poorahmadi (2012) also investigated the effect of TBLT on the reading comprehension ability of 102 Iranian EFL learners and found TBI to be effective in this regard, as the students' reading ability was accelerated and their general language proficiency was also improved by the end of the experiment. However, In Poorahmadi's study gender differences were not considered as a variable which could possibly affect the participants' performance.

Chalak (2015) examined the effect of TBLT on reading comprehension of a group of Iranian EFL learners. To this end 135 high school students were divided into two experimental and two control groups. Results of the study revealed that participants in the experimental group who used tasks progressed in their EFL reading performance, and there was more interaction among the students who were involved in experiment. However, the study of Chalak (2015) only contained females in the experiment and as such cannot be considered generalizable.

Due to the scarcity of research on TBI with a focus on Iranian medial students taking degree courses in General English, the present sturdy was an attempt to address this gap in literature and investigate the likely impact of using TBLT on reading comprehension ability of a group of medical students in Iran.

III. Methodology

A. Participants

Participants of the present study were 60 freshmen, all at intermediate level, selected from a paramedical school at Guilan University of Medical Sciences, located in northern Iran. The students were taking General English course. Selection of the participants was based on convenient sampling and since there were only two courses in English at that semester, one of the groups was randomly considered as theexperimental group and the other was selected to be the control group. Each group comprised of males (n=15) and females (n=15) with an average age of19±1. The participants were all native speakers of Farsi.

B. Materials and Instruments

The materials used in this study were 9 reading texts adopted form the medical students' textbook, namely Medical Reading written by Mesbah (2010). The textbook was designed as English for Academic Purposes, specifically addressing pre-intermediate and upper-intermediate levels. This book was introduced as a source book and includedsome reading passages which fulfilled the aims of the present study.

Also, in order to homogenize the learners in terms of their reading proficiency a standard reading test comprising 50 multiple-choice items drawn from the book Longman Complete Course for the TOEFL Test (Philips, 2007) was utilized. Each item was assigned one score and the total score of the students reading proficiency was calculated out of 50.

The other instrument utilized in this study was a researcher-made test which comprised of 50 questions in 7sections (A-G).The test was used as both pre- and post-test and was designed to estimate probable differences between the experimental and control groups. It needs to be pointed out that the test was developed out of the course book of the students. In constructing the test it was tried to follow Hughes' test specification which is based on meaningful language learning (Hughes, 2003). An expert panel of experienced L2 teachers confirmed the validity and reliability of the test and its Content Validity Index (CVI) was determined to be0.76, indicating that the test was a reliable and valid one.

Section A of the test consisted of 10 matching questions designed for evaluating the participants' vocabulary knowledge. In sections B and C students were required to write Persian equivalent and English equivalent of some words, respectively. Sections D and E comprised of fill-in-the-blank items. Part F asked the students to translate some short paragraphs into Persian, and finally in SectionGa reading passage was provided with 5 comprehension questions drawn from it. After making sure about the appropriateness of the test, it was administered once at the outset of study as a pre-test in order to assess the participants' reading skills and once at the end of the experiment as a post-test with the aim of measuring their probable progress in reading comprehension. One score was assigned for each correct answer and the total score was estimated out of 20.

C. Procedures

In collecting data for the present study, first a written consent was given to the participants and it was ensured that all of them willingly take part in this experiment. Then, a standard reading test was administered to two groups before starting the experiment, for the purpose of homogenizing and controlling the participants in their reading proficiency level. By tabulating results of the reading proficiency test it was indicated that there were two homogeneous classes as control and experimental groups with 30 intermediate students in each.

The classes for each group were held once a week lasting for 90 minutes. There were totally 14 regular weeks within a semester. The instructor in both groups was an experienced faculty member of English Language Department of the University of Guilan who was qualified enough to teach both experimental and control groups.

