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An Interdependence of Materials, Teaching Practices & Policy: A Study

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Abstract—A global language equalizes ones potential to learn knowledge, gain wisdom & share thoughts across boundaries (a quality of a universal citizen) depends more likely on quality language-learning oriented textbook materials. The teacher who makes learning process smooth requires adequate materials and this fundamental need is an only right direction for every teacher & learner. In order to provide accurate materials, methodologies, dynamic language learning tasks, English language teaching (ELT) a unique discipline has been maintaining unprecedented rank globally since decades. The ELT researches have been gifting the huge number of outcome based tasks with appropriate intrigue for learner's age, background and helping slow learners to become fast learners. Subsequently worth materials makes it conceivable to think language ability can be developed among learners by English teachers within a decided time. On the contrary, it may be a failure of language policy (itself) without emphasizing on appealing instructional materials and longing for simple second language learning process just by offering English instructional medium. Undoubtedly, the instructional language course material is a backbone of teaching intending to accomplish objectives associated with overall learning development. With this attention, this paper provides an in-depth study of a phenomenon reflecting total sphere encompassing the education system. It depicts the interdependence of course materials & teaching system along with the impacts of inadequate materials, methods, practices with reference to Jammu and Kashmir Government schools. The data has been gathered through the survey and data analysis was done with the help of descriptive statistics.

Index Terms—English language, practices, policy, task grading, listening speaking

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a most established and foremost part of an education system in the society. It determines the progress of generations if it works effectively even it decides an extreme regression of generation's if there might be instructing failure. In India there is a tri-language formula applied by most of the Indian states and the Jammu & Kashmir State has been teaching English language as a compulsory subject under this policy with mother tongue as L1 & Urdu an official language as L2. The English language introduced in Government schools from primary level since 2003 has not seen any noticeable language learning growth among children in Jammu & Kashmir.

It seems the state education system has considered only teaching of English a license for uplifting the 21st century quality education without investigation of needs and necessities at ground level, because the course book (a necessary component) should be according the profile of large majority of learner's geography, culture linguistic influence and so forth. Similarly the emphasis on the necessities of the current time & future (both written & spoken communication) through course book contents, tasks, practices and so on coordinating to the subjective level of larger part. A language policy should not only mirror these requirements but it must investigate the course books, practical outcomes closely within a quarterly span. Language policy is concerned with authority endeavors to influence the relative status and utilization of one or more language (Historica, Canada). It may be called a right focused policy in the event if it supplements with the several essential facets. For example, learner's age, interest, motivation, future needs and outcome per lesson. As 'in many countries language policy is designed to favour or discourage the use of a particular language or set of languages' Martin (2013). Accordingly 'language planning is a deliberate effort to influence the function, structure, or acquisition of languages or language variety within a speech community Liddicoat (2013). Hence 'a language policy is second level of activity after the aims with respect to its target population. It is concerned less with where the learners in a school are going and more with how they are going to get there Corson (2009). Nonetheless rational context reveals the close onset after language policy depends on adequate course materials & accurate teaching methods.

Therefore the center of attention in English language teaching classroom must be:

- "To recognize that language is central to learning, all teachers ought to practice language with responsibility of facilitating communication process.

- To recognize administrators, teachers, librarians and other school staff require professional development in language learning and teaching and on how to make sure the language policy becomes a directive policy for obligatory output.

- To consider what resources and practices need to be used to involve parents in planning the children's language ability and development" (International Baccalaureate.2008).

The instructional materials which epitomize intact objectives expected by educational system for planning imply a strong correlation between language policy, planning, textbooks and teaching. The textbooks for the most part represents context of all elements necessary for a learner. The textbooks divulge the required foundation of ideas, laws, regulations, rules, practices and this indispensable package helps to support varied subjects knowledge in the chosen instructional medium i.e. English. As the language dominance over all the subjects is the dominance over knowledge and change, solely characterized by language policy & planning.

To implement the language policy in a State by the Government Education Ministry (first important stakeholder) for the benefit of the whole education system is actually a target setting to fulfill some unequivocal objectives. Obviously successful language policies are made to elevate the general state of the Governments socially, financially, politically, and so on by managing sound education with a sound language policy for education. A Government looks sound when instructive setup will be sound, and instructively solid individuals don't sit tight government call for a job or opportunities; actually they diminish the weight of Governments amid occupation crisis. They not only get self-employment but become employers for hundreds of unemployed by their potential which comes by knowledge through education. Henceforth education is a source of knowledge and knowledge has been converted into languages and language is the single most foundation of knowledge. Therefore, to pursue one's career in any discipline or to achieve mastery over knowledge, one need to learn to have a hold on the language sharing knowledge universally. It carries the transformation of whole information with a feature of worldwide adaptability.

The approval of English instructional medium from primary level in Government schools by Jammu & Kashmir State was a mark of this consideration aforementioned (a global language under language policy). Since English language learning became obligatory in all of the Indian Government Schools with the following objectives framed by National Council of Educational Research and Training (NCERT) under Free and Compulsory Education Act,2009 (RTE Act, 2009)titled Continuous and Comprehensive Evaluation (CCE) packages (NCERT, n.d).

- √ To enable children to articulate individual/personal response effectively.

- √ To help them to use language and vocabulary appropriately in different contexts and social encounters.

- √ To help them organize and structure thoughts in writing/speech.

- √ To develop their production skills (fluency and accuracy in speaking and writing).

- √ To help them understand, enjoy and appreciate a wide range of texts representing different cultures, ways of living.

- √ To enable them to use dictionary suitable to their needs.

- √ To help them understand and enjoy jokes, skits, children's films, anecdotes and riddles.

- √ To enable them to negotiate their own learning goals and evaluate their own progress, edit, revise, and review their own work.

It is rational to see whether any change occurred in terms of English Language learning advancement in the State Government school education system after more than 10 years of the new language policy. Unfortunately, there is no language learning growth in the majority Government schools in Jammu & Kashmir State. A major teacher community (first direct incharge & second important stakeholder of school education) lacks English language teaching skills. One the reasons is general subject teachers teaching English aren't sufficient capable to teach even English language basics properly, after all English language is 'not everybody cup of tea'. The disappointments in the English language practicing methods can be measured on a few grounds. For instance, some of them (instructors) are insufficient qualified or the greater part of the present era educators have gotten their education in Urdu medium. However, obstacles vary (increase/decrease) in number from place to place (rural to urban). Hence Language policy must bring these expected changes in objectives and practices focussing individual levels by improving the level best standards through arrangements. It must consider multifaceted nature before approval integrating frequent evaluation metrics such as what extent approved policy will connect learners to the target or objectives and so on. Nonetheless, both success and failure are the two faces of any course of action, but monitoring constantly the failure or success speed is a logical principle of any plan. Therefore, the English textbooks demand is more advanced matching with every perspective of non-native situation. In addition a criterion (presently unapparent) should have been framed to receive feedback from every concerned English teacher and later should have been sent to the course book developing committee.

II. BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

The emergence of English Language environment in J&K State (formerly a princely state) is very old. The steadily expanding interest for English each as a language and a medium driven by extra global demand had made J&K State rulers convincing to utilize English for administrative purposes since long. Around 1885-1925 in Maharaja's Ranbir Singh's rule English language was used for regulatory purposes Chathley (1995). It took years to get English language medium introduced officially in Government schools because of the earlier Sanskrit, Persian, and Urdu dominant instructional mediums in the State history during Dogra and Muslim rulers. The Urdu instructional medium continued

for number of decades came to an end twelve years ago in the State Government schools in 2003. This influential effort of ELT from primary level in the State Government schools is the latest effect. The 'decision to introduce English tutorial medium was taken at a Cabinet meeting under the chairmanship of the State Chief Minister late M. M. Sayeed' Staff Reporter (2003); besides 'it was decided earlier in the year 1998' (J&K opts... 1998). Even the language policy notified in 1977, reflects that 'English was an obligatory subject from Class VI, however according to the new policy English language is being taught from class I in J&K'.

Unfortunately the results produced by Government schools present decimal picture. For Instance a news "157 Government schools scored zero in class X" (Sharma, 2013). Recently '280 Govt schools scored 0 to 5% result in 10th class exams, Verma (2014). The most recent results are enunciating the unsafe future showing learning debilitating conditions in Government schools (Chaturvedi- 2014). The results over the past decade have not taken the Government education standard near to a normal achievement mark. The State public scarcely trusts on Government schools that's how our newspapers reflect truth. For instance, 'hundreds of schools closed by Government after drop in enrolment (Naseem, 2014) is a key reason of quality education is not exist in maximum Government schools. A fact 'fruitful language policy and strategies straightforwardly provides best educational outcome, thus we can realize the educational seeds sown in the state are rotten. It is believed by 'year 2016 there will be 500 million individuals in the nation with under five years of education and another 300 million won't have finished secondary school (India Vision 2020). Unless learners won't learn the instructional exercise language, they can't use their maximum capacity and can't see any subject lesson satisfactorily. Doubtlessly language learning is a broad learning phase growing naturally among learners with the time span but it needs maximum input in terms of listening speaking chances with target language during schooling, likewise we learn mother tongue: starting with mistakes, practicing and learning to avoid mistakes and at the end mastering over language. Thus if English target language is offered as a tutorial medium from schooling, it becomes a preference to learn it by hook or crook to embellish the educational carrier. Despite what might be expected in the event if it may not be achievable, the maximum chances will be constant disappointment which is equivalent ready to see educationally impaired generations.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Population

The English teachers of the State Government Upper Primary Schools (Sampling Unit) were approached to reflect their discernments on multiple aspects of ELT classrooms. To investigate the pros and cons, necessities and lacks confronted by the target population, a survey was conducted to collect samples in the academic year 2014-2015. A total number of 237 two thirty seven teacher samples (Sampling size) were collected through a simple random sampling method (Sampling procedure).

TABLE3:
RESEARCH LOCATIONS AND APPROACHED AUTHORITIES

Research Population: No of sites & respondents							
District/Authority/Schools	Srinagar	Budgam	Ganderbal	Baramulla	Kargil	Leh	Total
District/Cities/Visited	1	1	1	1	1	1	6
Director	1	---	---	---	---	---	1
Principal/Senior management	2	2	1	1	4	2	12
Headmaster	8	7	7	6	9	10	47
Teachers	39	45	36	42	35	40	237
Schools Visited	21	22	16	22	23	20	124

In order to reach out to the samples, population, locations; a guiding direction was taken from the official website of the Department of School Education Jammu and Kashmir Government (<http://www.jkeducation.gov.in/>). During sampling a total number of 121 Schools out of 124 contribute fully to the study.

B. Research Hypothesis

√ Instructional language learning failure worsens the overall performance of learners.

C. Research Questions

- √ Does instructional language learning failure affect the academic performance?
- √ What are the necessities which can change the lacks of learners & teachers into strengths?
- √ What extent instructional materials play a role in language learning?

D. Demography

The demography of the State Government Upper Level Teachers (GUPLT) is framed in the tables below:-

TABLE 2:
EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATION OF RESEARCH POPULATION

Overall Educational Qualification of State Govt. UPL teachers	M.A/M.sc plus M.Phil.	B.A/B.sc Plus B.Ed.	Intermediate	Middle Pass & Above	Total
f	28	59	112	38	237
%	11.81	24.89	47.25	16.03	100%

The samples collected obtain a certain teaching experience according to period as indicated below.

TABLE 3:
TEACHING EXPERIENCE IN YEARS

Number of years	Above 10 years	In between 5-10 years	1-5 years	Total
f	116	85	36	237
%	48.94	35.86	15.18	100%

IV. DATA COLLECTION METHODS

Both qualitative and quantitative data were collected in this study. Quantitative research depends heavily on numerical data and statistical analysis, whereas qualitative research makes little use of numbers or statistics, rather depends intensely on verbal information and subjective investigation' (Mingo cited Gall & Borg 2007, p-36). The current program was one part of the cross-sectional study, including descriptive research methods, as in cross-sectional studies the purpose of the research is descriptive generally in the form of a survey. It "examine learning if this is defined in terms of the assisted performance of some linguistic feature that a learner cannot handle independently but such an approach is only valid if it can also be shown that the learner is in fact incapable of independent performance of the feature and this has rarely been attempted" Ellis (2012).

V. DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

The data of the study has been accumulated through Questionnaire instrument for Government upper primary school teachers. They were requested individually to deliberate their perceptions on the effectiveness of English textbooks, methods, etc. Moreover secondary tools currently practiced were observed, verbal responses were collected on written documents. A Questionnaire was framed carefully to reveal major hidden truths as it is a self-evaluating as well as learner level evaluating tool. This information gathering device utilized by the researcher empowered in gathering valuable samples from target population. The tools used in the study helped quite fairly Government teachers to examine the lacks and educational targets for their concerned age level learners as well.

Questionnaire

To collect the nitty gritty details of 'English language teaching and learning' and issues at Government Upper Primary Level, a pilot study was done to see the ground level realities including needed parameters for the main study. Before preparing the research tools a content analysis method was deployed to appraise the English textbooks offered to the students of Government upper primary level. During the appraisal certain impediments noticed made it way for an ascertained concrete information. In addition first-hand experience of learning & teaching in the same environment helped to gain more knowledge. In the wake of adjudging the ground happenings it was necessary to gather the perceptions from a large majority of teachers teaching currently regarding English language teaching locale, teaching strategies against the irrelevant books (found under content analysis through parameters used for course developing such as objectives, content, task Grading, learner population, their background, etc.). The preeminent thing was to come across the constraints challenging the present English language learning structure built so far. However on the basis of needed inquiries and meets with experts a Questionnaire (primary tool of this study) was designed (See Appendix-A) and administered among target teachers. They reflected on multivariable questions associated with English language teaching & learning in non-native situation in J & K State.

VI. DATA ANALYSIS

The expected investigation through the main parts of the Questionnaire is based on multiple parameters of ELT containing 36 question items excluding profile details. Keeping an eye on demographic data, it indicates the more teachers teaching in Government Schools don't have the right educational qualification. Similarly the teaching experience indicates more teachers having enough experience which signifies who they are: obviously those who have joined Government teaching service long before when eligibility criteria for jobs was very low and there wasn't any high competition. The questionnaire sections are surrounded with more concentrate on queries related to the textbook & teaching tactics of the teacher. Only a single section has raised the issue of language policy related scenario. It seeks the queries on textbook compliance with language policy, textbook versus ELT objectives, the level of language learning textbooks through textbooks, the topic relevance level with the situations of life, etc. Descriptive and inferential statistics were used to analyze the gathered data. Due to a personal approach to the participants no data is

missed and information of all participants is complete. The formed headings for questionnaire like content, tasks, instructional methods, materials, etc. are variables directly related to the Govt. Upper Primary Level language teaching objectives.

VII. FINDINGS

Section A

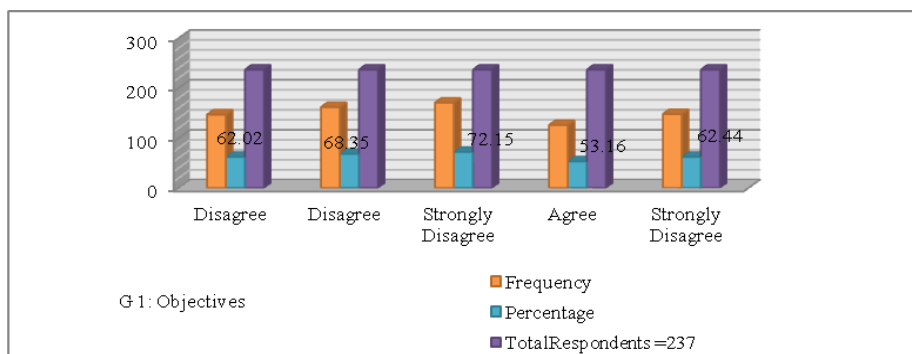
T1:

RELIABILITY ESTIMATE QUERIES ON DIFFERENT OBJECTIVES FOR ELT

Table 1: Objectives & Other ELT facets	Degree of agreements and disagreements									
	Strongly agree		Agree		Undecided		Disagree		Strongly disagree	
Queries	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Language policy versus ELT objectives	21	9	39	16	4	2	147	62.0	26	11
Present textbook materials versus ELT objectives	26	11	33	14	0	0	162	68.3	16	7
Present textbook materials versus language learning focus	20	8	31	13	0	0	15	6	171	72.1
Lengthy lessons in the textbook	24	10	126	53	10	4	50	25	27	11
Textbook topics versus everyday life situations	28	12	31	13	11	5	19	8	148	62.4
Total number of respondents	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100

This part contains 5 items and the Degree of agreements/disagreements (DAD’s) are strongly agree, agree, undecided, disagree, and strongly disagree. Language policy and language planning (LPLP) is an official government-level action relating to the determination and specification of a unified chosen language by an organization or selected language representing an understandable effort by people or institutes to influence language exercise in educational development.

The overall gathered frequencies reflect the connection between the different metavariable’s considered for language policy and curriculum. It investigates the English course materials worth for language learning objectives, the language learning appeal in them, etc. The collected respond for statements helped to see the impulse as reflected in the graph.



Graph 1: Validity estimate of ELT objectives and Match

A percentage of 62.0% respond ‘disagrees’ that language policy with the objectives considered for Upper compliments primary level children in an English instructional medium with regard to English language teaching. Further English course books don’t target English language teaching objectives indicate 68.35% disagreement percentage. There is no problem with the language policy as it approves the same aforementioned objectives of English language teaching in the State, a majority disagree with the English course books focus& inverse practices against objectives. It is validated by 72.1% respond showing teachers ‘strongly disagree’ that the textbooks don not focus language learning and according to respond it is deduced the children are not exposed to the right language development activities. A burden of more literature focus in the offered textbooks for upper primary children is higher than the age of the learners, shows language teaching & learning is functionality unapparent. The responses received with the detailed queries made it evident that English language preferred under the State language policy is far away from its right function. The scientific cum logical state of mind testifies “various texts resulted miscues in non-native discourse lead to a loss of consistency and relevance according to three variables: Task, Language proficiency, and discourse type” Cribb (2009). As we know required, “textbooks are thought to be fool proof means of guaranteeing successful teaching & learning. These practices and associated attitudes are so strongly entrenched in the minds of students that the value of course without textbooks is sometimes suspect” Gay (2010).

There is a different opinion of scholars on ‘literature determined to teach language & considered it itself authentic for English language learning. However, majority believe there is a definite difference between the conceptual authenticities of the two. Literature may be defined written, artistic and intellectual productions exclusively writing that possesses high quality or distinction, forming part of the so-called fine writing. According to Eagleton (2008) “Literature transforms and intensifies the ordinary language and deviates systematically from everyday speech”. Whereas language teaching is a teaching people to speak and understand second, third language and so on. In Language teaching teachers cum learners are involved to “become critical observers of how language is used both in written and spoken forms to achieve purposeful communication” by practicing it (Lee, Lee and Low, 2014). The language teaching

& learning involve diversity plus integration of tasks, constant focus on four basic language skills and the English literature textbooks designed for ELT like in Jammu Kashmir State Government schools learners are offered a high dose of literature targeting imaginations, stories out of context and irrelevant to learners age and comprehension. All this ultimately demotivates foreign language learners without exposing them to their need of language learning. In other words, this language learning mark is achieved with the help of accurate materials and didactic teaching methods directing more aural and oral language practice. The teacher’s level may be sufficient to read and understand any literature oriented textbook but course material without any language learning focus is just a blindfold search in terms of ELT at non-native level. It is very tough to assemble the entire teaching tactics under an umbrella against an inadequate textbook based on unapparent literature (irrelevant for age level needs) and to fulfil the objectives. Thus inadequate materials can’t help to target the goals of school education children. The lengthy lessons change the motivation of students for studying in presence of literature orientedness and sentence structure complexities of the language used in English textbooks. According to 53 percent teacher’s reflections the lessons are lengthy in the current English course books and as far as the age and interest of the learners is concerned, it ruins the attention and motivation level both to study in the foreign tutorial medium and its language learning. Had the textbook content been framed according to the everyday life situations it could have imparted a great attention, motivation of learners but no topic or theme reflects the children’s daily life situations which they experience and live in as per 62.4% perception of teachers. Subsequently, it is true, there is a clash between language policy & the inversely followed objectives in the whole teaching process, because of worthlessness instructional materials. It may be asserted that the current textbook materials along with lengthy lessons without focusing on language need affect the concentration level of the children. That is actually an educational regression for generations as this zero learning reaction definitely impacts the performance level of the learner. The present generations are receiving qualifications in the same way not education. It seems ‘language policy & its implementation plan try to manage multilingualism (Liddicoat, 2008) in the classrooms nothing else because in terms of teachers teaching strategies ‘they are able to keep the students under control’ (Pastor, 2015) which results nothing else.

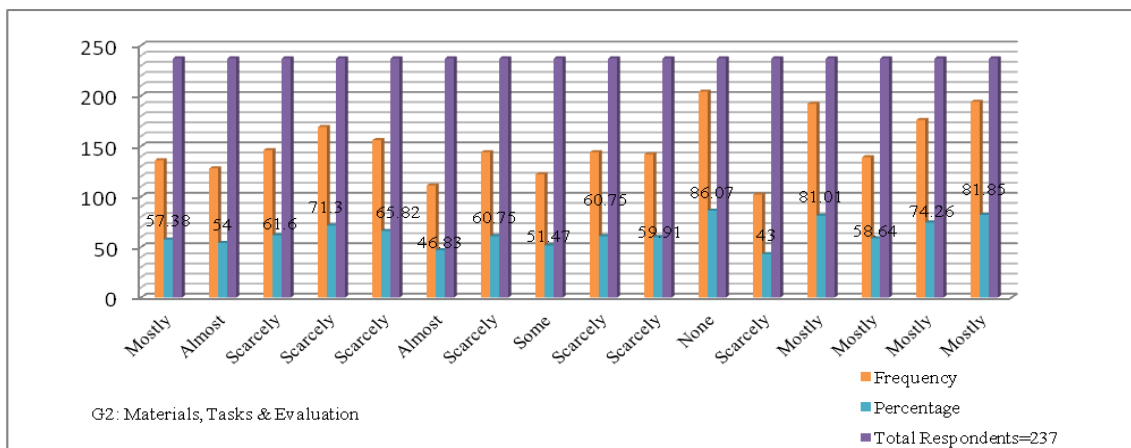
Section B

TABLE 2:

RELIABILITY ESTIMATE QUERIES ON MATERIALS, TASKS, EVALUATION

Table 2 : Queries on materials, tasks and evaluation	Degree of agreements and disagreements									
	Mostly		Almost		Some		Scarcely		None	
Queries	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Teachers read passages from the text	136	57.38	40	17	32	14	31	13	8	3
Adequate practice for learners in writing through textbook tasks	29	12	128	54.0	41	17	20	8	19	8
Tasks given to learners to improve speaking skills	33	14	19	8	38	16	146	61.6	1	0.42
Integrated Skills	14	6	16	7	35	15	169	71.3	3	0.01
Outcome based tasks to improve language learning skills	25	11	17	7	40	17	156	65.8	5	2
How clear are activity instructions for teachers and learners	48	20	111	46.8	47	20	20	8	11	5
Tasks presented in the text are well graded	29	12	33	14	25	11	144	60.7	6	3
Tasks/activities deal with the diversity	22	9	31	13	122	51.4	38	16	24	10
Textbook fit to the learners profile like, Age, background, interest level	14	6	51	22	24	10	144	60.7	4	2
Text book comprise oral and written communication tasks	21	9	26	11	31	13	142	59.9	17	7
Text book contain Audio/Video tests ,answer keys, etc	1	0.42	12	5	9	4	11	5	204	86.0
Text book contains satisfactory tasks , activities for four basic language skills	12	5	10	4	38	16	164	69.1	13	5
Teacher find grammatical mistakes	192	81.0	26	11	14	6	3	1	0	0
Teachers find spelling mistakes	139	58.6	43	18	26	11	29	12	0	0
Teachers find punctuation mistakes	176	74.2	26	11	30	13	5	2	0	0
Teachers find sentence organisation mistakes	194	81.8	40	17	3	1	0	0	0	0
Total number of respondents	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100

The worth of text is being measured by so many criterions like content, lexical density, readability point of view; relevance mark with the learner’s needs and understanding. Identically, the language learning point of view in a textbook require tasks & activities devised in a way resulting best opportune for a teacher who feeds constant language teaching with the main attention on language pillars inside the school’ Heller (1999). On the whole frequencies obtained are framed under each degree (agree or disagree) perceived right by research population. This part contains 16 items covered the information about teaching & materials worth. The DAD’S are Mostly, Almost, Some, Scarcely and None. The queries of this section received perceptions of actual incharge instructors related to the teaching tactics, task grading, tasks significance for skills learning outcome, task diversity, views about what extent the textbook content matches with the learners living milieu. Moreover teacher’s perspectives are gathered about their writing evaluation. The queries highest scores are highlighted in graph.



Graph 2: Validity estimates of materials worth

In the presence of plenty of techniques, tactics & strategies, the teaching should not be limited to hold textbooks, read passages, translation & interpretation by using a bilingual form. This traditional instruction of reading & translating by teachers gives learners chance to read and write annually not because they don't wish, but teachers have limited their teaching to practice these two skills only. While analysing the samples it is found that 57.3% teacher use textbook mostly for reading the passages. It seems 54% percentage of children obtain an adequate practice in writing through the textbook tasks but the question further shows discrepancy with next ten queries mentioning zero worth of tasks & activities devised in the textbook. The 61% noted that tasks are given scarcely for improving speaking skills. There is scarcely any integration of skills in textbooks admitted by 71.3%. Moreover, it is reported by 65.8% that the tasks for outcome of language learning improvement are scarce in the textbook. Although, the activity instructions are clear confirmed by 46.8% but 60.7% replied textbook contain scarcely well graded tasks. In this manner tasks devised are lesson related tasks sharing knowledge of content not related to language learning growth.

There is some diversity of tasks comprehended by 51.4% teachers however it is not substantial as indicated by a general examination (taken before data gathering) of the course books. The principal requisite while developing English language texts in non-native situation is to compare their background & cognitive heights including the needs of the time in the educational system but 60% has shown a dispute reaction declaring current textbooks scarcely fit with the learner profile, age, background or interest level. Further 59.9% testified there are scarce oral & written communication tasks. The 86% confirmed textbook doesn't contain audio/video tests likewise 43% majority asserts text contains scarce satisfactory tasks or activities for learning four language skills. To summarize from the response against the question mentioning adequate practice is given to learners in writing through textbook tasks. The next question reactions verifies it is the usual writing practice which includes homework tasks, and answers of lesson based questions given at the end of the lesson. As in the fourth section it is acknowledged that teachers prefer dictated answers while writing from learners. Further, it evokes the other factors stressing children's basic level of language is extremely frail. The current section reactions testify it too that there is immensely apparent weakness among learners English language growth. The reactions countered light out 81% teachers usually find mostly mistakes in grammar, 58% mostly in spelling, 74% mostly in punctuation, and 81% reciprocated that learners commit mostly mistakes in sentence organization.

Section C

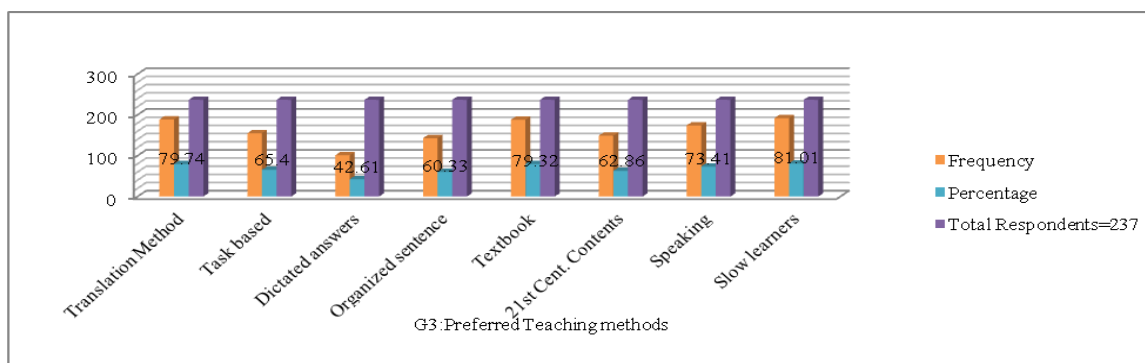
TABLE 3:

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF QUERIES ON TEACHING METHODS

Table 3: Queries on Teaching approach & perceptions		Multiple choice degree of agreements and disagreements									
Teachers preferred teaching method	Direct	Bilingual		Translation		Reading		Other(specify)			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	10	4	28	12	189	79.7	12	5	0	0	
Approach applicable to learn English language better	Task-based	Communicative		Audio-lingual		Lexical		Other(specify)			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	155	65.4	52	22	18	8	12	5	0	0	
Type of answer teacher prefers while checking pupils writing	Creative	Mostly Creative		Dictated answers		Sometimes creative		Other(specify)			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	52	22	48	20	101	42.6	36	15	0	0	
Teacher prefers as most important while evaluating pupil performance	Creative writing	Organized Sentence		Spelling		Punctuation		Other(specify)			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	30	13	143	60.3	34	14	30	13	0	0	
The teaching materials teacher prefers most in the classroom	All of the four	Textbook		Lesson Plans		Handmade maps, pictures		Newspaper/ Word games			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	16	7	188	79.32	25	11	8	3	0	0	
Features a best material for the development of language skills contains	CRTLTF	Cultural Contents		21ST Cent. Contents		IRLC		Both Language & Literature			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	23	10	48	20	149	62.8	17	7	0	0	
An important skill that needs to be acquired for day to day life	Listening	Speaking		Reading		Writing		Other(specify)			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	22	9	174	73.4	14	6	27	11	0	0	
Teachers categorized their children	Hard workers	Highly Motivated		Slow learners		Uninterested /Demotivated		Dull			
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	
	18	8	0	0	192	81.0	16	7	11	5	
Total number of respondents	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100	

The information drawn together in the form of table verifies different findings about Government school English language classrooms of the state. According to the nature of variables this section is comprised of multiple choice DAD's. It deals with the teaching preferences for approaches, methods, and opinions about learners. It is apparent graphically which respond provides what sort of angle and result.

It is revealed that the 79% teachers apply translation method for the teaching of English, due to whatever reason they use it, but they have made it a regular requirement and habit for socially, politically, economically, educationally backward majority depending on Government schools. This is against the reality, what people like they can't act always accordingly, what suits with the nature of demand and safety it is always a matter supposed to be considered by every teacher before teaching any classroom. All this came into my personal observation too, while observing English Language Teaching classrooms as well.



Graph 3: Validity estimates of ELT needs against language teaching-learning barriers

However, they do whatever is easier for them. A similar query supported by 42% teachers mentions they prefer to receive dictated answers in all written exams while evaluating their pupils writing. In fact 65% didn't forget to accept task based approach is more convenient and applicable for learners to learn English language better. Similarly, 60% respondents prefer to receive organized sentences by children and for that there is no task or exercise/ focus in the textbooks to teach or learn sentence organization. It shows the children are not exposed to learn the basics neither at

primary level nor at upper primary level, so how come one can anticipate organized sentences from them. Probably the single reason behind teacher preference for dictated answerers in exams is their actual level i.e. they are away from these abilities or they don't want to teach anything what is not prescribed in the textbook, and that's how! to run the system teachers use it as a method to make them write dictated answers by hook or crook and emphasize to rote learn.

It is avowed ELT objectives are just on documents and pass percentage of students are falsifying the actual conditions of learners through traditional teaching, providing guess paper for cramming before exams and pushing rote learning into an effect indirectly for written tests.

The textbook is the most preferred teaching material being used for instruction by 79% teachers, though they realized the current textbook difficulty for learners. The majority 62% teachers emphasize on 21st century content is a first required feature for English course book which must be framed because 81% percentage of learner's level are 'slow learners' and it is an ideal content to offer as compare to present literature centred. The 73% concerned instructors have emphasized on speaking skill must be learned for day to day life which means more aural/oral tasks shall be developed in future textbooks. The total respond made on the above queries clarified ineffective pedagogy is in practice, particularly instructional methods practiced among those who deserve stronger foundation. Thus the inadequate textbooks or lack of coordination between the two aforementioned elements is an apparent failure.

Part 4

This part containing 7 items focusing the status of current improvement in skills, learning by learners and the DAD's are Best, Good, Average, Poor and Very Poor. The different frequencies over skills structured in the form of table and

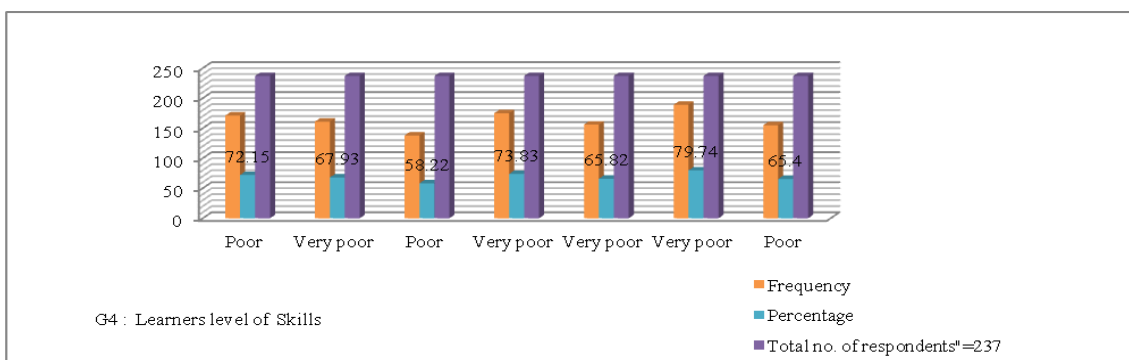
Section D

T4:

RELIABILITY ESTIMATES OF QUERIES ON TEACHING METHODS

T4: Queries	Best		Good		Average		Poor		Bad	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
The Listening skill of your students	14	6	29	12	12	5	171	72.15	11	5
The Speaking skills of your students	11	5	23	10	26	11	16	7	161	67.93
The Reading proficiency of your students	14	6	18	8	38	16	138	58.22	29	12
The Writing proficiency of your Students	8	3	25	11	13	5	175	73.83	16	7
The Vocabulary of your students	12	5	15	6	17	7	37	16	156	65.82
The pronunciation of your Students	0	0	14	6	14	6	20	8	189	79.74
The English language proficiency achieved by learners through the textbook lessons	20	8	29	12	0	0	155	65.40	33	14
TOTAL	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100	237	100

the major ones determine the dominant condition under a certain degree, as it collects the views of instructors on learner's weakness in different language learning areas.



Graph 4: Validity estimates on Skills

While sample analysing it is found the teaching language is underbelly done as it shows learners target language learning worth is nothing. A 72% received reaction specify learners listening skill is poor & a percentage of 67% learners speaking skills (pronunciation, vocabulary) are very poor. It should not be taken astounding as English language teaching is impractical in terms of teaching of skills particularly listening and speaking both are natural in order of teaching or learning any language. The 58% respond shows learners reading proficiency is poor and 73% majority affirm learners writing proficiency is 'very poor'. Comparatively more than sixty percent learners listening skill is poor because of least teaching-learning listening speaking. Similarly, 65% average indicates the weak condition of writing due to the learner's very poor vocabulary and when sentence organization ability is fragile, what sort of help vocabulary can give a learner. Likewise learner's pronunciation is very poor evident by 79.7% respond validity. Finally, 65.5% English teachers signified overall achieved level of learners in English language skills is poor.

Graphically the first two highlighted skills, then fourth and fifth determine extreme incompetence of learners studying in Government Upper Primary schools in Jammu & Kashmir State. All this agrees with nothing is on right

track in terms of ELT in J& K State Government Schools. In a few it is inferred the research hypothesis is accepted at this juncture as we came to know English language learning failure effects the learner's performance in others subjects as well. It is a bright finding asserting non-native ELT classrooms should be given the right, they deserve i.e. high exposure to aural and oral skills during schooling as a strategy to grab the target language competence. Surely this competence will assist the learner in every discipline he/she wants to pursue in future or the subject he/she fails to comprehend.

VIII. CONCLUSION

By examining the overall situation of Government Upper Primary Schools in Jammu and Kashmir it is deduced that a quality language focussed English instructional materials (a backbone for successful language policy and educational system) are currently unavailable in the Government schools in Jammu Kashmir. It has been observed the educators and learners have not seen adequate materials since long time. They don't have familiarity with the English language course materials influencing all in all their learning-implies. They are teaching according to their learning experience they gained from their teachers i.e. Reading plus translating and asking pupils to memorize the words for English language acquisition. These minor ELT strategies don't help as much unless the language process may not be according to natural disposition which we apply with mother tongue i.e. more aural & oral practice at beginning. Meanwhile the increasing obstacles in learning framework have been pulverizing our next generations. It is the correct time to take better initiatives to bring back the systematic movement in teaching learning process among these lowest performing classrooms. To cope with the policy constraints fundamental preplanned administrative parameters must be framed which better address the policy in viable terms. As the educational imperative of the time is entirely different than prior times. Thus the required components in a perfect English course book must be targeting objectives within content, teaching techniques, activities, skills practice, evaluation, more aural/oral activities, and as compare to reading writing practices till they (learners) complete schooling. It may be very fruitful to apply 70 and 30 ratio: 70% listening, speaking and 30% reading, writing. If the materials will incorporate such a functional balance, the learning gap will be bridged quickly. Better the text materials, greater the understanding & performance of learners, ultimately it is a sign of a successful language policy. It is affirmed here the lone source to raise children as knowledgeable generations rely on practical life based contents and universal language based activities pluralizing motivation, interest, practical learning outcomes in non-native classrooms. The practical life content helps in positive foundation for change of ideas, morals, values, practices and psychological change, etc. The latest ELT criterion in non-native classrooms is situational contents & tasks i.e. what teacher's majority respond for requirements in English instructional materials.

Conversely when objectives are missed due to a quality less learning course, everything goes traditionally, blindly, and unauthentically. To seize the global language teaching and learning opportunity the most important thing must be developed is the language oriented text incorporating totally afore said needed criterion. The results point out the lowest standard of education and performance of Government school children, including mistrust of parents on Government schools. This is all because of inappropriate materials first and oldest irrelevant methodology second and this all must be given a treatment of specific strategies and methods of 21st century which is obviously task based language teaching with rich input of tasks and activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

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APPENDIX. TEACHER REFLECTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

This questionnaire is a part of the Ph.D programme in English Language Teaching. The aim of this questionnaire is to find out the overall status of English language teaching and barriers in English Language Learning at Government Upper Primary Level in Jammu and Kashmir. The questionnaire has been prepared with five point scale and five multiple choice questions in the last section. You are expected to answer them accordingly and your answers are highly valuable. The work is of academic interest and your personal details will be kept confidential. Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement by giving a score on a five point rating scale.

I shall be thankful to you, if you spare some time and fill up this questionnaire.

Researcher
Nazir Ahmad Mir

Name _____ School & Class _____
Age & Gender _____ Teaching Experience _____

	<i>Strongly Agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Undecided</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>
1. The language policy complements with the objectives of ELT. 2. The textbook materials focus the objectives of ELT. 3. The present textbook materials are language learning focussed. 4. There are lengthy lessons in the textbook. 5. The topics and themes in the textbook are matching with the everyday situations of learners.					
6. Do you read passages from the text?	<i>Mostly</i>	<i>Almost</i>	<i>Some</i>	<i>Scarcely</i>	<i>None</i>
7. Are the children given adequate practice in writing through the tasks of the book?					
8. Are the students given tasks to improve speaking skills?					
9. Are the different skills integrated?					
10. Are the tasks in the lessons helping to improve the language learning skills (outcome based)?					
11. Are activity instructions clear both to teachers and learners?					
12. Do you think that the tasks presented in the text are well graded?					
13. Do the tasks/activities deal with the diversity?					
14. Does the text book fit your pupils profile like, Age, Educational background, their interest level?					
15. Does it (text book) comprise oral and written communication tasks?					
16. Does the text book contain other components, like Audio/Video, tests and answer keys support?					
17. Does the current English textbooks contains satisfactory tasks and activities for four (LSRW) basic language skills					
19. Which mistake do you find usually while checking your pupils writing? ▪ Mistakes in grammar ▪ Mistakes in spelling ▪ Mistakes in punctuation ▪ Mistakes in organisation of sentences ▪ Mistakes in pronunciation ▪ Mistakes in accuracy ▪ Mistakes in fluency					
20. What is your preferred teaching method?	Direct Method	Bilingual Method	Translation Method	Reading Method	Other(specify)
21. Which approach according to you is applicable to learn English language better at Govt Upper Primary level?	Task based	Communicative	Audio Visual	Lexical	Other(specify)
22. Do you prefer creative answers or the answers dictated and recommended by you while teaching?	Creative	Mostly Creative	Dictated answers	Sometimes creative	Other(specify)
23. Which one do you prefer as most important while evaluating the performance of your pupil?	Creative writing	Organized Sentence	Spelling	Punctuation	Other(specify)
24. Which teaching materials you prefer most in your English classroom?	All of the four	Textbook	Lesson Plans	Handmade maps, pictures	News paper Word games
25. What do you think is the best material for the development of the language skills of children?	CRTLTF	Cultural Contents	21st Cent. Contents	IRLC	Both Language & Literature
26. What according to you important skill that needs to be acquired for day to life?	All of the four	Listening	Speaking	Reading	Writing
27. How do you categorize the children in the classroom?	Hard workers	Highly Motivated	Slow learners	Uninterested /Demotivated	Dull
28. How is the Listening skill of your students? 29. How are the Speaking skills of your students? 30. How is the Reading proficiency of your students? 31. How is the Writing proficiency of your students? 32. How is the Vocabulary of your students? 33. How is their pronunciation? 34. How far do you think your pupils have achieved proficiency in English language through the lessons prescribed in the textbook?	<i>Best</i>	<i>Good</i>	<i>Average</i>	<i>Poor</i>	<i>Very poor</i>

Acronyms

CRTLTF: Cultural relevant text with language focussing contents

IRLC: Intercultural relevant language based contents

Thank you!
xf

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EFL Motivation through Vision: Role-plays, Narratives, Projects and Reading Tasks

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Abstract—This paper looks into some interactive, proposed ways in helping an EFL learner to develop an identity as an EFL learner in learning English to achieve language learning goals. First, vision theory is discussed, reflecting on the increased importance of envisioning oneself to create a self-image for the EFL learner in order to enable, acknowledge and enjoy his/her EFL identity. The second part presents the use of how conscious role-plays can make a difference in terms of shaping one identity. The next part supports the interlinking of image as a confident EFL learner and an effective individual in the future through personal narratives. The final section addresses how projects and reading tasks can be used as activities which can support the building of identity in EFL.

Index Terms—vision, role plays, narratives, projects, tasks

I. INTRODUCTION

Becoming an achieving speaker/learner in a foreign language engages the whole person as a cognitive, emotional and physical being. Hadfield and Dörnyei (2013) currently place vision at the core of learners' motivation in the area of foreign language learning. Seeing oneself as an L2 or in this very context, an EFL learner can help design a guideline to achieve the learner's personal goal. As Dörnyei (1997) indicates, goal-setting theory is well-suited with expectancy-value theories as commitment is seen to be enhanced when people believe that achieving the goal is possible and important. Vision, comprising imagination and imagery, represents the mental demonstration of the sensory experience of a future goal condition. It is currently at the forefront of motivational innovation, and it has recently been seen as the motivational implement of EFL teachers. Vision is seen as a strong motivational force. Motivation has traditionally been viewed as stationary. Nevertheless, any EFL teacher would argue that this is simply not the case. Levels of motivation seem to move up and down throughout the course of a lesson, a day and even over longer periods of time. As a result, vision perceived as a strong motivational force, relates to a long-term effort, which is able to overrule these rises and falls. In viewing student motivation in this way, vision can be seen as "one of the most reliable predictors of their long-term intended effort" (Dörnyei & Kubanyiova, 2014, p. 9)

The vision of a learner's future self includes a strong physiological element. In fact, a series of these physiological elements are needed to help the learner to create a self-image where he or she exists through the learning of the English language. The challenge is how EFL teachers can implement multi-physical based classroom activities that could engage the learners in the need of seeing, accepting, and enjoying a self as an EFL learner, in other words, their L2 identity. Four activities will be discussed from the standpoint of building and retaining an EFL self-vision. These include role-plays, personal narratives, projects, and reading tasks.

II. MINDFUL ROLE PLAYS

Role-plays are considered a basis for performing a communicative task. They are thought to enhance student interaction and place classroom practice in a real-like context. There appear many benefits of utilizing role plays. Furness (1976) claimed that an EFL learner can enjoy a role play experience with regards to enriched communication skills, creativity, better social awareness, autonomous thinking, expression of opinions, and improvement of values and appreciation of drama. Moreover, Ladousse (2004) pointed out that a role play is a great communicative method which develops fluency in EFL students, promoting classroom interaction and increasing motivation. A role play also inspires peer learning and sharing learning responsibility between the teacher and the student. Role plays can help EFL teachers meet an unlimited range of needs. According to Stern (1983), role playing helps the student to be more flexible and cultivate a sense of mastery in various situations which can help the student to apply the language more easily to new circumstances.