In the first session, the pre-test was administered to both experimental and control groups. In both classes it was tried to help the learners in improving their reading skill; however, they differed in terms of the teaching methodology employed. The experimental group received TBI following the three stages of pre-task, task cycle and post-task as suggested in Willis' (1996) framework. In the pre-task phase, the teacher explored the topic of the passages, activated the relevant schemata, and highlighted the important vocabularies or expressions. The students also prepared themselves for doing individual tasks. In the task cycle which itself comprised of three consecutive sections, first the students were required to do the tasks either in pair or in small groups, with the teacher monitoring their performance and encouraging more communication among them. Then, the students were given a short time to plan for the reporting section and think about how they did the task. As suggested by Willis (1996), since accuracy mattered in this phase the teacher was ready to deal with any language problem the students faced and provided them with necessary advice when needed. In the final section of the task phase the students were asked to present their report about the task to the whole class with the teacher acting as a chairperson and provider of the necessary feedback. In the post-task phase, first specific features of the passage were examined and discussed by the learners, and then with the help of the teacher new words and phrases were thoroughly clarified. The tasks utilized in the present study consisted of linking phrases, descriptions tasks accompanying pictures, listing characteristics, comparing similarities or differences, presenting

lectures and doing mini-projects which needed creativity and innovation on the part of the learners. An important feature of the teaching process in the experimental group was that communication between teacher and students and among students was through L2 and it was tried to minimize the use of L1, i.e. Persian as much as possible.

In the control group, classroom teaching procedure which lasted for 14 weeks went on based on the principles of the traditional method, i.e. GTM. The primary focus of the class was on having the students learn grammatical rules and vocabularies. More specifically, vocabulary items were taught through direct translation into the native language of the learners. Moreover, in the control group reading passages were directly translated into Persian. Interaction between the teacher and the students was to its minimum extent and the class was teacher-controlled. In fact, the reading course in the control group was mainly text-based and in delivering the lessons the teacher mostly used students' L1.

At the end of the semester and after the completion of classes, a post-test was administered to the students in both experimental and control groups. Since the same test was used for both pre- and post-test, it was tried to make the time interval longer. Therefore, the post-test was administered one week after the completion of the classes.

D. Data Analysis

This study had a pre-test post-test control group design. After obtaining the students' scores in both pre-test and post-test, they were subjected to analysis using SPSS version 16. Using Shapiro-Wilk's test of normality, it was shown that the data in both pre-test and post-test were normally distributed ($p_{pre-test}$=.33, $p_{post-test}$=.21, p>.05); thus, parametric tests seemed to be appropriate for analyzing the results of the present study. Statistical tests used in this study were measures of central tendency including mean and standard deviation and also inferential statistics, namely independent and paired-samples t-test; and the level of significance was set at $P \leq 0.05$.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The present quasi-experimental study aimed at exploring the effect of TBLT on reading comprehension skill of a group of medical students studying at the Guilan University of Medical Sciences. The participants were 60males and females with an average age of 19±1 who were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups each comprising 30 learners. The participants were at the intermediate level of language and were taking degree courses of General English. As explained in the data collection procedures section, the control group was taught through the traditional GTM and the experimental group received TBI. In this section results of the data analysis are presented and the findings are discussed in light of the previous studies which probed the same line of research.

Table 1 below presents descriptive statistics including mean, standard deviation and standard error of means for the pre-test. As shown in the table, the mean score of the control group is (M=6.58, SD= 2.13) and for the experimental group it is (M=6.67, SD= 2.03).

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE PRE-TEST

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
pretest	control group	30	6.583	2.133	.389
	experimental group	30	6.675	2.039	.372

In order to examine whether the differences in mean scores obtained from the pre-test of reading are statistically significant an independent samples t-test was run on the data and the results are illustrated in Table 2.

TABLE2.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENTSAMPLES T-TEST FOR COMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE PRE-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
posttest	Equal variances assumed	.841	.363	-6.02	57	.000	-3.379	.5614	-4.504	-2.255
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.03	56.54	.000	-3.379	.5602	-4.501	-2.257

As Table 2 indicates, the *p*-value of Levene's test at the significant level of .05 is higher than the assumed alpha level; as such, the upper row of the table is to be referred to. The *p*-value for the t-test is also higher than .05 ($t(8)$= .18, *p*> .05). This result revealed that there was not a statistically significant difference between the experimental and control groups in terms of their reading comprehension skill at the outset of the study and the two groups were more or less similar in this regard.