Despite these assumed advantages, many language teachers would agree that not every student enjoys role-plays. Some students cannot engage in their roles. Some don't feel like acting out in front of the audience due to their personality and characteristics. Some lack enthusiasm during the activity and they will not necessarily take away a memorable learning experience of an activity where they had to be a front office personnel at a hotel, for instance. In the writer's EFL context, some students explicitly question the validity of using role plays as part of formal learning assessment. They point out that it takes more than just acting out their roles: preparation of scripts, pair/group dynamics

and cooperation, material and audio-visual arrangement and rehearsals to deliver a role play successfully.

Stanislavski (1937) speaks against mechanical acting and requests that actors/role-players approach their role from its inner content because as a theatre director he holds that a role which is built on truth will grow whereas one which is built on stereotype will wither. Thus, actors /role-players need to enter their role with their true personality. They have to build it from the inside and nourish it with their past experiences and future aspirations. This actually resonates with Dornyei and Kubanyiova's (2014) argument that learning an L2 or EFL involves a struggle to forge a new identity that is true to the self. From this perspective, Stanislavski's view on acting is similar to what Zimmermann (1998) defines as transportable identity as opposed to discourse and situated identity.

In the traditional way of using role plays, students are engaged through their discourse identity. In other words, they assume roles as speakers or listeners in a dialog. Their situated identity is their role in the situation such as tourist, housekeeper, and flight attendant. However, their transportable identity is not taken into consideration. Transportable identity involves their gender, past experiences, beliefs, and preferences (what they like and do not like). This is actually when their personality becomes part of their language, often known as personalizing the activity.

Therefore, it is suggested that role plays be introduced by a pre-task which focuses on EFL learners' transportable identity. Sorting or helping cards can be used with questions about their personality and multi-sensory past experiences. These details will help them create their role identity in a self-conscious way, and their English speaking role identity will be positively more active and uninterrupted.

III. PERSONAL NARRATIVES

Seeing oneself in a future situation can be developed into whole-life scenarios. Teenagers are in a period of their lives when they construct a vision of their possible future selves. This is undoubtedly a natural aspect of their personal development. By this means, interweaving the vision of being an assertive EFL student and a successful entity in the future comes as a very natural thinking process. Hadfield and Dornyei's (2013) proposal of mental imagery or image streaming as used in learning motivation and sports psychology can be effective with this group of teenage.

In fact, the guided imagery activity so called "My Future L2 Self" as described by Hadfield and Dornyei (2013) can be applied to EFL. It can serve as the starting point for a visionary platform with a small group of teenagers. This begins with a sequence of questions read out by the EFL teacher, revealing multi-sensory experiences, which describe the experience of the world involving a number of senses, including sight, hearing, touch, taste, and smell. These senses usually work together, providing a vigorous and rational awareness of the environment. For example, when entering a decent restaurant: a person sees the decoration and the other clients, smells the scents of cooking from the kitchen, hears the enjoyable music and sound of conversation, feels the coziness of the seating, and, finally, enjoys the taste of the food. Students, then give a detailed description of their lives in the next 10 years. They are able to visualize themselves in the future, see their goals achieved, and realize that they have become capable EFL users. This vision narrative activity engages all five language skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing as well as culture. The last skill as Pylyshyn (2006) puts it; language is a way of communication and it carries the culture with it. The concrete outcome of this activity can be a printed magazine with students' stories and photos.

IV. PROJECTS

Through vision, EFL learners can also be given projects that enhance their active imagination and correspond to the certain purpose of learning English. In English for Specific Purposes Courses, for instance, students should be assigned work that let them work together as groups to develop projects that are visionary in nature. At the same time, entrepreneurial spirit can be promoted.

A travel agency project where students have to develop their own travel agency based on new ideas/input only happens to be effective and copying is not allowed at any stages. Also, students are seriously warned that if copying work from other sources is found, the whole group will be automatically given zero. They have to present the historical background of their agency, its objectives, the significance of the agency and their expected outcomes. Target customers are to be discussed next as to it is going to be for the niche or mass market, so they need to justify prudently. Then, the slogan and the logo of the agency must be invented to reflect the agency's entity. After that, they have to present their marketing strategies to achieve their sales. Presenting two promotional packages in detail with the itineraries is required next, promoting how they can strategically attract others to buy their products. They then carry out SWOT analysis in depth, elaborating strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the existence of their agency. They are asked to submit their virtual advertising brochure to be attached to the report. Benchmarking or competitive analysis with other existing agencies would be required as well to see where their agency posits/stands among their competitors: which areas their agency is stronger and which is weaker so as to see room for improvement. Next, any useful information for potential tourists before joining a trip based on their group hands-on actual experience is to be discussed so that it would help tourists to be prepared. They are highly encouraged to plaster relevant photos of primary, secondary and temporary destinations used as target destinations in their report. The students are explained clearly as follows:

Primary destinations are places that attract people from the mass market who may come from a great distance, from all over the world. These primary destinations can create a heavy accommodation demand especially during high season.

Some examples of primary attractions are celebrated religious and health related destinations, mega theme parks, notable casinos, megamalls and certainly those world wonders. Generally, a primary attraction demands quite considerable numbers of services. Secondary destinations, alternatively, attract people from vicinities nearby or persuade people to stop on their way by. Sport centers, zoos, aquariums, museums, sanctuaries, regional theme parks, local shopping arcades, and provincial casino gambling centers are good illustrations of secondary attractions. These secondary settings may attract as many visitors as those primary ones and at times even more. For temporary attractions or destinations, they also play an important role. They are considered a long-lived type of attraction. These attractions mainly comprise fairs and festivals. Fairs here may be a type of entertainment in a park at which farm animals and products are shown and take part in competitions.

The length of the project report is set at a minimum of 30 pages with related pictures and the deadline of submission is given usually at the end of the term so as to allow them time to work as a group throughout and the project itself serves as one of the most important requirements for the course. The students are also well informed that each group (about 6 -8 members) has to present their imaginative travel agency using the PowerPoint by the time they submit the project report.

For in-class presentation, it would take the form of grand opening of the travel agency. They would then have to bring in snacks, drinks or other refreshments, creating such warm, lively atmosphere. Each group is required to present one best holiday package during the presentation. The purpose is to successfully persuade the audience (classmates) to buy it. The marks to be given depend on how effective they can convince the audience with their best package. All in all, this project can help them envision themselves as travel agency operators/ owners simultaneously with the opportunity to practice the use of English in a specific context.

Another project worth discussing is presenting an imagery hotel business where students create an important part of learning about English for hotels. As group work, students are reminded to delegate various tasks within their team properly and it is significant that every member in the group contribute to the production of the project report and the delivery of the presentation to the whole class. They are also warned that they have to come up new ideas/input only and copying is not allowed at any stages. If copying work from other sources is found, the whole group will not be given any marks.

The overall task is to devise a hotel establishment using their creativity and existing knowledge about hotel operations and functions (or to discuss about it in detail in case they claim that they have already devised one). As they write up their project, they must break it down into important elements in running a hotel business. They are free to create these components in a way that would make their hotel most appealing and interesting. First, the background of their hotel must be presented together with its objectives, followed by the significance of the hotel and their expected outcomes from establishing this innkeeping business. Next, they indicate what type of hotel is created according to the level of service and target market. Target customers must be discussed and justified. The slogan and the logo of the hotel thus follow. Then, they provide information about the main departments in their hotel. As there are many kinds of facilities provided in hotels, they are suggested to present their hotel's main facilities and services that are the highlights. Main personnel working in their hotel require elaboration as well. After that, they have to present their marketing strategies to succeed in their sales of hotel rooms and facilities. Presenting two hotel promotional packages meticulously is required next, supporting how they can tactically interest others to come and stay in the hotel. They then make SWOT analysis in depth, elaborating strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats of the existence of their hotel. They are also requested to hand in their virtual hotel advertising brochure by attaching it to the report. Benchmarking or competitive analysis with other existing hotels would be required as well to see where their hotel posits/stands in comparison to their competitors in the market: who the competitors are, which areas their hotel is stronger and which is inferior so as to see room for any development. They are next to include relevant photos of hotel facilities, services, etc. in their report. They are actually allowed to loan pictures from open sources as long as they give photo credits in the reference section of their project report.

Like the travel agency development project, the length of the hotel project report is set at a minimum of 30 pages with related pictures and the deadline of submission is given usually at the end of the term so as to allow them time to work as a group throughout and the project itself serves as one of the most important requirements for the course. The students are also well informed that each group (about 6 -8 members) has to present their imaginative hotel using the PowerPoint by the time they submit the project report.

For in-class presentation, it would take the form of grand opening of the hotel. They would then have to bring in snacks, drinks or other refreshments, creating such fun, dynamic atmosphere. Each group is required to present one best holiday package during the presentation. The purpose is to successfully persuade the audience (classmates) to buy it. The marks to be given depend on how effective they can persuade the audience with their best package. On the whole, this creative project can help students visualize themselves as hotel managers/owners along with the opportunity to practice the use of English in a specific context of hotel management and operations.

V. READING TASKS

In our daily lives, we often create images to enhance or add to information. For instance, if we see a picture of a beautiful flower, we might imagine its fragrance. The pungent smell of milk cookies reminds us of their taste, and a

vivid description of a lake will produce a picture of it in our minds.

In fact, as readers, when we create images as we read, the text becomes more alive. Thus, when we read with vision in mind, we try to add the sensory images of sight, sound, touch, smell, and hearing to improve the understanding of what we read.

One of the reading tasks that the author often uses with EFL university students is 'Breakfast', a short story by John Steinbeck (1902-1968). John is considered one of the greatest American writers. The author would normally introduce this particular writer to the students as Steinbeck is a well-known writer of *Mice and Men* and *The Grapes of Wrath* who won the Nobel Prize in Literature in 1962. This way, it normally gets their attention because EFL university students majoring in English in the author's context normally find work of famous writers predominantly appealing and appreciative.

Indeed, "Breakfast" is a short descriptive sketch. This kind of sketch doesn't have to tell a story. Rather than having a central plot, a descriptive sketch is used to awaken images in the reader's (or student's) mind. In order to prepare the students for reading "Breakfast", they would be asked to discuss the reason why an author would like a descriptive sketch. Also, from the title of "Breakfast", the students would have to consider what they are able to predict from the story. Another question is for the students to think of the word, 'breakfast, and use their imagination to see, smell, and taste a breakfast.

Before the students actually start to read "Breakfast", they would then be prompted to note the way Steinbeck describes people and settings and to what extent his words help them to form clear images. Later, the students would be given time to read the story and react upon the prompts. Then discussion would be made to see how well the students can create images from the story.

As the students have read the story, they would have noticed that the author uses 'color' words in his short story. For example, in the beginning of the story, the color words 'black-blue' and 'washed red' appear. It would be quite easy to guess that black-blue is a mix of the colors black and blue, but what is washed red?

With their classmates in small groups, the students would be asked to think of other adjectives describing the color red which produce a similar image. Using the chart called "Adjectives and Images", the students write these adjectives in the column marked "Adjective". Then, they think of each adjective as they form an image in their mind: what words describe this image? Then they write these words next to the adjective in the column marked "Image". Thus, they are able to come up with the differences in the images they formed from the adjective. This activity is presented in Figure 1 as follows:

Adjective	Image
<i>Example: Washed</i>	<i>Weak, faded</i>

Figure 1: Adjectives and Images

After that, the students think of adjectives that give the opposite image to 'washed', as in 'washed red'. Using the chart in Figure 2, Adjectives and Images: Part II, the students write these adjectives in the column marked "Adjective". Once again, they think about each adjective in the first column as they form an image in their mind and think of words to describe this image. Then they write these words next to the adjective in the column marked "Image".

Adjective	Image
<i>Example: vivid</i>	<i>bright, strong</i>

Figure 2: Adjectives and Images: Part II

The next continuous phase concerns how the students can put what they have learned into practice. They would be asked to look around the room to find items they can describe with the words from either list (Figure 1 and Figure 2). They can do this by adding one of the words from the 'Image' or "Adjective" column of either list to a common color and then writing the name of what they are describing. For instance, if they are describing a teacher's yellow shirt, they might take the word 'vivid' from the "Adjective" column in Figure 2 plus the color "yellow" and the object "shirt", producing the phrase "vivid yellow shirt". Likewise, if they are trying to describe a blue sky, they might take the word "faded" from the "Image" column in Figure 1 plus the color "blue" and the object "sky", creating the phrase "faded blue sky". Subsequently, they would have to write these descriptive terms out clearly in a note or paper. The students would learn that their descriptive terms actually become more lively when they think of the image they wish to convey. This can help them learn about using colors to create images successfully.

In relation to the story "Breakfast", EFL teachers can further ask the students to identify paragraphs in the story which are mainly devoted to describing people. As a group, they have to decide which paragraphs are the most appropriate. After they have come to agreement, EFL teachers read the chosen paragraphs while the students close their eyes. The students would have to describe the images they experienced. Then, they reread the paragraphs and recreate the images in their mind. Generally speaking, it would be useful for readers to create mental images as the writer supplies words and phrases. These images can then be used to help sharpen understanding of and set an emotional tone for what is being read. This way, creating images through reading tasks can be applied to help EFL learners to develop their identity in EFL as well.

VI. CONCLUSION

Through the combined, innovative process of the mindful role-plays, personal narratives, projects and reading tasks, EFL learners can benefit from a positive learning experience and establish coherence between their ideal EFL self (what one would like to be in learning English as a Foreign Language) and the ought to EFL self (what others expects one to be in learning English as a Foreign Language) in their vision. In fact, vision alone is not necessarily adequate to inspire motivated action to determinedly create a motivational surge of energy, which can focus action towards a specific target in the future. Therefore, the two or more activities can be integrated as a series in a way that EFL learners play the role of their future EFL selves developed through the vision narrative activity in several imaginary situations/ scenarios or by means of assigned projects and tasks.

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Code Switching in EFL Classrooms: A Bangladeshi Perspective

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Abstract—Code switching (CS) in classrooms, especially in bilingual classes, is a common phenomenon. This paper tends to expose the plausible reasons behind the application of first language (L1) in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms where English is considered the medium of instruction in all spheres of pedagogical issues. Another important aspect of this study is to reveal the perception of both students and teachers towards their CS to L1. The findings of this survey show that a switch to L1, whether initiated by the teachers or the students, makes the lesson or topic discussed in the class more comprehensible.

Index Terms—code switching, EFL classroom, reasons, attitudes, learning success

I. INTRODUCTION

Code switching (CS) requires an in depth inspection to be carried out in the country like Bangladesh. Undoubtedly, Bangladesh is a country that has a glorious language history dated back to 1952. To walk with the change and to amalgamate with the so called mainstream society, people here give English, a language of global interest, an undeniable position in their every walk of life though English has not yet received any official status. Banu and Sussex (1999) state that the role of English in Bangladesh is purely functional as English is used as an international link language. They also claim English has been used for years and for different purposes and gradually it is becoming part of the socio-cultural system.

Being a part of global community, English has an increasing demand here and, true to say, the necessity and importance of learning English is growing more and more. In Bangladesh, English is taught at primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary levels. With its outgrowing importance, English has become the medium of instruction in most of the universities of the country, especially the private universities. Given priority to this language use, Bangladesh has become, though unofficially, a bilingual country. As students at tertiary level belong to a bilingual community, code switching in the classrooms, therefore, is a very common phenomenon which cannot be ignored in any way. As Hudson (1996, p. 51) claims “code switching is the inevitable consequence of bilingualism”.

II. CODE SWITCHING

CS is defined as the alternation of two languages within a single discourse, sentence, or constituent (Jamshidi & Navehebrahim, 2013). It can occur when a speaker starts his conversation in a language, then changes it to another language in the middle of his speech.

Gumperz (1982, p. 59) refers to it as “the juxtaposition within the same speech exchange of passages of speech belonging to two different grammatical systems or subsystems”. Cook (2001a) opines that code switching is the process of “going from one language to the other in mid-speech when both speakers know the same languages” (p. 83). Speakers start with second language (L2) but they switch code to their first language (L1) in the same discourse, that the speakers balance both L1 and L2 simultaneously. Jan (1999) discusses that code switching is generated by a number of socio-cultural factors such as role relationships, topics, intention and effect, attitude, values and beliefs, personal emotions, situation, domain, setting and language choice.

Schmitt and McCarthy (1997, p. 2) state “a learner’s L1 is one of the most important factors in learning L2 vocabulary”. Teachers use code switching to make students understand difficult and new vocabularies in the text. They use contextual reference using their L1 to make the topic enjoyable. Norrish (1997) claims that teachers switch code when the level of English used in the textbook or to be taught is beyond the learner’s ability or when the teachers have exhausted the means to adjust his speech to the learner’s level. Situation or learning context creates a significant pressure on the teachers to use L1 in the classroom. Cook (2001b) referred to code switching in the classroom as a natural response in a bilingual situation. Cole (1998) argues for selective, principled use of the L1 due to its practicality and efficiency. A pragmatic/careful switch to L1 always creates a sense of solidarity and sameness. According to Holmes (2001, p. 35), “A speaker may switch to L1 as a signal of group membership and shared ethnicity with an addressee”. Therefore, mother tongue interference in classrooms, where English is considered the medium of instruction, can have multiple constructive reasons.

III. RESEARCH HYPOTHESIS

The hypotheses to be tested under this study are as following:

1. Both teachers and students switch their code from English to Bengali in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms.
2. Learning outcome of the students largely depends on teachers' careful code switching.
3. Students hold positive attitude towards mother tongue interference in EFL classroom.

IV. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Very little attention is paid to the matter of using L1 in the context of EFL classrooms at the tertiary level in Bangladesh. This interested me to conduct an in depth investigation into this field. The objectives of the study include:

1. to determine the reasons that lead to the use of code switching in the classroom discourse
2. to determine the perception of both students and teachers towards their incorporation of L1 in classroom setting
3. to measure the impact of teachers' code switching on EFL learning and teaching
4. to determine the expected frequency of code switching
5. to add new insight to the existing literature on CS

V. METHODOLOGY

A. The Subjects

The survey for this study was conducted on 34 teachers and 175 students from two universities. All participants including teachers and students are Bengali-English bilinguals. Among the teachers, 22 are from Northern University Bangladesh (NUB), one of the leading private universities of Bangladesh, and 12 are from Khulna University (KU), a reputed public university of the country. The medium of instruction of both universities is English. The teachers from both NUB and KU were randomly chosen from the following departments: English, Business Administration (BA), Law, Computer Science and Engineering (CSE), and Electronics and Communication Engineering (ECE). Teachers were taken into account from different disciplines in comparison to the students' departments to find out if teachers from different departments switch codes or CS is limited to few departments.

Student participants were also randomly chosen from different subjects as they come from several departments. All students were attending EFL classes as part of their undergraduate and postgraduate programs. Among them 120 students are from NUB who are attending their undergraduate programs in three departments (English, Business Administration (BA), and Law). All of them have completed their 1st year, i.e. at least 3 trimesters. The remaining 55 students from KU are completing their postgraduate program in English Language. Student participants were taught English as a foreign language for twelve years as their compulsory subject at primary, secondary and higher secondary levels before joining the university programs. Though they studied English as a compulsory subject from Class 1 to Class 12, they achieved very low proficiency in English because of poor teaching, low contact hours, and poor teaching curricula and methodology.

In the following tables, detailed information of the participants is given categorically.

TABLE 1
INFORMATION RELATED TO TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

		NUB			KU			Total	
		Department/Discipline							
		English	BA	Law	English	CSE	ECE		
Gender	Male	Ph.D.	01	00	00	01	00	00	02
		Master's	02	06	03	06	01	01	19
	Female	Ph.D.	00	00	01	01	00	00	02
		Master's	02	07	00	01	01	00	11
Total			05	13	04	09	02	01	34

TABLE 2
MORE INFORMATION RELATED TO TEACHER PARTICIPANTS

Academic Rank		Total
Professor	04	34
Associate Professor	05	
Assistant Professor	11	
Senior Lecturer	05	
Lecturer	09	
Teaching Experience		Total
Less than 5 years	16	34
5-10 years	14	
Above 10 years	04	

TABLE 3
INFORMATION RELATED TO STUDENT PARTICIPANTS

Table 3						
		NUB			KU	Total
		Level				
		Graduate			Post-graduate	
		Department/Discipline				
		English	BA	Law	English	
Gender	Male	60	20	05	39	124
	Female	20	00	15	16	51
Total		80	20	20	55	175

From tables 1, 2, and 3, it becomes visible that the male and female ratio was not maintained in any case, whether it is student or teacher, as it does not fall into the objectives of this research. Four of the teachers hold Ph.D. degree and the rest of them have master's degree. The teaching experience of the teachers ranges from less than 5 years to above 10 years. Though this is not considered while analyzing data, it is important to be noted that teachers' academic ranks differ from Lecturer to Professor.

B. Methods and Procedures

The study was conducted using two different types of written questionnaires that were distributed among the participants of the two distinct groups. The questionnaire designed for the teachers (see Appendix A) include 15 questions. Among these questions, some of them presuppose a number of obvious reasons for which the teachers switch their codes. These questions try to validate and prove if the assumed reasons have evidence or not. Few questions are set to find out what kind of attitude the teachers hold towards their own and towards the students' code switching.

The second questionnaire (see Appendix B) comprises a set of questions, and most of them primarily pre-consider code switching plays a positive role in favor of the students and aim at explaining students' views on the use of Bengali in EFL classrooms. This questionnaire also tries to find out why and how code switching bears a favorable appeal to students and what their attitude towards teachers' code switching is.

The questionnaires have been designed using the researcher's personal experience and taking helps from previous studies of code switching. A pilot study was also conducted on both of the questionnaires to ensure the reliability and validity of the survey. The key purpose of this pilot study was to be sure if the questionnaires were feasible to bring out the objectives of the present study. Considering the feedback elicited from 3 teachers and 10 students, some changes were made in the questionnaires such as: deletion of some questions, rephrasing some sentences of few questions as they became difficult to understand etc. Then, each of the questionnaires is prepared suitably and divided into two parts: first part is related to the personal background of participants and second part is about research questions.

The data are analyzed with Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) 16.0 in order of the questions' appearance (Appendix A & Appendix B) and in terms of related studies (Alshammari, 2011; Jingxia, 2010; Tang, 2002). The responses are shown in percentage using tables.

VI. LITERATURE REVIEW

In many cases, code switching is commonly viewed with suspicion in EFL classes (Yao, 2011). Many consider it a crime for the teachers who employ L1, of course in a limited sense, for their lessons to be comprehensible. Teachers try to continue their classes in the target language (TL), but when the situation demands, they are, to some extent, forced to switch their codes. We know the prime purpose of a language is to serve the function of communication. For the sake of communication between teachers and students to be fruitful, teacher has no alternative but code switching. Harbord (1992) points out that many ELT teachers have tried to create English only classrooms but the result they have found is students have failed to get the meaning across leading to incomprehension and resentment.

Eyes always speak the inner thoughts that most often remain unspoken. Teachers can feel, as they have the ability to do so, the pulse of the students and understand that the English only class creates a barrier in students' understanding in certain cases. Therefore, code switching becomes a natural phenomenon and an inevitable part of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), especially in EFL classrooms. If it is about the validity or usefulness of code switching, there are many studies that speak in favor of CS. For example, Schweers (1999) investigated the validity of using L1 in EFL classrooms at a university level. It was concluded that all teachers who participated in the study believed that L1 should be used in EFL classes. Likewise the majority of the students agreed that their L1 should be used to clear any difficult concept and they admitted that they felt less lost during the lesson when their teachers used L1.

Code switching is necessary in the classroom if the teacher and students share the same language and should be regarded as a natural part of bilingual's behavior (Jamshidi and Navehebrahim, 2013). When the teacher uses L1 in EFL classrooms, it creates a rapport between teachers and students and it also signals solidarity and sameness among them. A similar kind of study was conducted in a Saudi intermediate girls' school and the study revealed that teachers and students hold positive attitudes towards the use of their L1 Arabic in the classrooms (Al-Nofaie, 2010).

Rashid (2014) conducted a research on 13 teachers and 63 students from Shahjalal University of Science and Technology (SUST), Bangladesh. The study shows that a high percent of the teachers (61.54%) and students (57.14%)

agree with the use of code switching and when CS was investigated as a strategy of teaching and learning, the lion portion of teachers (84.62%) and students (87.39%) believe that CS is an eminent strategy for teaching and learning English in the university classrooms.

Teachers switch code when the level of English used in the text-book or course material is beyond the student's ability. CS is used to explain new terms or words and difficult grammatical items. Ahmad and Josseff (2009) found in their survey that 72.4% of the respondents (total 257) acknowledged that CS helped them understand new words, 71.6% perceived that CS assisted them in understanding any difficult concepts while 68.8% agreed that teachers' CS helped them understand the grammar being taught.

Jingxia (2010) conducted a research on 259 students and 60 teachers from 3 Chinese universities. The results of the research show that students (96.9%) think it is important for their teachers to use Chinese (L1) "always, sometime, or occasionally" to meet for their needs as their lessons are generally a little beyond their comprehension, and the majority of teachers (81.7%) and students (75.3%) believe that CS to Chinese greatly benefit the class.

In accordance with the above mentioned studies, the present study also tries to shed light on CS in the context of Bangladeshi EFL classrooms.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULT

As mentioned before, the purpose of the present study is to bring the reasons behind CS classroom use into light and it also attempts to uphold the attitudes of both teachers and students towards CS. First part of the analysis graphs the teachers' responses and the second portion demonstrates responses gathered from the student participants.

TABLE 4
STATISTICAL RESULTS OF TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Response		Always	Sometimes	Undecided	Seldom	Never	Total
Q1	Frequency	00	27	00	06	01	34
	Percentage	00	79.4	00	17.6	2.9	100
Q2	Frequency	03	26	04	01	00	34
	Percentage	8.8	76.5	11.8	2.9	00	100
Response		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Q3	Frequency	03	23	06	02	00	34
	Percentage	8.8	67.6	17.6	5.9	00	100
Q4	Frequency	09	21	02	02	00	34
	Percentage	26.5	61.8	5.9	5.9	00	100
Q5	Frequency	23	08	02	01	00	34
	Percentage	67.6	23.5	5.9	2.9	00	100
Q6	Frequency	05	21	06	02	00	34
	Percentage	14.7	61.8	17.6	5.9	00	100
Q7	Frequency	03	12	09	05	05	34
	Percentage	8.8	35.3	26.5	14.7	14.7	100
Q8	Frequency	07	21	05	01	00	34
	Percentage	20.6	61.8	14.7	2.9	00	100
Q9	Frequency	06	21	05	01	01	34
	Percentage	17.6	61.8	14.7	2.9	2.9	100
Q10	Frequency	19	12	03	00	00	34
	Percentage	55.9	35.3	8.8	00	00	100
Q11	Frequency	03	18	07	04	02	34
	Percentage	8.8	52.9	20.6	11.8	5.9	100
Response		Greatly Beneficial	Beneficial	Undecided	Not Beneficial	Harmful	Total
Q12	Frequency	18	11	03	01	01	34
	Percentage	52.9	32.4	8.8	2.9	2.9	100
Response		In English		In Bengali	They Switch Codes		Total
Q13	Frequency	05		03	26		34
	Percentage	14.7		8.8	76.5		100
Response		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Q14	Frequency	00	00	01	09	24	34
	Percentage	00	00	2.9	26.5	70.6	100
Response		Frequently	Not Frequently	Undecided	Very Little	Not at All	Total
Q15	Frequency	00	02	04	10	18	34
	Percentage	00	5.9	11.8	29.4	52.9	100

Q= Question

A. Teachers' Response

In order to find out the frequency of CS, question 1 "I switch code from English to Bengali in the English as Foreign Language (EFL) classes." was administered, and among 34 teachers, 27 teachers (79.4%) gave consent that they use CS "sometimes" and 6 teachers (17.6%) use it "seldom". Only one teacher (2.9%) denied the use of CS in classrooms. So,

almost all the teachers participated in this study use CS in EFL classrooms. Most of the teachers remain conscious while switching to Bengali as they are aware of the careful implementation of CS in formal setting. Question 2 “I remain conscious while switching to Bengali in the class.” ensures this awareness of the teachers.

To answer question 3 “Code switching is helpful in maintaining discipline in a large class. Do you agree?”, 23 teachers (67.6%) agreed and 3 teachers (8.8%) strongly agreed to the question. Teachers use CS to maintain large class. It is easy to manage and communicate small classes. The teachers can easily engage a class if its size is small, but it becomes difficult to manipulate a large class as controlling of such kind of class is really a challenge for teachers. In a large class, students’ proficiency level of English varies significantly and teacher cannot give special attention to each student. In this context, CS becomes helpful to handle every situation tactfully.

With the opinion of question 4 “I think code switching to Bengali is an effective strategy for learning and teaching English.”, teachers tend to agree to it. The result displays that 30 teachers (88.3%) expressed agreement to this question. This finding is in accordance with the study of Rashid (2014). As we know mother tongue always helps comprehend any foreign language. So, CS serves as an eminent strategy for both learning and teaching English.

Teachers switch codes for some specific reasons that are widely accepted by researchers. Students are not always familiar with new words, terms and expressions. Here, mother tongue interference becomes helpful. Responses to question 5 “Code switching helps to explain unfamiliar, difficult and new words, terms or expressions.” indicate that 23 teachers (67.6%) strongly expressed their solidarity with this view and 8 teachers (23.5%) ‘agreed’ to it.

English is not the mother tongue where the present study is conducted. Clarity of the things read is necessary to learn them. Teachers clear things with the help of CS. Responses to question 6 “Code switching serves as an effective tool to make things more clear to students.” display that 26 (76.5%) of the sample are ‘strongly agree’ or ‘agree’ to this statement. To reply question 7 “Code switching helps the teachers to make class more lively and enjoyable”, 15 (44.1%) teachers think CS can make a class livelier and enjoyable where 9 teachers (26.5%) are uncertain about it and rest (29.4%) of the teachers is not in favor of this belief.

English only class makes the class lifeless and students get bored with it. To keep away the monotony of the class, teachers bring L1 carefully. To respond to question 8 “Without code switching, the class becomes monotonous for the students”, 28 teachers (82.4%) ‘agreed’ or ‘strongly agreed’ where 5 (14.7%) are not sure about it.

Mother tongue in a foreign language environment always bears the mark of sweetness. We express our solidarity using language in a foreign context. Learning is always related to psychology of the learners. Use of L1 in EFL classrooms brings both teachers and students in a state of solidarity. The result collected from question 9 “Code switching to Bengali creates an idea of solidarity and sameness among/with students.” also confirms that, for this belief and reason, 27 (79.4%) teachers use CS in the classrooms.

Students, when they encounter any problem regarding their lesson or, sometimes, personal life, they come to teachers for consulting or counseling. This is a friendly environment where both students and teachers can converse freely without thinking about classroom language. Especially for teachers at NUB, everyday there is a fixed time (1 hour) allotted for counseling students. Question 10 “Frequent code switching of teachers helps students when they come for consulting or counseling. Do you agree?” brings out that 31 teachers (91.2%) acknowledge frequent code switching helps students when they come for consulting or counseling. It becomes more personal and stimulates empathy when teachers use CS to counsel them.

Question 11 “What kind of attitude do you hold towards teachers’ code switching to Bengali in the class?” tries to capture the attitudes of teachers towards CS. The finding shows that 3 teachers (8.8%) ‘strongly agree’ and 18 teachers (52.9%) ‘agree’ to the use of CS where 7 (20.6%) of the respondents are neutral and the remaining participants replied negatively. So, we can see that most of the teachers hold positive attitude towards CS to Bengali. This finding correlates with that of Jingxia (2010).

The result of question 12 “How does code switching to Bengali benefit the EFL class?” shows that the majority of the teachers (85.3%) believe that CS to Bengali greatly benefit the EFL class where 3 teachers (8.8%) are not sure about the benefit of CS and a small number of teachers (5.8%) consider CS to be ‘not beneficial’ or ‘harmful’.

The opinions to the question 13 “Students respond during the class” illustrate that 26 teachers (76.5%) confirm that their students switch codes during class time while 3 teachers (8.8%) say that students use only Bengali and remaining 5 teachers (14.7%) approve that students respond only in English. Students feel comfortable when they switch codes as it is found in the study of Yao (2011). Generating idea in English sometimes becomes difficult to them. Though teachers believe CS helps students a lot in EFL classrooms, they do not want their students to be encouraged to use CS in classroom. Nearly all the teachers (97.1%) ‘disagreed’ and ‘strongly disagreed’ to answer question 14 “Code switching from students can be encouraged in the class. Do you agree?”. This finding discloses a surprising aspect of classroom code switching. Though teachers sometimes switch codes, CS from students is not welcomed. If students switch codes to Bengali, teachers remind them to use English for further response. Responses to question 15 “What should be the frequency of code switching of students in the class?” confirm that 18 (52.9%) of teacher sample consider that CS from students should not be permitted in the classrooms and 10 (29.4%) allow it “very little” while 4 (11.8%) show uncertainty and 2 (5.9%) permit it but ‘not frequently’.

TABLE 5
STATISTICAL RESULTS OF STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Q1	Frequency	30	137	06	02	175
	Percentage	17.1	78.3	3.4	1.1	100
Q2	Frequency	85	75	03	07	175
	Percentage	48.6	42.9	1.7	4.0	100
Q3	Frequency	40	78	43	14	175
	Percentage	22.9	44.6	24.6	8.0	100
Q4	Frequency	45	110	14	04	175
	Percentage	25.7	62.9	8.0	2.3	100
Q5	Frequency	51	91	26	06	175
	Percentage	29.1	52.0	14.9	3.4	100
Q6	Frequency	45	117	10	03	175
	Percentage	25.7	66.9	5.7	1.7	100
Q7	Frequency	98	71	05	00	175
	Percentage	56.0	40.6	2.9	0.0	100
Q8	Frequency	114	58	03	00	175
	Percentage	65.1	33.1	1.7	0.0	100
Q9	Frequency	97	72	06	00	175
	Percentage	55.4	41.1	3.4	0.0	100
Q10	Frequency	128	35	09	02	175
	Percentage	73.1	20.0	5.1	1.1	100
Q11	Frequency	110	65	00	00	175
	Percentage	62.9	37.1	0.0	0.0	100
Q12	Frequency	100	63	07	03	175
	Percentage	57.1	36.0	4.0	1.7	100
Q13	Frequency	95	71	06	03	175
	Percentage	54.3	40.6	3.4	1.7	100
Q14	Frequency	55	99	09	06	175
	Percentage	31.4	56.6	5.1	3.4	100
Q15	Frequency	86	45	39	04	175
	Percentage	49.1	25.7	22.3	2.3	100
Response	Greatly Beneficial	Beneficial	Undecided	Not Beneficial	Harmful	Total
Q16	Frequency	99	60	11	04	175
	Percentage	56.6	34.3	6.3	2.3	100
Response	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Total
Q17	Frequency	00	00	27	38	110
	Percentage	0.0	0.0	15.4	21.7	62.9
Q18	Frequency	04	38	17	86	175
	Percentage	2.3	21.7	9.7	49.1	100

Q= Question

B. Students' Response

The first question "Teachers switch codes in the classroom." concerns about the teachers' code switching in EFL classrooms. It ensures whether CS from teachers in classroom setting happens or not. 95.4% (167 respondents out of 175) of the students admitted that their teachers switch codes to Bengali. The following questions try to find out the reasons behind this CS and the attitudes of students towards their teachers' CS, that is, how they take this, what they think of it.

Question 2 "Teachers use frequent code switching in the classes for beginner students." and question 3 "Teachers reduce the frequency of code switching when the students become more senior." try to investigate if teachers use CS for beginner students and gradually reduce it when students becomes senior. The results of both questions respectively show that 91.4% of the participants believe CS is applied frequently in the classes for beginner students, quite similarly, 67.4% positively respond that, when they become seniors, the teachers reduce the frequency of CS. All students, except two, participated in this study received their secondary and higher secondary education through Bangla medium. Students get frightened when they come across English as their medium of instructions. Teachers easily understand, as they come from the same social context, the fearful conditions of the students.

For learners of English, the grammar is always a matter that requires a greater understanding. It is very much different from that of Bengali. To make grammatical structures easy, careful application of L1 becomes essential. Without the help of L1, new terms and vocabularies do not become completely clear to the students. The responses to the question 4 "By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can better explain the grammatical terms, new and unfamiliar topics and vocabulary in the text." displays that 88.6% of the sample either 'agree' or 'strongly agree' to this opinion where 8.0% cannot decide and 3.4% 'disagree' or 'strongly disagree' to it. This finding closely resembles the study of Yao (2011).

Comprehension of the lesson taught in the class using English sometimes becomes difficult. To investigate this statement, question 5 "By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can make the lesson content taught in the

class more comprehensible.” tries to have feedbacks from students. More than three quarters of the participants (81.1%) respond positively where 14.9% of the subjects are uncertain, 3.4% ‘disagree’ and only one person (0.6) ‘strongly disagrees’. In the replies of question 6 “By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can better clarify task instruction.” and question 7 “Teachers can better discipline the students by code switching from English to Bengali.”, it comes out that both questions have almost similar percentage of positive responses 92.6% and 96.6% respectively. So, the lion portion of the participants believes their teachers can better clarify task instruction and discipline the students using CS. Therefore, classroom management is largely indebted to teachers’ careful use of CS.

English only in the class makes the class less enjoyable and monotonous. This assumption is supported by almost all the participants in the responses of question 8 “Continuous use of English in the class makes the class tedious and monotonous.”, question 9 “Code switching makes my lesson enjoyable.” and question 10 “I feel satisfied with my learning process when teachers switch codes.”. As it is shown in the result, nearly all the participants (98.3%) ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’ to question 8, 96.6% are in favor of question 9 and 93.1% respond positively to question 10. It is surprisingly true that none of the participants ‘disagrees’ to the statements of questions 8 and 9, and a very small percentage of the subjects 1.7% and 3.4% express uncertainty respectively.

Anyone, when his/her mother tongue is kept absent from the learning environment, especially learning from classroom setting, feels uncomfortable, tensed and lost. It becomes difficult for students of different levels to catch up the lesson always in English. Language becomes burden for them and they feel less interest in the lesson only because of classroom language. We know learning outcome of the students is largely related to the personality factors of students, and student psychology is a part of the personality factors. Question 11 “Code switching gives me comfort while understanding difficult topics or instruction.” gives a very surprising result, that is to say, all the participants (100%) believe CS gives them comfort while understanding difficult topics or instruction. Another finding, in the responses of question 12 “Code switching helps me feel less tensed.”, is that 163 (93.1%) participants indicate that they feel less tensed when their teachers switch codes to Bengali. Next, almost ninety-five percent (94.9%) of the subjects, in the question 13 “Code switching makes me feel less lost during the lesson.”, acknowledge that CS helps them in feeling less lost when they receive lessons in EFL classes.

Question 14 “Do you favor teachers’ code switching from English to Bengali in the classroom?” tries to bring out the standing of the students whether they favor teachers CS or not. A high percent of the respondents (88%) favor the use of teachers’ CS while few of them (6.8%) consider CS to be detained from teachers’ end.

With L1 learners get psychological support and feel more relaxed and it accelerates learning process of the students. A number of studies represent that CS in EFL classrooms is a useful learning tool. Rashid (2013) states “without the exercise of code switching, learner’s alternate conceptions would remain unexplored.” The finding of question 15 “Teachers’ code switching accelerates learning process of the students.” shows that almost three quarter (74.9%) of the students acknowledge that their learning process gets accelerated when their teachers switch code, where 22.3% are not sure of it and a small number (2.9%) of them respond negatively to the statement.

The result processed from question 16 “How does code switching to Bengali benefit the class?” indicates that the overwhelming majority of the students (90.9%) believe that CS to Bengali ‘benefits’ or ‘greatly benefits’ the EFL class where 6.3% remain neutral in this view and only 2.9% think it harmful.

It is a matter of wonder, in the reply of the statement in question 17 “Class teacher encourages students to switch their codes in the classroom.” 148 students (84.6%) admit that their class teachers discourage CS from students, where the remaining of the sample (15.4%) show uncertainty. It makes clear that teachers prohibit CS from students in all respects.

The finding of question 18 “Teachers’ code switching in the class should be reduced as much as possible.” displays that among the respondents, 66.2% indicate that teachers’ CS in the class should not be reduced greatly as they believe their learning environment becomes comfortable with the presence of CS. If the teachers stop switching codes, their learning process might significantly get hampered. The finding also shows that 17 (9.7%) of the sample are uncertain about it; and nearly one-fourth of the subjects (24%) ‘agree’ or ‘strongly agree’ to the statement, that is, they think CS from teachers should be reduced as much as possible.

VIII. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The very first limitation of the present study is the sources of primary data. To conduct this study, only two universities were chosen for data collection with 34 teachers and 175 students. The sample size is very much small compared to a vast number of available EFL teachers and learners. There are more than hundred public and private universities in Bangladesh where English is the medium of instruction. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize and illustrate the real scenario of CS using this little amount of data source. To have a vivid image of CS, maximum number of subjects from maximum number of universities need to be involved in the research.

Second, to determine the effect of CS on ultimate language proficiency attainment, a long period of time should be allotted for the study, what the present study surely lacks. CS is widely discussed issue that requires a lot of time to investigate its contribution to learners’ linguistic competence.

Third, the study would be able to bring better motives behind the use of CS if interviews of the subjects and observations of the classes could have been done. Fourth, variables of the participants e.g. department, gender, age,

academic qualification, academic rank, teaching experience were not taken into consideration while analyzing data. Consideration of these variables may add new findings to the existing literatures on CS.

Fifth, one of the hypotheses is not tested successfully. To measure the proper learning outcome of the students, two groups, one with mixed L1 and L2 instruction and another with no L1 instruction, should be taken into consideration to test which group achieves greater scores.

IX. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

The present study investigates the general situation of CS in Bangladeshi universities from different points and angles of CS practice from both teachers and students. Surely, this study represents the tip of an iceberg. It is only a preliminary survey in the research field of CS in EFL classrooms at tertiary level in Bangladesh. Therefore, an in-depth study is waiting to be carried out for interested researchers.

Depending on the findings, it can now easily be concluded that the hypotheses of the study are proved to be true. Teachers use CS for various reasons and they do believe CS largely helps an EFL class to be successful. Both teachers and students hold positive attitude towards it as they agree that it facilitates learning and provides a better understanding of the lesson content. However, though teachers switch codes solely for effective teaching and learning purpose, they do not allow students to switch codes frequently. CS has been found to serve, as Jingxia (2010) says, various functions like translating vocabulary items, explaining grammar, managing class, and building close relations with students. Teachers, sometimes, switch codes because of the mixed L2 abilities of the learners. To say more, students feel comfortable with their learning process when their teachers switch codes.

English plays, both theoretically and practically, a dominant role in teaching and learning sectors of Bangladesh. To teach English as a foreign language in classroom setting, mother tongue interference becomes admittedly obligatory. While teaching English as a compulsory subject, extra care should be given at primary, secondary, and higher secondary levels of Bangladesh. If students can be made competent well in using English from those levels, CS in tertiary level will be an occasional phenomenon. This study is a small contribution to the research arena of CS. Therefore, a vast amount of studies needs to be carried out to gain new insights regarding CS in the context of Bangladeshi EFL classrooms.

APPENDIX A. TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Sir/Madam,

This survey is being conducted as part of a research work to find out the reasons and perception of both teachers and students towards their Code Switching (i.e. using English and Bangla in the same discourse/dialogue) in classroom setting. Your valuable opinion will greatly help me to design my research work effectively and to bring a new insight in the fields or research. Honesty is highly expected while answering the questions below. Please, use your own experience and opinion. Secrecy of your data provided will be strictly maintained.

Regards,

Md. Obaidullah

Lecturer, Dept. of English, NUB

Personal and Academic Information

[Please put tick-mark (✓) on appropriate place]

- Department: English BA Law CSE ECE
 Age: Less than 35 years 35 years and above
 Gender: Male Female
 Academic Qualification: Bachelor's Master's Ph.D.
 Teaching Experience: Less than 5 years 5-10 years above 10 years
 Academic Rank: Lecturer Sr. Lecturer Assistant Professor
 Associate Professor Professor
 Level of Teaching: Undergraduate Graduate Both
 Type of Institution: Private (NUB) Public (KU)
 Medium of Instruction: English Bengali

Questions Regarding Code Switching

[Please put tick-mark (✓) on appropriate place]

- I switch code from English to Bengali in the English as Foreign Language (EFL) classes.
 Always Sometimes Undecided Seldom Never
- Code switching is helpful in maintaining discipline in a large class. Do you agree?
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
- I remain conscious while switching to Bengali in the class.
 Always Sometimes Undecided Seldom Never

4. I think code switching to Bengali is an effective strategy for learning and teaching English.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
5. Code switching helps to explain unfamiliar, difficult and new words, terms or expressions.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
6. Code switching serves as an effective tool to make things more clear to students.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
7. Code switching helps the teachers to make class more lively and enjoyable.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
8. Without code switching the class becomes monotonous for the students.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
9. Code switching to Bengali creates an idea of solidarity and sameness among/with students.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
10. Frequent code switching of teachers helps students when they come for consulting or counseling. Do you agree?
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
11. What kind of attitude do you hold towards teachers' code switching to Bengali in the class?
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
12. How does code switching to Bengali benefit the EFL class?
 Greatly Beneficial Beneficial Undecided Not Beneficial Harmful
13. Students respond during the class-
 In English In Bengali They switch codes
14. Code switching from students can be encouraged in the class. Do you agree?
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
15. What should be the frequency of code switching of students in the class?
 Frequently Not Frequently Undecided Very Little Not at All

APPENDIX B. STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Student/Participant,

This survey is being conducted as part of a research work to find out the reasons and perception of both teachers and students towards their Code Switching (i.e. using English and Bangla in the same discourse/dialogue) in classroom setting. Your valuable opinion will greatly help me to design my research work effectively and to bring a new insight in the fields or research. Honesty is highly expected while answering the questions below. Please, use your own classroom experience and give opinion. Secrecy of your data provided will be strictly maintained.

Regards,

Md. Obaidullah

Lecturer, Dept. of English, NUB

Personal and Academic Information

[Please put tick-mark (√) on appropriate place]

- Department: English BA Law
- Age: Less than 20 years 20 years and above
- Gender: Male Female
- Academic Qualification:
- Secondary School Certificate (SSC): Bangla Medium English Medium
- Higher Secondary Certificate (HSC): Bangla Medium English Medium
- Graduation: B.A. (Hons.) in English B.A. (Hons.) other than in English
 1st Year 2nd Year
 3rd Year 4th Year
- Post-Graduation: M.A. in English M.A. other than in English
- Type of Institution: Private (NUB) Public (KU)
- Medium of Instruction: English Bengali

Questions Regarding Code Switching

[Please put tick-mark (√) on appropriate place]

1. Teachers switch codes in the classroom.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
2. Teachers use frequent code switching in the classes for beginner students.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
3. Teachers reduce the frequency of code switching when the students become more senior.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree

4. By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can better explain the grammatical terms, new and unfamiliar topics and vocabulary in the text.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
5. By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can make the lesson content taught in the class more comprehensible.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
6. By code switching from English to Bengali, teachers can better clarify task instruction.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
7. Teachers can better discipline the students by code switching from English to Bengali.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
8. Continuous use of English in the class makes the class tedious and monotonous.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
9. Code switching makes my lesson enjoyable.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
10. I feel satisfied with my learning process when teachers switch codes.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
11. Code switching gives me comfort while understanding difficult topics or instruction.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
12. Code switching helps me feel less tensed.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
13. Code switching makes me feel less lost during the lesson.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
14. Do you favor teachers' code switching from English to Bengali in the classroom?
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
15. Teachers' code switching accelerates learning process of the students.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
16. How does code switching to Bengali benefit the class?
 Greatly Beneficial Beneficial Undecided Not Beneficial Harmful
17. Class teacher encourages students to switch their codes in the classroom.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree
18. Teachers' code switching in the class should be reduced as much as possible.
 Strongly Agree Agree Undecided Disagree Strongly Disagree

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The Impact of Task Complexity along Single Task Dimension on Iranian EFL Learners' Writing Production

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Abstract—This study was designed to explore the manipulation of cognitive task complexity along +/- single task dimension (a resource dispersing dimension in Robinson's triadic framework) on the Iranian EFL learners' writing production in terms of accuracy, fluency, lexical complexity, and syntactic complexity, and put two different views (Skehan's [1998] limited attentional capacity model and Robinson's [2005] cognition hypothesis) into test in the Iranian context. Based on the results of the writing test of TOFEL (2004), 48 learners were selected and assigned into two groups, simple task group (STG, n=24) and complex task group (CTG, n=24). The participants in the STG were given an eight-frame picture arranged in the correct sequence (+ single task). The participants in the CTG were given all the eight frames in scrambled order. These participants were required to order the frames in the right sequence first (- single task). Four independent sample t-tests were run. The results indicated that the participants' output in the complex task were significantly more fluent, more lexically and structurally complex. However, their performance on the accuracy measure decreased in the complex task. Based on the findings, at least in the Iranian context, Skehan's (1998) predictions are more convincing.

Index Terms—triadic componential framework, cognitive task complexity, +/- single task dimension, accuracy, fluency, lexical complexity structural complexity

I. INTRODUCTION

Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) has directed many researchers, language teachers, material developers, and syllabus designers' attention to itself. The main strong claim of this approach is that this approach can activate the cognitive and acquisitional processes while learners are busy performing tasks and accomplishing its goal (Skehan, 2003). However, the compelling point is that the developmental and acquisitional processes are involved in the development of both form and meaning simultaneously, while TBLT primarily concerns meaning conveyance; therefore, how can the attention be directed to form as well?

Tasks are nowadays "the potential building blocks of second language instruction" (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 223), and knowing their exact nature is of paramount importance. Various definitions have been proposed by different experts (such as Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Breen, 1989; Bygate, Skehan, & Swain, 2001; Lee, 2000; Long, 1985; Nunan, 1989; Skehan, 1996, 1998; Swales, 1990). Skehan (1996) defines a task as "an activity in which meaning [rather than form] is primary, [and] there is some sort of relationship to real-world activities, task completion has some priority, and assessment of task performance is in terms of task outcome" (Skehan, 1996, p. 38) "not in terms of language display" (Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 94). Tasks also can enhance the cognitive processes required for the development and acquisition of L2 (Robinson, 2003).

The most challenging question is that what the best criterion for sequencing tasks is. Cognitive approaches, whose focus is on the information processes occurring inside the mind while learner tries to learn L2 (Skehan, 1998), introduce cognitive task complexity as the criterion, due to the fact that learners generate an internal syllabus which is developed heedless of the instruction they receive and the best instruction and syllabus are the one which is compatible with this internal cognitive syllabus (Corder, 1981). Cognitive task complexity is defined as the inherent cognitive demands of the tasks imposed on the learners by the structure of the tasks (Robinson, 2001a). Generally, based on this definition, there are two types of tasks, namely, the simple task which imposes low cognitive processing demands and the complex task which requires more cognitive processing to be accomplished (Ellis, 2003). Therefore, the present study was designed to shed more light on this issue by focusing on one of the dimensions, in the Robinson's (2005) triadic framework, which has not been fully investigated, i.e., +/-single task, and its role on the written performance of the learners in terms of fluency, accuracy, and complexity.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Tasks, as the main units of TBLT, are strongly claimed to be graded in syllabi based on their various characteristics (Robinson, 2001a, 2005, 2007a; Skehan, 1998, 2003). Gilabert (2004) and Robinson (2005) declare that the best criterion for such sequencing in a principled way is cognitive task complexity which is “the result of intentional, memory, reasoning, and other information processing demands imposed by the structure of the task on language learner (Robinson, 2001a, p. 29). Therefore, it pertains to the degree of cognitive demands that the task imposes on the learners while doing the task (Ellis, 2003). Robinson (2005) states “pedagogical tasks [should] be sequenced for learners on the basis of increases in their cognitive complexity” (p. 1) and strongly recommends cognitive complexity as the “theoretically motivated, empirically substantiable, and pedagogically feasible sequencing criteria” (Robinson, 2001a, p. 27) for the purpose of assisting learners in developing a balanced interlanguage regarding accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Many experts (Ellis, 2003, 2008; Robinson, 2005, 2007a, 2007b; Schmidt, 2001; Skehan, 1996, 1998, 2003; VanPatten, 1996, 2007; Wickens, 2007) in cognitive issues referred to *memory* and *attention* as the most important factors in cognitive processes.

A. Attention in Cognitive Processes

Attention is “a cognitive process involving the ability to select and focus on particular stimuli from the environment while ignoring others” (VanPatten & Benati, 2010, p. 65). Two models of attention are propounded:

1. *Single-resource model of attention*: The assumption of this model is that the whole processing capacity is “a single ‘pool’ of resource” (Wickens, 2007, p. 185); therefore, it can be stated that human beings can deal with just one task at a time, and attending to more than one task would be very awkward and sometimes impossible for them. As a result, when they face a challenging task, more attentional capacity of this single resource would be occupied and consumed for the accomplishment of that, and greater pressure would be imposed on attentional capacity. Regarding language learning, while producing language, learners cannot focus on all three aspects of language production, namely, accuracy, fluency, and complexity (Skehan & Foster, 1999). As VanPatten (1996, 2007) declares, while doing some tasks, learners’ first attention is on the meaning and content words in input processing, or as Skehan (1998) articulates, on the retrieval of words from the exemplar-based system in language production. So, the dominant focus would be on fluency, while learners are doing a task, at the expense of other aspects of production. This is due to the learners’ controlled processing, unlike the native speaker whose processing is mostly automatic, which can overwhelm their attentional resources (Skehan & Foster, 2001). This model of attention is mostly advocated by VanPatten (1990, 2002, & 2007) and Skehan (1996, 1998).

2. *Multiple-resource model of attention*: The other, different, view of attention, being supported by Robinson (1995a, 2001a, 2001b, 2005, 2007a, & 2007b) and Wickens (1980, 2002, 2007), is that attentional capacity is not a container with one single resource, but it is comprised of multiple resources, and depending on resource demands, resource similarity, and allocation policy between the two tasks (Wickens, 2007), human beings utilize one or more than one resources without any interference occurs.

B. Models of Task Complexity

Two different models have been propounded regarding the effect of task complexity on the learners’ performance:

1. *Skehan’s Limited Attentional Capacity Model*: In this model, Skehan, advocating the single-resource model of attention and proposing dual-mode of processing in which the learners activate both rule-based and exemplar-based systems to different degrees based on the requirements of the tasks, it is claimed “learners cannot attend to everything equally” (Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 96) and concurrently. As a result, based on the demands of the present context, they prioritize one aspect (for example, the exemplar-based system) over another dimension (such as the rule-based system).

According to their model, tasks are meaning based activities; therefore, the dominant attention would be devoted to the fluency and rapid retrieval of ready-made chunks from exemplar-based system. When learners feel they cannot solve the problem just through the exemplar-based system, they utilize their rule-based system; hence, due to various reasons such as task conditions, personal characteristics, or learning and cognitive styles, the remaining attention would be devoted to increase the accuracy or complexity of their production. To put it in other terms, when the cognitive complexity of the task is increased, it is more probable that the learners call even more attention to the meaning conveyance and enhancing their fluency for the purpose of accomplishing the task goal successfully. Since the attentional capacity is limited and is a single pool with the dominant space occupied by the fluency, the leftover attention can be devoted to either accuracy or complexity, so, just one of them can be improved at the expense of the other, meaning that, there is an intra-form tradeoff between retrieving their existing structural features (i.e., accuracy) or constructing new forms based on their existing linguistic features and hypotheses (complexity). On the whole, this model predicts that boosting the complexity of the task would bring about greater fluency along with either greater accuracy or complexity (+fluency, -accuracy, +complexity or +fluency, +accuracy, -complexity).

2. *Robinson’s Cognition Hypothesis*: Robinson (2001a, 2005, 2007a, & 2007b), like Wickens (1980, 2002, 2007), advocates the multiple resources model of attention. In his model, he argues that attention can be allocated to various tasks if they do not belong to the same domain. According to this model, there are various resource pools, rather than just one resource pool, and there is no general limitation on utilizing the pools simultaneously; hence, what occurs is switching attention from one resource pool to another, not prioritizing attention; to put it in Robinson’s (2001b) terms, it

is “an executive/action control problem” (p. 307), not a “capacity problem” (p. 307). He declares models of attention no longer focus on its limited capacity. In his model, what Robinson (2001a, 2005) pin points is that the augmentation of the task complexity would increase the processing load and this processing would lead to less fluent language; however, this can be compensated by “using specific features of the language code” (Robinson, 2001a, p. 31). To put it simply, the increase in the cognitive complexity of the task would result in the learners’ spending substantial attention on the syntactic aspects of their performance, i.e., accuracy and complexity, on the other hand, in the learners’ drawing less attention to the meaning and fluency of their language. To sum up, according to cognition hypothesis, if the complexity of the task boosts, based on the procedure of complexification, two different results would come up: either -fluency, +accuracy, +complexity, or -fluency, -accuracy, -complexity.

C. Robinson’s Triadic Componential Framework

Based on the cognition hypothesis, Robinson (2001b) introduces a framework consisting of three dimensions, namely, task complexity, task difficulty, and task condition. Table 1 indicates this triadic framework.

TABLE 1.
ROBINSON’S (2005, P. 5) TRIADIC COMPONENTIAL FRAMEWORK

<i>Task complexity</i> (Cognitive factors)	<i>Task conditions</i> (Interactional factors)	<i>Task difficulty</i> (Learner factors)
(a) resource-directing variables e.g., ±few elements	(a) participation variables e.g., open/closed	(a) affective variables e.g., motivation
±Here-and-Now ±no reasoning demands	one-way/two-way convergent/divergent	anxiety confidence
(b) resource-dispersing e.g., ±planning ±single task ±prior knowledge	(b) participant variables e.g., same/different gender familiar/unfamiliar power/solidarity	(b) Ability variables e.g., working memory intelligence aptitude

Note. “Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: Studies in a componential framework for second language task design,” by P. Robinson, P., 2005, IRAL, 43.

As Table 1 presents, one of the dimension is task conditions under which the tasks are accomplished. This concerns the interactive demands of accomplishing tasks. It is comprised of two subparts: participation variables regarding the information-flow (e.g. one-way vs. two-way) and participant variables with respect to familiarity or gender.

The other dimension is task difficulty which is “learners’ perceptions of the demands of the task, and is dependent on differences between learners in the cognitive factors (e.g., aptitude, working memory) and affective variables (e.g., anxiety, confidence) that distinguish one learner from another” (Robinson, 2003, p. 56). This aspect pertains to the learner factors and the way learners perceive the difficulty of the task (Robinson, 2001a, p. 31); therefore, it is an inter-learner variable.

The other major dimension in this framework is task complexity which is defined as “the intrinsic cognitive demands of the task which can be manipulated during task design” (Robinson, 2003, p. 55). These processing demands are imposed by the structure of the tasks on the learners (Robinson, 2001a); therefore, through empirical investigation, it is possible to determine the specific structure of the tasks and predict their potential effect on the learners’ performance beforehand. This dimension is an intra-learner variable. Robinson (2001a, 2001b, 2005) predicts increasing the complexity along the Resource-directing variables would bring about less fluency and great complexity and accuracy, i.e., -fluency, +accuracy, +complexity since these dimensions would direct learners’ attentional and memory resources to L2 system in order to understand and convey the functional complexity, as a result, their attention to L2 grammaticisation (i.e., accuracy and complexity) in those conceptual domains would increase (Robinson, 2007b) to the detriment of fluency. On the other hand, tasks manipulated along the resource-dispersing dimensions do not “direct learners to any particular aspects of language code” (Robinson, 2005, p. 22) and would give rise to less fluency, accuracy, and complexity, i.e., -fluency, -accuracy, -complexity.

D. Studies into Cognitive Task Complexity

Various studies have been conducted to examine the different dimensions of task complexity. Investigating the role of +/- planning dimension (i.e., the amount of planning time allowed), Ellis (1987) observed that the less the planning time, the less accurately past tense, the regular past, the irregular past, and the copula were utilized. Inspecting the role of planning (pre-task and on-line planning) on L2 oral performance, Yuan and Ellis (2003) formed three groups: 1) group with no pre-task planning time, 2) group with 10 minutes planning time, and 3) group with no pre-task planning time but ‘on-line’ planning time. The on-line planning time group generated greater structural complexity and more error-free clauses. Structural complexity and lexical complexity of the group with pre-task planning augmented. No significant effect was found for accuracy measures. It seemed that the available time before the task directed the participants’ attention towards the fluency and meaning conveyance, while the time available during the task provided opportunities for them to call their attention towards accuracy and monitoring their output.

Gilabert (2007) explored the effect of +/- planning time and +/- Here-and-Now dimensions on oral narratives via using four strips. Based on the findings, In terms of +/- Here-and-Now dimensions, higher accuracy, less lexical complexity, less fluency was observed for - Here-and-Now dimensions. Planning opportunity was found to improve the fluency, lexical complexity, and accuracy of the production. However, no significant effect was reported for the measures of structural complexity.

As is clear, some of the elements in Robinson's (2005, 2007) framework have been investigated to a great extent, such as +/- planning dimension (such as Ellis & Yuan, 2004; Foster & Skehan, 1996, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1997; Wigglesworth, 2001; Yuan & Ellis, 2003) and +/- Here-and-Now dimension (Berwick, 1993; Ishikawa, 2007; Skehan & Foster, 1999). However, one of the dimensions under the resource-depleting feature, namely +/- single task (i.e., the number of tasks that have to be performed simultaneously), has been somehow unnoticed. Therefore, this study was designed to scrutinize this dimension and find out its effect on the dimensions of written language production (fluency, accuracy, structural complexity and lexical complexity).

III. NULL HYPOTHESES

The present study was designed to investigate the following null hypotheses:

H01. Manipulation of task complexity along single task dimension does not affect the written production of Iranian EFL learners regarding accuracy.

H02. Manipulation of task complexity along single task dimension does not affect the written production of Iranian EFL learners regarding fluency.

H03. Manipulation of task complexity along single task dimension does not affect the written production of Iranian EFL learners regarding lexical complexity.

H04. Manipulation of task complexity along single task dimension does not affect the written production of Iranian EFL learners regarding structural complexity.

IV. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants of this study will be Iranian EFL learners studying at Ayandegra Institute, in Zanjan. They were selected among both males and females, approximately aged from 16 to 25. The participants were chosen among the learners who had been placed at the upper-intermediate level based on the institute's placement test. While the data were gathered, they studied Summit 1A book and attended their English classes three times a week.

Seventy two Iranian learners took Writing Proficiency section of TOFEL (Educational Teaching Service, 2004). Among them, the scores of 48 students were located one standard deviation below and above the mean (+/-1 SD), and consequently, were considered to be roughly at the same writing proficiency level and participated in this study. These selected participants were assigned to two groups, namely, simple task group (STG) (n=24) and complex task group (CTG) (n=24).

B. Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study. The Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL, EST, 2004), as a renowned standardized language proficiency test, was the first instrument utilized at the beginning of the study to check the homogeneity of their writing proficiency level. However, just the writing section was used, since in this study the researcher's focus was on the writing ability of the students. Just the writing section was used since, as Cooper (1984) argued, if the purpose is to explore the learners' writing abilities, it is required to focus on this skill exclusively, and general proficiency tests is not good indicators of this skill since they more concern recognition and comprehension than production and generation, and comprehension process can be partly detached from the underlying syntactic system and from production" (Skehan, 1998, p. 15).

In this pretest, the participants were asked to write about the following topic in 35 minutes.

Do you agree or disagree with the following statement? Use reasons and examples to support your opinion.

"Universities should give the same amount of money to their students' sports activities as they give to their university libraries"

Next instrument was a narrative task. It is an eight-frame picture (Appendix A), and taken from Yule (1997). It was used in both the simple and complex narrative tasks but in different manners. Narrating stories are tasks "supported by visual material, but which require some degree of organization of material to tell a story effectively" (Skehan & Foster, 1999, p. 98). The learners were asked to narrate the picture using at least 150 words. The picture set was available for them at the time of performing the task, hence, both tasks used in the present study were deemed as contextual embedded (Cummins, 1983, cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 92) and immediate (Skehan, 1998), *Here-and-Now* orientation (Robinson, 2005).

The story was as follows: a woman goes to a supermarket. In the supermarket, she runs into her friend who was shopping with her little son. She starts talking with her. They get so engrossed in talking that they overlook the child. The child is very naughty. He stretches out his hand, takes a bottle, and puts it in the other woman's bag. Two women

say good-bye and separate. The poor lady who does not know what is going on does not pay for the bottle. Therefore, one of the workers sees the bottle in her bag and accuses her of stealing; as a result, she was taken into custody.

The scoring profile (Appendix A) devised by Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfeil, and Hughey's (1981, cited in Weigle, 2002) was the third instrument. It was used to score the participants' written output in the pretest. It is comprised of five components including content, vocabulary, language, organization, and mechanics. According to the profile, the score ranges from 34 to 100.

C. Procedure

Initially, the homogeneity of the participants' writing proficiency was checked. To this end, the writing section of the TOEFL (2004) was administered to the EFL Iranian learners (n=72) as a pre-writing test. Their written performance was rated based on Jacobs et al.'s (1981) scoring profile (Appendix B), which consists of five sub-parts, i.e., content, vocabulary, language, organization, and mechanics (cited in Weigle, 2002) by two skillful teachers. Based on the results, those participants whose scores were between one SD above and below the mean (i.e., between 66.15 and 75.71) (n=48) were deemed to be roughly at the same level of writing proficiency and took part in this study as the main participants.

Then, they were randomly assigned into two groups: simple-task Group (STG) (n=24) and complex-task Group (CTG) (n=24). The participants in the STG were given the whole picture (Appendix A). The frames of this picture had been arranged in the correct sequence before its administration to the participants of this group (+ single task). The participants in the CTG were given all the frames of the picture; however, the frames were not arranged in their correct order; therefore, these participants were first asked to order the frames in the right sequence, and then to start writing about it (- single task= double task).

The participants in both groups were asked to write a story of at least 150 words based on the picture. In both groups, the participants could see the pictures while writing about it (+ Here-and-Now dimension). The picture was administered by their normal teacher, and he or she did not give any special guidance with respect to formal features, organizational points, or the content.

V. RESULTS

The main independent variable of this study was task complexity with two levels (simple task vs. complex task), and the dependent variables were four dimensions of language production, namely, fluency, accuracy, structural complexity and lexical complexity.

The measures used in this study to encode the production dimensions are taken from Larsen-Freeman (2006, p. 597) and are as follows: "the proportion of error-free t-units to t-units" for accuracy, "average number of words per t-unit" for fluency, "average number of clauses per t-unit" for structural complexity, and "word types per square root of two times the words" for lexical complexity.

For the purpose of nullifying or verifying the null hypotheses, four one-independent sample t-tests were conducted. However, before that, eight one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests and Shapiro-Wilk tests were run to check the normality of the data statistically. The results are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 2.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TESTS AND SHAPIRO-WILK TESTS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON THE PRODUCTION DIMENSIONS

Production dimensions		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Accuracy	STG	.157	24	.128	.913	24	.071
	CTG	.152	24	.155	.804	24	.066
Fluency	STG	.159	24	.121	.936	24	.134
	CTG	.197	24	.086	.922	24	.064
Lexical Complexity	STG	.173	24	.062	.963	24	.503
	CTG	.119	24	.200	.955	24	.349
Structural Complexity	STG	.109	24	.200	.964	24	.527
	CTG	.109	24	.172	.882	24	.089

As seen in Table 2, statistically speaking, the data was normally distributed since all the levels of significance were more than .05 (bold numbers in table 2). Table 3 reports the descriptive statistics of participants' performance in the simple and complex tasks regarding the production dimensions.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE IN TERMS OF FOUR PRODUCTION DIMENSIONS

Production dimensions		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	Variance
Accuracy	STG	24	.70	.91	.8062	.07158	.005
	CTG	24	.25	.80	.5962	.17984	.032
Fluency	STG	24	6.65	11.35	8.8622	1.48069	2.192
	CTG	24	7.82	20.33	14.0945	4.06084	16.490
Lexical Complexity	STG	24	3.32	5.42	4.2596	.54650	.299
	CTG	24	4.08	6.04	5.0456	.56777	.322
Structural Complexity	STG	24	1.38	2.06	1.6872	.19077	.036
	CTG	24	1.76	4.33	2.7924	.86896	.755

As seen in Table3, regarding accuracy, the means of the data obtained from the simple and complex task groups were .806 and .596 respectively. Regarding fluency, the means of the data obtained from the simple and complex task groups were 8.86 and 14.09 respectively. Concerning lexical complexity, the means of the data obtained from the simple and complex task groups were 4.25 and 5.04 respectively. With respect to structural complexity, the means of the data obtained from the simple and complex task groups were 1.68 and 2.79 respectively.

In order to find out whether these differences between the means of the data in each set were statistically significant or not, four independent samples t-test were run. Table 4 presents the results.

TABLE 4.
THE INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TESTS FOR TASK COMPLEXITY ALONG PRODUCTION DIMENSIONS

Production Dimensions		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Accuracy	Equal variances assumed	19.3	.000	5.31	46	.000	.209	.039	.130	.289
	Equal variances not assumed			5.31	30	.000	.209	.039	.129	.290
Fluency	Equal variances assumed	36.615	.00	-5.92	45	.000	-5.31904	.89733	-7.126	-3.51
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.82	27.35	.000	-5.31904	.91253	-7.190	-3.44
Lexical Complexity	Equal variances assumed	.543	.46	-3.2	46	.002	-.55017	.17128	-.8949	-.205
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.2	45.6	.002	-.55017	.17128	-.8950	-.205
Structural Complexity	Equal variances assumed	29.640	.00	-6.0	46	.000	-1.10522	.18160	-1.47	-.739
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.0	25.2	.000	-1.10522	.18160	-1.47	-.731

Table 4 indicates that regarding the accuracy measure, the variance of the groups is not equal; therefore, the second line must be reported, i.e., $t(30) = 5.31$, $p < 0.05$. Since the level of significance is less than .05, it can be stated that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, the first null hypothesis was nullified.

Regarding fluency, the variance of the groups is not equal; therefore, the second line must be reported, i.e., $t(27.35) = -5.82$, $p < 0.05$. Since the level of significance is less than .05, it can be stated that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG in terms of fluency was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, the second null hypothesis was nullified.

In terms of lexical complexity, the variance of the groups is equal; therefore, the first line must be reported, i.e., $t(46) = -3.212$, $p < 0.05$. Since the level of significance is less than .05, it can be stated that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG in terms of lexical complexity was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, the third null hypothesis was nullified.

Regarding structural complexity, the variance of the groups is equal; therefore, the first line must be reported, i.e., $t(25.2) = -6.0$, $p < 0.05$. Since the level of significance is less than .05, it can be stated that the difference between the means of the STG and CTG in terms of structural complexity was statistically significant. Hence, based on the results, the fourth null hypothesis was nullified.

VI. DISCUSSION

Regarding accuracy, the results revealed that the Iranian EFL learners significantly generated less error-free clauses in the complex task. Therefore, it can be declared that +single task can enhance the accuracy of the written production. In this study, in the simple task, there was no substantial cognitive load on the participants, since the frames of the picture had been ordered beforehand (+single task) and the plot of the story had a clear beginning, middle, and end. On the contrary, in the complex task, they spent some time on figuring out the content of the story which increased the cognitive load of the task. The content was not lucid and they had to make sure of its accurate order. This engagement

in this double task needed even more attentional capacity to be devoted to the content, meaning, and fluency, which lessened their attention to the accuracy of their language and left little capacity for generating more error free units.

The findings can also be explicable through the Levelt's (1989) production stages (i.e., conceptualization, formulation, articulation, and monitoring). In the simple task, the learners had a clear story line before them, and as soon as they received the picture, they could pass the conceptualization stage very easily and go through the formulation stage.

These findings are also in line with the findings of some studies. Reporting less accurate production for the more complex task (the abstract task), Brown et al. (1984) argued that the less the cognitive load was, the more accurate the learners' production was. Crookes (1989) also claimed that more structural errors could be found in the learners' production when more complex tasks were employed. Ellis (1987) declared the preplanning time mostly spent on the conceptualization, and it provided more time for the learners to deal with the accuracy of their production during the task execution, which led to greater generation of grammatical forms.

Task complexity exerted a significant positive influence on fluency. Those in the simple task group produced greater dysfluencies in comparison with those in the complex task. In other words, - single task seems to facilitate the fluency of their output. This result can be explained in terms of Skehan's (1998) limited attentional capacity model. Since meaning is of paramount importance and is a primary goal of a task (Bygate et al., 2001; Lee, 2000; Nunan, 1989; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996, 1998; Swales, 1990), while performing a task, the learners drew their dominant attention to complete the task successfully. In order to do it as best as they could, they activated their exemplar-based system, which provided opportunities for rapid retrieval of the ready-made chunks (Skehan, 1998). When they could not accomplish the task just by tapping into the exemplar-based system, they utilized their rule-based system (another reason why accuracy lagged behind the fluency). With the increase of the complexity of the task, even more attentional capacity was devoted to the meaning conveyance and content, which, according to Skehan's (1998) predictions, brought about greater fluency.

It can also be stated that in the complex task, while the learners were engaged in ordering the picture frames, more items were activated in their exemplar-based system since they had to make sense of the order. Finding reasons why one frame had to be put after another, they might get a broader view of the story, which helped them generate greater number of words.

Concerning lexical complexity, the participants could produce greater types of words in the complex task, and -single task could have a significant positive effect on lexical complexity. This finding indicates that when the participants were engaged putting the pictures in their correct order in the complex task, they carried out deeper semantic processing in order to find the reasonable order, which might lead to the better activation of their exemplar-based system and made them browse it more deeply. This brought about the retrieval of a greater variety of words from this system at the time of task accomplishment. Ultimately, all of these enhanced the lexical complexity of the output.

This finding is in line with the results reported in Berwick's (1993), Robinson's (1995b), and Yuan and Ellis' (2003) studies. They found the participants in the most complex task generated greater number of words. Robinson (1995b) attributed this finding to the more cognitive load of the task, which gave rise to the retrieval of more items from the memory.

The last research question concerned the effect of manipulating cognitive task complexity on the measure of syntactic complexity. The results indicated that the participants significantly produced a greater number of clauses in t-units while performing the complex task. Therefore, -single task had an obvious impact on the enhancement of the structural complexity.

One possible explanation for this finding is the greater processing load imposed by the complex task on the learners who were struggling to find out the relation among the frames of the picture. Long (1985) claims the utilization of more cognitively demanding tasks would help learners to go beyond their existing interlanguage and extend it as much as they can. As Ishikawa (2007) declares, the imposition of such semantic processing would lead to the complexification of the output in order to overcome and represent this cognitive load in the best possible way. The participants in this study seem to draw their attention towards such complexification and produce more syntactically complex output.

The results of some studies were in consonant with the findings of the present study, such as Gilabert (2007), Iwashita et al. (2001), and Robinson (1995b), Berwick (1993). Almost all of these studies ascribed the greater syntactic complexity to the greater memory demands of the complex task which propelled the learners to think more deeply and to generate larger units of information so as to mitigate the processes of encoding, storing, and retrieving the information from memory.

VII. CONCLUSION

The present study indicated that the provision of task complexity along +/-single task dimension significantly affected Iranian EFL Learners' written performance qualitatively and quantitatively. Regarding the quantitative aspect, this dimension led to greater fluency gains, and in terms of qualitative aspects, both lexical and syntactic complexity increased due to the manipulation of task complexity. However, the measure of accuracy decreased through the use of a more complex task. The obtained results seem to be more compatible with the limited attentional capacity model (Skehan, 1998, 2003) which declares that the attentional capacity is limited and while doing a task, especially a

cognitively demanding task; learners draw their attention towards to meaning than to formal aspects. Since in this model, the attentional capacity is believed to be a single resource, learners, based on the specific characteristic of the task, can only prioritize accuracy or complexity not both of them, in other words, there is a trade-off between accuracy and complexity, with no detrimental impact on fluency. In the present study, generation of greater complex language in the complex task accompanied with the production of greater fluent language, not greater accurate language.

The findings of this study can shed light on the selection and gradation of the tasks in TBLT syllabi. It shows that via the manipulation of different degrees of the task complexity, teachers can selectively direct learners' attention towards the production dimension in which the learners have problems. This is of great importance because tasks are prone to lead learners' attention to the meaning and fluency; therefore, if there is no way to channel their attention, they would develop unbalanced interlanguage in which accuracy or complexity may lag behind. Enhancing accuracy at the proper time is also very important. The recovery stage (the third stage of learning L2) (Brown, 2000) is a stage in which learners must overcome the culture shock and culture stress, and master the accurate version of L2. If they pass this stage without internalizing the target-like form of L2, such forms will stabilize in their mind and their destabilization will be difficult, if not impossible. Therefore, according to the results of this study, via using more simple tasks, it is possible to draw learners' attention to generating more accurate language.

Although many task-based studies have been undertaken so far, there are still numerous baffling challenges waiting to be solved via future research. Regarding task complexity, a longitudinal research can be conducted in order to explore the ability of the learners in transferring their enhanced ability due to the task manipulation to other contexts and tasks. In order to gain rich description, post-task interviews, questionnaires, retrospective and introspective measures can also be utilized. Future research can evolve around other types of tasks being manipulated along different task features. Even individual differences regarding the learners' learning style, learning strategies can also be taken into account in future research.

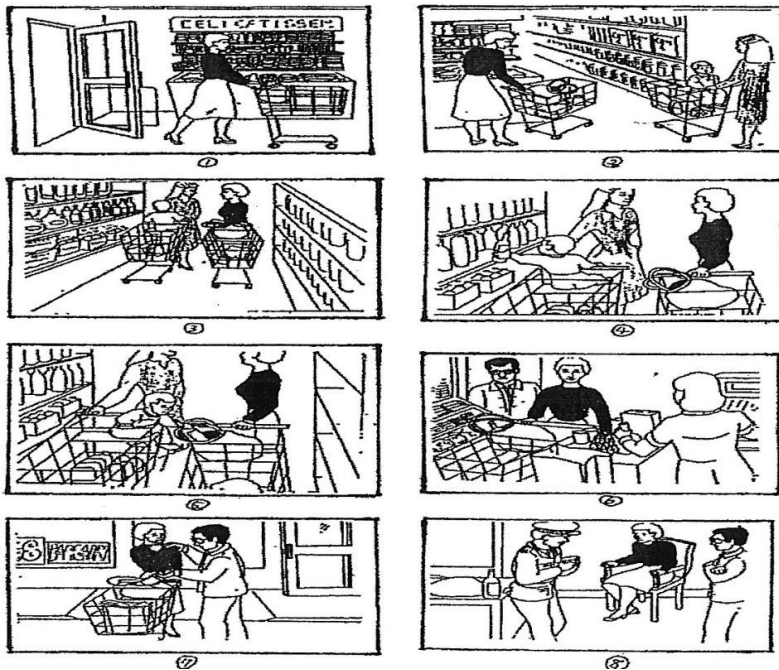
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APPENDIX A

Prompt for the simple writing task, taken from Yule (1997)

Begin the story like this: Today, a woman goes to the supermarket...



APPENDIX B

Jacobs, Zinkgraf, Wormuth, Hartfeil, and Hughey's (1981) scoring profile

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

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The Creative Poetry Translation Method from the Perspective of the Cultural Turn — Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* as a Case Study

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Abstract—*A Psalm of Life* is a well-known poem written by Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, and it has been translated into many different versions since the Qing Dynasty. From the 1980s, translation studies have focused on the cultural aspects rather than the literal equivalence. The new perspective takes into account how the translated version is adapted and accepted and influences the target culture. This paper, based on the cultural turn perspective, examines the theoretical background of translation research and analyzes a translated version of *A Psalm of Life* in light of the target language and culture. This paper concludes that the creative translation method in English-Chinese poetry translation is reasonable and innovative.

Index Terms—English-Chinese poetry translation, the cultural turn, Henry Wadsworth Longfellow, *A Psalm of Life*, the creative translation method

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow and His Poems in China

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882) was the leading writer in the realm of literature in the 19th century in the United States. His poems are very popular in the United States and are praised across Europe with more than twenty translated versions. Longfellow's works are rooted in the native history and culture, and they also inherited European traditional literature and thoughts. His works have significant influence on American culture and literature (Baym, 2007). On the website of Maine Historical Society, the special page introduces Longfellow's life and his diverse works (Longfellow, 2014).

Being a master in the realm of American literature, Longfellow's works have caught the attention of Chinese language and literature masters, such as Hu Shi, Wu Mi, and Guo Moruo, since it was introduced in China by Dong Xun in the Qing Dynasty. Furthermore, these masters' literary writing styles were deeply affected by Longfellow. Hu Shi translated Longfellow's *Daybreak* in the form of ancient Chinese five-character poetry. Wu Mi adapted Longfellow's narrative poem *Evangeline A Tale of Acadie* to a Chinese classic drama named *Romance in Chaotic Years*. In his article *My Experience of Poetry Writing*, Guo Moruo stated that his perception of the new form of the modern poetry was inspired around 1913 when he read Longfellow's *The Arrow and the Song*. Further, Guo held that Longfellow's poem was so concise and fresh that he felt he had not met with the new form of the modern poem until then. In 1943, Hu Shi translated *The Arrow and the Song* into Chinese. In 1949, Huang Wu and Zhu Baoguang published the first Chinese version of *Selected Longfellow's Poems* with the pseudonym Jian Qizhi. Mu Dan, a distinguished Chinese poet, translated more than ten of Longfellow's poems. In 1993, Wang Baotong, an expert in English-Chinese poetry translation, translated Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* into Chinese. The prestigious translator Yang Deyu translated Longfellow's poems several times, including *A Psalm of Life*. In the new 21st century, *A Psalm of Life* entered into textbooks in Chinese Elementary and secondary schools, and is regarded as a classical English poem among foreign poems.

Regarding the study of Longfellow and his poems in current China, it is easy to find substantial research about Longfellow's poems and comparative studies between Chinese contemporary writers and Longfellow. In the field of poetry research, Mao (2006) analyzed the spread of Longfellow's poems in China; Liu (2007) explored Longfellow's sonnets in detail; Zhao (2009) examined Longfellow's poem *The Song of Hiawatha* from the perspective of colonialism; Luo (2011) conducted a study on a Chinese version of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* in the Qing dynasty. All the above studies focused on the literal aspect of Longfellow's poems without considering the overall cultural background. Studies about the influence of Longfellow's poems on China's culture and society can be found, but most of them confined their study to the 1920s. For example, Fu (1991) compared Guo Moruo's poems with Longfellow's poems; Xie (2006) explored the influence of American poems on modern Chinese poems around the 1920s; Yang (2007) mentioned Longfellow's poems and writing style when he researched on Qian Zhongshu's translation method; Meng (2008) provided a panorama of English-Chinese poetry translation around the 1920s, signifying their impact on Chinese society and culture. Thus, it is clear that most of the current research on Longfellow's poems paid attention to the literal aspects

rather than the social and cultural context.

However, there is a gap between the domestic and the overseas research in Longfellow and his poems. Little is known about how the translated Chinese version of Longfellow's poems are adapted to the current Chinese culture and language features. In other words, it is seldom to find research about how Longfellow's poems were translated into Chinese from the perspective of the cultural turn. Consequently, it is necessary to conduct research on Longfellow's poems from the target culture and language. The purpose of this paper is to examine the latest Chinese version of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* in a Chinese elementary and secondary school textbook focusing on contemporary Chinese language and culture. Additionally, this research will serve as a sample for English-Chinese poetry translation based on the creative translation method.

B. The Cultural Turn Perspective of Translation Research

During globalization, all research should be conducted with a broader cultural scope. The aspect of culture plays an important role when considering background research. Translation research, the main branch of interdisciplinary research, cannot neglect the crucial role of culture. Translation does not deliver the single literal translation between different languages but considers the various meanings found in the different cultures. To some degree, translation indicates the extent to which the two different cultures merge. According to the historical record, western translation and translation theories have a history of more than two thousand years. However, being an independent subject, translation came into being around the late 1980s. Translation research is also a new born subject in the field of Academia in China. In the past few decades, translation research has been included in the study of linguistics. It became an independent subject ten years ago (Tan, 2012). Consequently, the current trend of translation research does not focus on the literal translation of the text any longer. In other words, the existing translation research explores its objects from the perspective of different cultural meanings. Bassnett and Lefevere (2004) focused on three aspects of translation research: the initiator of the translation task, the manager of the translation of the text, and the receiver of the translated text. Thus, Bassnett and Lefevere supported a higher level of translation method beyond the traditional literal equivalence standard. They considered more the spread and reception of the translated version in the new Chinese cultural context, and they examined the ultimate purpose and impact of the translation task in the light of cross cultural activity. This kind of cultural-turn point of view is a brand new perspective and fresh in the course of translation history.

There are diverse Chinese versions of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* since the Qin Dynasty and each of the versions has its own features and advantages. The purpose of this paper was to examine the characteristics of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* in the standard textbook in Chinese elementary and secondary schools from the perspective of the target language culture. Thus, this paper explored the feasibility of creative translation method in English-Chinese poetry translation.

II. CREATIVE TRANSLATION METHOD IN ENGLISH-CHINESE TRANSLATION

The new perspective of translation method has as its main concern for English-Chinese poetry translation exploring the original meanings in target cultures. Many scholars in English-Chinese poetry translation have explored and welcomed this cultural turn translation method. The origin of this method can be traced back to Huang Kesun's new English-Chinese poetry translation method, imitating the meanings and spirit of the original poems. Before analyzing Huang's method, it was necessary to discuss the translated English version of *Rubaiyat* by Fitzgerald (Shao, 2010). According to Shao (2010), the original version of *Rubaiyat* was a collection of selected poems written by a Persian poet Omar Khayam in the 11th century. The translated version by Fitzgerald has been acclaimed as the best English version in the western literary world. The following is Fitzgerald's most well-known translation version of *Poem 12* in *Rubaiyat*:

A Book of Verses underneath the Bough'
 A Jug of Wine' a Loaf of Bread— and Thou
 Beside me singing in the Wilderness—
 Oh' Wilderness were Paradise enow! (Allen, 1903, p. 40)
 A literal equivalence translation version is as follows:
 I desire a flask of ruby wind and a book of verses'
 Just enough to keep me alive' and half of a loaf is needful:
 And then' that thou and I should sit in the wilderness'
 Is better than the Kingdom of a Sultan. (Allen, 1908, p. 31)

However, Fitzgerald changed the forms and arrangements of the original poems substantially, and even merged several original poems. Furthermore, Fitzgerald did not translate the original poems word by word but focused the translation on the cultural transmission. In a letter to his friend, Fitzgerald said that the translated version must be full of passion and vitality, and that even if the translation could not keep the original spirit fully, it should hold a part of the original essence between the lines. Fitzgerald put forward a vivid analogy: 'the translation should not be a dead eagle but a lively sparrow' (Shao 2010, p. 9). When Huang read Fitzgerald's English version during his study in MIT, Huang was moved by the spirit of the poems and planned to translate them into Chinese. Therefore, during his doctoral study, Huang translated the English version of *Rubaiyat* into Chinese in the form of ancient Chinese seven-character poetry. Huang's translation version is as follows:

一簞疏食一壺漿，
一卷詩書樹下涼。
卿為阿依歌瀚海，
茫茫瀚海即天堂。(Huang, 1989.)

To Huang's big surprise, his translation was praised and affirmed by Chinese literary scholars. Some of the scholars in translation research stated that Huang's translation was a stroke of genius in that he could combine the foreign language poem with the ancient Chinese poetry form successfully. The journey of the translations of *Rubaiyat*, from Persian to English, from English to Chinese, was like the revival of literature in different cultures. Qian Zhongshu declared that Huang's Chinese version was as good as Fitzgerald's English version (Luo, 2012).

From these evaluations, Huang illustrated in-depth comprehension of ancient Chinese poems and the extraordinary capability of translation. Regarding the translation method, Huang used the word "imitation" as his translation strategy on the cover of his works, signifying his difference from the traditional literal equivalence method. Huang did not explain his translation method in detail, but he held that the priority of his idea of translating poems was to rewrite poems (Shao, 2011). Shao (2011) stated that Huang's translation was a creative interpretation of the original poem based on its spirit. However, this interpretation was not a task without any guidance, but was based on the standard directed by the original version. If the translated was evaluated by the standard of the foreign language, the translated version was a high quality poem. In another article, Shao (2010) indicated that the quality of a translated version did not depend on the literal equivalence but the delivery of the essence of the original poem. If the translator's creativity was appreciated, the translated version would be the revitalization of the original (Luo, 2012). Li (2010) confirmed that the essence of English-Chinese poetry translation should be the delivery of the poem's spirit. Concerning the form of the translated version, the best form should be the one which was popular in the foreign culture. In sum, Li (2010) shared the similar opinions on how to translate English poems into Chinese with Shao and Luo. Regarding the title of the creative translation method by Huang, the word "imitation" implied his translation was different from the traditional literal equivalence and his humble ethos, a humble attitude even if his method was innovative. According to Chinese culture, Huang's remarks indicated his humility and reluctance to fight against the traditional trends or ideas. However, if we consider Huang's translation method from the international perspective, his new method could be named the Creative Translation Method in English-Chinese poetry translation.

III. HENRY LONGFELLOW AND HIS *A PSALM OF LIFE*

Henry Wadsworth Longfellow (1807-1882) is an important figure in the realm of American literature. He was a genius of language, and when he was thirty two he wrote his poem *A Psalm of Life* which was included into his first collection of poems *Voices of the Night* (Drabble, 2005). In 1854, after considering the balance between university faculty and devoted poet, Longfellow resigned his faculty position in Harvard University and committed to poetry writing. In his life time, he won the honorary doctorate degree from both Cambridge and Oxford universities (Wu, 2002). After Longfellow passed away, his statue was built up at the poet corner in Westminster Abbey and he was the only American writer who was honored there. He was the representative of fireside poets in the history of American literature (Fireside poets, 2014). The title of "Fireside Poet" implied the popularity of his poems across the nation and also demonstrated that his poems were concise and easy to recite. On the one hand, the themes of Longfellow's poems are traditional, optimistic, and passionate; on the other hand, the rhyme and rhythm are proper for reading and reciting. The fireside poets did not write poems for the sake of poems, but they preferred to write poems for the ordinary people, cultivating a wider audience.