Table 3 illustrates descriptive statistics for the post-test. Apparently, the mean score of the participants in the experimental group (M= 15.89, SD= 2.01) is higher than the mean of control group in the post-test (M= 12.51, SD= 2.28). However, in order to check whether this is statistically true, an independent samples t-test was also run on the results of the post-test the output of which are shown in Table 4.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE POST-TEST

	groups	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	control group	30	12.516	2.282	.416
	experimental group	30	15.896	2.016	.374

TABLE4.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENTSAMPLES T-TEST FORCOMPARING EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS IN THE POST-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	f	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference		Lower	Upper
pretest	Equal variances assumed	.059	.810	.170	8	.866	-.091	.538		-1.170	.987
	Equal variances not assumed			.170	7.882	.866	-.091	.538		-1.170	.987

As shown in the table, at the significant level of .05 the *p*-value is less than our assumed alpha level ($t(57)$= -6.02, p< .05). This indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between experimental and control groups and experimental group has outperformed the control group in the post-test of reading. As such, the first null hypothesis of the study can be rejected.

In order to check the participants' progress before and after intervention, paired samples t-tests were conducted and the results of descriptive as well as inferential statistics are shown in Tables 5 and 6 below.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR COMPARING CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS BEFORE AND AFTER INTERVENTION

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control-pretest	6.58	30	2.133	.389
	Control-posttest	12.51	30	2.282	.416
Pair 2	Experimental-pretest	6.67	30	2.039	.372
	Experimental-posttest	15.80	30	2.050	.374

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TEST FOR COMPARING CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS BEFORE AND AFTER INTERVENTION

		Paired Differences					t	f	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control-pretest – control-posttest	5.933	1.19	.218	-6.379	-5.486	27.16	9	.000
Pair 2	Experimental-pretest-experimental-posttest	9.125	1.54	.281	-9.701	-8.548	32.38	9	.000

As illustrated in Table 6 and based on the results of paired-samples t-test, both experimental and control groups has improved in their reading proficiency after the completion of classes. To put it more specifically, the *p*-value for both control ($t(9)$= 2.16, p<.05)and experimental groups ($t(9)$= 32.38, p<.05)is less than .05.

In order to answer the second research question which explored the effect of gender on the reading skill of medical students who took part in this study, another independent sample t-test was run on the data obtained from the students' post-test. Table 7 shows descriptive statistics for the gender differences between the participants.

TABLE7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GENDER DIFFERENCES

	gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
posttest	males	30	13.52	2.803	.511
	females	30	14.79	2.510	.458

As indicated in the table, the mean score of reading comprehension for males is (M= 13.52, SD= 2.80) and for females it is (M= 14.79, SD= 2.51). Table 8 presents the results of independent samples t-test used for checking whether the difference between means is statistically significant.

TABLE8.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENTSAMPLES T-TEST FORCOMPARING MALES AND FEMALES

		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
postt est	Equal variances assumed	.865	.356	-1.84	58	.070	-1.266	.687	-2.641	.108
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.84	57.3	.070	-1.266	.687	-2.642	.108

The table indicates that at the significance level of .05 there is not a statscally significant difference between the male and female students who participated in this study, as the *p*-value is higher than .05 ($t(58)$= -1.84, *p*>.05).Accordingly, it was shown that gender did not make any difference in the reading comprehension skill of students who either received TBI of GTM; and the second null hypothesis of the present study cannot be rejected.

Teachers who implement tasks in their classrooms, on the one hand engage learners in meaning-making situations and on the other hand, raise the students' consciousness about the importance of task-oriented activities (Ellis, 2012; Willis & Willis, 2007).

The findings of this study were in congruence with the results of many studies which revealed the valuable and efficient use of tasks and TBLT in facilitating language learning. In fact, the results of this study indicated that participant's reading comprehension skill in experimental group who received TBI had substantially promoted after the experiment. In other words, the mean score of reading comprehension test in the experimental group considerably increased by employing TBLT ($t(57)$= -6.02, p< .05).This finding is in line with the study of ZandMoghadam (2007) who also found that TBI could positively affect EFL learners' reading comprehension skill and vocabulary retention. Our findings also support what Fani et al. (2011) mentioned about the effect of TBLT on the reading ability of learners, as they also found that using tasks is effective in improving the learners' reading comprehension skill. Moreover, the findings of the present study confirm the results of Rahmi and Azhegh's (2011) investigation who found that engineering students can benefit from TBLT in their reading courses. The findings of this study are also consistent with the results of Joe (1998), de la Fuente (2006), orIranmehr, Erfani and Davari (2011), Malmir, Najafi Salem, and Ghasemi (2011), who argued for the impact of TBLT on the learners' reading comprehension and vocabulary knowledge. Moreover, similar to the study of Nahavandi and Mukundan (2013), the present study did not find any significant effect for the variable of gender in reading comprehension of the learners.