From such a background, it is easy to identify the content and the theme of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life*. This poem consists of nine stanzas with four lines in each stanza. Each line only has seven or eight words with short syllables. The rhyme form is ABAB. Therefore, reading or reciting his lines emits the power of the language: concise, forceful, and passionate. Throughout the whole poem, each word is used in daily life. Regarding the theme of this poem, it reveals an optimistic attitude toward life in that one need not regret the past misfortunes or miss the past successes. What one should do now is nothing but set up a goal and commit to the task step by step. Just as the poem said, "Learn to labor and to wait" (Longfellow, 1839). Therefore, when *A Psalm of Life* is translated into Chinese, what should be considered most should include both its language feature and its optimistic theme. If both language and theme can be delivered, the translated version will be a successful and creative work.

IV. THE CULTURAL TURN - BETRAYAL IN FORM BUT LOYALTY IN THEME

When Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* was adapted into the textbooks in Chinese elementary and secondary schools, the content and the language changed a little. The original poem consists of nine stanzas and each stanza was written in the rhyme of ABAB. However, in the adapted version, the nine stanzas changed into five stanzas and four of them were cut off. In addition, in the translated five stanzas, the form of each stanza was not the same as the original one. In the original poem, every line was very short, containing seven or eight short words, and each line had similar length. While in the translated version, each line did not have share the same length. Further, each translated line was much longer than the original one. Regarding the foot of the rhyme, the original one was ABAB, but the translated one was rhymed

in the same pronunciation /ang/ (AAAA). One stanza of the translated version is as follows:

在世界这个辽阔的战场上，
 在人生这个壮丽的舞台上，
 我们不能做任命运驱使的牛羊，
 我们要在战斗中当一名闯将。

(Longfellow, 2010)

If we examined the translated version from the traditional literal equivalence standard, this translation was not perfect, even unacceptable. However, this seemingly not-so-good translated version was confirmed and introduced to Chinese elementary and secondary students, because it thoroughly delivered the spirit of the original poem. Furthermore, the translated version followed the typical feature of Chinese language and culture. Thus, it is supported and welcomed by Chinese young readers. In contrast, the following is the translated version by Dong Xun in the Qin Dynasty:

扰扰红尘听鼓鞞，
 风吹大漠草萋萋，
 弩骀甘待鞭笞下，

骐驎谁能轡勒羈。(Li, 2012, p. 176)

The adapted translated version of *A Psalm of Life* demonstrated the features of Chinese culture and language and also delivered the essence of the original poem. The Chinese characters in the translated version were simple daily words, so that it was easy to read and recite. Second, although each line in the translated version was much longer than the original one, the translated lines could be divided into several parts according to where the reader paused. Third, the changed rhyme in the translated version was typical in traditional Chinese poems, so that the translated version was easily accepted by Chinese readers. For example, the pronunciation of the last character in each line was /ang/, which was one of the most popular rhymes in Chinese poem. When Chinese people recite this pronunciation, they open their mouth roundly and pronounce it with very long airflow. Thus, it is easy and convenient when one wants to recite the poem. Fourth, the first two lines and the last two lines within each stanza were written in parallel respectively. The use of parallel makes it possible to express the strong feelings in the readers' hearts. Therefore, in terms of form, content, rhyme, and spirit, the translated Chinese version reached Chinese readers' expectation, because it looked like a genuine Chinese poem with an optimistic spirit.

When we considered the essence of the original poem, we identified the western culture of the Christian tradition. In the first stanza, Longfellow wrote the line, "For the soul is dead that slumbers;" in the second stanza, Longfellow emphasized that "Dust thou art and to dust returnest." For western readers, these lines are similar to those in the Bible. When we read the third stanza, "Not enjoyment, and not sorrow," these lines remind us of the puritanism. In the last two lines in stanza six, the lines "Act, — act in the living Present! Heart within, and God o'er head" signify the relation between human beings and God. We can also find the shadow of Bible in the last stanza, "Still achieving, still pursuing, /learn to labor and to wait." In Bible, the words "labor" and "wait" contain deep meaning. Longfellow believed that every human being was a sinner since the moment of birth, so that every individual had to labor honestly if he or she wants to be saved by God (Li, 2011). From this analysis, it is clear to identify the relation between *A Psalm of Life* and the Bible, and this relation is the foundation of American culture. Thus, *A Psalm of Life* can easily enter into western readers' hearts and resonate with their beliefs and commitment in this world.

However, when we plan to translate this poem into Chinese, specifically adapt it to Chinese language and culture, we have to cut off some stanzas with the Christian beliefs. In Chinese culture, there is no element of Christianity but Confucius culture, Buddhism and Taoism. If the translator does not consider such cultural background and just keeps these lines in the translated version literally, the Chinese readers will feel uncomfortable and will not welcome it quickly. Therefore, the current translated version in Chinese elementary and secondary textbooks stands at a higher level beyond the restraint of the original culture, holds the theme tightly, stays true to the theme of optimistic attitude toward life. Thus, from the perspective of popularity and acceptance, the translated version of *A Psalm of Life* in Chinese elementary and secondary textbook is an excellent translation. In this way, *A Psalm of Life* is welcomed by more Chinese readers and becomes more popular in Chinese world. Without any doubt, this translated version will be welcomed and shared by more Chinese people.

V. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATION

Henry Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* has been translated and introduced to China for more than two hundred years. At the very beginning, the translated version by Dong Xun in the Qing Dynasty was written in complicated ancient Chinese which was little known by Chinese people. Later, there appeared several versions that adhered to the traditional literal equivalence standard. Unfortunately, the lack of considering the feature of Chinese culture and language contributes to the unpopularity of *A Psalm of Life* in China although there were complicated translated versions by distinguished translators. When Huang's creative translation method was utilized for E-C poetry translation,

Longfellow's *A Psalm of life* became very popular in China, illustrating the spirit of American culture. Therefore, from the cultural perspective, we find that the creative translation method widens the realm of translation research and provides an innovative insight into poetry translation. Just as Borges (2008) once said, "a language was formed over a very long time period, which was tested by time and promoted by farmer, fisherman, hunters, knights and etc. A language was not born in a library, but developed in the rural village, the sea, the crook, the long night, and the dawn (Chen, 2008). If Longfellow was alive, he would feel happy to see the prosperity and popularity of his *A Psalm of Life* in China instead of regretting the lack of original rhyme style and Christian elements.

This paper examined the Chinese version of Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life* in the textbook in Chinese elementary and secondary schools from the perspective of cultural turn. In this way, a new English-Chinese poetry translation method, the creative translation method was discussed based on Longfellow's *A Psalm of Life*. Thus, this paper illustrated a sample of creative translation method from the cultural turn in the contemporary world translation method. It is hoped that this study would provide a new perspective of language and literature research for both poetry translation and other branches such as novel, drama, and etc. Further, this paper indicates that the translated literature has become an indispensable part of Chinese literature. More in-depth research in Longfellow's poems will demonstrate the influence of Longfellow on Chinese literature. We hope the creative translation method in poetry translation from the cultural turn will contribute more to the exchange and acceptance between different cultures.

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The Relationship between Emotional Intelligence and Learning Strategies among Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—The primary objective of this study was to investigate the relationship between Iranian EFL learners' emotional intelligence and their use of learning strategies. In so doing, one hundred English advanced learners of Iran Language Institute (ILI) at Shiraz branch (30 males and 70 females) were selected to participate in this study. The Bar-On (1980) Emotional Quotient Inventory questionnaire (EQ-I), and the Strategy Inventory for language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) were administered to determine the significance of the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies. The results of correlation showed that there were positive significant relationships between some components of the two variables. The intra personal skill had positive correlations with memory strategies ($r=.000$, $p<.05$), cognitive strategies ($r=.000$, $p<.05$), metacognitive strategies ($r=.006$, $p<.05$), and social strategies ($r=.02$, $p<.05$), which showed that learners with intra personal skill use different learning strategies. There were also a positive correlation between social strategies with adaptability ($r=.009$, $p<.05$), and stress management ($r=.004$, $p<.05$). A positive correlation was also seen between memory strategies and stress management ($r=.04$, $p<.05$). The results of this study clearly depicts that among the emotional intelligence variables, intra personal skill got the highest relationship with components of learning strategies. This study has some pedagogical implications for researchers, teachers, policy makers, and educators.

Index Terms—emotional intelligence, learning strategies, EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

It is crystal clear that Students with high intelligence quotient (IQ) scores can be considered as the intelligent ones. Lots of researchers such as Goleman (1995), Mayer & Salovey (1997), and Bar-On (1997) have mentioned that intelligence quotient (IQ) has a different dimension. They considered this dimension as emotional intelligence (EI). These researchers state that emotional intelligence (EI) is deeply refers to the individuals capabilities to understand and recognize their emotions. By comparing intelligence quotient (IQ) and emotional intelligence (EI), emotional intelligence can be an effective predictor of success in different life challenges (Goleman, 1995). on the other hand IQ performs better in distinguishing successful people in various profession and jobs. According to (Goleman, 1995, p. 34), "EI emerges more effective than IQ in distinguishing the individuals talent. Goleman mentions that people can be sorted according to their IQ before they start a career; it determines which fields or professions they can hold (Goleman, 1998, 2001). Goleman 1998 made five basic emotional and social competencies for emotional intelligence which were self-awareness, self-regulation, motivation, empathy, and social skills. How we feel at the moment of any situation is our self-awareness which guides us in making decision. Having self-awareness helps us to have a realistic assessment about ourselves, our capability and a well-grounded sense of self-confidence. Self-regulation is how we handle our emotions so that they facilitate rather than interfere with the task at hand. Self-regulation consists of being conscientious and delaying gratification to pursue goals and recovering well from emotional distress.

In 1990, Mayer and Salovey tried to find the scientific way to measure individuals' emotions. They found that those people, who have emotional intelligence skills, can express themselves better than those who didn't have emotional intelligence skills. Those people with this skill can easily recognize emotions in others.

Mayer and Caruso (1999) state that individuals don't get emotional intelligence at birth but it can be developed through education and training. Perception, memory, attention, social judgment, and decision making which are the sub-categories of cognitive processes may be effected by emotions (Planalp & Fitness, 1999).

According to Boud, Keogh, and Walker (1985) positive and negative emotions can affect the learning process. The positive emotion can enhance the learning process by keeping the learner on the task. Positive feeling can perform as a stimulator to motivate the learner in doing and learning something. On the other hand the negative ones can distort the

perception and can undermine the will to persist. It is clear that lots of prolific researches have done in the last three decades on learning strategies and emotional intelligence in second and foreign languages.

Emotional Intelligence

Emotional intelligence is defined as "an array of non-cognitive capabilities, competencies, and skills that influences one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" and directly affect one's overall psychological well-being. In other words, one's knowledge, skills, and overall intelligence must be augmented by the ability to understand, perceive, and regulate emotions. (Bar-On, 1997, p.14).

Learning Strategies

Oxford defines learning strategies as "operations employed by the learner to aid the acquisition, storage, retrieval, and use of information. Specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, more enjoyable, faster, directed, more effective, and more transferrable to new situations." (Oxford, 1990, p. 8).

The teaching and learning processes are influenced by different cognitive variables, among which emotional intelligence and learning strategies are considered the most important ones. Over time human's understanding of himself grows better and better. By passing the time he understood that there is an inherent complexity in the process of human brain which leads to the confusion of him. This complexity not only hindered the researcher to search about what goes in this black box and what goes out of it but also it becomes a stimulator to seek ways of different studies about it. Since students are always at the risk of academic failure, explicit learning strategies are needed to support the ingredients of instructional success.

Persistent efforts of researchers in the realm of psychology have shown that students use various ways in their learning process which are note taking, memorizing, observing, reading, listening, speaking, writing, and doing thing. Based on the situation they use one or some of them. According to Brown (2004), describing of how students learn and why do they learn is not easy. Studies in this area resulted in different learning perspectives each of which shed some light on the mysterious process of learning. According to Rogers (1952, as cited in Maslow, 1943), the basic premise of humanistic perspective is that learning will be occur by a facilitator. Moreover, emotion can perform a great role in learning process. Researchers came to believe that having a good and successful life is not just limited to have an intelligent mind. They suggest that not only the emotional mind (Nelson and Low, 2005) but also the strategic mind (Leach, 2007) are necessary in learning processes. Each of them can be a great motivator and can open new doors. In this regard emotional mind can be the most effective one.

Due to the fact that over a decade of mechanistic instrumentalism, there is a significant shift toward a more human view, it is essential to understand the human's condition which is the most important factor for all of us who work in education system. Teachers always try to increase students' learning. To do this, teachers try to find the obstacles and reinforce the variables which can easily motivate the individuals' talent. Without doubt learning strategies and emotional intelligence are the important factors in this process.

Seeking out understandings of the human condition has always been important to those of us who work in education. For this reason it is believed that the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies can be important factors in educational setting. Learners vary enormously in different conditions in a second language. It is clear that some individual learn more easily than other individuals. The reverse is also true that some learners learn more difficultly than the others. Among so many factors contributing to second language learning success, including motivation, attitude or personality types, and so on it seems that two important factors which account for success in language learning are the intelligence of individuals and the strategies which are used in their learning. Regarding the importance of learning bears throughout peoples' lives, and understanding that learning as a complex process is the result of interactions of so many factors like cognition, emotions and strategies, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies of advanced ILI learners. To examine the effects and relationships of emotional intelligence and learning strategies one hundred ILI advanced learners participated in this study. The researcher hope the study will lead to highlight the necessity of incorporation of strategic learning and emotional intelligence in the curriculums, depending on the situation and needs. Also it will help teachers and learners better understand these variables and use this understanding to enhance classroom learning and teaching effectiveness. To achieve the objective of the investigation, the following specific research question was formulated:

RQ: Is there any relationship between individuals' emotional intelligence and their use of learning strategies?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. *Participants*

One hundred ILI English advanced learners at Shiraz branch (30 males and 70 females) were purposively selected to participate in this study. The participants were between 17 to 30 years old. All of them were native speakers of Persian

B. *Instruments*

The data was collected through using two instruments. The first instrument employed in this study was, the Bar-On EI test and the second one was, Strategy Inventory for language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990).

B1. Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory

The Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) which was designed by Bar-On in 1980 is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behavior that provides an estimate of emotional-social intelligence (Bar-On, 1997). After some changes in major content of questionnaire, like omission or alternation of questions and regulation of them, it was reduced into 43 questions. Hence the revised version of the questionnaire; in the form of short sentences which measured five broad areas of skills and 15 factorial components, was used in the study. To complete the questionnaire the respondents were given 40 minutes, and a five-point Likert-scale with a textual response format ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree' was employed. Each item had its own value.

Avoiding misunderstanding and cross-cultural differences regarding the content of the questionnaires, the translated Persian version of this questionnaires were employed in this study. The questionnaire was back translated into Persian by three EFL instructors. The three translations were compared and necessary changes and revision were made to make the scale more comprehensible to Iranian EFL learners. Then the scale was administered to 5 Iranian EFL learners as a pilot study. The Persian adapted form was finally reduced into 43 items. The Cronbach Alpha reliability index was reported to be 0.93 for the total test (table I).

TABLE I.
RELIABILITY OF EQ-I

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.93	43

EI Composite Scales and Subscales

1. Intrapersonal skills include:

-*Emotional self-awareness* (to recognize and understand one's own emotions)

-*Assertiveness* (to express one's own emotions, thoughts, ideas and defend his own individual rights constructively)

-*Self-management* (to be aware of, to understand, accept and respect oneself)

-*Self-actualization* (to actualize one's own potential)

-*Independence* (to pay attention to govern and one self-control own thought and action and free of emotional dependency)

Questions: 1-3-6-8-19-22-25-27-33-35-36-41

2. Interpersonal skills include:

-*Interpersonal relationships* (to be aware of, to understand others' feelings, and emotions, establish and maintain mutually satisfying relationships that are characterized by emotional intimacy and dependency)

-*Social responsibility* (to be an efficient and useful member of one's social group, and show oneself as a good partner)

-*Empathy* (to be aware of others' feelings, understand how others feel and admire them)

Questions: 9-11-16-18-24-29-30-37-40

3. Adaptability includes:

-*Problem Solving* (to identify and define problems, as well as develop effective solutions)

-*Reality-testing* (to evaluate the correspondence between what is objectively and what is subjectively experienced)

-*Flexibility* (to adjust one's feelings, thinking and behavior to changing situations and conditions)

Questions: 4-10-14-20-21-26-31

4. Stress management includes:

-*Stress tolerance* (resistance to adverse events and stressful situations)

-*Impulse control* (resistance to impulse or denial of impulse)

Questions: 2-5-13-15-17-23-38-43

5. General mood includes:

-*Happiness* (to feel satisfied with oneself, to make oneself and others happy)

-*Optimism* (to see the brighter side of life and keep a positive attitude even in the face of adversity)

Questions: 7-12-28-32-34-39-42

B.2 The Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL)

The second instrument in this study was the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990). First, this questionnaire was used in the Defense language Institute in Monterey, California (Chang, Liu, & Lee, 2007). then, the SILL was revised and two version of this exist. One which has 80 items currently use for foreign language learners whose native language is English and the other which consist of 50 items used for EFL/ESL. In this study the second version (50 items) was employed. The scale categorized into six subscales: (a) Memory strategies (items 1 to 9), (b) Cognitive strategies (items 10 to 23), (c) Compensation strategies (items 24 to 29), (d) Metacognitive strategies (items 30 to 38), (e) Affective strategies (items 39 to 44), and (f) Social strategies (items 45 to 50). These SILL items are evaluated on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. The number indicates how often the learner uses the strategies: Strongly disagree=1, disagree =2, I'm not sure=3, agree =4, strongly agree =5.

In order to calculate the reliability of the Strategy Inventory for language Learning (SILL) Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient was run. The result indicated that the reliability of the instrument was 0.95 (Table II).

TABLE II.
RELIABILITY OF SILL

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
.955	50

C. Procedure

One hundred English advanced learners were selected through purposive sampling (females =70 and males = 30) from Iran Language Institute, at Shiraz branch. The participants of the study were invited to complete two questionnaires. The participants were given instructions on how to complete the questionnaire and this took approximately 40 minutes for each participant.

D. Data Analysis Procedures

Our data consisted of the results of the questionnaires--the 'Bar-On EI test, also called as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) on the one hand, and the Oxford (1990) SILL questionnaire on the other hand. The obtained data from the questionnaires was entered into the computer item by item according to their own values, using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 21 to get inferential statistics such as Pearson correlations was applied to find any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies.

III. RESULTS

Data analysis was done by the SPSS software (Ver.16). This section includes the inferential statistics for the participants' performance on questionnaires.

The main trust of the present study was to scrutinize the significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies of ILI advanced learners. To do this the Pearson Product Moment Correlation was run to find the relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies. Basically, the correlation was run to find the relationship between these two variables components. The emotional intelligence components are intrapersonal skill, interpersonal skill, adaptability, stress management, and general mood and learning strategies components are memory strategies cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, effective strategies, and social strategies. The results were summed in table III.

TABLE III.
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

		Intra Personal Skill	Inter Personal Skill	adaptability	Stress Management	General Mood
Memory Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.434**	-.174	.188	.206*	.008
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.085	.063	.041	.938
	N	100	100	100	100	100
Cognitive Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.366**	-.054	.049	.151	.019
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.598	.630	.136	.849
	N	100	100	100	100	100
Compensation Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.062	.023	.077	.104	.066
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.540	.820	.450	.308	.515
	N	100	100	99	100	100
Metacognitive Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.277**	-.036	.008	.115	.038
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	.722	.940	.255	.707
	N	100	100	100	100	100
Effective Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.142	-.119	.113	.163	-.028
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.161	.242	.266	.107	.781
	N	100	100	99	100	99
Social Strategies	Pearson Correlation	.225*	.032	.262**	.291**	.024
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.025	.750	.009	.004	.815
	N	100	100	100	100	100

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

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

The analysis revealed that there was a positive relationship between memory strategies and intra personal skill at 0.000 level of significant. This means that higher memory strategies used is associated with high intra personal skill, in other words the learners' emotional self-awareness(to recognize and understand of one's own emotions)assertiveness(to

express one's own emotions, thoughts, ideas and defend his own individual rights constructively), self-management (to be aware of, to understand, accept and respect oneself), self-actualization (to actualize one's own potential) independence (to pay attention to govern and one self-control of own thought and action and free of emotional dependency) is highly associated with the use of memory strategies. The same positive relationships were seen between intra personal skill and other learning strategies variables such as cognitive strategies ($r=.000$, $p<.05$), metacognitive strategies ($r=.006$, $p<.05$), and social strategies ($r=.02$, $p<.05$).

As the table III indicated there was a significant positive correlation between memory strategies and stress management ($r=.04$, $p<.05$). This indicated that learners' stress management -stress tolerance (resistance to adverse events and stressful situation) and impulse control (resistance to impulse or denial of impulse) are associated with learners' used memory strategies.

According to the obtained results, there were positive significant relationships between social strategies, adaptability ($r=.009$, $p<.05$), and stress management ($r=.004$, $p<.05$). This revealed that if the learners are more adaptable, they will do better in social strategies such as pair work, group work, corporation, and clarifications. Besides, the learner will perform better in resistance to adverse events and stressful situations in social context by the suitable use of social strategies. According to reported results in table III no significant and meaningful significant relationship was found between the other variables.

According to Oxford (1990), language learning strategies are divided into two main categories, direct and indirect strategies. Direct strategies are composed of memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are consisted of metacognitive, affective and social strategies. Indirect strategies provide indirect support for language learning by employing different strategies such as focusing, arranging, evaluating, seeking opportunities, and lowering anxieties. According to the table III effective strategies which are a sub-category of direct strategies and compensation strategies which are a sub-category of indirect strategies didn't have any meaning full relationship with other variables.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of the current study was to investigate whether there was a significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies. To do this, one hundred English advanced learners of ILI; Shiraz branch were purposively selected to participate in this study. The participants were 30 males and 70 female learners between 17 to 30 years old.

The needed data was collected through using two instruments. The first instrument employed in this study was, the 'Bar-On EI test, and the second one was the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990). The Pearson Correlation was applied to find any significant relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies.

Based on the procedure of the research the sub-scales of both emotional intelligence- intrapersonal skill, interpersonal skill, adaptability, stress management, general mood- and learning strategies- memory strategies, cognitive strategies, compensation strategies, metacognitive strategies, effective strategies and social strategies were put in specific column. Then each column was added up and the results were put on the line marked sum then divided by the number under sum to get the average for each column. Then the Pearson Product Moment correlation was run to find the relationship among the variables.

The current study was, targeted toward pinpointing the would-be relationship between emotional intelligence and learning strategies among ILI English advance, at Shiraz branch. Based on the finding in Table III, the results of correlation showed that there were some significant positive relationships between the variables. The intra personal skill had a positive correlation with memory strategies ($r=.000$, $p<.05$), cognitive strategies ($r=.000$, $p<.05$), metacognitive strategies ($r=.006$, $p<.05$), and social strategies ($r=.02$, $p<.05$). The positive relationship showed that intra personal skill had a liable role in learners learning strategies used. There were also a positive correlations between social strategies with adaptability ($r=.009$, $p<.05$), and stress management ($r=.004$, $p<.05$). The last but not least a positive correlation was seen between memory strategies and stress management ($r=.04$, $p<.05$). As the results of the study showed it is clear that among the emotional intelligence variables, intra personal skill got the highest relationship with other variables. Furthermore, social strategies were also correlated with variables except for inter personal and general mood.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The findings of the present study may serve as recommendations to researchers, teachers, policy makers, and educators to modify instruction and offer various opportunities for learners in the classroom. It is necessary for the instructors to be familiar with the concept of emotional intelligence and learning strategies. They can also focus more on enhancing EFL learners' learning strategies and emotional intelligence. The findings might help educators in selecting appropriate material which can easily satisfy the learners' need. The results can be effective for syllabus designer to find the most appropriate ways for learners with different learning strategies and various emotional intelligences. Iranian teacher can use the findings of this study in their EFL classes and/ or in designing their own syllabuses. It is also important for the teachers to have a clear picture of learners' strengths and weaknesses in different intelligence areas to develop their intellectual capabilities accordingly. Planning the activities to connect both strategies

and learners' talents can lead to the enhancement and development of the individuals. The findings can be important for the individuals to have a clear picture of themselves in findings the strong points and reinforce the weak points.

VI. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The same as other studies, this research has several limitations. First, the participants of this study are natives of the same context, English Iran Language Institute at Shiraz; they speak the same language and have shared cultural practices, which may lead to similarities in their reports. Second, self-report instruments used in this study may not appropriately capture the participants' perceptions and feelings. In any research there is always the danger of misrepresenting beliefs of the participants especially when the scales of assessment are questionnaires. Participants sometimes report the desirable beliefs, rather than their true beliefs.

Third, the 'Bar-On EI test, also called as the Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-I) consists of only 43 items while the Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) (Oxford, 1990) has 50 items may obviously not cover by the students' emotional intelligence and learning strategies use. This, to a certain extent, affects its reliability and the validity of the data in the study. Therefore a wider variety of assessment methods is recommended in future studies like interviews, observation, verbal report and diaries.

Forth, in this study, one hundred ILI advance English learners (70 females and 30 males) were involved. Perhaps the uneven number between male and female students may more or less influence the results. Finally, since this study has been limited to regular institute, ILI English advanced learners; at Shiraz branch, the findings cannot be generalized to the learners from the other higher education institutions. Future research could move some steps forward to examine the potential factors affecting the academic performance of basic, intermediate, and university students in Iran.

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Prototype Effects in Transitivity*

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Abstract—Cognitive linguistics strongly opposes the classical view and alternatively claims that categories center round a prototype and the membership of a category depends not on the binary features but on the family resemblance with the prototype. This paper attempts to make a study of a common grammatical category—transitivity, with the aim to find the proof for our hypothesis that transitivity, as a prototype category like any natural category, shows prototype effects with asymmetries among members.

Index Terms—transitivity, prototype effects, semantic properties, syntactic properties

I. INTRODUCTION

Transitivity is an important linguistic category and has been a heated topic for decades. Like any natural category, transitivity is also a category showing prototype effects. As Hopper and Thompson (1980) put that transitivity is a matter of degree. That is to say, there are good examples and bad examples in the category. To be more specific, the levels of transitivity shown from the transitive clause are different, ranging from high to low. The prototypical transitive clauses show the highest degree of transitivity, and the non-prototypical clauses show different deviated degrees of transitivity, depending on the degree of deviation from the prototype. This paper aims to explore the prototype effects of transitivity from cognitive approach.

II. THE PROTOTYPE OF TRANSITIVITY

A. *Semantic Properties of the Prototype*

1. **Experiential basis for semantic properties**

In accordance with the above assumption that transitivity is a prototype-based category, this category is thus not determined by necessary and sufficient features but centered round a prototype which can be assumed to be understood in terms of a cluster of interactional properties. It is interactional in that these properties are not objective but rather have to do with the world with which we interact in the way of perceiving, imagining, affecting with our body and gaining knowledge. They are the result of our interaction as part of our physical and cultural environments with our bodies and cognitive apparatus. As Rosch (1978) puts it “it should be emphasized that we are talking about a perceived world and not a metaphysical world without a knower”(p29). Then, what is the clustering of properties that determine the prototypical member in transitivity? Looking back for a moment at Hopper and Thompson’s typological research on the clusters of attributes associated with transitivity, we can see that verbs are not the sole factor influencing transitivity in a transitive clause; there are many other determinant facets. More significantly, they also point out that the transitive constructions have semantic values which can be seen as prototypical. This proposition is in consistent with the main claim in Langacker’s cognitive grammar. He firmly believes that the parameters of linguistic form in grammatical constructions are not independent of meaning, rather on the basis of meaning. “Cognitive grammar makes specific claims about semantic structure and the notional basis of fundamental grammatical categories” (Langacker, 2004, p183). Semantics therefore serves as the basis for the syntax. Granted that semantics is essential to, or more explicitly, inherent in grammatical construction, then where do the semantic values of prototype come from? According to Langacker, semantics means the conceptualization of human beings and the reflection of people’s understanding of things and world experience, corresponding to the ways in which human beings conceive things. Therefore, semantic structures function as the reflection of the conceptual structures. In cognitive grammar, semantic units are claimed to be characterized relative to cognitive domain, a coherent area of conceptualization, with three-dimensional space, smell, color, touch sensation, etc. basic domains and other higher level domains even including the knowledge system. Cognitive domain also consists of a concept or conceptual complex of any degree of complexity with the inclusion of highly abstract image schemas. “Meanings are characterized relative to cognitive domains many of which are idealized cognitive models in the sense of Lakoff” (Langacker, 2004, p282). Lakoff (1987) points out that linguistic expressions derive their meaning from being associated with cognitive models. Cognitive models are meaningful in that they put us in touch with preconceptual structures in our bodily experience of functioning as a being of a certain sort in an environment of a certain sort. By these models we organize our knowledge and in the process of organizing category structure, prototype effects come to exist as by-products. Cognitive models characterize not only conceptual structure but also syntactic structure. “These cognitive models fundamental to our experience and our conception of the world are

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claimed to underlie the prototypical value of certain grammatical constructs pertaining to clause structure” (Langacker, 2004). We hold the central idea in cognitive grammar that grammatical construction is not autonomous but dependent on semantic structure. The meaning comes from our bodily interactions with the world, or rather, the cognitive models with which we perceive the world and organize our knowledge. This is consistent with the fact that the cluster of properties of prototype is not something objectively in the world independent of any being, but is the result of our interactions as part of our physical and cultural environment. Actually, we experience the properties characterizing the prototype of transitivity as a *gestalt*; that is, the complex of properties occurring together is more basic to our experience than their separate occurrence. Such a *gestalt* is often representable by the cognitive model which is understood as being psychologically simpler than its parts. As Lakoff (1987) puts it “in the case of experiential *gestalts*, however, the reverse may hold: a complex description may correspond to a cognitively simple concept, while a relatively simple description of one of the parts of the concept may be cognitively more complex” (p491). Due to their experiential nature, we are in a position to assume that the cluster of semantic properties of prototype transitivity come from cognitive models. Additionally, the clusters of attributes done by Hopper and Thompson and other linguists offer us a hint that transitivity approximates the notion of EVENT rather than STATE. That is to say the category of transitivity is based on a cognitive model describing not a state but an event. So we make a further assumption that Langacker’s canonical event model seems to provide the basis for the organization of a prototype transitive clause. Now we can go on to discuss the semantic defining features of the prototype transitive clause on the basis of canonical event model.

2. Semantic properties

In cognitive grammar, the role of archetypes is employed to describe the features of prototype in grammatical constructions. “These archetypes reflect our experience as mobile and sentient creatures and as manipulators of physical objects.” (Langacker, 2004, p285). In line with the canonical event model, we would tend to anticipate that the subject in the prototypical transitive clause plays the role of archetypal agent which refers to a person who is a volitional human actor, acting in the most specifically human possible way to cause some perceptible change of state in a perceptible object. That is, subject is the source of energy transmission to an external object. On the polar opposite, the object is expected to play the role of archetypal patient which is an inanimate object that stands at the end of energy flow, absorbing external transmitted energy and as a result undergoing an internal change of state. The event is coded by the prototypical verbs which definitely describe an activity which causes a change in the patient. In English, they are verbs such as *kill, break, hurt, make, create, improve, clean, increase, decrease, stop, move, sadden, melt, heat, warm, hide, cover, give, and send*. They all describe a change of one kind or another. According to Tsunoda, other transitive verbs such as *hit* are often used in examples of transitive clauses, but they are not prototype transitive verbs because though the activities they describe impinge on the patient, they do not necessarily imply a change in it. In contrast, killing, for instance, necessarily implies such a change. That is the death of the victim. These semantic properties deriving from the canonical cognitive model correspond to the work of Hopper and Thompson (1980) and Lakoff (1977), including the following semantic properties which typical transitive sentences have in common:

(1) The two participants are highly individuated, i.e. They are discrete, specific entities (from this it follows that both the NPs in the construction have specific reference), distinct both from each other, and from the background environment.

(2) The event is initiated by the referent for the subject NP, i.e. by the agent. Responsibility for the event thus lies exclusively with the agent.

(3) The agent acts consciously and volitionally, and thus controls the event. Since consciousness and volition are typical human attributes, it follows that the agent is typically a human being.

(4) As a consequence of the agent’s action, something happens to the patient, i.e. the referent of the object NP. The effect on the patient is intended by the agent. Often, though by no means necessarily, the patient is inanimate.

(5) After the occurrence of the event, the patient is in a different state from before the event. Usually, the difference is one which would highly perceptible to an overlooking observer.

(6) The event is construed as punctual. Even though the event necessarily has temporal extension, the internal structure of the event, and the intermediate states between its inception and termination, are not in focus.

(7) The agent’s action on the patient usually involves direct physical contact, and the effect on the patient is immediate.

(8) The event has a causative component—the agent’s action causes the patient to undergo a change.

(9) Typically, agent and patient are not only clearly differentiated entities; often they also stand in an adversative relationship.

(10) Finally, the events reported by the construction are real, not imaginary, hypothetical, or counterfactual. Hence, central instantiations of the construction are realis.

(Taylor, 2001, p207)

B. Syntactic Properties of the Prototype

A grammatical structure is claimed to be characteristically symbolic in cognitive grammar. A symbolic structure is bipolar, consisting of a semantic pole and a phonological pole (Langacker, 2004, p76). If the semantic pole is suppressed, then the symbolic relationships cease to exist, and what remains is nothing but undifferentiated

phonological structure. Thus grammatical constructions are not autonomous from semantics but based on it. Then how do they get meaning? Cognitive grammar makes it clear that grammar is a radical category of grammatical constructions, where each construction pairs a cognitive model (which characterizes meaning) with corresponding aspects of linguistic form (Lakoff, 1987, p463). Given such a view of the nature of syntactic structures, we can expect that every grammatical construction has its meaning derived from cognitive models or schemas. Based on the cognitive model of prototypical transitivity, we list some syntactic properties pertaining to the prototype transitive clauses.

1. Linguistic expressions of two participants

According to Lyons (1968), clauses may be classified in terms of the number of the participants. He employs such convenient terms as one-place, two-place, etc. In line with the terminology, transitive clauses are at least two-place. Anyhow, there are certain three-place transitive clauses. Most instances of intransitive clauses are one-place, for example, *John sat down*. Semantically speaking, the canonical event model clearly shows that a prototype transitive clause contains two participants. First and foremost, syntactically, the prototypical transitive clause necessarily includes the linguistic expressions of the agent and the patient. However, there are clauses which contain two participants semantically only linguistically expressing either of them. Take the following examples as an illustration.

- (1) He drinks wine.
- (2) He drinks between meals.
- (3) He always aims to please.
- (4) He pleased his parents.
- (5) Peter washed the dishes and Marsha dried.
- (6) He helped his mother dry the dishes.

Drink is used transitively with an object in (1), which is obviously two-place. In terms of semantics, (1) has two participants. Syntactically speaking, both of them are linguistically coded by the pronoun *he* and the noun *wine*. However, in (2), *drink* is used intransitively without an object. It also semantically contains two participants, for drinking necessarily requires an energy initiator, the drinker and the energy receiver, a drink, but in terms of linguistic expressions, it only expresses the drinker with the pronoun *he*, leaving the drink unmentioned. This is the similar case in sentences (3) and (4). In (3) the agent is linguistically expressed while the patient is indicated by the verb *please* rather than coded by nouns or pronouns. However, (4) is a two-place, with the two participants syntactically realized by the pronoun *he* and the noun *parents*. The last two examples bear the similarity as well. Though the verb *dry* in (5) semantically demands an object, the object is not expressed linguistically. But in (6) the two participants are realized by *he* and *dish*. The above examples show that the linguistic expressions of the two participants are primarily coded by means of words, such as nouns and pronouns. Since the cognitive model contains two or more than two participants, the prototype transitive clauses must show the linguistic expression of them.

2. Passivizability

Passivization is a manipulation which makes active sentences such as *Tom killed him* into passive sentence *He was killed by Tom*. In this process, the object of the active sentence is turned into the subject of the passive sentence. The two sentences are different in their respective viewpoints. Take the above sentence as an example, in the active one, its viewpoint is neutral. On the other hand, in the passive sentence, the speaker describes the event only from the Patient's point of view. However, not all the events or states expressed in transitive sentences can be described from the Patient's point of view. Bolinger (1977) gives the following sentences.

- (7) Private Smith deserted the army.
- (8) ? The army was deserted by Private Smith.
- (9) All the generals deserted the army.
- (10) The army was deserted by all its generals.

How does it occur that there is the difference in acceptability of the above passive sentences? Considering the verb itself seems impossible to answer this question. According to cognitive grammar's view, the meaning of the whole active sentence may well seem to be correlated with their passivizability. Besides, Bolinger also believes that passivization cannot be defined on a particular set of verbs. He proposes "the hypothesis for the passive in English that the subject in a passive construction is conceived to be a true Patient, i.e. to be genuinely affected by the action of the verb" (Bolinger, 1975, p67). Apart from that, Rice (1987) investigates the strong correlation between passivizability and especially the parameters of transitivity proposed by Hopper and Thompson, which we have taken as the semantic properties of the prototype transitive clauses. According to him, the degree to which sentences are removed from or approximate transitive prototypes has to do with their passivizability. The above studies made by different linguists make it clear that passivizability cannot be explained by verbs, but closely relates with transitivity or rather semantic features of transitivity. How does passivizability correlate with the semantic properties? Semantically speaking, the prototype transitive clauses describe the event in which the discrete physical entities, usually animate, driven by flowing energy, cause the affected object to move or change and possibly to interact with other entities. Obviously, the objects in such clauses are really affected by the action of the verbs. Consistent with Bolinger's proposition, the object is a true Patient, capable of acting as the Subject in the passive sentence. In this way, the correlation between passivizability and transitivity is realized by the semantic property—the affectedness of objects. No doubt, the prototype transitive clause can definitely be paraphrased into passives and passivizability should be one of the syntactic properties of prototypical

transitive clauses.

III. THE DEVIATION OF TRANSITIVITY

A. Subject Deviation

The prototype clause is associated with a conceptual archetype that constitutes its prototypical value. In a prototype transitive clause, the subject and object approximate the archetypal role of Agent and Patient. However, not all participants in such a clause closely match the archetypes in the canonical event model. Owing to this fact, there are non-central transitive clauses, deviating from the more central members to varying extent. The degree of transitivity is in a negative relationship with the extent to which the clause deviates from the prototype. In other words, corresponding to the above discussion, the more determinant properties a transitive clause lacks, the less typical it is. We will in this section mainly discuss those non-central transitive clauses in which the subjects apart from their typical role as Agent while the objects still play the archetypal role of Patient. The following groups of sentences may explicitly illustrate this point.

- (11) The lightning destroyed the building.
- (12) The floods damaged several houses.
- (13) The electric shock killed him.
- (14) The sun burned her skin.
- (15) The computer has solved the problem.
- (16) The key opened the door.

Sentences (11) to (15) are similar cases due to the fact that the “subject plays the role of external causer; that is, it expresses the unwitting (generally inanimate) cause of an event” (Quirk, 1985, p743). In (11), the subject *the lightning* does not play the archetype role of Agent in that the inanimate force does not act on the object consciously or purposely. In spite of this, it is still highly transitive. It reports on events rather than states because “only sentences which report on events can be inserted into the clefting expression *What happened was that S*” (Taylor, 2001, p209). Thus it is acceptable to say that *What happened was that the lightning destroyed the building*. Similarly, it makes sense to insert this expression into (12) to (14). In them, the subjects *floods*, *electric shock*, *sun* are also inanimate, so they act in an unconscious way to cause a change in the state of the objects. Though the subjects lose a certain semantic property, the objects are in the Patient position and the syntactic properties are all reserved. For instance, all of them have their corresponding passives. The degree of transitivity in this group of sentences is rather high.

The tendency to have a metaphorical perception of agentiveness is conspicuous in (15) to (16) whose subjects are non-agentive, but “have the role of instrument; that is, the entity (generally inanimate) which an agent uses to perform an action or instigate a process” (ibid.). Metaphorical extension is thus not restricted to the meanings of lexical items only; it also motivates the semantic extension of a syntactic construction. As regards to these untypical transitive clauses, “a relation of metonymy between an agent and the instrument he uses to affect the patient similarly sanctions the use of an instrument in subject position” (Taylor, 2001, p214). The subjects *computer*, *key* are able to affect the objects in part because they are related with the animate agents who actually carry out the action of *solving* and *opening*. On the other hand, the success of the action, to some extent, depends on the properties of the instrument. Obviously, the successful solving of the problem cannot be realized without the efficiency of the computer. For this reason, the transitive clause with the instrument in the subject position is restricted to only limited productivity. Schlesinger (1981) also makes arguments in connection with this low productivity. In this respect, this type of transitive clauses is further removed from the prototype.

Now we turn to discuss the untypical clauses encoded by mental verbs. They also contain two participants, but the subject in Langacker’s term is the experiencer who is responsible for the intellectual, perceptual or emotive mental activity. Take the following sentences as an example.

- (17) She likes the gifts.
- (18) They admired his life story.
- (19) We’ve forgotten your address.
- (20) I regret the incident.
- (21) We noticed the warning on the door.
- (22) I heard a quarrel next door.
- (23) We all respect our president.

Sentences (17) to (23) involve mental activities realized by the mental verbs *like*, *admire*, *forget*, *regret*, *notice*, *hear*, and *respect*. The subjects are usually human beings, but they arguably do not play the archetypal role of Agent because they make no direct physical contact and impose no immediate change on the object. Since there is not any perceptible affection on the object, we may well to expect that they may not possess the syntactic property of passivisability. Contrary to our expectation, clauses encoded by many of the mental verbs can be passivized. For example, (17) can be passivized as *The gifts are liked by him*. The reason why this happens is that in metaphorical sense, the experiencer may bring effects on the object. Due to his fondness for the gift, he may possibly grasp the gift closely, hold it tightly into his arms and consequently results in the change in the state of the gift. Though sentence (17) possesses the syntactic property of passivizability, the degree of transitivity is comparatively low, because they lose so

many semantic properties, such as punctuality, and direct physical contact. Even further removed from the prototype are transitive clauses which describe a relation between entities, not some action performed by one entity with respect to another. These sentences are coded by verbs such as *have*, *own*, and *possess*. For example:

- (24) Peter owns a piano.
- (25) They have a beautiful house.
- (26) He possesses an immense treasure.
- (27) The jar contains coffee.
- (28) My tent sleeps four people.
- (29) The bag holds six pounds.
- (30) The house resembles a castle.
- (31) The computer cost \$400.

The subjects go with the verbs used statively. That is, the transitive clause is so deviated from the prototype that they describe states or rather relations between entities. According to Quirk, in (24) to (26), the subjects have a recipient role while (27) to (29) have the locative role designating the place of the state. Since they all indicate the relation, we include them together in this group. According to Taylor's way of identifying more marginal transitive sentences, instances in this group cannot be inserted into *What happened was that S* and do not allow clefting with *do*. Transitive clauses containing the locative subjects normally have no passive counterparts either. For instance, it is infelicitous to say *Four people are slept by my tent*. *Six pounds are held by the bag*. As to the last two sentences, they also designate relations. The two entities in (30) do not have the role of Agent and the Patient because the subject *the house* does not obviously act upon the object *a castle*. Since the object is not affected by any physical force, it is unlikely to stand as the subject of a passive sentence. *A castle is resembled by the house* is ungrammatical. The last sentence is in the similar case, it does not make any sense to say *\$400 have been cost by the book*. In addition, the subject can have the temporal role of designating its time in even more marginal transitive clauses. For instance, *1980s saw great changes in China*. *Tuesday witnessed another slaying*. *"The fifth day saw our departure"* (Taylor, 2001, p214). The clauses in this group deviate further from the prototype, describing state, showing less causation and some of them having no passives. The productivity of them is rather low because the acceptability of the marginal clauses may be affected by certain factors such as tense and aspect. Now we will in the next part deal with deviation due to the very unpatient-like entities functioning as the direct object of a transitive sentence.

B. Object Deviation

In some cases, the direct object NP does not refer to the archetypal Patient, affected by the action of the Agent, but quite possibly has the role of recipient, result, location, etc. In line with Quirk's system, we firstly discuss the locative role of the direct object. Instantiations are as follows:

- (32) We passed a big bridge.
- (33) He crossed the street.
- (34) She swam the river.
- (35) We have climbed the mountain.
- (36) They walked the financial district of a city.
- (37) The dog jumped the gate.
- (38) The enemies have surrounded the village.
- (39) We occupy a nice house.
- (40) We had inhabited the city for several years.

In (32), passing is an activity involving only one participant, the subject *we*. Thus, superficially, the object *bridge* may seem to be adverbials with an omitted preposition *by*. Sentence (32) can also be encoded by an intransitive clause *We passed by the big bridge*. However, that the *bridge* is not adverbial but the direct object of *pass* is confirmed by the existence of its passive counterpart—*the big bridge was passed by us*, in which the *bridge* assumes the role of the subject. Although the NP designates place, it is able to stand in the position of the direct object. Other verbs in the above sentences such as *cross*, *swim*, *climb*, *walk*, and *jump* behave in a similar way. Meanwhile, we also include those transitive clauses with locative objects after such verbs as *occupy* and *inhabit*, where no preposition can be inserted. In this group, the transitive clauses deviate from the prototype and lose some prototypical properties in that the direct objects are more like setting or path, etc. than the archetypal Patient. The ability of the NPs to take the role of subjects in the passives confirms their status as direct objects. However, the production of this type is restricted in some way. For example, though we have *The child crawled across the floor*, *The child crawled the floor* is not appropriate. This limit in productivity suggests that they are non-central transitive clauses. We now turn to another kind of object deviation. That is, the resultant object, which, according to Quirk, refers to an object whose referent exists only by virtue of the activity indicated by the verb. For example:

- (41) He is digging a hole.
- (42) Mother cooked a dinner for the entire family.
- (43) She is writing a letter.
- (44) He made a cake for me.
- (45) John has drawn a new picture.