Nevertheless, the findings of the present study do not support what Adams and Newton (2009) mentioned about the implementation of TBLT in English training courses in the East Asian countries, in that they have found that using TBLT was not successful in those courses. Additionally, the results of this study are contrary to the belief of some language theorists who claimed that applying TBLT is difficult or even impossible due to time limitations or inexperienced teachers (Joen & Hahn, 2005).

V. CONCLUSION

Task-based language teaching with its emphasis on meaning-making can be considered as an innovative approach in Iran's academic contexts. The findings of this study provided further insights into the effectiveness of using tasks in teaching the reading comprehension skill to Iranian medical students in an environment in which English is primarily considered as an EFL language mostly applicable for sharing knowledge and communicating with people all over the world. The present study also revealed that there is no difference between males and females in using TBLT and both can benefit from this method.

There are a number of pedagogical implications which can be drawn from this study. First, as TBLT was shown to be helpful in enhancing the reading comprehension ability of medical students, university professors can benefit from this approach and use it in their teaching. Having university students go through different phases of TBLT can make English classes more meaningful and involve students in more communicative activities. Given the ever-increasing role of English as an international means of communication, TBLT which has been proved to be an effective teaching approach, should receive more attention from the practitioners in the Iranian EFL context. In this respect, teacher training courses should also provide sufficient practice in order to familiarize EFL teachers with this valuable approach, and ensure that the instructors gain mastery over using it in their classrooms. Secondly, due to the significance of tasks in promoting language learning of EFL students at universities textbook writers and materials developers and also syllabus designers are encouraged to embed more tasks in the textbooks.

As the present study dealt with a limited number of participants and it did not last for many sessions, more longitudinal research taking account of more students are needed. Also, further research can investigate the effect of TBI on other language skills of EFL learners (such as speaking or writing) in academic contexts. Finally, further

research can be conducted regarding the effect of TBLT on the reading comprehension of learners at other proficiency or academic levels.

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Research on Corrective Feedback in ESL/EFL Classrooms

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Abstract—**Corrective feedback (CF) has been one research focus in Second Language Acquisition in recent years, the study of which helps second language learners to acquire the target language successfully. The paper is to present an overview of studies on CF in ESL/EFL classroom interaction from 2000 to 2015. Firstly, the conceptual issues of CF are analyzed, including its definition, process, and category. Secondly, theoretical development of CF is reviewed which can be divided into three stages. Thirdly, research content on CF is introduced from Chinese and foreign scholars. Finally, the author makes an overall conclusion in which problems in current studies are pointed and future development of CF research is discussed at the end of the paper.**

Index Terms—**corrective feedback, EFL/ESL classrooms, second language acquisition**

I. INTRODUCTION

It is inevitable for learners to make errors during their second language acquisition (SLA) process. According to Corder, errors play an important role in SLA and indicate to what extent learners have grasped the target language as well as in what ways they still need help. Since the essay *Corrective Feedback* by Lyster and Ranta was published, the function of CF has been theoretically affirmed. Error correction is closely related to second language learning and teaching, and CF can help learners to recognize the gap between their interlanguage and the target language. With the deeper study of CF, scholars have gained some persuasive findings which are significant and enlightening for further study. However, there remain some controversial issues in CF research. For example, scholars haven't come to an agreement on the issue of CF effectiveness due to their different research methods. In China, researchers mainly introduce and analyze foreign research achievement and have conducted less empirical studies on classroom CF. Therefore, it is necessary to search for the latest Chinese and foreign studies about EFL/ESL classroom CF as well as make a review of what they have done and what still can be further done.

II. CONCEPTUAL ISSUES OF CF

A. Definition of CF

More than one scholar has defined CF. Here the author will first list some of the typical definitions of CF and then make a distinction of three similar terms.

According to Lightbown and Spada (2006), CF refers to any feedback that tells learners their target language output is wrong.

Ellis R. (2009) defines CF as response to learners' wrong sentences. The response is triggered by others and it includes telling learners their sentences are wrong, offering them the right target language form, as well as offering grammatical explanations about learners' errors.