In prototypical transitive clause the Agent does something to affect the Patient, but this does not apply to the untypical clause with a resultant object. Take sentence (41) to illustrate the point. *He is digging a hole* is different from *He is digging the ground*. The former does not imply he is doing something to a hole while the latter does. He makes physical contact with the ground and transfers energy to it, which results in the making of a hole. Therefore, *ground* is the affected object, but *hole* is the resultant object. By the same token, *dinner* in (42) is resultant while *potatoes* in *Mother has cooked potatoes* is the affected object. The thing which *my mother* directly contacts is a variety of vegetables or meat, etc. rather than the *dinner*. Dinner is the consequence of her washing, cutting and cooking the vegetables or meat. *Letter*, *cake* and *picture* are respectively the result of the action of writing, making and drawing carried out by the agentive subjects.

We feel the necessity to talk about the recipient role of the direct object here. Though the direct objects are usually inanimate, some personal pronouns or animate nouns are likely to be the objects. These objects more often than not have the recipient role. For example:

(46) We paid the taxi driver.

(47) The waiter wine the guests.

(48) He served us all.

In the above examples, *the taxi driver*, *the guests*, *us* are respectively the direct objects, but they are not prototypical in that they do not undergo any direct physical contact done by the subject but play the role of recipient or receiver. This construction is neither fully productive. On this point, Talyor (2001: 213) makes it clear that though (47) is acceptable, such sentences as *He champagne the guests*, *He beered the guests* and *He coffeed the guests* are not idiomatic.

C. Subject and Object Deviation

We have so far respectively discussed the subject deviation and object deviation. It contributes to the untypicality of those transitive clauses. The fact that there are clauses in which both subjects and objects are not prototypical Agent and Patient necessitates our devotion to this section. We intend to instantiate the point from the following untypical transitive clauses.

(49) I had a wonderful dream.

(50) His teaching benefits us all.

(51) John took a fall.

In (49), the object *dream* is eventive in that we have *I dreamed*. The subject *I* in this case is not agentive as usual, it takes the role of experience. The subject *his teaching* is the inanimate entity and closely related with an agent. Metaphorical extension allows the possibility of the instrument as an agent standing in the subject position. On the other hand, the object *us* is more like recipient. Lastly, since *John*, the animate subject, is used in nonvolitional sense, it is the affected subject. The object *fall* is also eventive as the word *fall* functions as verb in *John fell*. In general, the transitive clauses are non-central due to the fact that either their subjects or objects, even both of them, deviate to a varying extent from the archetypal Agent and Patient. During this process, the subjects and the objects lose one or another semantic property, so some syntactic properties are lost as well. The more properties the clause loses the lower level of transitivity in the clause and the further it deviates from the prototype.

D. Explanation of the Deviation

According to Langacker (2004), "the canonical event model represents the normal observation of a prototypical action" (p286). The central transitive clause describes canonical actions in which the subject and direct object conform quite well to the agent and patient archetypes. But in actuality, matters are far more complex in coding an event, because coding involves two sides—conceptualization and linguistic structure, which deals with the relationship between a conceptualization one wishes to express and the activated linguistic structures. On the one hand, the ways of construing a given event are countless and there is possibility that a particular event conception deviates from the prototype in any manner or to any degree. As we have discussed above, the object has the extension from patient to locative, temporal, eventive, and cognate role. By the same token, the subject can be extended from the agent to the instrumental role, external causer, experiencer, recipient in some extended clauses. Take the experiencer role as an example, the transitive clause coded by mental verbs like *see*, *love*, *fear*, *like* describes the relationship between an experiencer and some notion with which that experiencer establishes mental contact without any transmission of energy from the subject to the object. Metaphor plays an important role in the process of extension. For instance, it enables the agentive subject in a prototypical transitive clause extends to the experiencer. "This extension is grounded metaphorically, either through specific metaphors such as SEEING IS TOUCHING, or more generally, through the shared path-like nature attributed to such phenomena as energy flow, gaze and directed attention (Langacker, 2004, p304). On the other hand, various alternate grammatical devices are commonly available to code the same situation alternatively. How the untypical event perception is construed by speakers determines the way in which the clause is linguistically coded. That is to say, a conception that does not closely match any of the archetypes may be susceptible to alternate codings, each reflecting a different construal. For instance, in the sentence *He carpeted the room*, the observer takes *the room* as something he acted upon and affected while in *He laid a carpet in the room*, *the room* is obviously considered as the place in which the subject carrying out action. Consequently, these two ways of coding the same situation represent different construal of the NP *the room*. Apart from that, we have the transitive clause *We had a swim*

or *He had a talk*. This scene can also be coded intransitively: *We swam* or *He talked*. Finally, when it comes to construe the untypical event, we tend to structure the unfamiliar conception with reference to familiar ones and connect the abstract conception with more concrete ones. This cognitive tendency accounts in part for the abundance of non-central transitive clauses.

In sum, a prototype transitive clause is a basic clause type associating with the conceptual archetypal Agent and Patient and representing the most natural construal of events. As it is the obvious way of coding an event linguistically, it possibly forecloses other options. But there are great chances that the notions of an event are not archetypal but deviate from the prototype to a varying degree. When these notions are encountered, the event is possibly to be coded differently depending on specific circumstance or the speaker's wish. As metaphor is an important way responsible for the lexical extension, many of the transitive clause extensions are realized through the metaphorical way as well.

IV. CONCLUSION

In cognitive linguistics, word and syntax form a continuum. Therefore, like a word, transitivity as a category, has its prototypical meaning and non-prototypical meaning, showing high transitivity and low transitivity. The conceptual meaning of transitivity relies on the canonical event cognitive model. The corresponding syntactic pattern is the SVO construction. The prototypical SVO construction shows the prototypical transitivity and the non-prototypical construction shows the non-prototypical transitivity. The degree of transitivity is in a negative relationship with the extent to which the clause deviates from the prototype. Since the situations are in one way or another different from the prototypical transitive event, the meaning of transitivity will extend to different degrees.

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Cultural-context Adaptation in Translation of Children's Short Stories from English to Persian

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Abstract—The importance of children's literature in comparison with the traditional form of translation is something trivial and this is regrettable since translating for children should be done so skillfully that there may be no mental or emotional harm for children. Puurtinen (1994) believes that writing and translating for children which is often regarded as a simple and insignificant matter will be governed by numerous constraints, which normally vary from culture to culture. The present study makes an effort to examine the implications of different adaptation methods proposed by Klingberg (1986) in children's literature to investigate the claim that the process of translation in children's literature should consider the level of target text reader's knowledge and their understanding. In this study, the level of adaptation is evaluated through Klingberg's theories, in which undue adaptation is disparaged since an undue adaptation keeps children away from new world knowledge.

Index Terms—adaptation, children, short story, cross-cultural perspective, knowledge, literary polysystem

I. INTRODUCTION

As Shavit (1986) states, considering translation as a process of transfer, it should be stated that the subject that is jeopardized is not just translation of texts from one language to another one, but also it is the changing of the system, for example translations from the system of adults into the children literature. The point of departure is the understanding of children's literature is not an assemblage of elements existing in a vacuum but it is an integral part of the literary polysystem (p. 25).

The fact that Children may not have the knowledge of a foreign culture, religion, history, politics, etc. forces the translator to change or clarify the concepts more than those of adults' texts. On the one hand, if the translation is target text oriented, then the readers (children) will be deprived of a foreign culture and world knowledge. On the other hand, if it is source text oriented, then understanding unfamiliar atmosphere of the source text culture will be difficult or even impossible for them. However, another problem with Children's literature is that, some of the elements of the readers of the target text do not understand the context to the same extent to as the readers of the source text do. And this problem is intensified when either the translators or the readers are not familiar with these elements or there are some limitations according to the norms and values regarding the accuracy and appropriateness of the TT within the literary system of the target culture. In his book *Children's Fiction in the Hands of the Translators* Göte Klingberg (1986) speaks about many difficulties that appear while translating for children. He thinks that cultural context adaptation should be restricted to details. It is easy to find examples of a purely arbitrary cultural context adaptation and even when there are some reasons for it, this type of adaptation should not be tried when it is not absolutely necessary. Totally, the source text must be considered of higher priority, and cultural context adaptation should be the exception (p. 17).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Translation and Culture

People from all over the world have different kinds of communications with each other. Business, science, tourism, politics, humanitarian assistance, etc. are all the reasons for the undeniable role of communication in today's world and globalization. On the other hand, language and translation seem to have a basic role in this juncture. The need for instant communication as stated by Cronin (2003) has a neo-Babelian shift at its foundation towards reducing linguistic diversity and desires a mutual one, instantaneous intelligibility between speaking of human beings who are reading and writing different languages. Universalizing cultural language can reawaken and reinforce cultural identities via translation. Translation activities are a part of local realities in relation to the global world of transnational cultures and indigenous or local knowledge is indispensable to successful cultural translation by means of negotiating an acceptable cultural discourse for the target system (Yifeng, 2009).

B. Children's Literature

One of the primary difficulties as mentioned by O'Connell in defining what is meant by 'children's literature' is the great inclusive scope and vague nature of the semantic fields covered by the concepts that are referred to using the nouns 'children' and 'literature' (O'Connell, 1999). According to Oittinen, when we speak of child and children's literature, in fact we should be able to define them while there is little agreement on the definition of childhood, child, and children's literature (Oittinen, 2000). She sees children's literature read silently by children and aloud to children. She also deals with the translation of illustrated children stories (e.g., picture books), which refer to children under school age like children under seven in Finland. However, childhood is a fluid concept through which translating for children under school age apply to translating for older children as well.

C. *The Position of Children's Literature within the Literary Polysystem*

Considering the position of children's literature within a literary polysystem, a disappointing fact is distinguishable and it is the peripheral position considered for this issue. Even when dealing with genre, some scholars like Finnish scholar Riitta Kuivasmäki (1990) are adamant that children's literature is not a genre.

Even-Zohar (1990) believes that, children literature cannot be considered as a sui generis phenomenon (of its own kind), but related to literature for adults; translated literature would not be cut off from original one; mass literary production (thrillers, sentimental novels, etc.) will not be dismissed as "non-literature" in order to escape from the recognition of its reciprocal dependence with "individual" literature.

The translator for children's literature can authorize himself great freedom regarding the text because of the peripheral position children's literature has in the polysystem (Shavit, 1981). He can manipulate the text in different ways, as long as he considers the following principles on which translation for children is normally based:

- a. The text is adjusted to make it appropriate and useful for children which is according to what the society thinks is "appropriate for the child."
- b. Adjusting plot, characterization and language to the child's level of comprehension and his reading abilities (Shavit, 1981).

D. *Translating for Children*

There are only a few systematic studies of "how children's books are in fact being translated and how they should be translated", and since these books are literature, they should be treated and translated as literature. Translation of children's literature requires the translator to have a great knowledge of source and target language as well as a good handling of the language (Klingberg, 1986). As stated in Frimmelová the history of children's literature is closely connected with the development of the notion of childhood, and the changes it underwent during the last two centuries were directly reflected in the production of children's book (Frimmelová 2010).

The beginnings of children's literature lay in times long before the first stories actually meant for children appeared, and before the first books were written down. In the medieval times, no specialties of childhood were accepted due to the established theological concept and the harsh conditions of life. Thus, the differences between the children and adults were not recognized. In those times, no real distinction was made between the entertainment for children and for the elders, so children simply used the adult works that were attractive for them (Frimmelová 2010, p.16). When we compare the works that have been translated for adults, there are certain translation problems that are put into consideration when translated for children; hence, the issue of translating for children versus the ones for adults can be regarded as a struggle which more and more brought to fore (Klingberg, 1986).

The incorrect translation may be more dangerous in a children's book, if the child reader is not able to rectify the mistakes to the same extent as the adult reader may be. Shortened versions are so common in children's literature that translators and publishers may think it permissible to cut in a children's book without stating the fact, the result being a falsification, a hidden abridgement. The geographical setting should be rendered precisely in all translations, but it may be more important than ever in a children's book, if one of the goals of the translation is to provide knowledge of a foreign country (Klingberg, 2008a, pp. 95-96).

E. *Cultural Context Adaptation in Children's Literature*

The notion of adaptation is largely related to whether we regard translation as producing sameness or finding equivalent expressions to the expressions in the source text or rewriting (Oittinen, 2000). Although there have been developments and changes in ideas and concepts, it significant to stress that adaptation itself is not a 'bad' thing as all translations might be adapted to some extent.

In earlier stages of adult literature Shavit (1981) states that, the concept of literature as a didactic instrument for unequivocal values or for a certain ideology was prominent. Long after it stopped to exist in adult literature, this literature was still so powerful in children's literature that translators were ready to change the source text completely in order to have the revised version serve ideological purposes.

When translating for children this concentration also should not be neglected. For example the aim of translating for children must simply be to make more available literature for children and also to increase the international perspective and understanding towards young readers in which the removal of peculiarities of the foreign culture or change of cultural elements will not further the reader's knowledge of and interest in the foreign culture (Klingberg, 1986).

On the other hand, Klingberg (1986, p.10) mentions two main pedagogical goals which can cause a revision of the original:

1. The aim of giving the readers a text that they can understand;
2. The aim of contributing to the development of the reader's set of values.

Both Shavit and Klingberg take a limited view of adaptation: they consider adaptation a negative issue in itself, a sign of disrespect for children. They see a translation as the same as its original, without recognizing that all translation involves adaptation and domestication, too.

Considering adaptation in translation, Oittinen (2000) believes that as long as there has been literature, there have been adaptations. Yet very often adaptation is seen as a negative phenomenon: compared to its original, the adaptation is of little value; it is secondary, a nonoriginal. The status of an adaptation is always tied in with the status of its original—be it a “real” original (like the original of a translation) or a “real” translation.

Klingberg (1986) cites nine forms of cultural adaptation in which cultural elements form different features and perspectives are taken into account:

1. Added Explanation:

The cultural element in the source text is retained but a short explanation is added within the text.

2. Rewording:

What the source text says is expressed but without use of cultural element.

3. Explanatory Translation:

The function or use of cultural element is given instead of the foreign name for it.

4. Explanation outside the Text:

The explanation may be given in the form of a footnote, a preface or the like.

5. Substitution of Equivalence in the Culture of the TL

6. Substitution of a Rough Equivalent in the Culture of the TL

7. Simplification:

A more general concept is used instead of a specific one, for instance the genus instead of the species.

8. Deletion:

Words, sentences, paragraphs or chapters are deleted.

9. Localization:

The whole cultural setting of the source text is moved closer to the readers of the target text (pp.18).

In ten different categories Klingberg has discussed the scheme of cultural context adaptation as: literary references; foreign language in the source text; references to mythology and popular belief; historical, religious and political background; building and home furnishing, food; customs and practices, plays and games; flora and fauna; personal names, titles, names of domestic animals, names of objects; geographical names; weights and measures (Klingberg, 1986).

1. Literary References:

Literary references are mostly referenced to events or characters in literary works. Sometimes there may also be the problem of how to translate titles of books, short stories, magazines or newspapers. For book titles, a brief SL title which accurately describes the content can be left as it is. It is however advisable that the title, if translated, bear some resemblance to the original, and if the title is descriptive that should be literally kept (Newmark, 1988).

2. Foreign Language in the Source Text:

It is desirable in a translation to keep the degree of adaptation of the source text, words and passages in another language than the source language should be retained in the target text if there is reason to suppose that its readers are equally familiar or unfamiliar with the foreign language as the readers of the source text.

3. References to Mythology and Popular Belief:

In the category of mythology and popular belief, problems are encountered in the case of names, terms used for supernatural beings, concepts, events, and customs.

4. Historical, Religious and Political Background:

Target text which aim to give insight into a foreign environment should of course retain references to its historical, religious and political background. Sometimes instances will occur when the references cannot be assumed to be understood by the readers of the target texts.

5. Buildings and Home Furnishings, Food:

The general rule here must be to avoid deletion or substitution for an element of the culture of the target language. Building, home furnishings, and food are facets of foreign environment which ought to be retained, if the translation is meant to give a better understanding of this environment.

6. Customs and Practices, Play and Games:

Much the same can be said of the treatment in translations of foreign customs and practices, play and games as of the handling of building, home furnishings, and food. Deletion or replacement by what is thought to be an equivalent in the culture of the target language should be avoided. A parallel to the food and drink of foreign children is their games.

7. Flora and Fauna:

A true rendering of flora and fauna contribute to the understanding of the foreign environment. The names of plants and animals, their cultivation, hunting, etc. belong to the cultural context. The general rule must be that natural concepts should be retained, not replaced by others more common in the country of the target language.

8. Personal Names, Titles, Names of Domestic Animals, Names of Objects:

It is reasonable to demand that personal names, belonging to everyday language and without special meanings that the readers have to understand, should not be altered when foreign culture is introduced by way of a translation. This rule is taught also in translator's handbooks; the only exception is that tradition prescribes that royal names should be rendered in the forms used in the target language.

Both their first name and their last name should be transferred so that the nationality will be preserved (Newmark 1988). However, in children's literature, the general rule is usually hindered and this is usually due to cultural context adaptation. If a name is adapted then it might be changed to a form more used in the TL language.

9. Geographical Names:

If the names belong to the environment where the source language is spoken, then the general rule should be to keep the geographical names of the source language. Klingberg (2008 b) also believes that the copies of illustrations made in the countries of the translation can of course vary, artistically as well as in relation to the originals.

10. Weights and Measures:

In case of *non-metric measures*:

- Changing measures often results in poor translation
- Formally incorrect translation of measures is sometimes acceptable, since they are only approximate.
- When there are old equivalents of non-metric measures in the target language, they can often be used.
- Even when there are no equivalents of non-metric measures, their source language forms sometimes can be retained in the target text. (Klingberg, 1986, pp. 17-18)

In case of *currency*, a formal cultural context adaptation is the use of an equivalent in the culture of the target language.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Corpus

The data of the present study is mainly based on a comparative analytic type covering Iranian social and religious based culture. Different types of culture based adaptations are prepared and examined in this paper. The examples are chosen from H.C. Anderson's fairy tales and brothers Grimm's short stories. The present study covers 80 fairy tales and short stories chosen analytically from more than 300 fairytales and short stories written by H.C. Anderson and Grimm brothers translated by Bahman Rostam Abadi and Hasan Akbarian Tabary. It is aimed to prepare a classified range of examples in order to make it as clear as possible. Sixty seven parts of these short stories were related to adaptation in translation which twenty five parts of these stories were not well adapted or there were undue adaptations by translators.

B. Analytical Method

A result of society's concept of childhood, unlike adult literature, children's literature was considered an important vehicle for achieving certain goals in the education of children (Shavit, 1981). This belief meant that children's literature could not be accepted by intellectual society as having a position equal to that of adult literature; consequently, children's literature suffered from an inferior status within the literary polysystem (ibid, p.3).

The analysis is totally based on Klingberg's (1986) nine forms of cultural adaptation including: *Added Explanation, Rewording, Explanatory Translation, Explanation outside the Text, Substitution of Equivalence in the Culture of the TL, Substitution of a Rough Equivalent in the Culture of the TL, Simplification, Deletion, Localization* which are in ten different categories including: *Literary References; Foreign Language in the Source Text; References to Mythology and Popular Belief; Historical, Religious and Political Background; Building and Home Furnishing, Food; Customs And Practices, Plays and Games; Flora and Fauna; Personal Names, Titles, Names of Domestic Animals, Names of Objects; Geographical Names; Weights and Measures.*

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

The first example is from H.C. Anderson's *The Shirt Collar* translated by Bahman Rostam Abadi:

English	Persian
1. There was once a fine gentleman who possessed among other things a boot-jack and a hair-brush; but he had also the finest shirt-collar in the world.	در روزگاری شوالیه قهرمان و دلیری زندگی می کرد که تمام زندگی اش، یک باشنه کش و یک شانه بود. این شوالیه بهترین و محکمترین یقه دنیا را داشت. در قدیم، شوالیه ها و نجیب زاده ها پیراهن بی یقه می پوشیدند و بعد یقه مخصوصی روی آن می بستند.

In this part, the translator gives some extra explanations to the readers about shirt-collar and tells them what the use of a shirt-collar used to be in old times. This explanatory translation is due to the cultural differences since neither ancient nor modern Iranian people used to wear any extra collar separately.

The Phoenix Bird written by H.C. Anderson references the story of Adam and Eve in which Eve eats the fruit of a tree which is forbidden:

English	Persian
1. But when Eve plucked the fruit of the tree of knowledge of good and evil, there she and Adam were driven from Paradise; there fell from the flaming sword of the cherub a spark into the nest of the bird, which blazed up forthwith.	اما وقتی حضرت حوا، میوه ممنوع را چید و زمانی که با حضرت آدم از بهشت رانده شد، آشیانه پرنده آتش گرفت و سوخت و خود پرنده در شعله آتش هلاک شد.

In his article "How does the Qur'an compare to the Book of Genesis on the great events of history?" Catchpoole (2002) compares the name of the tree from which Eve plucks the fruit. He asserts that there is no mention of the name "Tree of the Knowledge of Good and Evil."

Due to the religious background and the difference between Bible and Quran, the translator has substituted an equivalent in the culture of the target language for Iranian children who are mostly Muslims and Quran is the main religious book in Iran.

Second example from *The Phoenix Bird*:

English	Persian
1. He sang to thee the Marseillaise.	بله، او برایت آواز می خواند.

The word Marseillaise according to the Encyclopedia of Britannica refers to French national anthem, composed in one night during the French Revolution (April 24, 1792) by Claude-Joseph Rouget de Lisle, a captain of the engineers and amateur musician. The translator in this part has deleted the word Marseillaise and has only mentioned the very general word "singing". So, the category of political background which is not fully grown in children could hinder their understanding and the translator has properly adapted this part through deletion.

The following example is from H.C. Anderson's *The Ugly Duckling*:

English	Persian
1. She is the highest born of them all, and has Spanish blood, therefore, she is well off.	اردک پیر از همه مشهورتر است. او خون اسپانیایی دارد. برای همین هم چاق و چله به نظر می رسد.

In his famous short story, *The Ugly Duckling*, H.C. Anderson talks about an old duck that is well off and respected by everyone. In this short story, the old duck has Spanish blood which is the reason for his wealth. But the translator wrongly translates "well off" as "chubby" (چاق و چله) and distorts both the meaning and the function of having Spanish blood. Meanwhile, *The Ugly Duckling* is written in 1844 and the closer history in those times suggests the wealth of Spanish people. The translator, according to this research, could add some explanations and clarify the relationship between being Spanish and being wealthy.

The other example is from *Our Lady's Child* by brothers Grimm:

English	Persian
1. Then the door sprang open, and she saw there the Trinity sitting in fire and splendor.	در مثل فنر باز شد و او سه پری زیباروی را دید که در پرتوی از نور روی تخت آتشین نشسته بودند.

The word "Trinity" according to Shorter Oxford English Dictionary (2002) in Christian Theology refers to the three persons or modes of being of the Godhead as conceived in Orthodox Christian belief; the Father, Son, and Holy Spirit as constituting one God.

The heavy philosophy behind this word is totally out of Iranian children's comprehension. The most reasonable way for this part is *simplification*. In this part, a more general concept could be used instead of a specific one. The translator has simplified and substituted it with "three beautiful fairies". It seems that simplification could be more effective if "angels" were used instead of "fairies" since the word "angel" has more heavenly meaning than "fairy".

Currency or measurement is something we always experience in our daily life and most of people even adults or educated people pause when they encounter new measuring unit or new currency. They have to convert them in order to get the exact amount or measure of something. Considering children, on the other hand, who are not proficient in measures and currencies, the translator should be more prudent not to obscure the text with unknown measure or currency and also not to deprive children of new culture and world knowledge.

The following examples are from H.C. Anderson's fairy tales and brothers Grimm's short stories.

The first example is from H.C. Anderson's *Little Tiny or Thumbelina* translated by Bahman Rostam Abadi:

English	Persian
1. "Thank you," said the woman, and she gave the fairy twelve shillings, which was the price of the barleycorn.	زن از جانوگر پیر تشکر کرد و پول زیادی به او داد.

In this text the translator has simplified the translation and a more general concept is used instead of a specific one. But Klingberg (1986) believes that among the different possibilities, one should certainly advise against the use of an

equivalent, so the translator could use the currency as it is in the SL and he could give some explanations in order not to deprive children from a universal knowledge.

Horrible scenes are rarely seen in children's literature since horror stories or movies are especially for adults and are not considered suitable for lower age children.

The examples of this type are chosen from H.C. Anderson's *The Elf of the Rose* translated by Bahman Rostam Abadi:

English	Persian
1. The wicked man stabbed him to death; then he cut off his head, and buried it with the body in the soft earth under the linden-tree.	مرد شرور خنجر تیزی بیرون کشید و در حالیکه عاشق جوان گل را می بوسید، آنرا در قلبش فرو برد و او را کشت. بعد سر از تنش جدا کرد و سر و بدن جوان را زیر درختی دفن کرد.

Violence and rough scenes are not suitable for children and should not be translated. Macleod (1994) believes that murderers are not acceptable in children's literature, but thieves are. In this part of the story killing and cutting the young boy's head off is a very harsh scene that its mentioning can cause terrifying imaginations for children. So, this part should be purified and adapted to children's spiritual matters.

Violence and suicide like other improper parts in children's literature is forbidden. The following examples are chosen from brothers Grimm's *The Poor Boy in the Grave* translated by Hasan Akbarian Tabary:

English	Persian
1. He fell in a rage, and gave the boy such a beating that he could not stir for two days.	سرپای وجود ارباب لبریز از خشم شد و چنان پسرک را زیر مشت و لگد گرفت که تا مدتی یک گوشه افتاده بود و حرکتی نمی کرد.
2. He got angry and beat the boy so unmercifully that he was forced to lie in bed for several days.	ارباب از شدت عصبانیت چنان بیرحمانه پسرک را زد که او چندین روز در بستر افتاده بود.

In this part, the boy is heavily beaten several times by the farmer so that he is not able to move. The violence is so harsh that the boy decides to suicide. But the translator does not delete or modify this part to make it suitable or even a little tolerable for children.

Somewhere in the story, as I mentioned earlier, the boy decides to commit suicide several times:

English	Persian
The boy crept under the bed, brought out the pot, and ate all that was in it. "I do not know," said he, "folks say death is bitter, but it tastes very sweet to me. It is no wonder that the farmer's wife has so often longed for death." He seated himself in a little chair, and was prepared to die.	پسرک محتوای شیشه را خورد و با خود گفت: "همیشه از مردم شنیده بودم که مرگ تلخ است ولی به نظر من که زیادی شیرین است! شاید زن کشاورز به خاطر همین شیرینی آرزوی مرگ می کرد!" با این فکر، روی یک چارپایه نشست تا مرگ به سراغش بیاید.

According to Macleod (1994), suicide should be avoided in children's literature. In this part, the boy is really fed up with the miserable life he has. So, he decides to drink poison to suicide. The translated version, on the other hand, does not delete (adapt) it for children and translates the text as it is.

English	Persian
1. "But the farmer once said there was a small bottle of poison for flies in the box in which he keeps his clothes; that, no doubt, will be the true poison, and bring death to me."	پسرک با خودش گفت: "راستی کشاورز گفته بود در کمد لباسش یک شیشه سم مگس دارد، حتما آن سم مرا خواهد کشت."

Here, again the boy tries to kill himself with a bottle of poison.

English	Persian
2. It was, however, no poison for flies, but Hungarian wine. The boy got out the bottle, and emptied it.	ولی در آن شیشه هم یک نوع شربت خواب آور بود. پسرک رفت و آن شیشه را هم سرکشید.

In this part the translator substitutes "Hungarian wine" with "sleeping syrup" (شربت خواب آور) and tries to hide the word "wine" through adaptation. But the very bad effect of this adaptation is that the Persian version is introducing a very simple way for suicide. Hence, the child might wrongly learn that sleeping syrup or pills can kill someone.

V. CONCLUSION

To this end, the overall perspective of the study suggests to avoid using adaptation unless there is a great need or necessity to use it. Adaptation, as discussed in previous parts, cannot fulfill the ideal expectations of a traditional form of translation. The meaning sometimes is totally different from that of the original text and the context is changed in some parts. That is the main reason that Klingberg alerts the translators of this strategy in translation.

As seen in most of the examples illustrated in the previous part, children's literature is totally different from that of the adults, and adaptation can sometimes be used as a really useful tool to help the translators and also to avoid different problem related to children's cultural knowledge from a different country, morality, religious backgrounds, dominant policy in a country, their psychological sensibility, etc.

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Application of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning of Chinese Learners

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Abstract—As a relatively new discipline which raised in the 20th century Cognitive linguistics has gradually become the mainstream in the development of recent decades. In cognitive linguistics some major theories related with language teaching and learning are construal, categorization, encyclopedic knowledge, symbol, metaphor, and metonymy. In this paper being based on the theory of radial categories the author turns attention to second language learning to explore implications of performance of vocabulary, morphemes, grammar rules, phonology, and intonation in radial categories in the second language learning.

Index Terms—cognitive linguistics, radial categories, second language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Categorization is an important field in cognitive linguistics. Making academic research is a relatively new view from the perspective of categorization. In this paper being based on the theory of radial categories and regarding the second language learners as the research object the author explores the radial categories applied in the second language learning. The necessity of applying radial categories in the second language learning is introduced firstly, then the mechanism of radial categories is introduced. Third some factors in the process of radial categories and the performing of the radial category in vocabulary, morpheme, grammar rules, phonology, and intonation are illustrated, and in this part the author uses the example and inductive method mainly discussed implications of applying these aspects in radial categories to the second language learners. are learners with a second language of the most important information. Compared with traditional teaching methods that this new teaching method of radial categories has a better effect for promoting the learning of the second language learner is suggested. In the future this new teaching method can be tried.

II. THE NECESSITY OF APPLYING RADIAL CATEGORIES TO THE SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

As an important domain in cognitive linguistics categorization has gradually attracted the attention of many researches in recent decades. Some researchers turn attention to this field. In china some researchers did some research to this field. Such as *Effect of reference categorization on use of English preposition "in" of Chinese learners* of Xu Qin li, Liu Zhengqian, and Cai Jinting.(2014). In *A New Horizon of Legal Terminology Studies—the Categorizational Approaches* of Zhang Jianrong(2009) the author explores the formation and development of legal terminology from the perspective of prototype categorization and hierarchy. In *The Effect of Phonological Categorization Perception of Mandarin on English Learning* of Li min, and Liu Guizhi(1997) authors discuss that due to the differences of phonological categorization between English and mother tongue it leads to effect of a fixed mother tongue's phoneme system on English speaking. In *A Contrastive Study on the Different Effects of Decategorization on British English and American English* of Zheng Danyang(2011) on the basis of functions and features of decategorization the author takes "given" a example to elaborate the performing of decategorization in semantics and syntactics. In *Generative Grammar Perspective of Imperative Categorization Marks* of Ma Hongcheng, and Xong wen(2009) the author instructs Imperative Categorization labeled with different characteristic and distribution signature only appears in three sensitive positions of a sentence. In *Effect of Prototype Theory on English Polysemy Acquisition* of Li ning, Qi xue, and Wu Chun hong(2009) the author carries out a detailed explanation of the prototype theory, approve empirically that applying it in university vocabulary teaching is very beneficial for polysemy teaching and is good for students' vocabulary learning. In *Implications of Prototype Theory to English Polysemy Teaching* of Sun Nailing, and Yu Xiaoqing(2009) the author shows that if applying prototype theory to English learning, students can be able to infer meaning of the word in context by grasping a central meaning through the techniques of metaphor and metonymy, and it will be a good way to learn polysemies. Summarizing the above studies we found that these researchers explore the preposition, legal terminology, phonological categorization perception of mandarin, decategorization, Imperative categorization marks, scope of from different angles , to the categorization, imperative marker, polysemy and other aspects related to the scope of the study. Some of these studies also discussed the scope of the implication of the theory applied to language learning, but only on category theory is applied to unilateral conduct research, not applied to more comprehensive and detailed category theory to explore more aspects of teaching and learning to make. In abroad, there are many shortcomings about the study of the application of radial categories in the second language teaching and learning. In chapter three of book "*Applying Cognitive Linguistics to Second Language Learning and Teaching*" of J. Littlemore (2011). Therefore, on the

basis of J. Littlemore's study of radial categories the author illustrates the important implications of applying radial categories in vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation, and intonation so as to explore ways to promote better second language learning. It is very necessary.

III. THEORY REVIEW OF RADIAL CATEGORIES

Radial category is an important concept of cognitive linguistics. According to J. Littlemore categorization is the first thing to do when we see things firstly, that is categorization. Only in this way we can make the world that we live in meaningful. (J. Littlemore, 2011) when we are children, we unconsciously categorize things when facing with things. We would think that things in front of us can be eaten, drunk, or played, and then categorizing things according to our own judgment so as to take advantage of the value of things. When we are adults, we still can not avoid categorizing the things. When faced with unfamiliar things we will want to categorize things. Only in this way can we understand things, and understand the world. Radial category is a concept of categorization. In cognitive linguistics the meaning of each word is considered to form radial categories. The most fundamental meaning is in the center of the radial category, but figurative meaning toward the edge of areas of radial categories (Taylor, 2002). In one such mechanism of radial categories the basic meaning is highly similar, but the marginalized meaning is different. Native speakers are more inclined to use the meaning of edge in radial categories. But non-native speakers generally avoid using the sense of edge in radial categories, and they are more accustomed to using the basic meaning. Perhaps because non-native speakers are lack of confidence in using the meaning of edge in radial categories. Perhaps because there is lack of environment that they are in contact with native speakers and communicate with them. For speakers who are accustomed to communicating with people in native language they have more opportunities to use the meaning of edge in radial categories. So their knowledge about the meaning of edge in radial categories is very adequate. While non-native speakers about knowledge in this area is relatively scarce. The basic meaning in center of radial categories is easier to grasp, while the meaning of edge in radial categories is growing and changing over time. So making knowledge of radial categories perfect is our mission in lifetime, and we need to continue to learn and accumulate.

IV. APPLICATION OF RADIAL CATEGORIES TO THE SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Application of radial categories in the second language learning has an important implication for second language learners. When applying radial categories in vocabulary, because of different focus of construal of events and phenomena in different languages we have to pay attention to that the performance of radial categories in the vocabulary of these different languages is also different. And when the meaning of the word at the edge of radial categories occurs in the sentence, it is often accompanied by a fixed phrase. When radial categories are applied in morpheme we should pay attention to that some meanings at the edge of radial categories sometimes are very abstract, so we need to trace them. While understanding the figurative meaning at the edge of radial categories we need to use our encyclopedic knowledge to understand it. Above all we should know that not all words and morphemes can be embodied in radial categories, and there are some exceptions. When radial categories are applied in grammar we should pay attention to that some words experience the process of grammaticalization over time, and this leads to a big change in their meaning. The change of the words' position in radial categories is caused by the change in meaning of words. That is, the position is shifted from the center toward the edge. The use of some words in the sentence is incompatible with certain rules of grammar, but if they are used in a particular context or they can be the use of a word collocation, they can be used. The use of this word belongs to the process of the mode narrowing. The pattern of these uses of the mode narrowing is on the brink of radial categories. Conventional usage is at the center of radial categories. When applying radial categories in the area of phonology, we have to pay attention to that because of the influence of the entrenchment of the phonology of the first language, we do not notice some phonemes in the second language. So sometimes we could not hear the content of the phonology teacher clearly in the second language learning. It requires us to become familiar with the phonological systems in the first language and the second language and to understand methods of distinguishing the sound between native speakers and second language learners. Thereby facilitating our ability to pay attention to second language learning. When applying radial categories in aspect of the tone we need to understand the distribution of the significance of the tone in radial categories, we also need to understand that different tones represent different meaning and express different emotion. We understand that different meaning and emotion that these tones represent, and it is full of implications to achieve language communicative function and improve language skills for us.

A. *Application of Words in the Form of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning*

We pay more attention to the meaning of words rather than the form of words in cognitive Linguistics. Radial categories are mainly manifested in the meaning of words in terms of words. The basic meaning of the word is in the center of radial categories, but the more abstract and figurative meanings are radiated out from the center of radial categories. These abstract meanings are in the edge of radial categories, and these meanings are often realized through the technique of metaphor or metonymy. Different meanings of a word can be used to test the vocabulary depth of a word, which is an important aspect of language learning. Taking the word "hand" as an example, hand refers to the part

of the body. Because of different contexts there will be different meaning of the word “hand”. In addition the word “hand” refers to the part of the body, sometimes it refers to a portion of certain objects through the technique of metaphor and metonymy. For example, we can also speak “hands of a clock” or “hands of a compass”. The same the word “hand” also can be used in such fixed phrases as “hand sb a pen” or “give sb a hand” by the technique of metonymy, and the meaning of the word “hand” is not same. Although the meaning in the edge of radial categories changes, they are around the basic meaning of the word. We link these abstract meaning with basic meaning, and we will find some similarities. But each abstract meaning sometimes makes a big difference. If there is no the prototype of the basic meaning, it is difficult for us to divide these meaning into one ethnic group. The way of the construal of different language to phenomenon and events is different, so radial categories of the meaning of the same words in different languages are also different. Taking “thread” as an example, in English corpus manner-of-movement verb “to tread” is often used as a transitive verb and it can be used to describe a football player “threading” a pass between several opponents. It can be used to describe the road “threading their way through a forest”. It can also be used to describe a very abstract sense in literature such as “threading the nostalgia with reflections on friendship and cruelty, innocence, memory”. While in Spanish “hilar”, that is the word “to thread” and it has such usage such as “to thread very finely”, which means that “to do things carefully”. In Spanish the word hilar (“to thread”) is often used to refer to connections between events or actions which occurs one after another. This usage is rare in English. In the study of Littlemore and MacArthur (2007), J. Littlemore found that a fixed usage is often included in the abstract meaning at the edge of radial categories. When we describe an immobile object such as “road”, we can describe it as a moving object. It often can increase the sense of beauty of the article and increase the atmosphere of the sentence. Especially in literature works techniques of describing the immobile object as a moving object are used to attract the readers’ interest in reading. We also can extend the sentence “the river threaded its way through the hills” to more abstract aspect such as “slavery threaded its way as an issue, a concern, and eventually a threatening problem through the fabric of American democracy”. The above two usages are included in this fixed phrase “thread its way”. In terms of the other two abstract usages one is used with the word “together”, the other is used with the passive voice; such as “He manages to thread his ideas together”; “Threading two words together”. “The novel is threaded with the effects of slavery”; “Threaded into the book is the sense that ...”. The above usage is the usage of meaning in the edge of radial categories, and the meaning is linked with the fixed usage. It has important implications for language teaching and learning.

B. Application of Morphemes in the Form of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning

Morpheme is the smallest meaningful unit of language (Liu Runqing, 2006). Now that it makes sense, so the meaning of the morpheme can be expressed in radial categories. Taking the Japanese morpheme “hon” as an example, the basic meaning of the morpheme “hon” refers to long and thin object. Lakoff (2007) lists some objects with the meaning of long and thin and these objects are demonstrated in sketch map of radial categories. From the chart we can clearly see that the pencil is in the center of radial categories, because the pencil is the most typical thing representing long and thin things. While some other things can only be attributed to a class of long and thin things through the technique of metaphor or metonymy. Considering these things as long and thin things we must not only think of other things linked with these things closely so as to find out the law of the existence of meaning from the contact but also we even need to trace the historical origin of some meaning. It is due to the figurative meaning in the edge of radial categories is more abstract than the basic meaning in the center of radial categories. Because the meaning in the edge of radial categories is sometimes very free and complex, and even we lack encyclopedic knowledge. So sometimes it is difficult to grasp these meaning for us. But this is only for second language learners. Native speakers often use the meaning in the edge of radial categories in their daily communication and language use, so they have already been accustomed to using the meaning in the edge of radial categories. Even if the second language learners of senior levels will also avoid using the meaning in the edge of radial categories. Even these advanced second language learners live in the same environment with native speakers and they can hear the native speakers’ use of meaning in the edge of radial categories every day, and they also avoid using it. This may be an example of learning attention. Even the second language speakers are often exposed to environment of native language, but they do not pay attention to the use of meaning in the edge of radial categories. That is, when these meaning is inputted to them they do not pay their attention. Here it should be mentioned that Taylor (2008) questions the view that the meaning of all words can be expressed as radial categories. Taking the word “long” as an example, the basic meaning of the word “long” is long, but the word “long” can not only mean that space is “long” but also mean that time is “long”. Therefore, which meaning of the word “long” should be in the center of radial categories, and it should be performed in one radial category or in two radial categories. These are questions. For the second language learners it is a big challenge, but such words after all is a special case. After all many words still can be able to be performed as radial categories. On the whole the second language learners grasp words in radial categories well, it is necessary to learn different knowledge in the first language and the second language and accumulate encyclopedic knowledge. At the same time it is necessary for us to improve our language skills in using the technique of metaphor and metonymy. In the second language learning we need to cultivate our ability of learning attention and pay more attention to the language use of native speakers so as to find disadvantages in the communication environment and improve the ability to use language continuously. Further it is necessary for us to think the exception behind the conventional language use, and we can focus on the main and large aspects of language. As a second language learner on the one hand we need to look at exceptions in language objectively and know the existence

of exceptions, on the other hand our own learning and use of language should not be impeded because of the existence of exceptions.

C. *Application of Grammar Rules in the Form of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning*

Cognitive linguists believe that the concept of radial categories also operates at the level of “grammar”. On the one hand it can be expressed in the vocabulary grammar, on the other hand it can be expressed in the syntax. Some content-words originally had a specific, and fixed meaning. But as time goes on these words have experienced the process of grammaticalization, and they become a function word. That is, the original meaning of these words becomes a grammatical meaning. Grammatical meaning is different from the original meaning (See Hopper and Traugott, 2003). For example, in English the original meaning of “going to” refers to movement and travel (Heine et al., 1991). However, as time goes on, the original meaning of “going to” becomes more grammatical meaning. “going to” is used to refer to the future action, and it is used in the sentence to show future tense. The meaning of content-words is in the center of radial categories, while grammatical meaning is in the edge of radial categories. The next let’s look at the following four examples (1) Jack pushed the vase off the table (2) Sue squeezed her head through the neck of the jumper (3) She ordered Jack out of the meeting (4) Jamie sneezed the napkin off the table. The word “sneeze” is not used as a transitive verb, but in the above example (4) it is used as a transitive verb. The using of the word “sneeze” in above example (1) is in the center of radial categories, while the using of the word “sneeze” in example (2) (3) (4) is in the edge of radial categories. Let’s look at another example of applying radial categories in grammatical rules. There are following examples written by Lakoff’s (Lakoff, 1970). The transitive verb is considered to have three characteristics: First it can be nominalized, such as the word “teach” can become the word “teacher”, the word “drive” can become the word “driver”, and the word “write” can become the word “writer”. Second the transitive verb can be added suffix, for example, readable, countable, manageable and so on. Third most of transitive verbs can be passivalization such as following sentences “her great uncle was eaten by cannibals”, “nothing has been delivered yet”, and “the proposal was attacked by the unions”(Bank of English Examples). In English the meaning of the transitive verb with above three characteristics is at the center of the radial categories, because its meaning is seen as basic, and concrete meaning. Not all transitive verbs possess above three characteristics, but some transitive words without above three characteristics are used in some sentences. As in following examples (5) “John was the knower of that fact”. (Lakoff, 1970, P.20) (6) “The lighthouse is spottable”. (Lakoff, 1970, P.32) (6) “Two pounds are owed by John”. (Lakoff, 1970, P.19). In English the use of three transitive verbs “know” “spot” “owe” in above three sentences. Generally people do not use like this, but transitive verbs like this are used in the corpus. If transitive verbs are used in the corpus, they have restricted meaning. These usages are generally used in particular contexts or areas and connected with certain things. Or the transitive verb that is incompatible with grammatical rules is used in a sentence together with a fixed word so as to form the fixed usage. For example, if a transitive verb “know” is used as the form “knower” in a sentence, in most cases it is usually associated with religion or philosophy, and sometimes it is linked with the business world, education, as well as descriptive grammar. This is the so-called pattern of narrowing. This term is proposed by the relevant theorists (Wilson and Sperber, 2004). So the meaning of pattern of narrowing is different from the basic meaning. The meaning influenced by pattern of narrowing is on the edge of radial categories. If applying the method of radial categories in teaching grammar, I predict that this approach will be more effective than the traditional grammar-teaching approach. The teacher will set out grammatical rules and speak them in traditional grammar-teaching approach. If the teacher encounters that some usage of grammar is incompatible with conventional grammar usage, he/she will put this usage as an exception to emphasize so as to attract the attention of students. If the grammar is spoken in accordance with the approach of radial categories, on the one hand students will be able to improve the creativity and association ability under the leadership of our teachers. On the other hand, under this method students can put the grammar system to form a whole, and learn links between them from each other. If possible, we can also draw a schema of radial categories to enable students to feel the sense of extending fundamental meaning from the center of radial categories to the edge of radial categories, thereby enhancing their impression on grammar knowledge. Compared with the traditional grammar-teaching method, this method is significantly more interesting. It will give students a fun when they learn boring grammar knowledge. Of course, this is only a prediction to the teaching method, and its effectiveness also needs empirical research to prove.