Gao Lixin et al. (2008) think teachers' CF in the classroom refers to their brief comment or implications by gestures or expressions on students' performance in class. It is an essential factor in the process of SLA.

From the above definitions, classroom CF can be summarized as followings:

CF givers	Others (teachers or classmates)
CF receivers	Learners/students
Purpose of CF	To facilitate second language learning
Ways of CF	Being flexible and various due to differences of learners, teachers and types of errors

There are another two terms similar with CF, that is, negative feedback and negative evidence. The three terms are often used alternatively. Some scholars don't pay much attention to their distinction, which the author believes may cause confusion for later research. Hence, the present paper will attempt to point the minute differences among these three terms.

Negative feedback refers to any feedback that informs learners of their wrong sentences. The feedback giver just

intends to point that there are errors in the learner's sentence but not to suggest what the errors are. In contrast, CF aims to point what the learner's errors are and sometimes indicate how to correct the errors. The two terms are both in the perspective of teachers, the first used in the field of cognitive psychology and the second used in the field of SLA and language teaching. By comparison, negative evidence is in the perspective of learners and used in the field of language acquisition and psycholinguistics.

B.   Process of CF

A simple CF includes three steps: trigger, feedback, and uptake. (Hong Yun, 2011) For example,

L: I will talked to you. (Trigger)

T: I will TALKED to you. (Feedback)

L: I will talk to you. (Uptake)

Sometimes, the procedure of feedback can be repeated when needed and teachers may strengthen learners' self revise. For example,

L: I will going to Shanghai on next Friday. (Trigger)

T: I will going to... (Feedback)

L: I will go to... (Uptake)

T: and on next Friday? (Repeated feedback)

L: next Friday (uptake)

T: Yes, it should be next Friday. (Strengthen)

C.   Category of CF

In second language learning and teaching, feedback refers to any commentary information to learners' performance. It can be positive, like "good", "right", while it can be negative, that is, corrective feedback. According to different criteria, CF can be divided into various categories.

According to its giver, CF can be divided into others-offering CF, like teacher-offering CF or classmate-offering CF, as well as self-offering CF. According to its purpose, CF can be classified as focus-on-meaning CF, which aims to achieve mutual understanding for successful communication, and focus-on-form CF, which intends to correct learners' errors in their language. According to its form, CF can be divided into verbal CF and non-verbal CF, like body language and written feedback. According to its offering ways, CF can be explicit or direct and implicit or indirect.

The above introduction presents the main category dimension of CF and these dimensions form a complex multidimensional space. Each specific form CF is decided by its position in the multidimensional space. For instance, a certain CF may be direct verbal teacher-offering feedback for a learner's grammatical errors. The present paper mainly discusses teachers' feedback in ESL/EFL classrooms, so the CF in this paper can be confined as the teacher-offering verbal CF.

As for specific CF forms, Lyster and Ranta put forward six forms: explicit correction, recast, elicitation, metalinguistic explanation, clarification request, and repetition.

Explicit correction refers to directly point the learner's errors and offer the right language form. For example,

L: On April.

T: Not on April, in April. We say "I will fly to America in April."

Recast refers to restate correctly the learner' wrong sentences without explaining what the errors are. It is usually implicit, but sometimes it can be kind of explicit. For example,

L: I went shopping two times.

T: You've been. You've been shopping twice by yourself?

Elicitation refers to guide learners to revise their sentences by questioning them. For example,

L: I'll go outside if it will not rain.

T: I'll go outside if it......?

Metalinguistic explanation refers to teachers' grammatical explanation and metalinguistic comment or information. For example,

L: Yesterday I go shopping.

T: Use past tense.

Clarification request refers to requiring learners to clarify their discourse when their sentences are wrong or can not be understood by others. For example,

L: What do you spend with your wife?

T: What?

Repetition refers to repeat the learner's discourse and stress the error part often by raising the voice. For example,

L: I will talked to you.

T: I will TALKED to you.

L: I'll talk to you.

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III.   THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK OF CF

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The theories of CF are developing with the theories of SLA, but there remain controversial issues. During the period of audio-lingual method, no one had questioned the function of CF, since audio-lingual method claimed to correct all the errors made by learners. However, it ignored learners' individual differences and their cognitive and psychological features. With the development of generative linguistic theory and children language acquisition theory in 1970s, the previous hypotheses were challenged. According to Chomsky's Universal Grammar, Krashen's Communicative Approach, and Terrell's Natural Approach, comprehensible input is enough and it can help second language learners grasp the target language, just like the children acquire their mother tongue. Krashen believes that the aim of L2 teaching is for communication. Direct error correction will influence the natural process of interaction and communication. Therefore, teachers should not correct learners' errors. With the increasing input of learners, errors in their interlanguage will disappear. They don't need CF. However, many scholars have questioned the opinion. They think only comprehensible input is not sufficient, since learners' incorrect hypothesis about target language cannot be corrected only with positive evidence. Explicit and implicit error correction is the core of Hypothesis Testing Theory and is part of SLA process. There exist controversies about the necessity and function of CF, which makes CF a hot topic in SLA research. Now the author will review the theoretical framework about CF from three linguistic schools.

A.   The Generative School's View

The generative school headed by Chomsky believes that language acquisition is decided by Universal Grammar. The principles and parameters of Universal Grammar have prescribed all human languages. Second language grammar also depends on Language Acquisition Device. It's enough to have positive evidence and CF hardly has influences on language learning. If any, it will only influence the language performance but cannot change language competence. The generative school's evidence is that when children acquire the first language, their parents seldom explicitly correct their errors. Even if their parents give CF, the children actually don't notice it. At last, children are still able to acquire the complex language. Therefore, they think second language learners also don't need CF. However, their opinion was challenged seriously in 1980s. A lot of empirical studies have shown that there are some implicit CF in the interaction between parents and children. (See Hirsh Pasek, Treiman, Schneiderman, 1984)

Influenced by the generative school, some researchers think Universal Grammar and Language Acquisition Device make language acquisition possible. Positive evidence can activate the device while negative evidence has less influence and only positive evidence can contribute to learners' language development. For example, according to Krashen's input hypothesis, language output is not a necessary condition for language acquisition. As long as we take enough comprehensible language input, language output will become successful. He thinks error correction itself is a serious error and he believes that CF is useless and even harmful, since it will interrupt the process of comprehensible input. Van Pattern also expresses the similar view that error correction hardly has any impact on most learners' language development. Schwartz supports the generative school's opinion. He thinks that CF can only influence language knowledge. The same as the first language, the second language competence is solely affected by natural positive evidence. Direct error correction can make second language learners understand the target language but cannot build up grammar system, which can only be built by positive evidence.

In conclusion, generative school and those researchers who are in favor of them maintain that comprehensible input is necessary and sufficient for language acquisition and positive evidence can activate language input. CF has little influence on language acquisition. If it has, it can only influence the peripheral aspects of language, such as morphology.

B.   The Cognitive School's View

Cognitive psychologists devote to studying human beings' knowledge structure in the light of computer simulation system and they've created various models of knowledge representation, especially the connectionism, which is a theory of imitating cognitive process by computers with brain as imitation object. Rumlhat and MaClelland's connectionism is one of the important models of cognitive linguistics. The model regards human's cognition as a processing network where nodes are connected with each other and are working simultaneously. The network includes many processing units and these unites are called activation nodes which represent the independent neuron in the human's brain. These nodes are characterized with the same judgmental device as the neuron. They receive input in various length and weight from other nodes and then judge whether to activate it. The model of connectionism believes that the innate language device is not needed. Learning process happens in the interaction between cognitive ability and environment. Therefore, the cognitive school holds that language learning is based on the interaction between learning network and positive input and CF only has a little complementary function. (Zhang Kai, Wang Tongshun, 2015)

C.   The Interactive School's View

Interactionists believe that language is acquired by co-function between language learners and the environment. Under the interactional model, researchers have approved the significance of CF on language acquisition. According to Sheen and Ellis's conclusion, the current CF research is mainly on the basis of focus-on-form theory by Long. Long holds that this teaching method is to instruct learners to notice the language form during the interaction process. The focus-on-form theory includes three hypotheses: the Interaction Hypothesis, the Output Hypothesis, and the Noticing Hypothesis. (Zhang Kai, Wang Tongshun, 2015)