D. *Application of Phonology in the Form of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning*

The principle of radial categories also operates at the level of phonology. A phoneme is particularly prominent in a given language, and the similar phoneme may be understood as a peer as the prototype of phoneme. The extent to distinguish phonology categorization for people who speak different languages is different. Due to structural organization of phonology categorization the distinction between certain sounds in some languages is obvious, while the distinction in other languages is not. Teachers sometimes complain that their students do not seem to understand what they speak. To a large extent, the difficulties experienced by adult learners are not sensory but attentional (Werker and Tees, 1984). Because the second language learners are often unfamiliar with phonological system of the second language when learning the second language, they don’t have a clear psychological basis for phoneme. They pay more attention to special features of phonemes when learning, while ignoring some of the other features of phonemes. It also requires us to pay attention to those easily overlooked characteristics of phonemes while learning the second language.

When we learn the second language, construal of things and phenomena between mother tongue and second language are very different. We have formed a mind-set of the mother tongue in our minds, and the more firmly this mindset, the more profound influence to second language learning. There is a mother tongue migration. The same the phonological system in mother tongue will have an impact on the phonological system in the second language learners. Migration is not the only factor influencing the phonological system acquisition in the second language. There are other factors affecting the acquisition of phonological system in the second language such as the amount of exposure in the second language, one's ability of concept learning, one's attitude to the second phonological learning. (Rost, 2002). The study found that if some sounds in the first language are similar to some sounds in the second language, it is very difficult for second language learners to learn these sounds. This is consistent with the speech learning model proposed by Flege, and in this speech learning model the more similar the sound in the second language and the sound in the first language, the harder to learn sound. In our early English learning two sounds impressed us, which often appear in our sound learning. We are often told by teachers that {i} is a long sound, and {I} is a short sound, so when we pronounce these two sounds, we need to pull the sound {i} more longer than the sound {I}, short point to another. These two sound will be distinguished by the length of the sound. As second language learners we distinguish sound like this, and the method of distinguishing sound is simple and convenient. We follow our own method to distinguish two similar tones. But native speakers of second language distinguish sounds different with us. Native speakers distinguish sound according to different sound nature, and they pay more attention to aspect of sound duration. This is a good strategy used by second language learners when learning phonemes. From above all points, it is necessary for us to have a clear understanding to the system of the second language phonology when we learn phonology in radial categories. It is important for us to distinguish similar sound between the first language and the second language and try not to be influenced by entrenchment of phonemes in the first language. We need to cultivate our ability of learning attention so as to note some special phonemic features in the second language clearly. Categorization of a kind of phonemes once be fixed, and it is not easy to speak another language purely. For Chinese-speaking English learners, if their master of the Chinese phonemic system is not very good, their Mandarin sometimes is not very standard, which will also affect the standard of pronunciation of the second language. However, learning more knowledge of phonemes, and being familiar with the phonemic system of the native and foreign language is beneficial to learn foreign language. It is even more important especially for people shouldering the task of education and being engaged in foreign language teaching. At the same time we need to have a good attitude toward second language phoneme learning. Only in this way can we learn phonemic knowledge well so as to lay a solid foundation for our English oral learning.

E. Application of Tones in the Form of Radial Categories to the Second Language Learning

Radial categories can operate not only on the level of words, morphemes, grammars, and phonemes but also on the level of tones. Different tones represent different meanings, and these meanings are associated with tones. For example, Cruttenden (1981, quoted in Taylor, 2003) looks at different meanings linked with the rising tone and the falling tone, and finds that the rising tone and the falling tone respectively represent a range of different meanings, but there is a clear correlation among these meanings. The falling tone generally indicates the meaning of the statement, the end, and the assurance, while rising tone indicates the meaning of the questioning, the beginning, and the conciliatoriness. In radial categories the meaning of "the end" represented by the falling tone is a basic meaning, which is in the center of radial categories. Other meanings represented by the falling tone are on the edge of radial categories. The same the meaning of "the questioning" represented by the rising tone is the basic meaning, which is in the center of radial categories. Other meanings represented by the rising tone are on the edge of radial categories. We understand manifestations of the tone in radial categories not to make a clear division of association of meanings represented by tones but to pay attention to implications of these different but related meanings in one radial category. At the beginning of teaching tones teachers demonstrate the tone system of the first language and the second language in the form of radial categories to the learner clearly so that students learn tones from two tone systems with contrasting method. Learners can notice different meanings of different tones in the mother tongue and the second language, which will has a great benefit for students' learning of tones in the second language.

V. CONCLUSION

In this thesis exemplifying and inductive approaches are used to explore implications of words, morphemes, grammatical rules, phonemes, and tones in radial categories to the second language learning. From this we can understand that language is constantly changing, so knowledge of radial categories needs us to continue to accumulate in a lifetime. The radial category is a key concept in cognitive linguistics, and it is very beneficial for our second language learning. It not only enables students to take the initiative but also enables them to stimulate interest of language learners more. Compared with the previous traditional language teaching method application of radial categories in language learning is a good method for language learners, so the research to it is also necessary for us. Although many researchers apply the concept of radial categories to the aspect of language teaching and learning to discuss, the discussion to it is not very comprehensive and detailed. Therefore, a comprehensive analysis of application of radial categories in the second language in this thesis more or less makes up for previous deficiencies. In future it needs us to turn our attention to language classrooms and textbooks and conduct empirical research to the effectiveness

of applying radial categories to second language learning and efficiency of memorizing this knowledge in later period. It is also an aspect very worthy of study for second language teaching and learning.

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The Study of Politeness and Face in 2013 Presidential Election Candidates of Iran

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Abstract—The present paper investigates pragmatic competence by considering some corpora of 2013 Iran presidential debates. The Fararu news source was used for sampling third debate. The present study examined two aspects of pragmatic competence for analyzing the materials. First, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory was used to examine the positive and/or negative politeness of each candidate's speech. Then, the study used the Pearson chi-square formula to examine the frequency of politeness strategies used by candidates. Second, Arundale's (2010) face theory was used to analyze criticism responses exchanges between the candidates. The researchers assumed that, following the theories, pragmatic competence might have a great effect on election's outcomes and mitigate the threat to candidates' face. The findings showed a statistically significant difference between the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iran's 2013 presidential candidates. Moreover, there was one by one relation between the mitigating of face threatening acts and face constituting strategies used by candidates. We hope the findings could add to the body of knowledge in both pragmatics and presidential election context.

Index Terms—pragmatic competence, politeness, face, the presidential election of Iran

I. INTRODUCTION

An outstanding source of inspiration in the study of politeness phenomena is the work done by Goffman (1955) and developed by Brown and Levinson (1987). Politeness is fairly vague term, covering a variety of different concepts and has different definitions. The Council of Europe (2001) refers to a person's pragmatic competence and knowledge of politeness norms as two different competencies. The first, it is the functional use of language. The second, it is knowledge of politeness norms. According to Koike (1992), politeness is a social behaviour that creates the interconnection among sociocultural norms, linguistic forms, and functions. Also, Watts (2003) proposed his view of politeness and politic behavior. He argues:

It would be one which forms of human interaction could be interpreted and described as instances of politeness and in which forms of linguistic usage in any language community could be observed and analysed as helping to construct and reproduce politeness (p. 49)

Moreover, Watts (2003) organizes a current politeness framework based on what he categorizes as first-order and second-order politeness. According to Vitale (2009):

First-order politeness, or *politic behavior*, can be defined as the linguistic and non-linguistic behavior that participants choose to display based on what is considered appropriate to that particular communication process. Second-order politeness is described as the behavior that goes beyond what is deemed appropriate to the communication process in order to achieve a specific communicative goal. This classification system, then, underscores that linguistic structures themselves cannot be considered inherently (im) polite because politeness is dependent upon the interpretation of the structures by the speech community. (p. 30)

As Lakoff (1973) states, politeness could be defined by following two principles of interactional competence: (1) Be clear and (2) Be polite. Consequently, Fraser (1990) introduces four main views towards analyzing the clarity and politeness of interactional competence: 1- the social norm view, 2- the conversational maxim view, 3- the face-saving view, and 4- the conversational contract view. Also, Yule (1996) categorizes four concepts that emphasizing on pragmatics as the study of language in use. According to him, the first concept is *speaker meaning* that means how speakers communicate their purposes and how these means are interpreted by the hearers, the second one is *contextual meaning* that means how context influences what is said as well as where, how and when an utterance is produced, the third concept is *inferences* that means how more is being communicated than what is said, and the last concept is *the expression of relative distance* that means how closeness, physical or social, affects a speaker's judgment of how explain an utterance needs to be. Also, he notices to the knowledge of language's politeness norms as part of a person's pragmatic competence. According to him, for the demonstration of politeness, a speaker needs to recognize the contextual demands of a situation, and recognize the relative distance between him/herself and the hearer. Moreover,

Brown and Levinson (1987) classify the politeness strategies to five categories such as: positive politeness, negative politeness, bald on record, off record (indirectness), and not doing face-threatening acts (FTAs) (Figure 1).

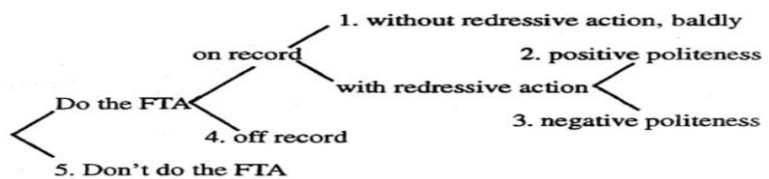


Figure 1 Circumstances determining choice of strategy (Brown & Levinson. 1987, p.60).

The Brown and Levinson’ (1987) strategies established based on Goffman’s (1955) concept of face. According to them, the first type of politeness, negative politeness, refers to making an uninterfering request with respect to the other person’s right to act freely. They argue that, the second type of politeness, positive politeness, follows a relationship between both parties, respective of a person’s need to be understood. In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987) categorize three interdependent variables that these variables indicate the degree of seriousness of a face-threatening act and surround all other variables that play a role in the communicative process. According to them, firstly, social distance shows the degree of familiarity and solidarity that both the hearer and speaker share. Secondly, relative power demonstrates the degree of imposition that the speaker may influence on the hearer due to the power differential between the two parties. Thirdly, absolute ranking indicates to the weightiness of impositions relative to a determined culture’s expectations and ceremonies. They note that these include “the expenditure of goods and/or services by the hearer, the right of the speaker to perform the act, and the degree to which the hearer welcomes the imposition” (p. 74). Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory was used as a framework to analyze the positive or negative politeness of each candidate in this study (Table 1).

TABLE 1
REALIZATIONS OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES IN LANGUAGE. (BROWN & LEVINSON, 1987, P.102).

Positive politeness strategies	Negative politeness strategies	Off-record strategies
1. Notice/attend to hearer	1.Be conventionally indirect	1.G ive hints/clues
2. Exaggerate	2.Question hedge	2.Give association clues
3. Intensify interest	3. Be pessimistic	3. Presuppose
4. Use in-group markers	4. Minimize imposition	4. Understate
5. Seek agreement	5. Give deference	5. Overstate
6. Avoid disagreement	6. Apologize	6. Use tautologies
7. Presuppose/raise/assert common ground	7. Impersonalize	7. Use contradiction
8. Joke	8. State the Imposition as a general rule	8. Be ironic
9. Assert/presuppose knowledge of/concern for hearer’s wants	9. Nominalize	9. Use metaphors
10. Offer/promise	10. Go on record as incurring a debt)	10. Use rhetorical question
11. Be optimistic		11. Be ambiguous
12. Include both speaker and hearer		12. Be vague
13. Give (or ask for) reasons		13. Over-generalize
14. Assume/assert reciprocity		14. Displace hearer
15. Give gifts (goods/sympathy/ understanding/cooperation)		15.be incomplete, use ellipsis

However, this study analyzes the notion of the face in association with Arundale’s (2010) face constituting theory (FCT). According to Arundale (2010, as cited in Don & Izadi, 2013), face is “in terms of the relationship two or more persons create with one another in interaction” which according to him, it is distinct “from the understandings of face in terms of person-centred attributes like social identity, public self-image, or social wants that characterize existing theories” (p.222). Moreover, according to Arundale (2015):

Face Constituting Theory explains how human beings create relationships as they use language in social interaction. Relationships with others are fundamental to human existence, and people create them as they create what is known as *the face* [emphasis added]. Face Constituting Theory defines face as one’s understanding of one’s connection with and separation from other people and it is constituted in everyday interaction as people work conjointly to constitute turns at talk, actions, and meanings. Connecting with and separating from others are the dialectical push and pull that lie at the core of relating to others, hence constituting face in using language lies at the heart of constituting human relationships. (p.1)

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The following research questions were formulated to analyze present study.

Q1. What are the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iran’s 2013 presidential candidates?

Q2. How do some candidates' responses in the candidates concluding talks threaten their face in Iran's 2013 presidential debate?

In addition, this study follows these research hypotheses:

H1. There is not any significant difference between the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iran's 2013 presidential candidates.

H2. There are some candidates' responses in the candidates concluding talks that threaten their face in Iran's 2013 presidential debate.

B. Participants

The present study investigated eight candidates' speeches of Iran's 2013 presidential election third debate to understand their politeness and face. The age range of candidates differed from 49 to 73 years old. As this study is in continuation of Soleimani and Nouraei Yeganeh (2016), all the candidates are in same characteristics of that study. According to them, the candidates belonged to different political parties some of them Development and Justice Party, some other Moderation and Development Party, or Islamic Coalition Party and Conservative Majority Alliance. In addition, in some cases, some of them were independent candidates. Their occupations were different that referred to different key positions. One of them was mayor of Tehran; the other was minister of petroleum, or they had other occupation like secretary of the supreme national Security Council, secretary of the expediency discernment council, member of the Assembly of Experts, and minister of foreign affairs. All the candidates were native speakers of Persian and the researchers translated their speeches to English.

C. Materials and Instruments

The present study considered the third debate of Iran's 2013 presidential election as the most controversial one that had special impact on Irannians' decision making in eleventh period of Iran's presidential election. This debate was held by the presentation of all eight candidates during 90 minutes on 17 Khordad 1392 (7 June 2013). All third debate's speeches broadcasted from channel one of Iran's TV at 4 PM. These data are available online at <http://fararu.com> audibly and visually (Fraru, 2013). In addition, each one of the candidates had 10 minutes to speak during this debate. They had to answer to the foreign and domestic policies' questions. According to third debate, the candidates spoke one by one and responded not only to the determined questions, but also to the other candidates' questions. Also, each candidate had to speak in two minutes. The used sentences range by each candidate was from 10 to 20 sentences in each speech. Finally, the present study analyzed eight candidates' politeness and face by considering at least 70 sentences of speeches with the most participation of candidates. (The third debate speeches, see Appendix)

D. Procedures

At the first step of this study, to examine the first research hypothesis, Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory was used as a framework to analyze the positive or negative politeness of each candidate in this study. So, the sentences of each candidate's speech were separated to analyze their types of positive, negative, and off-record politeness strategies. Also, Pearson chi-square SPSS formula was used to analyze the frequencies of types of politeness strategies used by presidential candidates. At the second stage, to consider the second research hypothesis, this study analyzed the notion of the face in association with Arundale's (2010) FCT.

E. Data Analysis

The present study used qualitative descriptive and quantitative statistics to answer the the research questions. It collected the data from the third debate of Iran's 2013 presidential election. To analyze the first research hypothesis, politeness of each candidate, the study used the classification of speeches. It classified the candidates' speeches according to politeness strategies of Brown and Levinson's (1987). Then, it used the Pearson chi-square formula to analyze the frequency of each candidate's politeness strategies. Finally it analyzed the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iran's 2013 presidential candidates. Next, to explore the second research hypothesis, the study used Arundale's (2010) FCT to analyze candidates' face during the interactions. Moreover, in this part, there is a descriptive analysis of candidates' speeches to extract their face constituting acts (FCAs).

III. RESULTS

In order to accept or reject the first research hypothesis, Table 2 displays the analytical description of politeness strategies used by Iranian candidates. It explains politeness of each presidential candidate according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) strategies. In this model, there are two main classifications of politeness strategy, on-record and off-record, which in a subdivision of on-record strategy, as Table 2 shows, there are positive politeness (PP) and negative politeness (NP).

TABLE 2
A DETAILED ANALYSIS OF USED POLITENESS STRATEGIES BY CANDIDATES

Candidate	Responses	Strategies
A	<p>The party-based management is not responding anymore. Our administration should be looking for people's right. A comprehensive administration must be formed.</p> <p>We should achieve a successful economic diplomacy. My administration will end in political strife...</p> <p>The persons should be capable and efficient and accept the leader.... I believe that we should... I prevent elapsing time.</p>	<p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → use in group markers→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → Offer/ promise → PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Notice/ attend to hearers→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → use in group markers→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → Offer/ promise → PP</p>
B	<p>Our diplomacy organization should not work.... Our diplomacy system did not succeed in achieving our foreign policy goals. We need a change in our management approaches.</p> <p>Candidate B introduced five axes as foreign policy: 1.... 2.... 3.... 4. ... 5.....</p>	<p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Be pessimistic→ NP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → use in group markers→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → Offer/ promise → PP</p>
C	<p>The economic problem is important in policy of country. The economic problem is associated with sanctions. With better management, we could and can decrease its effects. A solution of sanction issue has priority in our foreign policy, but how? Somebody says that...</p> <p>The problem with Americans is the primary problem of the revolution because...</p> <p>America tried to ignore China for 40 years...</p> <p>We do not have a discussion with the ideals and goals. You said this problem cannot be solved with management. Ironically, I believe that our diplomacy area does not let us to take advantage with low cost in foreign policy...</p>	<p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons, Be Optimistic → PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → Offer/ promise → PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons, Be Optimistic → PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → use in group markers→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → Offer/ promise → PP</p>
D	<p>In the field of domestic policy, the basis of domestic policy of government will be management and hop based on..... It must be such thing that.... The second issue is freedom that... This means that.... Another issue is the justice issue in all around the country and citizens' right that... For moving the country toward the unity and power we need.... In the foreign policy we should keep our national interest and national security and.... It is better to refer to the recent book published by ElBaradei who says.... Straw also said that We should not distort the reality of history.</p> <p>Today, we should also keep the country's circumstances. However, in foreign and important policies, we have also the confirmation and guidance of the leader.</p>	<p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons, Be Optimistic → PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Concern for hearer's wants → PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Give reasons → PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → offer/promise→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → offer/promise→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → offer/promise→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → Be optimistic→ PP</p> <p>On-record→ with redressive action → use in group markers→ PP</p> <p>On-record → with redressive action → avoid disagreement→ PP</p>

E	In the first debate we concluded that the country is faced with problems. Who are responsible for the current situation? The people should know... the performance of 8 years ago indicate we cannot ... The performance of reform government began with politic watchword, but followed with an expanded work... We controlled the costs and...This is unacceptable to know...as responsible for this situation. My priority is...I will form...	On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action → use in group markers → PP On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP
Candidate	Responses	Strategies
F	Sometimes we have misunderstanding that...part of economic problems is... Those people should take responsibilities who...Because we discussed after the war... Another part of problems... If I become president...the Iranian passport should not be...	On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action →Be pessimistic → NP On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP
Candidate	Responses	Strategies
G	If the domestic capacity increases, the foreign policy will be corrected. If people vote for me, my plan is... If you vote for me, I let people to choose...	On-record → with redressive action → concern for hearer's wants → PP On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP
H	The area of foreign policy is the domain of thought, and We should follow it based on pure Islam.	On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP On-record → with redressive action Offer/promise → PP

Table 2 displays the overall picture of candidates' answers to the same question and all politeness strategies used for answering this one. Both negative and positive politeness strategies are more *polite* relative to bald on record (without redressive action). Moreover, Table 3 shows the frequency of politeness strategies used by the candidates.

TABLE 3
THE FREQUENCY OF POLITENESS STRATEGIES USED BY CANDIDATES

Candidates	Positive Politeness	Negative Politeness	Off-record
A	8	0	0
B	3	1	0
C	8	0	0
D	11	0	0
E	2	4	0
F	1	3	0
G	3	0	0
H	2	0	0

According to hypothesis 1, there is not any significant difference between the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iranian presidential candidates. As Table 4 shows there is a relation between politeness strategies and the achieved frequencies by considering the Pearson chi-square formula.

TABLE 4
CHI-SQUARE TESTS OF USED POLITENESS FREQUENCIES BY CANDIDATES

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	22.538	12	.032
Likelihood Ratio	28.818	12	.004
Linear-by-Linear Association	9.707	1	.002
N of Valid Cases	24		

According to this model, the statistics are significant if the Sig. value is .05 or smaller. Also, in this case the value of .032 is smaller than the alpha value of .05, so it can be concluded that the result is significant. The present statistical outcome shows a significant difference between the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iranian candidates. The statistical outcome indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected.

In order to analyze the second research hypothesis, whether there are some candidates' responses in the candidates concluding talks that threaten their face in Iran's 2013 presidential debate, this part shows face in real interaction and analyzes it as a separate entity in its own right independently of politeness. According to Arundale (2010), there are four procedures for analyzing FCT:

(1) Formulating the endogenous phenomenon as interactionally achieved in interactionally achieving meaning and action, not only conceptually in view of alternative formulations, but also operationally in the specific instances of talk being examined; (2) demonstrating for each specific instance of talk that the participants are oriented to or engaged in achieving the meaning(s), the action(s), and the phenomenon being examined; (3) demonstrating for each specific instance that the meaning(s), the action(s), and the phenomenon are consequential in the procedural producing and unfolding of the sequence of talk; and as necessary, (4) arguing for any generalizing of (2) and (3) from the specific instances of talk examined to other talk not examined, including both providing an account of the procedural characteristics of the production of talk that provide for its recognizability as the meaning(s), action(s), and phenomenon being examined, as well as "testing the claim via confrontation of problematic instances and apparent deviant cases, if possible. (p. 2095)

As Table 5 shows, each speech began by certain candidate's response to domestic and foreign policy and followed by other candidates' criticisms. Notably, for making pragmatic competence strategies more tangible, the debates have been selected based on more involvement of candidates. According to this table, the criticism-criticism responses exchange between the candidates during candidate H' speech.

TABLE 5
THE SECOND CANDIDATE'S SPEECH FOR ANALYZING FCT

Candidate	Responses & criticisms
H	Our diplomacy organization should not work... Our diplomacy system did not succeed in achieving our foreign policy goals. We need a change in our management approaches. Candidate B introduced five axes as foreign policy: 1.... 2.... 3.... 4. 5....
C	Our managements try to talk about at least their own section's issues. In your work's period. The price of ground area became 6 times in the Tehran municipality. Because of this, it is necessary to say what your plan is in the presidential period that needs an over descript management?
F	The foreign policy is reflection of domestic power. Do you have collective talent in related to domestic policy in your resume?
D	I am surprised that the candidate H said the foreign policy of country has been un succeeded.
E	Arresting whom in the mall that had named from Mr. X & Y was an individual mistake. This occurrence is not the overall circumstances of country. The candidate D indicated that the foreign policy has been succeeded. I also believe that there were a lot of success in the foreign policy, but there were problems in each period, too. Like Mikonos court and wickedness axis.
G	Two arrest sentences have been issued for Mr. X in his government and we have been called wickedness axis in Mr. Y's government, too.
C	Does saying Hi to Y is against the low.
D	The history cannot be distorted.
G	Advocating from whom that raised a disturbance in the year 88 is against low. When the sentinel council says that the election is true it does not mean that somebody says that the vote should become veto even if he was president in the past.
H	In relation to the candidate D's discussion... Tehran municipality has not been divisible. In relation to the candidate B's speech, he said important point; human sources are more important than everything in the country and are in first priority. Returning of elites to decision making area is basic. Mr. D, I am not criticism of past international policy.... I kiss hands of all toilers in diplomacy area. If Europeans have called What was the record card of past governments in the area of economical diplomacy?

According to Table 5, there was one face threatening act in the response of candidate H by criticizing past diplomacy of the country in the second sentence "Our diplomacy organization should not be managed..." The rest of the speech of candidate H seemed logical based on what had been asked. Candidate C asked a question by criticizing candidate H in the first and second sentences "Our managements try to talk about at least their own section's issues. In your work's period, the price of ground became six times in the Tehran municipality". There were some attempts to mitigate the threat to face in candidate F's question by using a fact at the beginning of his question "The foreign policy is a reflection of domestic power". Candidate D criticized candidate H's criticism about past diplomacy status and said "I am surprised that candidate H says the foreign policy of the country has been unsuccessful". Then, candidate E confirmed candidate D by this sentence "I also believe that there were a lot of success in the international policy" and tried to mitigate the threat to face by using another word instead of "unsuccessful"; "but there were problems in each period, too". Candidate G entered into a direct unmitigated disagreement with candidate D by using some examples "Two arrest sentences have been issued for Mr. X in his government and we have been called evil axis in Mr. Y's government, too", but candidate C showed his disagreement with candidate G by asking a question "Does say Hi to Y is against the law" and candidate D confirmed him by saying this fact "The history cannot be distorted". Candidate G replied candidate C's question to defend his idea. In this part, the questions and the responses of both candidates C and G were far from the candidate H's speeches and the question of foreign policy. At the end of this speech, candidate H responded to other candidate questions by using utterances that mitigated the threat of face "Tehran municipality has not been divisible", "in related to B's speech, he said important point", "Mr. D, I am not criticism of past foreign

policy”, and by using an intimacy phrase at the beginning of his final speech “I kiss hands of all toilers in diplomacy area” and making question at the end “What was the record card of past governments in the area of economical diplomacy?”. In continue, this study considers another FCT analysis according to Table 6. This table is consists of criticism-criticism response exchanges between the candidates during candidate D’ speech.

TABLE 6
THE FOURTH CANDIDATE’S SPEECH FOR ANALYZING FCT

Candidate	Responses & Criticisms
D	In the field of domestic policy, the basic of domestic policy of government will be management and hop based on.....it must be such thing that.... The second issue is freedom that... This means that.... Another issue is the justice issue in all around the country and discussion of citizen’s right that...For moving the country toward the unity and power we need.... In the foreign policy we should keep our national interest and national security and....It is better to refer to the recent book published by ElBaradei who says.... Straw also said that... We should not distort the reality of history. Today, we should also keep the country’s circumstances. However, in foreign and important policies, we have also had the confirmation and guidance of the leader.
E	I ask dear candidate C about what you said in your election’s advertisements about foreign policy that we should get over with headman. I don’t know, you said joke or serious. If this headman is America it means we are its helot?
G	In foreign policy, the defense of nation’s rights and values is important. Mr. ElBaradei said that... This plan had improved until Europe promised to cover Iranian scientists. The candidate C himself said in his book that....
H	In 82 that...One session I said that..., but you said it is troublesome. This was my insistence that...I believed that.... I took this justification by insistence. Because I believed that...
A	I listened to candidate C & G talks. I was talking to myself that talk or not. Let me tell you clearly. The reality is that there were extremes in both periods of candidates C & G. we should... Should we...?
G	Going among the right and the wrong does not mean avoidance of extremes. The basis of candidate A’s information is not true. In X’s period, his assistant reached an agreement with Solana, but Solana rejected.
E	Dear candidate A talked as we all are inhumanity and just his excellency is worried about people. All of us think about people and talk for them. The ways are different, but the aim is providing welfare and comfort of people.
B	I say, with confirmation of candidate A, that Mr. Z had approached to agreement, but when he was approaching the outcome, one of the authorities of country said in Friday prayer that we do not negotiate and Mr. Solana retreated. This topic has other aspects. In this moment the candidate G addressed the candidate B and said “this information is not true. I say more precise information about you”.
D	The point, what doctor said about headman, is that... I said America because is headman of Europe. You might get this sentence from partial websites. In relation to ElBaradei discussion.... I am so surprised of Mr. H. It is true that we should compete, but not such as this...I do not want to retell it. Do not return to that period’s discussion... Let us to have healthy and true competition...Be careful about our talking .I have all the information that is needed in my mind to mention.
H	I act equally in relation to freedom in front of tribes and students. The best relation between police and student was.... I said we should take permission of gathering to the office of strengthening unity according to parties low. You said that let it go...
F	The paired discussion of the candidates H and C is not useful for people...
D	I do not admire the demolition way and cannot ruin my competitor. I cannot reveal the secret documents. My discussion is... If we want to compete, it should be a healthy competition.
A	We want to get the information to people for decision making. Why...? Why...? I said as an example that..., but you could not do that with less cost? My question is polite...
D	I did not become angry. There were problems that I try to respond clearly.

As Table 6 shows, in the speech of candidate D, there were any criticisms about any area and seemed logical based on what had been asked. There was one threatening face act in candidate E’s question “it means we are its helot?” candidate G criticized candidate D by referring to some sources indirectly “Mr. ElBaradei said that...”, “candidate D himself said in his book that...” this type of criticism mitigate the threat to face by using indirect phrases. Candidate H criticized candidate D directly without considering the threat to candidate D’s face by entering to a direct unmitigated disagreement with candidate D “you said it is troublesome” and defended his previous position by using these sentences “This was my insistence that allow students to talk in low framework”, “I took this justification by insistence”. Candidate A entered into a direct unmitigated disagreement with candidate D and candidate G “Let me tell you clearly” and criticized both of them directly by ignoring the threat of face “The reality is that there were extremes in both periods of candidates D and G”. Candidate G criticized the candidate A by denying his ideas directly “The basis of candidate A’s information is not true”. Also, candidate E criticized the candidate A by using irony “just his excellency is worried of people”. The bold and direct criticism-criticism responses of three candidates A, G, and E were far from candidate D’s speeches and serious threats to face. Candidate B followed the speeches by mitigating the threat to face by confirmation the candidate A “I say with confirmation of candidate A”. The interruption of candidate G with this sentence was a real threat for the candidate B’s face “this information is not true. I say more precise information about you”. Candidate D responded to all criticism clearly and tried to give some advises and warnings about some speeches that were real threat to face of other candidates “It is true that we should compete, but not such as this”, “Let us have healthy and true competition”, “Be careful about our talking”. Moreover, he said in another speech “I do not admire the demolition way and cannot ruin my competitor”, “If we want to compete, it should be a healthy competition”.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

The first research question outcomes indicated a statistically significant difference between the frequencies of politeness strategies used by Iranian candidates. Based on this analysis, some of the candidates answered the question more indirectly by giving clues, hints, and in some cases incomplete answers. The other candidates answered based on positive strategies by noticing or attending to hearers, concerning for hearer's wants, offering or promising, avoiding disagreement, being optimistic, and other communicative strategies. As Table 3 shows the most positive politeness strategies were used in the speech of candidate D with the lack of negative politeness strategies. Moreover, the other candidates, A, C, B, G, and H were orderly ranked in the use of positive politeness strategies. Also, the most negative strategies were used in the speech of candidates E and F. What significantly appeared was the lack of off-record sentences in the candidates' speeches. To answer another research question, the study analyzed two candidates' speeches with the most arguments of candidates. As Table 5 shows, in analyzing candidate H's speech; however, there were lots of face threatening sentences in some candidates' speech, candidate H tried to keep the face of candidates by using utterances that mitigated the threat of face. There were a few criticisms at the beginning of candidate H's speech and the rest of his speech seemed logical based on what had been asked. Moreover, there were lots of criticism-criticism response exchanges in candidates C and G that threatened the candidate H's face. However, candidate H used lots of FCAs in responding the other candidates' questions and criticisms. He used these sentences to make FCAs: "Tehran municipality has not been divisible", "in related to B's speech, he said an important point", "Mr. D, I am not criticism of past foreign policy", and by using an intimacy phrase at the beginning of his final speech "I kiss hands of all toilers in diplomacy area" and making question at the end "What was the record card of past governments in the area of economical diplomacy?". Notably, by using FCAs, he respected not only to the other candidates, but also the audience. According to Table 6, in analyzing candidate D's speech, there were any face-threatening acts and seemed logical based on what had been asked. Moreover, there was one face-threatening act in candidate E's question. Candidate G criticized candidate D by referring to some sources indirectly. Candidate H criticized candidate D directly without considering the threat to candidate D's face by entering to a direct unmitigated disagreement with candidate D. Also, candidate A entered into a direct unmitigated disagreement with candidate D and candidate G and criticized both of them directly by ignoring the threat of face. However, there were a lot of face threatening acts in candidates A, E, H and G. Candidate D responded to all criticisms clearly and tried to give some advices and warnings about some speeches that were real threat to the face of not only other candidates, but also audiences. He used these sentences to make FCAs: "It is true that we should compete, but not such as this", "Let us have healthy and true competition", "Be careful about our talking". Moreover, he said in another speech "I do not admire the demolition way and cannot ruin my competitor", "If we want to compete, it should be a healthy competition". Consequently, according to this discussion, this study considered candidates D and H as the most prominent candidate in the use of FCT. Finally, this study concluded that, there is one to one relation between the politeness and face's strategies used by candidates and the act of their victorious in this competition.

APPENDIX

	Candidate
<p>مدیریت جناحی دیگر جوابگو نیست. دولت ما باید به دنبال حق مردم باشد و باید دولت فراگیر تشکیل یابد. ما باید به یک دیپلماسی موفق اقتصادی دست یابیم. در دولت من منازعات سیاسی پایان خواهد یافت.</p>	A
<p>دستگاه دیپلماسی ما نباید خارج از برنامه های کلان کشور عمل کند. حوزه دیپلماسی ما نتوانسته در تحقق اهداف سیاست های خارجی ما موفق عمل کند. ما نیازمند یک تغییر در رویکردهای مدیریتی هستیم. B پنج محور را سیاست خارجی معرفی کرد: 1. تحقق در انسجام داخلی 2. دیپلماسی فعال منطقه گرایی 3. فعال کردن دیپلماسی اقتصادی 4. دیپلماسی عمومی 5. راهبرد مقاومت مقتدران</p>	B
<p>مشکل اقتصادی در سیاست کشور اهمیت دارد. مشکل اقتصادی با تحریم ارتباط دارد. با مدیریت بهتر می شد و می شود آثارش را کم کرد. در سیاست خارجی حل مسئله تحریم اولویت دارد ولی چگونه؟ بعضی می گویند که اگر دم کنخدا را ببینم مشکل حل می شود. مشکل هسته ای بهانه است، مشکل با آمریکایی ها، مشکل اصل انقلاب است چون ما خواهان استقلال بوده ایم و پافشاری می کنیم با ما مخالفت می کنند. به نظر من پایه حل مشکل تحریم را باید از موضع عزت و اقتدار عمل کنیم. 40 سال آمریکا تلاش کرد چین را نادیده بگیرد و بالاخره آمریکا آمد و با چین تعامل کرد. ما بحثی با آرمان ها و اهداف ما نداریم. شما فرمودید با مدیریت این موضوع حل نمیشود از قضا معتقدم حوزه دیپلماسی ماست که نمیگذارد در سیاست خارجی با هزینه کم بیشترین نفع را ببریم. این موضوع کلیدی است</p>	C
<p>در زمینه سیاست داخلی، اساس سیاست داخلی دولت تدبیر و امید بر مبنای تأمین امنیت و ایجاد آرامش برای همه مردم ایران در تمام ابعاد زندگی خواهد بود در اقتصاد و فرهنگ و شغل و حریم خصوصی و ... باید به گونه ای باشد که مردم شب و روز در خانه و خیابان و سفر احساس آرامش کنند. مساله دوم مساله آزادی است که در همه ابعاد زندگی از آزادی مسئولانه را احساس کنند. یعنی جایی که باید نظرشان را اعلام کنند و یا اینکه در یک انتخابات با آزادی تمام بیایند و حضور یابند که متأسفانه امروز در برخی موارد آزادی مردم برای حضور در عرصه انتخابات با سخت گیری هایی که نیازی نیست روبرو شده است. یکی دونهونه را آقای عارف اعلام کردند. مساله دیگر مساله عدالت در سراسر کشور و بحث حقوق شهروندی است که همه مردم کشورمان از هر قبیله و نژاد و قومیتی، احساس کنند که شهروند یک کشور واحد هستند و از حقوق مساوی و عادلانه برخوردارند و زمینه برای مشارکت همه مردم فراهم کنیم تا مردم با اعتماد کامل مشارکت کنند و این تنها برای انتخابات و 22 بهمن نباشد. تا کشور به سمت انسجام و قدرت ملی حرکت کند. برای اینکه نیاز به عقابانیت و اعتدال و دوری از افراط و تفریط داریم. در سیاست خارجی هم باید منافع کشور و امنیت ملی را حفظ کرده و شرایطی فراهم کنیم که فرصت های لازم برای مردم ما بوجود آید. اینکه اشاره شد در بحث ها در دولت سازندگی با اصلاحات سیاست خارجی ما ایراد داشته، تعجب میکنم که اشاره میکنند به حرفی که در گوشه سائیتی آمده است. خوب است به کتابی که اخیراً البرادعی نوشته نگاه کنیم که میگوید جنگ پشت دروازه ایران بود و ایران جلوی آن را گرفت و 3 وزیر اروپایی را به ایران دعوت کرد و آنها را سپر قرار داد. استراو هم گفت جنگ حتمی بود و من اعلام کردم احمقانه است. نباید واقعیت های تاریخی را تحریف کنیم. امروز هم باید شرایط کشور را حفظ کنیم. البته در سیاست های خارجی و مهم همه جا تایید رهبری و هدایت های ایشان هم بوده</p>	D
<p>در مناظره اول جمع بندی این بود که کشور با مشکلاتی رو به روست. چه کسانی مسئول وضع موجود هستند. مردم حق دارند که بدانند چه کسانی این مشکل را بوجود آوردند. تمام قوا در اختیار اصولگرایان بود. در قوه مجریه همه افراد حذف شدند. عملکرد هشت سال گذشته نشان داد که ما نمی توانیم خودمان را به یک جناح خاص محدود کنیم. عملکرد دولت اصلاحات با شعار سیاسی آمد اما در عمل یک کار فراگیر را دنبال کرد. 173 میلیارد دلار نفت صادر شد در حالی که بیشتر از 630 میلیارد دلار در دوره اخیر درآمد داشت. گرانی را کنترل کردیم و ارز را تک نرخی کردیم. این که جریان موهوم انحرافی را مسئول وضع کشور بدانیم پذیرفتنی نیست. جریان اصولگرا مسئولیت خودش را بپذیرد. اولویت اول من فصل سوم قانون است، من معاونت اقوام را تشکیل خواهم داد.</p>	E
<p>گاه ممکن است برداشت نادرستی وجود داشته باشد، این برداشت از مشکلات حاد جامعه و روش دولت فعلی به این برداشت منجر شده است. بخشی از مشکلات اقتصادی در تحریم ها ریشه دارد. باید افرادی متصدی امور شوند که تجربه داشته باشند. چون در دوره بعد از جنگ مذاکره کردیم به طوری که حتی یک وجب از کشور ما دست دیگران نماند. هسته ای سخت تر از قرارداد 598 نیست. بخشی دیگر از مشکلات از سوء تدبیر پیش آمده است. به این معنی اگر کسی مثل ما نمی اندیشید او را نادیده بگیریم و خانه نشین کنیم. اگر من رئیس جمهور شوم تأمل سازنده با دنیا فراهم خواهم کرد. رابطه با چند کشور محدود آفریقایی و آمریکایی خوب است اما فایده ای چندانی به همراه ندارد. گذرنامه مردم ایران طوری نباشد که در ورود مورد بی احترامی قرار نگیرد. متأسفانه اکنون بر خورد با ایرانیان در خارج مناسب نیست و ما تلاش می کنیم که مطابق شان ملت وضعیت بهبود یابد.</p>	F
<p>اگر استعداد داخلی فزون شود سیاست خارجی درست می شود. اگر مردم به من رای بدهند برنامه ام انسجام داخلی خواهد بود. اگر به من رای دهید می گویم استاندار هر استان را مردم انتخاب کنند</p>	G
<p>حوزه سیاست خارجی حوزه اندیشه است. بر اساس اسلام ناب باید این گفتگو را دنبال کنیم با سازوکار قوی و مدیریت هوشمند که گفتمان را باور داشته باشد. اگر ما اینکار را نتوانیم انجام دهیم دچار ضعف می شویم. این یک بحث اساسی است. سوال من را آقای F جواب نداد که چرا بعد از 7 سال گفتگویشان تحریم های داماتو صادر شد و برای رئیس جمهور وقت هم حکم جلب آوردند</p>	H

Candidate	صحبت های پایانی نامزد ها
G	اگر استعداد داخلی فزون شود سیاست خارجی درست می شود. اگر مردم به من رای بدهند برنامه ام انسجام داخلی خواهد بود. اگر به من رای دهید می گویم استاندار هر استان را مردم انتخاب کنند.
C	بنده تاکید می کنم که در انتخابات نه خود باید سیاه نمایی کنم نه هیچ کاندیدای دیگری. این که دوره فعلی را زمستان نام بگذاریم و بگوئیم که بهار می خواهیم.
H	حوزه سیاست خارجی حوزه اندیشه است. بر اساس اسلام ناب باید این گفتگو را دنبال کنیم با سازوکار قوی و مدیریت هوشمند که گفتمان را باور داشته باشد. اگر ما اینکار را نتوانیم انجام دهیم دچار ضعف می شویم. این یک بحث اساسی است. سوال من را آقای F جواب نداد که چرا بعد از 7 سال گفتگویشان تحریم های داماتو صادر شد و برای رئیس جمهور وقت هم حکم جلب آوردند.
D	ما باید جوری کشور را اداره کنیم که همه چیز را ببینیم. استقلال وقتی که همه کارخانه ها خوابید اون هم استقلال است. وقتی هم دچار مشکل شدند منافع ملی را ببینیم. سانتریفیوژ خوبه که بجرخه به شرطی که کارخانه و چیز دیگر بجرخه. هر روز جشن گرفتند که همه چیز تمام شده نتوانستند و شرایط دنیا را نشناختند. حل و فصل مسائل بین المللی، اگر قدرت داخلی خودمان را تقویت کنیم و دولت ما یک دولت فراگیر باشد، قدرت ملی وقتی است که ما آزادی بدهیم به همه مردم. قدرت ملی زمانی خواهد شد که در همه زمینه ها مردم حضور فعال داشته باشیم. بعد از قدرت ملی داخلی با تدبیر با دنیا مذاکره کنیم. با اعلام مواضع کار پیش نمی رود با خواندن مقاله کار پیش نمی رود. در صورتی که ما مسئله را شناخته باشیم و بدانیم راه حل چیست، نه افرادی که تجربه لازم را ندارند.
A	در این جلسه سه نفر از دوستان که ائتلاف کردند، اختلاف جدی دارند. عده ای از دوستان در گذشته ماندند. شرایط کشور تغییر کرده و ماندن در گذشته فقط وقت مردم را می گیرد. برنامه ما این است که در سیاست داخلی و خارجی اولویت بهبود وضعیت مردم است. ما باید روابط خارجی مان را هدفمند کنیم. ما باید برنامه هسته ای مان را از بن بست خارج کنیم. مگر می شود که کشور را با شعار معطل نگه داریم.
E	خودم را به مطالبات به حق همه اقدار متعهد میدانم و امیدوارم در دولت آینده به مطالبات همه آنان در ارتباط با منزلت و معیشت و گرانی رسیدگی جدی شود و همه دست به دست هم دهیم ایرانی آباد و سرفراز داشته باشیم.

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A Study on Lexical Sense Relations from the Perspective of Vocabulary Breadth and Word Frequency

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Abstract—In second language (L2) vocabulary acquisition, breadth and depth of vocabulary knowledge are two indispensable components that interrelate with each other to a substantial extent. Breadth of vocabulary is actually vocabulary size. Lexical sense relations, part and parcel of depth of vocabulary, are reported to be able to facilitate the mastery of L2 words. Word frequency concerns the familiarity of words. The present research intends to make a synthetical analysis of the development of L2 word meaning under the influence of vocabulary size and word frequency in classroom settings. The merging of qualitative and quantitative aspects of words is to describe exhaustively how students fit the words into their mind, and to provide some pedagogical implications to L2 vocabulary teaching and learning.

Index Terms—depth, breadth, word frequency, lexical sense relations

I. INTRODUCTION

Depth of L2 vocabulary knowledge never fails to attract attention in the field of L2 vocabulary research. According to Qian (1990, p.283), depth of vocabulary knowledge is about a learner's level of knowledge of different aspects of a word, or how well the learner knows a word. Linguists in the literature once provided various understandings to the content of it (Laufer, 1997; Nation, 2001). Soderman (1989) carried out an experiment to testify that learners with different language proficiency would demonstrate diversified word relation associations. In China, Gui (1992) made an experiment to test the relationships between Chinese and English mental lexicon. Liu (2001) conducted empirical research to delineate the development of L2 word meaning and word affixes. The present research, in light of the aforementioned achievements, attempts to provide a much in-depth account of the development of L2 word meaning relations under the influence of vocabulary size and word frequency. The purpose is to arouse Chinese L2 learners' awareness to word meaning relations in different learning stages and to provide some pedagogical implications to L2 vocabulary acquisition.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *Word Meaning, Vocabulary Size and Word Frequency*

Depth of vocabulary knowledge can be portrayed as a hierarchical structure consisting of layers of contents that are of different importance and extending from superficial to deep level processing in our mind. L2 word meaning, a fundamental component of this hierarchy, is thought to encompass two basic parts: reference and sense. The former concerns how language hooks onto the world, that is, how words are used to represent the entities or the occurrences in the outside world, while the latter specifies the semantic links between elements within the vocabulary system (Saeed, 2001). The present research is just devoted to the exploration of sense relations between words.