Swain put forward the Output Hypothesis in 1985. According to Swain, language input plays a significant role in language acquisition, but is not adequate. If learners want their language to be fluent and accurate, they need not only comprehensible input but also comprehensible output. Swain emphasizes language output needs to reach three cognitive functions: 1) noticing function, because learners can notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language when they have meaningful language expressions; 2) hypothesis testing function, only by communicating with others and receiving feedback from them can learners test the rule's limitation and reanalyze or reorganize their second language system; 3) metalinguistic function, learners can transform language material into systematic language system and bring it into second language system. When learners output language, they develop their interlanguage competence, and find their errors in their interlanguage through inner feedback (self psychological feedback and self-monitoring) and outside feedback (CF). CF can provide learners with opportunities for meaningful output in various ways. Thus, it can create conditions for successful language acquisition.

In 1996 Long put forward the Interaction Hypothesis that in order to avoid misunderstanding, two sides communicate with each other, the information receiver asking questions about the confusions and the information giver revising his/her expressions for smooth communication. The Interaction Hypothesis stresses the meaning negotiation's facilitation for language acquisition. CF can facilitate the meaning negotiation and form negotiation by ways of clarification request, recast, repetition, metalinguistic explanation, elicitation and explicit correction. It can offer learners opportunity to notice the gap between their interlanguage and the target language.

Schmidt came up with the Noticing Hypothesis in 1990. Noticing is not the only condition for acquisition, but is the necessary and sufficient condition to absorb the input. Learners will notice those prominent language features in their language input, especially those target language form different from their mother tongue. It is no doubt that this selective attention plays an essential part in language acquisition. Output can stimulate noticing. In the output process, learners can notice their errors. CF can immediately reflect learners' errors to themselves in various ways, which will not only make learners notice the error in their language forms, but also compare their interlanguage with the target language. Thus, they will realize the gap between their interlanguage and the target language and then have a metalanguage reflection. At last, they will master the correct target language form.

All in all, interactionists firmly believe the function of CF. The Output Hypothesis, the Interaction Hypothesis, and the Noticing Hypothesis are the three important hypotheses in interactionism. They all emphasize that interaction's importance in language acquisition, input's necessity for language acquisition and output's sufficiency for language acquisition. Interaction is an effective way to acquire a language. As an important part in interaction, CF has been a focal issue in research field of interaction.

IV. RESEARCH CONTENT ON CF

Nowadays, foreign researchers have done lots of theoretical and empirical studies on classroom CF. In China, however, CF research is still in the developing stage. Scholars mainly learn from foreign research findings. They introduce and analyze foreign theory research achievement. On the other hand, they've conducted a few empirical studies by imitating foreign experiment research, but the empirical studies are passive and lacking. After making a general survey of the latest research at home and abroad on classroom CF, the author concludes that it has been studied from 3 aspects: attitudinal research on CF, type and frequency of CF, effectiveness of different CF.

A. Attitudinal Research of CF

Renate A. and Schulz's research (2001) shows that most second language learners expect teachers to give CF as much as possible. In addition, teachers also admit the importance of CF, but they need to consider students' affective factors.

Lin Lilan's investigation (2006) shows that students hope their teachers to correct their errors, but they are worried about blowing their enthusiasm. Besides, most teachers prefer implicit CF, for which students don't present the preference.

Ge Xianru's research (2005) investigates 55 college English teachers and 200 college students by questionnaire. The result shows that both teachers and students think highly of error correction, and they are inclined to implicit feedback.

Considering all the factors, research findings show that both teachers and students approve the importance and necessity of CF. By comparison, students are stronger in requesting CF. However, there are different opinions among students themselves. Teachers are supposed to give error correction feedback with avoiding blowing students' passion and interrupting communication as the premise.

B. The Type and Frequency of CF

According to Iliana Panova and Roy Lyster's research (2000), the most common CF is recast, accounting for 55% of all the CF.

Hu Jian (2004) finds that clarification request and recast are most frequently used, with the former accounting for higher percentage of 32%. However, the study of Lyster and Ranta shows teachers give CF for almost 62% of the errors, and recast takes the biggest proportion. The result is inconsistent with Lyster's, which the researcher explains that the reason is the subjects' language proficiency levels are different.

Shi Guang (2005) explores how teachers employ different kinds of CF to correct students' different types of errors. By observing the class, he finds the teacher tends to recast students' grammatical and phonological errors. As for lexical errors, the teacher prefers to use form negotiation to correct them.