Vocabulary size and word frequency are two quantitative features of words, each indicating the level of L2 learners and the familiarity of L2 words respectively. Vocabulary size, which is also formally termed as breadth of vocabulary, refers to "the number of words for which a learner has at least some minimum knowledge of meaning" (Qian, 1999, p.283). Therefore, it is also treated as a mirror to show how educated, intelligent or well-read a person is. Word frequency denotes how often the word occurs in normal use of the language (Schmitt & McCarthy, 1997). According to Nation (1990), there are high-frequency words, university words, technical words and low-frequency words. With the storage of about 3000 high-frequency and university words, an L2 learner is supposed to be able to cover 90% to 95% of any text and can safely transfer his first language (L1) reading strategies into L2 learning.

Breadth and depth of L2 vocabulary are not two isolated parts. They are the quantitative and qualitative facets of vocabulary knowledge. Empirical research testifies that there exist strong correlations between breadth and depth of vocabulary. The inadequacy of one may impair the development of another (Qian, 1999). Due to this close interdependence between them, it must be feasible and beneficial for us to explore the development of L2 lexical sense relations under the influence of vocabulary size. As to word frequency, being an extrinsic characteristic of words, how the change of it would influence the intrinsic representation of words may also pose an interesting and challenging task for language researchers.

B. *Sense Relations of Words*

Saeed (2001) observed that it may be more accurate to think of the lexicon as a network. The organizational principle of this network is not specified so far, but one point is quite clear that this is not a network without order. In fact, it is one full of interconnected elements or nodes, which are connected to one another by virtue of having various relations (Carrol, 2000, p.110). Paradigmatic and syntagmatic relations of words are commonly regarded to be two dominant lexical sense relations. The former is also called substitutional relation, which holds between intersubstitutable members of the same grammatical category (Lyons, 1995, p.124). To place words that contain paradigmatic relations in the context of sentences, they can substitute each other without changing the syntactical structure or violating grammatical rules. Syntagmatic relation is also termed combinational relation, which exists typically, though not necessarily, between expressions of different grammatical categories that can be put together in grammatically well-formed combinations or constructions (*ibid.*), say, between nouns and adjectives, verbs and nouns, or verbs and adverbs etc.

However, relations between words are more than sense relations. Clang responses (responses related to stimuli in phonological terms only) are also included (Marechal, 1995). Therefore, in order to present an exhaustive account of the development of L2 lexical sense relations, I introduce formal relations into my experiment, which refer to those similarities between words in terms of word form, such as similarities in spelling, pronunciation or derivation. Therefore, in this article, I totally adopt three kinds of lexical relations: paradigmatic relation, syntagmatic relation and formal relation. The first two are sense relations between words, while the third one includes spelling & pronunciation relation and derivational relation.

III. RESEARCH DESIGN

A. *Research Questions*

According to level-of-processing theory, meaning should be ascribed to deep-level-processing, which will probably bring about long-time or even permanent memory (Craik&Lockart, 1972). To Chinese L2 learners, after years of English learning and with the assistance from their L1 meaning system, will they approach L2 words from the perspective of lexical sense relations? Will this meaning-oriented processing change with the alteration of L2 learners' breadth of L2 vocabulary? Will the frequency or familiarity of L2 words affect L2 learners' processing mode?

B. *Research Methods*

In the experiment, Word Association Test, which is the oldest method psychologists have for studying semantic relations, is employed. This test is invented by Sir Francis Galton and has been widely used by many language researchers. The exact procedure of this test is as follows: first, researchers provide some stimuli words to their subjects, who are required to write down the words which strike their mind as the first response. Then the relations between the stimuli words and the response words are analyzed and the organizational principle of L2 learners' mental lexicon can be tentatively analyzed and uncovered.

In terms of stimuli words, considering the vocabulary size of my research subjects, the first 5000 frequently used words are borrowed from an influential Chinese database entitled *An English Corpus Based on Chinese Learner* (Gui & Yang, 2003). Then these words are divided into five groups according to their word frequency. From each group, one word every 100 words is chosen. Finally 50 words are obtained and treated as my research targets.

In the controlling of test environment, in order to avoid slapdash associations and associations after careful thinking, the word association test is implemented in class and time restriction is set on the subjects. Besides, no explanations or hints about the stimuli words are offered to the subjects. After the experiment, in order to guarantee the consistency and reliability of data analysis, ten students' association papers are randomly chosen and independently analyzed by researchers. The analysis of each researcher is compared, and differences are discussed in order to sort out a norm for future use. The analysis of all the data lasts for about one week.

C. *Research Subjects*

The 140 subjects in my experiment are the first and the third year college students who major in English in a Chinese university. Students in grade one have been in college for about three months. According to the requirements of the teaching curriculum (2007) for English majors in China, their average breadth of L2 receptive vocabulary reaches about 2000-3000 words, with about 1000-1200 productive words. The average receptive vocabulary size of the third-year students is about 5000-6000 words, including about 2000-2500 productive words.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The experiment centers on four association types: paradigmatic, syntagmatic, derivational, spelling and pronunciation associations. There may exist other types of individualized, slapdash associations. Because they denote nothing about meaning or formal characteristics of words, they are not included in this thesis. As is indicated, paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations are deep-level meaning associations. In contrast, the other two associations belong to surface-level processing. Table 1 provides the number of associations in each level.

TABLE 1.
THE NUMBERS OF DIFFERENT ASSOCIATIONS IN EACH LEVEL

	grade	paradigmatic relation	syntagmatic relation	total	spelling & pronunciation relation	derivational relation	total
1 st 1000	One	234	62	296	238	142	380
	Three	434	168	602	28	48	76
2 nd 1000	One	274	86	360	200	136	336
	Three	412	212	624	18	38	56
3 rd 1000	One	150	50	200	350	122	472
	Three	300	238	538	52	78	130
4 th 1000	One	204	76	280	158	242	400
	Three	388	188	576	24	78	130
5 th 1000	One	210	56	266	264	148	412
	three	300	182	482	70	122	192

A. *Word Meaning and Vocabulary Size*

From Table 1, in each level, the summation of meaning associations of the subjects is generally larger than that of their formal associations, which leaves us an impression that to process L2 words in terms of meaning seems to be a much favored choice among Chinese intermediate and advanced L2 learners. This observation seems to render a much satisfactory answer to the first research question. However, if we continue to analyze the data with enough concentration and patience, one fact shouldn't be ignored, that is, in each level, most of the meaning associations are demonstrated by the third-year students, although formal associations do exist in their responses. In contrast, the responses of the first-year students are dominated mainly by formal associations, even to words in the first level. How can we account for this phenomenon? Can we safely conclude that vocabulary size does affect response types? And how?

Words are not isolated from each other. With the accumulation of L2 words, the relations between them become more compact and also more diverse. Gradually, a semantic network of L2 words comes into existence and the formal connections between words begin to give way to meaning associations. In the experiment, the performance of the third-year students is encouraging. In each level, meaning associations surpass formal associations enormously, even to words in the fifth level. As a sharp contrast, the response types of those freshmen are not so satisfying. Although there still exist quite a number of meaning associations in each level, they lag far behind the formal associations, even to words in the first level. This contrast between meaning and formal associations to students in different grades is, in my opinion, due to their divergence in vocabulary size. All the chosen words are within the vocabulary size of the students in grade three, while many of them are beyond the competence of the first-year students. With a limited semantic network, those freshmen have no choice but to turn to formal connections between words. In a word, breadth of L2 vocabulary does affect L2 learners' way of processing L2 words. We can hopefully predict that with the expansion of vocabulary storage, L2 learners will gradually become inclined to deal with L2 words by way of lexical sense relations. The more words they memorize, the more meaning associations they will demonstrate.

Also from Table 1, to the sense relations of words, both groups of students display the majority of paradigmatic associations, that is, students tend to associate synonyms, antonyms or words of the same part of speech to the stimuli words. The proportion of syntagmatic associations to the total meaning associations of the first-year students is smaller than that of the third-year students. To the students in grade three, their syntagmatic associations don't diminish but to continue to increase. I think this phenomenon can be reasonably explained though it is inconsistent with Soderman's (1989) claim that like native speakers, less proficient L2 learners will also demonstrate more syntagmatic associations than adept L2 learners. As far as I am concerned, syntagmatic association is a manifestation of students' ability to combine or collocate words grammatically. It is a preparatory capacity for the emergence of well-formed sentences or larger discourse. Therefore, there is no reason to predict that syntagmatic association will decrease with the improvement of vocabulary size. Instead, it may also exhibit an increase, though a mild one. If so, what matters most in future research is not about the numbers of syntagmatic association, but the types of it, that is, what are the words which are usually put together by developed or less developed students?

B. *Lexical Sense Relations and Word Frequency*

With regard to the relations between lexical sense relations and word frequency, due to the poor vocabulary size of the first-year students and their irregular performances in the test, I employ only the performance of the third-year students as my target of research. Table 2 presents the average (the total number of each lexical association in different levels versus the number of subjects who hold that specific association) and the standard variation of each response type in the five levels.

TABLE 2.
THE AVERAGE AND THE STANDARD VARIATION OF THE DATA

	Paradigmatic relation		Syntagmatic relation		Spelling and Pronunciation		Derivation	
	A.	S.	A.	S.	A.	S.	A.	S.
1st 1000	6.20	1.83	2.90	1.23	1.40	.96	1.41	.62
2nd 1000	6.05	1.61	3.53	.47	1.12	.36	1.58	.52
3rd 1000	4.29	1.78	3.50	1.85	1.37	.69	1.77	.32
4th 1000	5.39	2.11	3.03	1.60	1.50	1.07	2.29	1.90
5th 1000	4.54	1.68	2.84	2.05	1.59	.91	2.44	1.39

Notes: A=Average S=Standard variation

On the basis of the means in table 2, a graph is drawn to illustrate the changing route of each response type (Figure 1). From Figure 1, paradigmatic association is still the most frequent response type. Paying close attention to its changing route in each level, we can detect that the first 2000 words possess the most paradigmatic associations. Although responses to the third, the fourth and the fifth level of words fluctuate, the changing route of paradigmatic associations to word frequency is, in general, declining. With the increase of the unfamiliarity of L2 words, paradigmatic associations decrease accordingly. When the stimuli words are beyond the vocabulary size of L2 learners, paradigmatic associations will finally give way to formal associations again.

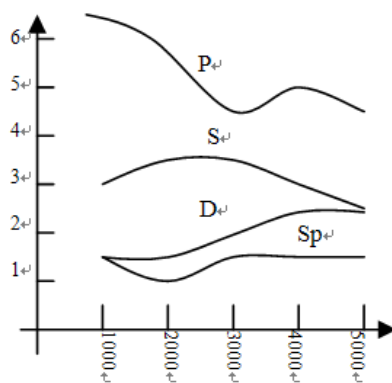


Figure 1: The changing route of each response type
Note: P=paradigmatic S=syntagmatic D=derivational Sp=spelling & pronunciation

In terms of syntagmatic association, its alteration is mild. According to Figure 1, words in the first and fifth level demonstrate the least syntagmatic associations, while the second, the third and the fourth 1000 words contain more syntagmatic associations, with those of the third 1000 words coming up to a peak. The curve of syntagmatic associations is puzzling, but if we take the change of the other associations into consideration, the whole picture becomes clearer. The associations to high and low frequency words are dominated by paradigmatic and formal associations respectively. This phenomenon confirms a fact that Chinese L2 learners are not sensitive to syntagmatic connections between words even when those words are within their productive vocabulary size. Therefore, in practical use of L2, they are found to be incompetent in the mastery of the modifications and collocations of L2 words.

The changing route of derivational associations comprises an increasing slope. The amount of derivational associations to the first 1000 words lags far behind paradigmatic and syntagmatic associations. But to the fifth 1000 words, the number of derivational association begins to approximate that of syntagmatic association. According to its developing tendency, it may finally get the upper hand over syntagmatic even paradigmatic association in the end when L2 words are far beyond the vocabulary size of L2 learners. L2 learners' inclination to derivational associations is possibly due to the emphasis placed on them in L2 teaching and learning.

Spelling and pronunciation associations, to the third-year students in my experiment, contain the least number. Its changing route is mild too, although it still improves with the increase of word frequency. To adult L2 learners, within their vocabulary size, with the positive transfer of the L1 meaning system, spelling and pronunciation associations lose their dominance completely.

The standard variation of different response types in each level indicates that to words with high frequency, the divergence of associations among students is small. However, when word frequency is beyond the fourth 1000 words, this divergence becomes conspicuous, which may disclose the probability that students' response types will become more and more diverse with the increase of word frequency.

V. CONCLUSIONS

On the basis of the experiment, we can tentatively draw the conclusion that Chinese adult L2 learners have the tendency to approach L2 words semantically, and vocabulary size and word frequency do affect L2 learners' association types. When words are within their command, students are generally inclined to connect words in terms of sense

relations, especially those with paradigmatic relations, such as synonymy, antonymy, hyponymy or part-whole relations. Although syntagmatic associations are not salient, they also develop mildly. Formal associations are usually resorted to when the stimuli words are out of the students' vocabulary size. As to word frequency, the first 5000 words in general trigger more sense relations than formal relation of words. With the dropping of word familiarity, formal associations may overtake the meaning relations. Besides, there seems to exist a threshold to breadth of vocabulary. Below it, students are likely to demonstrate formal associations, even to very high frequency words. Put it in another way, students should grasp a minimum number of words so as to build a necessary semantic network, which may help to store words in the long-term memory. Therefore, in L2 vocabulary acquisition, learners should build a solid, sufficient word storage to guarantee an expansive semantic network, otherwise meaning connections between words may become quite random.

At present, many Chinese learners of English pay keen interest in enlarging vocabulary size. However, the acquisition of the depth of vocabulary knowledge usually receives less attention, let alone combining these two efforts together. As is testified, L2 learners become sensitive to word meaning relations only when they have accumulated sufficient words. Therefore, in the preliminary stage of L2 vocabulary teaching and learning, introducing too many words, which are related with the target word semantically, may bring about unexpected burden and confusion. A wiser practice is still to embed target words into contexts to strengthen understanding of their meaning and use.

Placing words into contexts is also facilitative for students to observe and analyze the co-text of word using, that is to cultivate students' competence to produce well-formed collocations, phrases and sentences. From the experiment, Chinese L2 English learners are less adept in syntagmatic associations. Therefore, in classroom teaching and learning, combinational relations among words from different categories can be accentuated. If possibly, some prefabricated constructions can also be stressed and memorized. To unfamiliar words and before reaching the threshold of vocabulary size, although students are subject to formal associations, it doesn't follow that association in terms of pronunciation, spelling or derivation should be encouraged in classroom vocabulary teaching and learning, for formal associations may also produce, if not more, the same amount of confusing learning burdens.

As to L2 word frequency, it receives increasing stress and attention in recent years. However, the implementation of its achievements in classroom settings has not been extensively realized. At the end of each textbook, vocabulary is usually arranged alphabetically. In each unit, new words are conventionally presented on the basis of their order of appearance in the passage. Many middle school English teachers haven't got any sense of word frequency in their foreign language teaching. Fortunately, linguists and educators in China are making unprecedented contributions to this barren land. Empirical research is conducted and data bases are being built. Gui Shichun and Yang Huizhong (2003) are one of them. Their book entitled *An English Corpus Based on Chinese Learners* provides a detailed and exhaustive description of the frequency of English words on the basis of Chinese L2 learners. This endeavor may arouse more and more awareness to L2 vocabulary research among foreign language teachers, textbook compilers, etc.

The present study carried out an empirical research in order to describe how the relations between words develop with the improvement of language ability and the change of word frequency. The result is enlightening although there exist much room for future refinement, for example, research subjects are from the same university, and the number of students is limited, which may affect the generalizability of the present research. Besides, the experiment doesn't differentiate the effects of receptive and productive vocabulary size on depth of word knowledge, although it is mentioned in the paper. Last but not least, the lexical relations between words are analyzed within the abstract vocabulary system, ignoring those social factors such as the characteristics of learners or the learning environment of words. With the development of such disciplines as cognitive semantics or construction grammar, the combination of social factors into research may promise a brighter future.

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Teachers' Assessment Literacy and Its Correlation with IELTS Students' Achievement in Writing Skill

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Abstract—The role of teachers in their students' success is an undeniable factor which has already been dealt with in diverse literature. The challenge is their knowledge pertaining to the scale of their prevailing awareness related to one of the leading issues in the testing domain that is assessment literacy. The aim of the study was to investigate the effectiveness of teachers' assessment - literacy effectiveness in IELTS writing practice, Task 2, by administrating an in-service training course for a group of teachers instructing IELTS candidates and measuring the effect of their literacy on the writing skill developments of their students. The result shows that those teachers who received the literacy of the IELTS writing assessment procedure have earned consciousness of the genre principles and are more successful in their profession as they are capable of producing more literate learners, who achieve higher scores than their fellow candidates. The findings of the present paper reveals that assessment literates tend to communicate their knowledge through a more effective approach to their students than their colleagues, emphasizing the fact that teachers who try to secure their profession in an optimal manner should equip themselves with the needs of the assessment. Assessment literacy, then, acts as a dual instrument both for the well-being of the teachers in the first step and for the objectively literate students meeting their test demands in the second step.

Index Terms—achievement, assessment literacy, genre, IELTS, teacher literacy

I. INTRODUCTION

The challenging nature of a subjective skill like writing in such formal exams as IELTS and TOEFL for their candidates is by no means insignificant, partly because of writing's complicated structure which relates directly to its composing and scoring procedure. It has been noticed that some IELTS candidates while successful in other skills of the exam lack or better say suffer in the writing module. The analysis of the candidates' writings has revealed that inappropriacies observed in terms of genre requirements are the prevalent detectable drawback besides other minor defects, which are randomly responsible for the candidate's low score in the IELTS writing module, task 2. There could be, apparently, different factors contributing to this ill-functioning among the candidates; however, the role of the teacher in triggering and constituting genre awareness and sensitivity is of a dominant significance as most of the students in the research context obviously demonstrated no sign of genre related knowledge. Surprisingly, some of the teachers inquired were mostly unaware of the academic need for basic genre understanding and accordingly the necessity of imparting that knowledge to their students. Thus, the present paper consists of two different parts:

1- Theoretical discussions and analysis of the basis for assessment,

2- An Experimental part building upon the theoretical facts trying to find a factual answer to the following question:

Is there any significant relationship between a better assessment-literate teacher and the achievements of their students in the IELTS writing skill?

II. ASSESSMENT LITERACY REVIEW

The concept of literacy is in itself a challenging word and as such cannot be defined in a sentence, for the notion has been utilised by different researchers and scholars in a miscellaneous way depending on the immediate context of use (Popham 2009). In addition, the most prevalent domain discussed is teacher's assessment literacy focusing mainly on the "measurement basics related directly to what goes on in classrooms" (Popham 2009). Having focused on talking about the classroom, assessment literacy is a significantly related issue concerning the learners as well. To think that assessment literacy is exclusively directed towards teacher's abilities on measuring learner's knowledge could lead to

ignoring the very vivid reality that learners' status in the process of learning is underestimated or inadvertently forgotten. If it is approved that the final goal of any teaching procedure should entail the desired change in the test behavior of the learner, wash back effect (Davies, 1995; Heaton, 1995), it could, then, be sensible to direct part of the emphasis of assessment literacy on learners.

Another definition of assessment literacy goes beyond the classroom constraint and includes wide range of abilities. According to Johnston and Costello (2005) "we often think of literacy as a set of all – purpose skills and strategies to be learned, it is more complex, more local, more personal, and more social than that" (p.257) The realm of such notion of assessment literacy goes beyond finite understanding of symbols representing knowledge rather spans to individual's wellbeing in society. The type of assessment leading to culminate such literacy should seek to foster the objectives of education not in its abstract entity but in a very tangible reality. (Greene 1985; Carr & Claxton 2002).

Referring back to the classroom script, there generally exist two forms of classroom assessment named as formative and summative assessment where the purpose of each is different from the other but not necessarily in contrast. As Bachman & Palmer (1996: 98) indicate both teachers and learners need to receive feedback on the progress made in the educational activities but with different aims for each group. In Formative evaluation, students are provided with the kind of information to "guide their own subsequent learning," and teachers are benefited by altering their teaching methods, resources and materials in accordance with their students' needs, interests, and abilities. Considering Summative evaluation, it is in general reported in the form of grades, on the basis of test scores and indicator of the learner's achievements.

Needless to say that the role of teachers in both formative and summative assessment is crucial. A literate teacher could knowingly benefit from the results of a test in providing true path to his learners through the interpretation of a measurement. Johnston & Costello (2005) believe that any achievement in formative and summative assessment to a large extent depend on the teacher since 'instrument' to implement formative assessment is the teacher's mind and gaining any improvement in summative assessment requires improvement in formative assessment. Again, the teacher is the core element in all achievements regardless of the nature of the assessment, formative or summative.

Newfields (2006) sites three main reasons why teachers should be assessment-literate. The first reason refers to its universality in academic settings which requires more time and asset. The second notices to teacher's ability to understand basic interpretations of statistical and educational terms in order to empower them analytically read and evaluate related articles and publications released in the concerned topics, what is referred to as statistical literacy. The final reason referred to is the necessity of teachers' research sharing and communicating their classroom feedbacks with their colleagues so as to enhance learning possibilities. To do so, they have to be competent enough to mediate their views in a clear and technically feasible approach to provide an academically interpretive analysis of their work in a convincing method.

To sum up, what is common in all of the definitions related to language assessment literacy is to make stakeholders familiar with the task of measurement and its corresponding result for the people affected by this assessment (Inbar-Lourie, 2008; Taylor, 2009) "Familiarity with test process awareness of principles and concepts that guide and underpin practice" (Fulcher 2012, cited in O'Loughlin, 2013)

III. GENRE LITERACY: A FRAMEWORK FOR ASSESSMENT

The analysis of the IELTS Task 2 writing module enquiries reveals the fact that in general there are fixed categories of the questions for the candidates to deal with in about 40 minutes in at least 250 word length. The existing genre in all of them is an essay in the written medium with the information source provided by the candidate based on his own previous knowledge or experience and supported by some examples or facts.

The rhetorical function in each type is, however, different and should be emphasized while teaching the candidates in their preparatory writing courses. The prevalent rhetoric referred to here is an argumentative type of nature with its different tokens of enquiry in the IELTS writing module task 2, these argumentative forms are mainly introduced in a direct question types as "Do you agree or Disagree?", "To what extent do you agree or disagree?" or "Discuss both the advantages and disadvantages", each of which has functional objective that is the presentation of enquiry in the form of contrasting ideas or comparing them in a subjective manner.

The sample examples for each of these exam topics receiving a 'very good' assessment evaluation display mostly a fixed form of responses which stem from the reliability of the rating system intrinsic in scoring the IELTS writing papers. Based on Swales (1995), the pattern of the genre and its argumentative rhetoric sense could be repeated in the similar enquiries, that can be used as a model for the IELTS candidates to get familiarized with in order to conform their task performance with the model so that they would enhance their writing validity and its assertiveness.

Most of the sample writings with a 'very good' raw band score consist of four to five paragraphs each of which displays a discernible function in fulfilling the rhetoric implementation in the given topic. The first paragraph in all of them serves as the introduction of the essay which has been referred to as move 1 in the Figure (1). The ultimate purpose of this move is to generalise the topic and claim centrality (Swales 1995) which are crucial in the following paragraphs. These functions are mediated via steps 1 and 2. Step 1 in move 1 has the role of topic generalization through which the writer agrees with the topic and broadens it to the related issues under the enquiry. Step 2 in move 1 acts as a narrowing element which presents the arguments for the first time and signals to the reader that conflicting

issues are going to be negotiated by providing presuppositions. The general function of the first paragraph, therefore, is to establish a territory for the whole writing.

A. *Writing Task 2 Sample 228*

You should spend about 40 minutes on this task.

Write about the following topic:

It is generally believed that some people are born with certain talents, for instance for sport or music, and others are not. However, it is sometimes claimed that any child can be taught to become a good sports person or musician. Discuss both these views and give your own opinion.

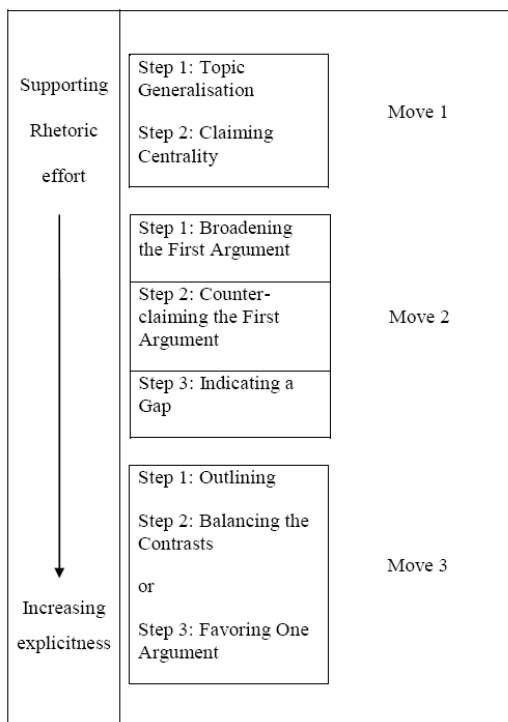
Give reasons for your answer and include any relevant examples from your own knowledge or experience. Write at least 250 words.

The relative importance of natural talent and training is a frequent topic of discussion when people try to explain different levels of ability in, for example, sport, art or music. Obviously, education systems are based on the belief that all children can effectively be taught to acquire different skills, including those associated with sport, art or music. So from our own School experience, we can find plenty of evidence to support the view that a child can acquire these skills with continued teaching and guided practice. However, some people believe that innate talent is what differentiates a person who has been trained to play a sport or an instrument, from those who become good players. In other words, there is more to the skill than a learned technique, and this extra talent cannot be taught, no matter how good the teacher or how frequently a child practices. I personally think that some people do have talents that are probably inherited via their genes. Such talents can give individuals a facility for certain skills that allow them to excel, while more hardworking students never manage to reach a comparable level. But, as with all questions of nature versus nurture, they are not mutually exclusive. Good musicians or artists and exceptional sports stars have probably succeeded because of both good training and natural talent. Without the natural talent continuous training would be neither attractive nor productive and without the training the child would not learn how to exploit and develop their talent. In conclusion, I agree that any child can be taught particular skills but to be really good in areas such as music, art or sport then some natural talent is required.

B. *Sample Writing Adopted from Cambridge Handbook (7)*

Move 2 includes 2 or 3 steps contributing to the development of the rhetoric sense by providing contrasting ideas. Step 1 in move 2 mostly acts as a broadening agent for the first argument by representing the views in an impersonal tone preventing the use of deictic expression 'I' or 'we' to make it sound more assertive for the reader to pursue the second argument in the next step. The argumentative sense is developed through examples or facts and the paragraph ends without any personal comments. Step 2 in move 2 represents a counter-claim for the first argument made in step 1 in move 2, commencing the paragraph by adversative element binders such as 'however', 'but', 'yet', 'nevertheless', ... to show its contrastive content and to accentuate on the argumentation developing between the two paragraphs. Step 3 in move 2 is not an obligatory step like the first two, step 1 and step 2, but could be added if the writer wants to 'indicate a gap'. The gap is there because the writer tries to indicate insufficiency in the argumentations made before and through this step illuminates the contrasting sense of the rhetoric by adding more challenging subjects, sometimes utilizing 'I' as a deictic expression. Step 3 displays limitations discussed before by using negative sentences and intensifying on the drawbacks in the argumentations above by providing a new prospect. In brief, step 3 in move 2 acts as a 'weakening claim' against steps 1 and 2.

Move 3, the final move, serves as the conclusion to the essay and mostly has three steps from which step 1 is an obligatory but the occurrence of steps 2 and 3 depends on the existence of step 3 in move 2. Step 1 acts as a brief outlining of the argumentations elaborated before by employing expressions such as, 'To sum up', 'To conclude', 'Overall', 'In my opinion' Step 2 in move 3 balances the arguments, showing that the writer has accepted both contrasting views with some modifications or instead the writer utilizes step 3 which portrays his favour in either direction, or rejection of both argumentations by proposing a new approach. Step 3 in move 3 cannot be used, in case, step 3 in move 2 has already been utilised (Figure 1).



The move and step patterns could be formulated in another form as well. It happens when argumentation(s) and its counter-claim(s) are presented in the same paragraph in move 2, step 1 and step 2 in a single paragraph, which juxtaposes claims and counter claims. (Figure 2)

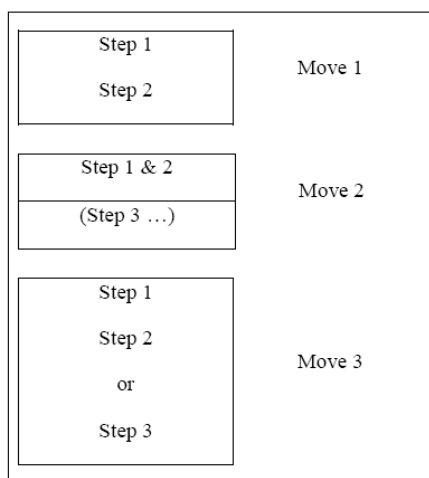


Figure 2: Parallel pattern for Figure 1

C. *Experimental Operationalisation of Literacy*

Eight EFL teachers engaged in teaching English for the senior students in one of the English schools in Tabriz were asked to participate in an in-service training course principally aimed at promoting teachers in their profession. These teachers were chosen from a shortlist of 20 candidates willing to teach in IELTS preparatory courses for students who wish to master their language skills for the IELTS exam. The preliminary task in selecting them was their lack of previous knowledge of IELTS administration, which was achieved through a questionnaire prepared beforehand, and these 8 teachers were the only ones who subjectively mentioned they had not received any training courses in IELTS teaching and were detected as the assessment-illiterate. The group included 5 males and 3 females, MA in TEFL, and were treated in a single class by two experienced IELTS tutors for about 60 hours for three skills, reading, listening and speaking modules. The writing module course was treated in a fifteen-hour course for all the trainees, but four of the teachers from the group, chosen randomly, 2 females and 2 males, received an extra five-hour course focusing on the rhetorical functions of the task 2 writing module, especially on argumentative type of enquiry. This five-hour training was implemented after all the candidates finished the period and they received the approval of the tutors.

D. Complementary Writing Course

The course content was mainly analytical based on literating the teachers about the rhetorical differences concerning the IELTS task 2 writing module through the schematic presentation of the rhetoric patterns. Since most of the topics in tasks 2 are of argumentative nature, it received more attention and was broadly elaborated on. The teachers were asked to read on the issue of genre analysis and rhetoric functions if they found the subjects challenging for them.

IV. EXPERIMENT IMPLEMENTATION

After 2 months of the training course, in order to find out the possible effects of the complementary writing course and to measure teachers' assessment literacy six of the trained teachers, three best ones from each group, were asked to teach for the new IELTS candidates in different groups. Thus within two terms, each term including 15 sessions, 64 IELTS candidates in the same level were taught through a random choice of teachers for the classes.

In the final exam the writing topic for the task 2 was of an argumentative sense. 56 writing papers were collected, 8 candidates were absent for the exams. 32 papers were produced by group one students, whose teachers had received the extra rhetoric sensitive course. The other 34 papers were produced by group two students who belonged to the other three teachers who had intentionally been denied the literacy of the IELTS writing assessment procedure.

V. RESULTS

The analysis of the papers for the rhetoric-literate teachers showed that 20 out of 32 followed the first model of argumentation procedure (62.5%) with a very distinct care for move separation and consideration for the steps, and 7 ($\approx 22\%$) followed the second pattern of the rhetoric representation and 5 (15.5%) candidates' writings were not compatible with any either model and lacked reliability in content.

On the other hand, the writing performance of the students trained by the teachers who didn't receive the supplementary writing course, group two, was different. 12 out of 34 followed the first model of the genre presentation with some negligible problems ($\approx 35\%$) and 5 ($\approx 15\%$) favored the second model of argumentation realisation and 17 (50%) had different approaches for developing their writing enquiries.

Overall, 88.5% of the student performances related to assessment-literate teachers were reliable and accountable based on the realized patterns of preferred rating system, whereas this percentage for the second group was only 50 with some rhetoric presentation problems.

The marking procedure, on the other hand, based on rating the papers from zero to 9 by the raters shows that the difference between these two groups is not due to chance; on the contrary, it is significant and meaningful.

Mean	6.25
SD	1.14
N	32

Mean	5.42
SD	1.08
N	34

VI. DISCUSSION & CONCLUSION

The reality that a teacher's awareness of the assessment requirements could lead to better understanding of the classroom activities is beneficial for the both parties. The washback effect in teaching writing skill to IELTS candidates proves that assessment literacy should seriously be considered in pedagogical circles. Therefore, it seems that assessment literacy is a crucial element required by teachers for their own long-lasting interests, and for the educational welfare of their learners. Regarding predictable prospect, teachers are expected to be in a situation where test-elicited facts have a significant instructional and evaluative function. In such situations, individuals who organize the tests tend to direct the whole activity. Until pre-service instructor educators give fruitful assessment literacy for forthcoming teachers on a standard basis the moderators of professional development programs will need to offer assessment-literacy programs.

Black & Wiliam (1998a, 1998b) lends powerful empirical support attesting to the learning dividends of instructionally oriented classroom assessment. When classroom assessments are conceived as assessments for learning, rather than assessments of learning, students will learn better what their teacher wants them to learn. It is apparent that the effective teachers have to be informed about the rudiments of classroom evaluation in future. Consequently assessment literacy is considered as a must for today's proficient instructor and educator. Therefore, assessment literacy ought to be a fundamental content area for present and upcoming organization improvement activities.

The result of the present enquiry shows that assessment literates tend to communicate their knowledge through a more effective approach to their students than their colleagues, emphasizing the fact that teachers who try to secure their profession in an optimal manner should equip themselves with the needs of the assessment. Assessment literacy, then, acts as a dual instrument both for the well-being of the teachers in the first step and for the objectively literate students meeting their test demands in the second step. The role of in-service training courses for the prospective teachers,

therefore, ought to seek the real demands of the teachers in order to make them potent to realize standardized test requirements through assessing them with subtle features of test demands.

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The Relationship between Reticence and Personality Types in Iranian University EFL Classrooms

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Abstract—Reticence is regarded as a problematic phenomenon among students in EFL classrooms. The present study was an attempt to explore the issue of reticence in Iranian foreign language classrooms. The study examined the relationship between students' reticence and their personality types among university EFL learners. For this purpose, the Reticence Scale-12 (RS-12) questionnaire and the 60-item NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI) questionnaire were used. Moreover, interviews with the participants about reticence were employed to find the students' ideas about reticence in the classroom. The results revealed that the five personality types affected Iranian EFL students' reticence. In addition, educational, situational, and emotional factors contributed to the students' reticence in EFL classrooms. It can be concluded that teachers' awareness of learners' reticence can help them match their teaching styles with their students' personality types, and choose more appropriate activities that can enhance EFL learners' participation. The study can have implications and applications for both teachers and students.

Index Terms— reticence, personality type, NEO five-factor inventory, classroom oral participation

I. INTRODUCTION

Students often avoid oral participation in EFL classrooms. Among all kinds of classroom phenomena, the most frustrating one is that students will not actively participate in classroom discussions (Li & Liu, 2011). "When people avoid communication because they believe it is better to remain silent than to risk appearing foolish", this behavior is called as *reticence* (Keaten & Kelly, 2000). Despite the students' awareness of the importance of spoken English, still many students are reticent and quiet in EFL classrooms (Tani, 2005).

Reticence and non-participation in language classrooms is problematic because learners should be orally active in the target language in order to progress their foreign language (Jackson, 2002). On the other hand, students with varying personality types may respond to the same situation differently. Thus, personality traits make a difference in how students learn and what they learn (Myres & Myres, 1980). Hence, awareness of the of reticence of the EFL students in language classrooms and the relationship between learners' personality and their reticence in EFL classroom can play an important role in identifying the potential causes of verbal nonparticipation and encouraging the students to speak and express their ideas in oral language classrooms. Meanwhile, it can help the teachers to come to a better understanding of the students' behavior in the learning situations.

Despite the importance of students' reticence in the EFL classroom, and students' personality, few investigations have been done in Iran in these areas particularly in university context. It is important to explore these issues in more depth and help students become more active in foreign language learning classroom. The present study investigated on classroom reticence and explores the relation between university EFL learners' reticence and personality type in English as foreign language classrooms in Iran. Moreover, factors contributing to students' reticence are discussed.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Reticence has been a problem among EFL students in language classrooms. Li and Liu (2011) argued that reticent individuals avoid communication in social and public contexts, particularly situations that have the potential for negative evaluation.

In an investigation of case-based teaching and learning, Jackson (2002) revealed that most students failed contributing to classroom discussions. Even if they made some contribution, their speech was short. The findings showed that lack of vocabulary, unwillingness to challenge professors, fear of losing face, personality, lack of familiarity with the cases, anxiety and lack of incentive influenced students' non-participation and reticence.

Students' reticence in oral English lessons at the tertiary level was explored by Liu and Jackson (2009), concluded that students with a higher proficiency level were more willing to be active in class. Moreover, the students' least

favorite activity was giving a lecture, while pair work was a popular activity. Students' willingness to take part in class activities was found to increase as a result of their exposure to spoken language and familiarity with the environment. In an ethnographic study, Baktash and Chalak (2015) observed that learners behaved passively in Iranian EFL classrooms. It was found that classroom atmosphere and learners' proficiency level can influence students' nonparticipation in the classrooms discussions.

On the other hand, personality factors significantly influence the degree of success that individuals achieve in learning a second language (Gass & Selinker, 1994). Some features of the learner's personality might encourage or impede second language learning (Cook, 1996). Thus certain aspects of language learning are required to be enhanced while others need to be inhibited (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991).

An individual's personality trait determines one's behavior relatively and underlines a stable style of thinking, feeling and acting (Hogan, 1991; Mc Crae & Costa 1997). The NEO five-factor model of personality comprises of validation, recognition, and practical consideration across a broad domain of fields, including clinical psychology, industrial-organizational psychology, and health psychology (Widiger & Trull 1997).

Liu (2012) explored the predicting effects of personality traits, self-esteem, language class risk-taking and sociability in Chinese EFL learners' performance in English at the tertiary level. The results revealed that these factors were correlated with one another and with the students' performance in English and self-esteem, language class risk-taking, language class sociability proved to be powerful predictors for the students' performance in English.

Tahriri, Divsar, and Ashouri (2015) explored the relationship between male and female EFL learners' learning styles and their personality types. The study indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between males and females' learning styles and their personality types.

The fact is that there is hardly any study in the world that targeted the relationship between students' reticence and their personality type particularly when it happened in language classroom. The present study intended to answer the following question:

1. What is the relationship between EFL students' reticence and their personality types in Iranian university classrooms?
2. What factors contribute to the EFL students' reticence in Iranian university classrooms?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

This study was a mixed method in design. The study was conducted at Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch and University of Isfahan, Iran. Data were gathered during the first semester of the 2014-2015 (Iranian academic year). The participants of this study were 102 Iranian undergraduate EFL students, majoring in English Language and Literature. Their age ranged from 18 to 28. They were all first year students enrolled in listening and speaking courses. Their privacy was observed when the data were analyzed and tabulated.

B. Instruments

The present study employed the Persian version of the 60-item NEO Five-Factor Inventory (NEO-FFI), the Reticence Scale-12 or RS-12 questionnaire (Kelly, Keaten, Hazel, & Williams, 2007), and a set of questions (as the interview) as the data collection instruments. The RS-12 measures the level of reticence along six dimensions (two items per dimension) of social situation reticent individuals experience in (a) feelings of anxiety, (b) knowledge about topics, (c) timing skills, (d) organization of thoughts, (e) delivery skills and (f) memory. The 12 items were measured using a 5-point Likert scale. The students were asked to specify their age and their proficiency level.

The focus of NEO-FFI lied the five broad domains: Extroversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness. The Persian version of the NEO-FFI was utilized in this study. Each of these five domains is represented by 12 items that must be scored on 5-point Likert scales. Consequently, scores are ranged from 12 to 60. In order to reveal the participants' beliefs about reticence and their experiences in EFL classrooms, a set of semi-structured questions was employed as the interview.

C. Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

The NEO-FFI and the RS-12 questionnaires were distributed among the participants in six listening and speaking course. Both questionnaires were given to the participants at the same time. They responded to the questionnaires in 30 minutes. The participants were informed about the purpose of the study and justified that their responses would be anonymous.

RS-12 is a reliable instrument used to measure the students' reticence in EFL classrooms. The overall Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of the reticence questionnaire was 0.88 which is high. The total score of RS-12 for each student was calculated. It revealed a student's tendency to be reticent in the class.

Alph Cronbach reliability coefficient for the NEO-FFI five personality factors were C= .89, A=.85, O=.83, E=.81, N=.81. Mean and median score were calculated. Moreover, Pearson correlation between students' reticence and five personality factors was calculated in order to determine the relation between them. Moreover, Pearson correlation between students' reticence and five personality factors was calculated, to see the relation between these factors.

A semi-structured interview was conducted. This qualitative component was essential to the study because it led to a precise analysis of reticence. Twenty eight students were participated in the interview voluntarily. The anonymity of participants was emphasized. For better perception and justification, the interviews were conducted in Persian. The interviewees' responds were recorded, transcribed and translated.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Reticence Scale (RS-12) Questionnaire

Based on the six dimensions, the 12 items in RS-12 express the students' passivity in classroom participation. A value of 5 was given to 'Strongly Agree'. A value of 1 was given to 'Strongly Disagree' and so forth. Therefore, the total score of RS-12 expressed a student's tendency to be reticent in foreign language classroom based on the six dimensions.

The results of the RS-12 questionnaire illustrated the mean score (see Table 1) of 34.94, a median of (36.00) and a mode of (36), which all were above the scale midpoint 31 at IAUKB. This further confirms that majority of the students were experiencing reticence in the EFL classrooms. In addition, at UI, the mean score of 29.33, with a median of (30.67) which are close to midpoint 29, and the mode of 18 which is below 29 indicates that more than half of the students were reticent in the EFL classrooms at University of Isfahan.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF RS-12 AT IAUKB AND UI

	Midpoint	Mean	Median	Mode	SD	Range
IAUKB	31	34.94	36	36	8.19	37
UI	29	29.33	30.67	18	9.81	35

IAUKB=Islamic Azad University, Isfahan (Khorasgan) Branch

UI=University of Isfahan

As the results of IAUKB are shown in Table 2, more than half of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that they were nervous and about two third felt tense when talking. Moreover, about half of the students stumble over their words and around one third of them muddle their words in speaking. In addition, the findings of the present study revealed that more than half of the students agreed that they forgot what they wanted to say and about one sixth of them agreed that they lost sight of what to say. Based on the findings, one third of the students agreed that their thoughts were jumbled or disorganized. Less than one fourth of the students needed to wait or hesitate too long to say something. Furthermore, less than one fourth of the students were unaware of what to say and more than one third of them agreed that they were unfamiliar with subject.

Based on the results, about one third of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that they were nervous and felt tense when talking. Furthermore, the findings of the present study revealed that about one third of the students stumble over their words and one fifth of them muddle their words during speaking. Moreover, one sixth of the participants agreed that they forgot what they wanted to say and one fifteenth of them agreed that they lost sight of what to say. The results also showed that less than one sixth of the students agreed that their thoughts were jumbled and less than one third of them agreed or strongly agreed that their thoughts were disorganized. In addition, Table 2 reveals that about one sixth of the students needed to wait or hesitate too long to say something. Furthermore, less than one sixth of the students were unaware of what to say and more than one third of them agreed that they were unfamiliar with subject.

The results of the RS-12 questionnaire showed that most of the participants were found to be reticent. As illustrated in Table 2, anxiety and then delivery skills were the major problems of the students at both universities. Memory, organization of thoughts, knowledge about topics, and timing and were respectively the next EFL students' problems at IAUKB. Moreover, the next dimensions in which the students of UI had problems were organization of thoughts, knowledge about topics, timing skills, and memory respectively.