On the whole, the research shows that teachers prefer implicit CF, esp. recast. Therefore, research on recast is increasing these days. Besides, according to different type of errors, teachers will use different feedback. However, there exists argument about the relevance between error type and CF. In the aspect of the type and frequency of CF, researchers need to do more work to achieve consistent result.

C. Effectiveness of Different CF

Research on CF's effectiveness remains a disputed topic, since it's difficult to use objective way to evaluate it. Some researchers attach importance to students' uptake and treat it as evaluation criterion for CF's effectiveness.

According to Lyster and Ranta's study, recast is used most frequently but the least effective, since it has the lowest rate of students' uptake. In contrast, elicitation can lead to the most students' uptake. On the contrary, Long (2007) thinks that recast is the most effective, since in the recast there are correct target language forms and communication won't be interrupted. Besides, Lyster (2004b) holds that elicitation is the best way of CF, because it can help learners to improve their control ability for language forms which they have mastered. Their results are not consistent with each other. Russel and Spada (2006) admit CF contributes to language acquisition, but they say that the current research hasn't found which the most effective way of CF is.

Alison Mackey, Susan Gass and Kim Madonough (2007) have studied 10 English learners and 7 Italian learners' CF. According to students' self review, it shows that they notice teacher's CF for lexical, phonological and semantic aspects, but CF for syntax is neglected.

Yang & Lyster have conducted an experiment on 72 college students whose foreign language is English. They test CF effect about learners' use of past tense rule. There are three groups. For students' grammatical errors, students in group one are given prompts and students in group two are given recast. Students in group three are given CF only when their content is wrong. It finds that prompt is more effective than recast and group three in the use of regular past tense rule. But prompt and recast are similar in their effectiveness for the use of irregular past tense rules. (Zhang Kai & Wang Tongshun, 2015)

Ellis, et al. (2006) has conducted an experiment towards 34 low level English learners. He has found that explicit CF is more effective than implicit CF, since explicit CF can be easily noticed and uptaken.

Shi Guang (2005) has compared CF's prompt effect and found that students gain more uptake for phonological errors after teachers' recast and form negotiation, while they receive more uptake for grammatical and lexical errors from after form negotiation.

Shi Guang and Liu Xuehui (2008) have conducted questionnaire investigation, classroom observation and interview towards 6 English teachers and 240 students. They've found that the ways of CF that both teachers and students acknowledge are most effective, such as form negotiation. Those that students acknowledge but teachers don't agree are in the middle, like explicit correction. Those that teachers acknowledge but students don't agree are the worst, like recast.

Although the importance and function of CF have been approved, which way of CF is more effective hasn't been tested nowadays. Research on effectiveness of CF is observational and kind of subjective, so the real objective experiment is needed to test CF effectiveness and more work is expected in this aspect.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Problems in Current Studies

It is true that the current theoretical and empirical studies on CF's role in SLA have reached a high level. However, there remain controversial issues in both theoretical and empirical research.

Theoretically, without a leading theory, a new theory always criticizes or overthrows the previous theories. At present, theories in SLA field are numerous, which is due to its interdisciplinary property. Researchers with different academic background and different belief try to explain SLA phenomena from different perspectives. Thus, various theories are coming into being. It may prevent the development of the discipline if the confused situation continues.

Empirically, experiment results are not consistent with each other, even opposite from each other. On one hand, researchers use different experiment methods and different criteria to evaluate the results, which will lead to different conclusions. On the other hand, there are various variables in this kind of research, such as learners' individual difference, etc. Some experiments are conducted in labs, where some variables are difficult to control and can not be taken into consideration.

B. Implications for Future Research

After the overall review of the latest research on classroom CF, the author comes to the conclusion that more work is needed and can be done in this aspect in order to achieve more convincing results. Therefore, future study can be developed in the following aspects.

First, the relation between different types of errors and ways of CF can be further explored;

Second, researchers can analyze the individual differences' influence on their preference for and effectiveness of CF, such as their language proficiency, learning strategy, and even gender;

Third, more real empirical studies are needed to provide objective analysis for the topic;

Fourth, the environment for second language learning is changing, expanding from the traditional classrooms. With the development of technology, SLA is increasingly studied in the environment assisted by computers. Therefore, CF can be studied in a new environment, computer-mediated communication.

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