TABLE 2.
STUDENTS' RESPONSES TO RS-12 STATEMENTS AT IUAKB AND UI

Dimensions & Items		SD		D		N		A		SA	
		f	p	f	p	f	p	f	p	f	p
1. I am nervous when talking.	IAUKB	5	6.9	20	27.8	12	16.7	27	37.5	8	11.1
	UI	6	20	9	30	4	13.3	9	30.0	2	6.7
2. I feel tense when talking.	IAUKB	0	0	8	11.1	10	13.9	43	59.7	11	15.3
	UI	5	16.7	5	16.7	9	30.0	11	36.7	0	0
3. I stumble over my words.	IAUKB	5	6.9	17	23.6	13	18.1	32	44.4	5	6.9
	UI	8	26.7	8	26.7	3	10	11	36.7	0	0
4. I muddle my words.	IAUKB	6	8.3	22	30.6	22	30.6	19	26.4	3	4.2
	UI	6	20.0	14	46.7	4	13.3	5	16.7	1	3.3
5. I forget what I want to say when talking.	IAUKB	4	5.6	14	19.4	16	22.2	35	48.6	3	4.2
	UI	8	26.7	8	26.7	9	30.0	4	13.3	1	3.3
6. I lose sight of what I want to say when talking.	IAUKB	10	13.9	26	36.1	22	30.6	14	19.4	0	0
	UI	9	30.0	14	46.7	5	16.7	2	6.7	0	0
7. My thoughts are disorganized.	IAUKB	7	9.7	26	36.1	15	20.8	19	26.4	5	6.9
	UI	8	26.7	7	23.3	10	33.3	5	16.7	0	0
8. My thoughts are jumbled.	IAUKB	6	8.3	24	33.3	19	26.4	20	27.8	3	4.2
	UI	9	30.0	8	26.7	5	16.7	8	26.7	0	0
9. I wait too long to say what I want to say.	IAUKB	14	19.4	24	33.3	17	23.6	13	18.1	4	5.6
	UI	5	16.7	12	40.0	9	30.0	4	13.3	0	0
10. I hesitate too long to say what I want to say.	IAUKB	7	9.7	27	37.5	21	29.2	16	22.2	1	1.4
	UI	6	20.0	13	43.3	6	20.0	5	16.7	0	0
11. I am unaware of what to say.	IAUKB	7	9.7	34	47.2	15	20.8	16	22.2	0	0
	UI	7	23.3	16	53.3	3	10.0	4	13.3	0	0
12. I am unfamiliar with what to say.	IAUKB	7	9.7	16	22.2	22	30.6	24	33.3	3	4.2
	UI	6	20.0	7	23.3	10	33.3	5	16.7	2	6.7

SD = strongly disagree; D = disagree; UD = undecided; A = agree; SA = strongly

B. Results of Neo-FFI Questionnaire

Results of the NEO-FFI questionnaire for IAUKB and UI are presented separately in Table 3. In the NEO-FFI for each factor those who receive scores (12-24) are low; scores (24-48) are average and (48-60) are high. As it is shown in table 4, in both universities majority of the participants fell in the range of average (24-48) and few were in the high category (48-60) while very few learners received low scores (12-24) and for some factors there were no participants for low score. Students were in the average range, had the following features in common. They tended to be:

1. generally calm and able to deal with stress, but sometimes experience feelings of guilt, anger, and sadness.
2. moderate in activity and enthusiasm. Enjoy the company of others but also value privacy.
3. practical but willing to consider new ways of doing things; seek a balance between the old and the new.
4. generally warm, trusting, and agreeable, but you can sometimes be competitive.
5. dependable, moderately well-organized; generally have clear goals but are able to set you work aside.

TABLE 3.
PERSONALITY TYPES AT IUAKB AND UI

	12-24		24-48		48-60		N
	f	p	f	p	f	p	
IAUKB							
Neuroticism	8	11.11	58	80.56	6	8.33	72
Extroversion	1	1.39	62	86.11	9	12.5	72
Openness	0	0	68	94.44	4	5.55	72
Agreeableness	1	1.39	68	94.44	3	4.17	72
Conscientiousness	0	0	51	70.83	21	29.17	72
UI							
Neuroticism	3	10	22	73.33	5	16.67	30
Extroversion	0	0	26	86.67	4	13.33	30
Openness	1	3.33	26	86.67	3	10	30
Agreeableness	0	0	26	86.67	4	13.33	30
Conscientiousness	0	0	20	66.67	10	33.33	30

C. Results of the Relationship between Reticence and Personality Types

To uncover the existence/inexistence of a relationship between reticence and personality types at both universities, Pearson correlation formula could have been used.

The results of table 4 illustrates that the relationship between reticence and neuroticism was a significant positive one ($r = .460$) at IAUKB. In addition, the relationships between reticence and the other personality types (i.e. extroversion, openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness) are $-.066$, $-.185$, $-.227$, and $-.347$ respectively which are negative relationship.

Moreover, Table 4 also shows the results of the regression analysis conducted for the purpose of this research question at University of Isfahan. The correlation between reticence and Neuroticism was a significant positive one

(.561) at University of Isfahan. A significant negative correlation (-.583) exists between reticence and Extroversion. There are negative relationships between reticence and other personality types (i.e. Openness, Agreeableness and Conscientiousness) which are -.017, -.099, and -.263, respectively.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF PEARSON CORRELATION FOR THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN PERSONALITY TYPES AND RETICENCE AT IAUKB AND UI

		Reticence	Neuroticism	Extroversion	Openness	Agreeableness	Conscientiousness	
IAUKB	Reticence	1.00	.460	-.066	-.185	-.227	-.347	
	Neuroticism	.460	1.00	-.490	-.159	-.404	-.522	
	Pearson Correlation	Extroversion	-.066	.490	1.00	-.220	.371	.229
	Openness	-.185	.159	-.220	1.00	-.078	-.040	
	Agreeableness	-.227	-.464	.371	-.078	1.00	.410	
	Conscientiousness	-.347	-.522	.299	-.040	.410	1.00	
UI	Reticence	1.00	.561	-.583	-.017	-.099	-.263	
	Neuroticism	.561	1.00	-.484	-.203	-.320	-.161	
	Pearson Correlation	Extroversion	-.583	-.484	1.00	.504	.432	.115
	Openness	-.017	-.203	.504	1.00	.419	-.139	
	Agreeableness	-.099	-.320	.432	.419	1.00	-.009	
	Conscientiousness	-.263	-.161	.115	-.139	-.009	1.00	

D. Results of the Interview

A series of semi-structured interview questions were conducted in order to revealed the participants' ideas and experiences about reticence in foreign language classrooms. Twenty of the students at IAUKB and ten of the students at UI were participated in the interview voluntarily.

The results of the interview at IAUKB showed that more than half of the interviewees had trouble with the grammatical points, constructing sentences, and listening. Therefore, they were reticent because they did not express their ideas as they expected. They pointed out that they need enough time to think about or even write what they intended to say. They claimed that most of the time, they were not able to understand most parts of the listening context, and did not have any idea to state.

About half of the interviewees mentioned that they were not confident enough and about half of the participants felt afraid of their classmates' reaction. More than half of the students stated that they wouldn't participate in class if they were not interested in topic. Most of the students said that the instructor traits and method had a strong impact on their reticence and tense. About two third of the participants mentioned that the instructor's behavior and practice help them be less nervous and more confident to participate in class.

Based on the results of interview at UI, less than one third of interviewees mentioned that lack of English proficiency made them be reticent. About half of them pointed out that lack of self confidence made them not speak in class or answer to the teacher's question voluntarily. Two of them believed that the level of proficiency of their classmates was so high that they preferred to be reticent than making mistakes or hesitating too much in front of their classmates and the instructor. They kept thinking that other students were better at English than them.

One fourth of the interviewees reported that they did not like to speak even in their mother tongue. One of them claimed that although he was not a talkative person at all, he attempted to participate in EFL classrooms to benefit from, but he was still one of the most reticent students among his classmates. The instructor trait and the method that s/he used influenced on the students participation and their reticence. One fourth of the participants stated that other students had already given the ideas before they intended to start speaking. Therefore, they did not have any other thing to share with their classmates. More than half of the interviewees mentioned that they would not discuss about a subject that they found uninteresting.

Generally, at both universities, the majority of the interviewees mentioned that their fear of others reaction and the teachers' evaluation was gradually decreasing, because they got acquainted with the students and the teacher. They claimed that they had improved in comparison with the beginning of the semester.

V. CONCLUSION

This study revealed that reticence exists among students at all levels of proficiency in EFL classrooms. As reticence has been found to be a problematic behavior by many EFL instructors, this issue should be studied seriously. It has been explored that psychological factors contribute to students' reticence and makes it a serious problem in foreign language learning.

The results showed that personality types influence on the EFL students' reticence. The influence is more prominent among the students with higher proficiency level. Moreover, educational, situational, and emotional factors impact on the EFL learners' reticence. For instance, level of proficiency, anxiety, teacher's trait, to be interested in the subject, teaching method, fear of making mistakes, and self-confidence had a large effect on reticence. In order to avoid reticence and its consequences in EFL classrooms, both teachers and students are expected to transform the classrooms into a more active one.

Teachers' awareness of learners' reticence can help them match their teaching styles with their students' personality types and choose more appropriate activities that can enhance EFL learners' participation. Furthermore, students should practice a lot to improve their proficiency level. The results of the study can help language learners and teachers consider the psycholinguistic aspects in learning and teaching. Special curriculum can be developed to provide treatment for individuals with communication difficulties in the classrooms.

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Hybridization in Political Civilization in Samuel Selvon's *The Lonely Londoners* and *Moses Ascending*

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Abstract—Samuel Selvon (1923-1994) is a great pioneer in Creole literature. His writing in the Moses trilogy is very representative because of his preoccupation with issues of identity and culture. *The Lonely Londoners*, published in 1956, and *Moses Ascending*, published in 1975, are two of them. These two books telling Creole immigrants' story have been recognized as a great masterpiece in Caribbean literature, which have a far-reaching influence on postcolonial literature. This thesis attempts to employ Homi Bhabha's theory of hybridity to illustrate the Creoles' struggle against colonization and the construction of political hybridity. The thesis consists of three parts. Part One is Introduction, which presents a short introduction to the author Samuel Selvon, his two works, the theoretical framework. Part Two depicts the process of the Creoles' struggle against colonization in political civilization. In the aspect of politics, the Creoles experience the process from unawareness of politics to pursuing their political dream. They attempt to construct their own political system on the basis of the British mode. Part Three is Conclusion. Based on the above analyses, the thesis draws the conclusion that different cultures can influence each other. The effective way to realize decolonization is the construction of political hybridity.

Index Terms—Samuel Selvon, *The Lonely Londoners*, *Moses Ascending*, hybridization

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1994, Homi Bhabha put forwards the famous theory of Hybridity in his book *The Location of Culture* (1994). From his point of view, it is inadequate to use center or margin to define the relationship between the colonists and the colonized because they are mutually exclusive and depend on each other. He notes that "Hybridity is the sign of the productivity of colonial power, its shifting forces and fixities; it is the name for the strategic reversal of the process of domination through disavowal..." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) Bhabha defines hybridity as "the name of this displacement of value from symbol to sign that causes the dominant discourse to split along the axis of its power to be representative, authoritative." (Bhabha, 1994, p.159) And he stresses on the ambivalence of hybridity. It is not a third term to settle down the tension between two cultures.

Homi Bhabha's theory of Hybridity is an important tool to conduct his postcolonial criticism, widely applied in some English texts featured in the postcolonial characteristics like works of Conrad and Naipaul. Through reading and analysis, we can find Hybridity located in postcolonial scenario. Hybridity adapts to this global trend. It can help colonized countries rebuild their culture. Nowadays, the theory of Hybridity has more and more realistic significance especially for those ethnic groups. They still keep in touch with their cultural tradition but have to adapt in their new residential culture. The theory of Hybridity can make us pay more attention to the conflict and exchange of different cultures in the context of globalization.

Politics is a fundamental aspect of any cultural process, and must automatically emerge in any authentic representation of a society's experience. This thesis seeks to make a contribution to describing their process in the hybridization in political civilization by observing the particular Creole migrant community from *The Lonely Londoners* to *Moses Ascending*. While most of the texts of *Moses Ascending* deals with the life of Moses, *The Lonely Londoners* depicts a vivid picture of Creole immigrants life. From the perspective of politics, the Creole immigrants have experienced the "blank period": the stage of having no consciousness of politics and the "primary stage": the stage of organizing small-scale political activities. And then they have actually experienced the hybridization in political civilization. During this period, they have raised the real awareness of pursuing democracy and positively taken active part in different kinds of political activities. They put what they have observed and learned during these years in London into real practice. The theory of Hybridity is an important part in Homi Bhabha's postcolonial criticism. It is also indispensable of the whole theory of postcolonial criticism. Along with the trend of globalization and more attention towards "Identity", Bhabha's theory of Hybridity becomes increasingly important. It represents the latest stage of contemporary postcolonial criticism.

II. HYBRIDIZATION IN POLITICAL CIVILIZATION

A. *Unconsciousness of Politics—The Lonely Londoners*

This part explores Selvon's portrayal in *The Lonely Londoners* of Moses and his fellows' fight against difficulties in London society. Although images of the larger society pervade, Londoners is chosen as the point as it characterizes an entire community. This period is very important in that it forms the basis for their next stage. Here, the West Indian people in Selvon's London are cast adrift in a situation where is particularly arduous. They are circumscribed by the structure of London society but they are not part of this structure. They all face a dilemma both materially and psychologically. That dilemma is the reason why they are not aware of political life. It is in the conflation of civilization and modernity that the city is defined as an object of colonial desire. The dream-city and dream-life could be seen as a life of desire, an escape from colonialism. In this aspect, London in the two novels can be seen as the land of plenty and of privilege, of subjects of colonialism, imperialism, sovereignty and also modernity. "Exclusive ethnic identification is treated ironically or with ridicule in Selvon's work. In his Moses trilogy, mostly set in London, Black Power activism is portrayed as self-seeking and opportunistic, while the carnivalesque comedy of Moses's enactment of Britannia ridicules the colonial mentality and renders colonial history as farce". (Thorpe, 1995, p.87) The Creole immigrants have spent much time in adapting to this unfamiliar and unfriendly society. And they have changed gradually both mentally and psychologically. Selvon's immigrants are given the lowest life, are offered the worst job suffering all kinds of difficulties. They pay high prices for insecure tenancy in the most undesirable houses, and indulge in sexual exploits that never include anything other than sex. They have suffered from rain, snow wind and frog. And they have to combine on the fringes of this host society that regards them with indifference or hostility. But after living in London for a period, they have unconsciously been involved in some small political activities and for the first time touch the word "politics".

After the Creole immigrants have conquered the basic living difficulties in *The Lonely Londoners*, Moses and his fellows begin to get in touch with politics for the first time. In *Moses Ascending*, Moses begins to live in a big house and is served by a white servant. Since he becomes the landlord of the house, he has begun to put a distance between himself and the Creole fellows. At that time, some black immigrants have organized some small-scale political activities and many immigrants fervently take part in. At the beginning, Moses is reluctant to get involved in this kind of political activities. When Galahad first comes to his house to visit him, he suspects that Galahad has some other purposes for coming.

"Not that struggle," he wave my words away. "I mean *the* struggle. It is only right that you should contribute to the cause. We need financiers. Without the black gentry and nobility on our side, it is a losing battle." (Selvon, 2008, p.14)

Galahad's purpose is as evident as Moses expected. And in Galahad's opinions, Moses has changed. He begins to deny the fact that he was a black and wants to live a peaceful life, enjoy his richness and get rid of his fellows. So he turns a blind eye to their struggle. But what Moses has in mind is much. Firstly as the first generation of immigrants, he has fulfilled his responsibility. He has taught them how to live in London and now he retires, they have to be dependent on their own. Secondly, he doesn't want to get restricted in the black circle for his whole life. He wants to flee from his past. So he moves to get rid of those fellows and enjoy the peaceful life and change his lifestyle into a real Londoner. "Moses's resolve is also evident in his rise of his tenants to choose rooms in the apartment building, while Moses, the landlord, finally settles in the basement, unable to cross the Jordon and do battle with the Phillistines". (Rothfork, 1991, p. 9-22) So after he has experienced the hardest time in London, he doesn't want to get involved in these things. So he adopts an adverse attitude towards political activities.

In conclusion, the immigrants' first period in London is a period when they are unaware of Politics. Some of them are even against all kinds of political activities strongly. Moses's transition of attitude towards political activities of black power has experienced a long time. His consciousness shows apparently that how a black person who has already been much influenced by Capitalism and even approve of this kind of social system gradually begins to reassess all this and change his mind. At first, a series of persuasion from Galahad and Brenda hasn't have any effects upon him. But Brenda's sexual attraction and her outstanding personality attracted Moses so he let her live in his house. But unexpectedly, Brenda uses his basement as their party's meeting spot. Then unfortunately, when Moses goes to find them, he is regarded as a member of the party and sent to the jail by London police. Until then he keeps his negative attitude against the party and has been opposed to what Brenda and Galahad did. From Moses' experience above, we can conclude that until he tacitly consents to Brenda's behaviors and promise to support her on material, he still hasn't raised the awareness of politics. In his opinion, politics is irrelevant to him. What he has done to help the political organization is actually because of his affection towards Brenda. Moses' attitude towards politics obviously represents a big group of immigrants. They all share the common sense: politics has nothing to do with them. It's not difficult to analyze the reasons. The most important reason is that economic base determines the superstructure. Most of the immigrants are below the poverty line. The only thing that has haunted in their minds is bread-and-butter issue. They have to consider the food, the job, the family and so on. They are under a lot of pressure. "Black individuals were, therefore, marginalized not only from mainstream white culture but also from the primary bodies of political opposition to dominant power frameworks". (Bentley, 2003, p.44) Another important reason is that they generally don't have a high level of education. Some of them are totally not educated. Politics is an area beyond the scope of their understanding. "The lack of equivalence between the marginalized discourses of class and race is thereby projected by the text as indicative of the lack of political articulation amongst black subcultural groups". (Bentley, 2003, p.44)

B. *The Hybridized Political Activities—Moses Ascending*

The representative one is Brenda and Galahad. They are among the first group to have the awareness of independence, equality and democracy. A typical example is their raising funds for launching political activities. The normal operation of any organization calls for a lot of money. In capitalist country, there are many financial groups financially supporting the political organizations. There are no such financial groups in the immigrant circle. They have to ask for their rich fellows just like Moses for help. Moses himself sees this method as a capitalist method. "Funds, donations, contribution-- those are only words for money. You are as diplomatic as the English." (Selvon, 1985, p.24) Here Moses's words reflect that their behavior is hybridized. They are actually imitating the local Londoners.

Moses is another one whose experience is representative during the process of political hybridization. Moses's attitude towards political activities begins to change after his house is "occupied" by Pakis—in order to make money, he agrees to make room for those illegal immigrants. He thinks it is an easy affair but it then turns out to be uncontrollable. That night Bob and he have no place to sleep so they have to look for Galahad for help. That night is an important turning point. After that, his attitude towards political community and black people's movement changes. Firstly, when he stays in that filthy place he once lives, he remembers the days when he first comes to London, poor and difficult. He knows he could not stand that kind of life but he is yearning for that feeling of belonging when so many Creoles live together. But now he gets nobody to talk to and be in accompanying with. He finds himself alone except a white man Bob. He finds that Galahad may be the only Creole he has connections with. He is afraid to lose these connections and desperately wants to find back that feeling of belonging. Secondly, Galahad's attitude towards his memoirs, house and money makes him uncomfortable. Galahad makes him feel unhappy with his hard-earned money just like some rich people feel guilty with their wealth and always donate something to charity. He feels torturing when he experiences that most of his black fellows still live in that severe environment while he owns a big house and he even keeps illegal immigrants to make money. Thirdly, his sense of superiority forces him to raise the awareness of leadership. He reminds himself of the days when he organizes the every-week gathering. At that time, he is the core person among the Creole immigrants. People all respect him and view him as the authority in every aspect. He cherishes the memory of those days. And now he wants to be their leader again.

Moses begins to get involved in political activities after that. When Brenda organizes these activities, Moses keeps observing her. He finds that most of her assistants are doing these things without payment. "Those who work do so because they are aware of the Winds of change, and Third World potentialities.' Apathy is our greatest enemy. If you don't stand up and be counted, you will be swept away.'" (Selvon, 1985, p.106) Moses finds himself in an awkward situation shuttling between Pakis and blacks. He doesn't intend to but finally gets involved into the Pakis' affairs. So he made up his mind to choose his camp. Finally, Moses chooses to return to his camp and supports the immigrants' political activities. When the Pakis leave his house, he thinks that taking part in political activities is just sitting at home assisting Brenda's work from time to time. In his opinion, his memoir is still in the first place. He wants to have a lot of spare time to write his memoir. But he often criticizes Galahad and Brenda's work. He thinks that their speech is not encouraging. Although he doesn't actually attend to the political activities in person, he regards himself as a leader. So far as he is concerned, these political gatherings are just like those political gatherings by London people. The only difference lies in that they represent different communities. But this point of view changes after he goes to the site of their actual gathering and sees with his own eyes how London police suppress the gathering and treat his fellows badly. When they come out to parade, the London Police comes to suppress. The team loses its control and all of the members are dashing about to find safe places. Moses runs away at once. But when he strays away from the team, he suddenly realizes something.

"Was all of we in the hall criminals that we had to jump up and flee for our very lives? There we was, sitting down, and I was just writing down the words of the Party anthem, when we was so rudely interrupted. My blood begin to boil. I had half a mind to get back there and ask the Inspector himself what was the meaning of this outrage?" "How dare you intrude on this peaceful gathering," I would say, "and strike terror into the hearts of these innocent people?" And I would ask him for his name, number and rank, and report him to the Chief of Scotland Yard. (Selvon, 1985, p.126)

This is a critical event which signifies that the immigrants' power will be united from now on. This is the time when Moses' awareness of politics comes to the zenith. He thinks those black people are his fellows. When he sees that they are driven and shot, he becomes angry and hopeless. But he could do nothing. After the police arrest some of them, he thinks it is injustice. He even takes his saved money to release them on bail. After this event, Moses becomes a big hero in the black circle. Brenda and Galahad make the advantage of this opportunity and decide to make a detailed report on him. But this event increases his sense of politics. But this event also makes Moses realize that it is more difficult for all the immigrants to take part in political activities. And there must be a long way to go.

III. CONCLUSION

"West Indian writers have always been an important part of migrant populations. It is not surprising then to find them preoccupied with the subject of exile, identity, gender and so on. Among the distinguished writers, Braithwaite's concern with the loss of tradition, Naipaul's with the idea of exile as hopeless, Lamming with paradox of the colonized people". (Forbes, 1997, p.47) However, concerning of these brilliant writers, their texts have many things in common: a privilege of the concern for gender, identity and other cultural activities but turning a blind eye to their political status.

They always deliberately or indeliberately evade discussing the inferior political situation and inhibit the local political life.

But Samuel Selvon has broken the shackles. As mentioned above, Selvon is not only a writer. He is more like a social activist. "Lacking the critical apparatus to deal with him effectively, critics have opted either to ignore him or to kidnap certain sections of his work and force them into ill-fitting analytical frameworks aligned with particular political projects." (MacLeod, 2005, p.157) That is the reason why he has paid more attention to politics than other postcolonial writers. His works are dressed in strong political color, unveiling the mysterious veil of the effects from western political ideology. During the process of reading, we can find that the Creole migrant community has been struggling for democracy and political freedom in London society. And their ultimate goal is to build up an intact political system.

Politics is an important manifestation, which proves that the Creole immigrants have adapted to the life in London and begun to learn something advanced from the capitalist society. The real adventure is these people who come hoping to find out in which direction they can go, or are just following the example of London. During the process of political hybridization, they have achieved great progress.

First of all, the immigrants have realized the importance of politics and have formed a set of political ideas. Although the very existence of politics is never systematically posed, they have been already aware that the problem of politics is urgently placed before their eyes. Their personal equities, the guarantees of their rights, the welfare are all included in their political ideas. Their pursuit of democracy and their appeal to equity are as passionate as the local Londoners. Once they settle in London, they are influenced by this overwhelming political power. They begin to learn from the local Londoners asking for their political rights. They are eager to build up their own system of politics. They have realized that it is necessary for them to build their own political party. This is a big step for them. Living in London, they find there are different political parties representing each part's interests. No party is on behalf of them in public. No party really cares their surviving conditions, welfare, and medical treatment. So they decide to build up their own party, on behalf of themselves, speaking for themselves. The matter of building up an independent party is a sign that their political activities will be organized, managed and supported.

The second aspect is that they have carried out a series of political activities, putting their political ideas into practice. Their political behaviors are all hybridized behaviors. Their building of political parties, their launch of a newspaper agency, their endeavor to raise funds to support is all hybridized. They have an independent political party; they have their newspaper agency; they passionately participate in democracy activities; they positively ask for their equal rights with local Londoners; they know clearly what rights they have since they were born.

The third aspect is that the immigrants know how to make advantage of their united power to reinforce their party. After they build the party, they go hither and thither to publicize and promote, attracting more fellows to join in. They also devote manpower and material resources to educate the newly-joined fellows and those uncivilized fellows, in order to organize this loose team. Besides, they have developed a series of political activities such as some small-scale demonstration march against discrimination or unjust. Their team meets at fixed time and spot. The leader makes an encouraging speech before the activities. And they begin to build a publicity agency. In capitalist country, publicity agency is supported by financial group and served for political purpose. They build an agency to publicize their political ideas in want of encouraging more black people to join them. Most black people live in the lowest level of the society, the newspaper is a direct medium to enlighten them and educate them, fostering their awareness of politics and encouraging them to take part in the political activities. They realize publicity agency is a powerful tool for politics. And Moses even finds that it is also practicable to unite the white people's power. He thinks it will be more influential if they could unite the power of the white people to fight for the democracy. So he passionately introduces Bob's story in the meeting and suggests that they could use a white man's portrait on the front page of the newspaper. The white people's support will be more impressive and persuasive both to the immigrants and the mainstream of the London society.

But this process of hybridization also has some shortcomings. They don't have much finance to support them. The inside people in the team are not as united as they expect. They don't have many intellects to write reports for their newspaper. But the biggest problem is that their politics is not based on their own political system or rooted on their own political idea but indiscriminately imitate the London system, that is to say, they have been trying to build a political system of a capitalist country. In order to get real success, they must have their own political idea and build their own political system, forming the real political hybridity.

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An Investigation of EFL Learners' Mental Processes in L2 Writing: The Case of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—Normal human communication manifests itself mostly either in written or spoken form. Examination of speech and writing processes enables psycholinguists to peek into the way people plan their language production. This article aimed to examine how EFL learners plan their writing activities. To this end, two groups of High proficiency (HPG) and Low proficiency (LPG) of 16 EFL students were asked to write an argumentative essay on the given topic. Based on the data obtained from their think-aloud protocols, retrospective interviews, and the comparisons of the two groups' performance, it was found that both groups approached the writing task in a linear progression of three stages of Formulation, Execution, and Monitoring. However, there were differences in the ways the two groups planned their writing productions.

Index Terms—L2 writing, writing mental processes, writing models, Iran

I. INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND

Communication may be considered as the ultimate goal of language planning and production. The most conspicuous aspects of our language production manifest themselves in writing or speech. The visual and concrete nature of production stage of our language makes it prone to more psycholinguistic investigations. As Kellogg (1996) believes, the very natures of oral and written productions have much in common. So it seems reasonable to have speech production models in mind while investigating writing production processes. Psycholinguists have always tried to understand how people produce their language. These efforts have resulted in two outstanding psycholinguistics theories proposed by Levelt (1989) and McNeill (1987) on speech production. The production, as a concrete stage in language use, can be examined from two independent perspectives. The first view is Levelt's (1989) influential model of speaking process which considers the production of speech as a linear process starting from the conceptualizer, which is responsible for message generation and monitoring, and then processing the preverbal message into the formulator component, whose functions are grammatical and phonological encodings; that is, they are responsible to add appropriate words and sounds to the messages produced by the conceptualizer (p. 9). The result of these operations is phonetic planning that is further processed by the articulator which produces the overt speech.

Focusing on what Levelt terms a 'blueprint' of the speaking process, Scovel (2003) provides a more profound analysis of the idea, admitting that speech production is a linear progression of four successive stages: 1) conceptualization, 2) formulation, 3) articulation, and 4) self-monitoring. Each of these is briefly elaborated below.

Conceptualization refers to the way linguistic concepts are formed in the mind. Scovel (2003) discusses two different views on this initial stage of language production. One way is to consider McNeill's (1987) theory, according to which linguistic concepts are the product of the simultaneous and parallel processes of syntactic and imagistic thinking. The former develops the sequence of words and the latter adds a holistic and visual dimension to our speech. Another way is Levelt's (1989) own idea on conceptualization that speech starts from concepts [concepts which already exist in our Long-Term memory as part of our schematic knowledge]. The next step is Formulation. It is defined as "the second stage of speech production, after conceptualization, when the message is formed into words, phrases, and clauses by the speaker" (Scovel, 2003, p.126). The third stage of our speech production is articulation, whereby words and phrases produced are turned into concrete and physical categories of our speech. Self-monitoring is the last stage of speech mechanism whereby speakers self-edit themselves when they happen to make a mistake. Embarking on the second

perspective, Scovel (2003) suggests “alternative approaches ... characterizing the production of speech as a holistic activity where several simultaneous and parallel activities are taking place to create the utterances we intend to produce” (p. 27).

Maybe the first attempt to developing a writing model is the work of Flower and Hayes’ (1981) “explicit” model of the writing process. The model includes three major stages of a) planning, b) translating, and c) reviewing. The *Planning* stage consists of three strategies of generating ideas, organizing, and setting goals based on relevant information from the task environment and long-term memory; the *Translating* stage, which is the actual stage of composing, is when a writer actually puts his/her ideas into visible language, an activity through which writers transform their ideas from a linear or hierarchical plan in sentences; and, the *Reviewing* stage is the act of evaluating what has been planned or written through reading and editing strategies. This model which is based on the writing processes of competent L1 writers has been the basis of many psycholinguistic studies on both L1 and L2 writing processes (e.g., Hyland, 2003; Shaw & Weir, 2007; Plakans, 2008; Chien, 2012). The implicit assumption underlying these studies is that L1 and L2 writers go through the same processes while doing a writing task and, as Ellis and Yuan (2004) mention, there is a general acceptance that these processes are almost similar in L1 and L2.

Another model of writing, employed in the current study, is Kellogg’s (1996) model. This model has proposed three stages of writing which are: a) Formulation, b) Execution, and c) Monitoring.

Here, Formulation proceeds in two steps: Planning and Translation. Planning refers to setting goals and pondering upon ideas and making a coherent structure out of them. Translating is giving the abstract ideas of linguistic forms. Similarly, the Execution stage takes place in two steps: Programming and Execution, which together turn the phonological code to motor instructions so that the relevant muscles can execute the received instructions. Monitoring is the same stage as the one occurring in speech production, i.e. self-monitoring.

Needless to say, this model elaborates the actual stage of writing in more details in the sub-stage of Translation and the stage of Execution, while in Flower and Hayes’s (1981) model the main emphasis is on the planning phase the main phase of writing ‘Translating’ has received little attention. In addition, as Zimmerman (2000) believes, the model is generally deductive and hypothetical in nature and has a comparatively small empirical basis. Bearing all in mind, the researchers in this study decided to use Kellogg’s (1996) model as the basis for this study.

The results of studies on comparing the ways skilled and unskilled writers tackle a task of writing (e.g. Zamel, 1983; Jones & Tetroe, 1987; Cumming, 1989; Armengol-Castells, 2001; Kongpun, 1992; Roca de Larios, Manchon, et al., 2008; Chien, 2012), in all, show that skilled writers do the planning and revision mostly at the discourse level; while unskilled writers plan less and much of their revision is at word and phrase levels.

Furthermore, it seems that the models referred to above, i.e. Levelt’s (1989) speaking model and Kellogg’s (1996) writing model, describe writing and speaking processes in general regardless of who is processing them: native speakers or non-native speakers. Besides, there appears to be scarcity of research on the stages involved in speech or writing production in EFL contexts. Taking these points into account, the present study tries to answer the following question:

-- How do EFL learners plan and manage their writing production?

II. METHOD

Design

This study adopts a basic interpretive, qualitative-oriented approach to investigate the focus of inquiry. Being the most common types of qualitative studies needed, these basic studies provide thick descriptions of the processes involved in the phenomenon under investigation. Therefore, the researchers considered it as an appropriate window to investigate how EFL learners plan their written production.

Data collection

The data for the study came from two different data-gathering sources: concurrent Think-Aloud Protocols and Retrospective Interview. The process of think-aloud protocol was carried out based on Bowles’s (2010) guidelines in which the participants were first informed of the purpose of the study and agreed to take part in the experiment of their own volition. In the think aloud sessions, they were again informed about the general aim and procedure of the study and the researchers obtained their permission to audio tape their verbal reports. Then, they were provided with a detailed instruction about how to do the think aloud tasks during 30 to 45 minutes using either Farsi or English for their Think-aloud activities, of their own preference. Finally, they were given a warm-up activity (an arithmetic problem to verbalize while doing the computation) to be sure that they were well prepared to carry out the main task. Some degree of control was exercised to minimize any bias which could potentially contaminate the results of the study. First, the think aloud technique was explained for each individual participant. Next, each participant was asked to practice the technique. The purpose here was to avoid any kind of anxiety which could be felt by the participants as they might consider think aloud activities as a new and threatening experience. If the participants personally declared that they were ready, then they would start the writing activity. Furthermore, all of the participants were given the same writing task to perform. The task was an argumentative task: "University authorities should ask students to evaluate their professors. Do you agree or disagree? Use specific reasons and examples to support your own position".

The reason for choosing this task came from four dimensions. First, it would reduce any kind of difference on the part of the participants in their performance due to the task type. Furthermore, since all the participants were requested

to write on the same topic, any differences in their writings which could be attributed to the topic effect was monitored. In other words, the topic, in our study, was a controlled variable.

Moreover, since the aim of the study was to investigate the production stages of EFL learners, having the same task and topic provided us with comparable sets of data. In addition, argumentative tasks are mostly used in the literature of writing studies believing that they are thought-provoking and therefore they easily lend themselves to discussion. The other reason that the task type was held constant during this study was that it provided the opportunity for the researchers to control over time designated for the activity. In this study, on the average, 30 up to 45 minutes were dedicated to writing argumentative tasks. Other studies have also set similar periods for writing argumentative tasks (See, for example, Chien, 2012). Setting the time restriction, however, may bring anxiety because students may feel they are under time pressure for the activity. To overcome any such negative feelings, all individuals were told that if they needed, they would have more time.

Further control was obtained by the way the participants started the activity. Since it was believed that any prior extra time would influence the planning stage of their production, once the necessary explanation about the Think-aloud procedure was provided to the participants, they were immediately asked to start the writing activity.

Immediately after the learners had accomplished their writing tasks, they were invited to retrospective semi-structured interview sessions to answer the questions: "how did you plan your writing task?, Did you plan it holistically or did you plan it in a linear fashion ?", since, as mentioned above, these are the two known models of planning writing process.

To be sure that our question is well understood, we explained fully to the participants what we meant by linear and holistic planning.

Participants

At the onset of study, Sixty-five (65) participants in two intact classes at Arak University, Arak, Iran, took the Oxford Placement test (OPT). Based on their scores on the OPT, 16 students were selected and asked to participate in the study. They were put into 2 groups of high proficiency and low proficiency, each consisting 8 participants. The HPG were those whose scores were 48 – 55 and the LPG were those who scored 28 – 36 according to the instruction manual of the OPT.

In order to ensure that the participants of the two groups were different according to their language proficiency, an independent T-test was run which showed significant difference between the two groups ($t(6) = 4.423, p < 0.01$). The results of the independent T-test are presented in Table I. It is worth mentioning that the participants were not told that there were two separate groups, otherwise this could have affected their performance, and hence contaminates the results of the study. The purpose behind this decision was to control needed for any subject effects that might affect the performance of the participants. Some subjects might simply change their performance just because they might know that they had been selected as the members of the HPG and try to outperform the other group accordingly. This phenomenon is referred to as Hawthorne effect (Ary, Jacobs, Sorenson, and Razavieh (2010). On the contrary, if the participants had been informed that they were selected as the members of the LPG, this could make them try their best due to the fact that they felt they had been discriminated against. This tendency is referred to as John Henry effect or Compensatory Rivalry (Ary et al, 2010). The purpose of the control for these effects is to increase the internal validity of all types of research and consequently we controlled for these effects in our study as well.

TABLE I.
THE T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE OPT SCORES OF THE GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
OPT scores	Equal variances assumed	5.340	.024	4.423	6	.000	1.46667	.33160	.80289	2.13045
	Equal variances not assumed			4.423	5.701	.000	1.46667	.33160	.80175	2.13158

III. DATA ANALYSIS

The think-aloud concurrent procedure and taped interviews constituted the instruments for data collection in this study. The data obtained during interviews supplemented the data collected through Think-aloud concurrent procedure. It is a general belief that these instruments would capture the kind of information which was not so much easily revealed during the transcription of the think-aloud audiotapes or was not emerged at all due to the inherent difficulty of Think-aloud processes.

For example, in the following extract, one of the learners in HPG wrote: "The opposing viewpoint is that the professors may lose their confidence but if this process is organized well and everybody could speak their minds in a polite and academic way." which is an incomplete sentence. What follows is the transcription of his think aloud

protocol analysis for the abovementioned writing extract (while this participant vocalizes his thinking in English during his writing):

/Um and (2'')/ if we go to the opposite viewpoint of this process (8'')/ Ok/ so/ opposite viewpoint (2'')/ I'm going to think about that before I write/ um (2'')/ I think um may be this will affect the/ the way professor thinks about himself/ **THE OPPOSING VIEWPOINT IS THAT/** um/ **THE PROFESSORS (3'')/** may um (2'')/ may be (1'')/ may/ **MIGHT LOSE THEIR SELF CONFIDENCE/** because of bad feedbacks and not all students are/ um you know (2'')/ honest in these kind of things (2'')/ and they just/ want to say something to /disrespect the professor/ may be because of (1'') personal problems (7'')/ and so/ thinking about viewpoint of professors/ because I want to clear it out and think about other things because it's/ it's/ a kind of/ of (2'')/ dominating other things in my mind/ I cannot let it go/ I just want to come to a conclusion with it and then/ write about other things/ um (9'')/ so I think/ if this/ process/ lose their self confidence/ **BUT IF THIS PROCESS/** um(4'')/ **ORGANIZED WELL AND EVERYBODY CAN SPEAK THEIR MINDS/** um(3'')/ **IN A POLITE AND/** academical/ **ACADEMIC WAY/** ok/ I'm done with that.¹

The above transcription of the think-aloud session reveals the difficulty inherent in the think-aloud process and the fact that little can be understood from it; therefore, we need to use the retrospective interview as a complementary process in our data analysis.

In the retrospective interview session, we asked this participant about his sentence, which was obviously erroneous. After seeing his utterance and listening to his think aloud performance, he said it was just a mistake (in spite of the fact that there he said "Ok, I'm done with it") because of the technique (i.e. Think-Aloud Protocol), the fact that he had to write while thinking aloud and also had many ideas in his mind to write in that moment. It seemed impossible to capture these inherent complications based on just think aloud data. The data obtained from the individual interviews helped to understand the boundaries of the categories involving interpretive judgment.

Constant comparative method was used to analyze the data in the protocols. This strategy, according to Ary et al. (2010), involves inductive coding of categories emerged from the data analysis along with simultaneous comparison of all units of meaning obtained during the analysis.

The procedure involved examining each new concept (unit of meaning) emerging through data analysis, comparing it with previous categories to determine whether it establishes a new category or not. If the new concept was determined as a new one, it was coded as a new category. If, on the other hand, it was considered as similar to other previous categories, it was merged into the already existing categories. After the completion of data transcription, the researchers met to examine the results to reach unanimity on all the categories which were emerged out of each stage of the writing.

All the interviews were audio-taped, transcribed and analyzed. Data obtained from the audio-taped participants' interviews were similarly analyzed on the basis of the focus of the research; that is, the stages of the writing production: a) Formulation, b) Execution, and c) Monitoring.

To find and settle the discrepancies, the two sets of data were matched to indicate the extent to which the data conform to each other in terms of the processes and stages involved in the production processes of the participants. The inter-rater agreement between the researchers after resolving the discrepancies turned out to be 85%.

IV. RESULTS

In the current study, the topic of the task was an issue that, in the time of carrying out the research, all the students were required to ponder upon and fill out the necessary forms. So, all of them were already familiar with the issue. All the students had enough and equal time to write an essay on the prompt (topic) of the study. Therefore, the differences between their planning could not be attributed to the time condition. Tables II and III summarize the numerical findings of the study for both groups. The participants in LPG have been specified as LP1 to LP8 and the participants in HPG as HP1 to HP8 in order to ensure confidentiality.

¹ In transcribing the recordings of think aloud sessions the following signs were used:

/: separates chunks of thinking or writing

Lower-case letters: show the think aloud sayings

Upper-case letters: show the actual writings

(x'): shows the pause-time in second

TABLE II.
LPG GROUP DATA

Participants	Total Words Written	Total time	Formulation time	Execution time	Monitoring time
LP 1	140	28	1	23/5	4/5
LP 2	180	11	1	10	0
LP 3	214	17	1	16	0
LP 4	133	16	1	15	0
LP 5	179	15	1	14	0
LP 6	123	14	1	13	0
LP 7	140	16	1	15	0
LP 8	152	17	1	16	0
Total	1261	134	1	122/5	
	The mean of the Total Words Written =158 word The mean of the Total time spent for task completion =17 min The mean of the Total time spent for Execution =15/5 min				

TABLE III.
HPG GROUP DATA

Participants	Total Words Written	Total time	Formulation time	Execution time	Monitoring time
HP 1	198	6	1	5	0
HP 2	214	25	1	24	0
HP 3	227	19	1	18	0
HP 4	110	19	1	18	0
HP 5	277	22	1	21	0
HP 6	128	9	2	7	0
HP 7	256	12/5	1	11/5	0
HP 8	159	12	1	11	0
Total	1569	124/5		105/5	0
	The mean of the Total Words Written =196 words The mean of the Total time spent for task completion =15/5 min The mean of the Total time spent for Execution =13 min				

The categories emerged from analyzing the data of the think-aloud protocols and interview sessions indicated that for both HPG and LPG the production planning of writing consists of three concrete stages of Formulation, Execution and Monitoring which were considered as the central themes of investigation of this study. Although both groups performed the activity in a sequential manner, that is, they started with ideas, then looking for the appropriate words and vocabulary and sometimes revising their writing, they did actually differ in how they went through these processes. The analysis of the data indicated that the writing production of the participants did follow the same routes as those in the literature. However, some differences between the two groups were revealed through the in-depth analyses which are discussed respectively for Formulation, Execution and Monitoring stages below.

a) Formulation stage:

Both groups did the Formulation stage similarly. The category determined from the analysis of the data for the mentioned stage was referred to as "initial reading of the topic" of the writing task. As indicated in Tables 3 and 4, all participants spent approximately the same time (one minute) reading the topic which was followed by a "silent period" as the boundary dividing the Formulation stage from the Execution stage. This could be due to the time constraint applied by the researchers at the onset of the study or the fact that all the participants had brainstormed on the topic due to the administrative procedures as a part of official requirements of their university before the study. Just one of the participants in HPG (HP6) did this stage in two minutes (twice as much as others). The only reason obtained through data analysis was that she started reading the topic more slowly and louder than the others. In the interview, she mentioned that she used this time as a reflection period to think more and concentrate more on the task as a personal strategy.

b) Execution stage:

The participants in both groups did not spend much time on analyzing the topic and went directly to the next stage, i.e., Execution. The category that was found similar across both groups was the "programming category". This category marked the onset of the Execution stage. As indicated by the above tables, the HPG wrote more words in terms of quantity in a lesser time than the LPG (The mean of the Total Words Written in the HPG equals 196 words written in 13 minutes contrasted with the mean of the LPG that is 158 words written in 15/5 minutes). Also, the two groups differed in the manner they performed this stage. The HPG tended to treat their writing in a more iterative and global manner, while the participants in the LPG tended to move in a step by step manner. This was distinguished for the LPG by first to start one idea, and then marked pauses (around 5 seconds) to search for local words and grammars, finishing one idea and moving to the next idea.

During this category, which constituted the major part of the production plan, the participants planned, reread, evaluated and revised their writing task in a recursive manner. Therefore, the next category which evolved out of the analysis was "organization category".

The participants of the groups tended to organize their writing differently. The "organization category" was determined through the analysis of some subcategories in turn. These were the categories of "pausing", "using L1", and "the manner of outlining".

During the production, the members in the HPG used very shorter pauses (at most 3 seconds) while the typical range of pauses lasted between 3 up to 20 seconds for the LPG. One reason which could be mentioned for the longer pauses here, may be due to the difficulty of the think-aloud procedure. But the analyses of the interviews revealed that participants in the LPG paused to find the appropriate words, grammar, or even the next idea.

Also, all the participants used their L1 resources in different ways. For the LPG, most of the protocols were conducted in their L1 (Persian). On the other hand, for the other group, it was just the opposite. They used L2 (English) in their think-aloud protocols most of the time. For two of the members in the HPG, the whole process continued without any single word being uttered in the L1. It seems that there is a continuum with the lower proficient learners using more L1, going to higher proficient ones using more L2. Woodhall (2002) mentioned that the frequency of the L2 writers' use of their native language is a function of their language proficiency. However, the length of this language switch is proportional to the task difficulty.

The two groups also differed in how they outlined their task. For the HPG group, the activity was treated more globally. First, a general idea came to their mind and they developed it further in the written form. On the other hand, the learners in the LPG group tried to develop one idea little by little with numerous revisions that in some instances led to altering the whole idea. The differences between the groups in the way they outlined the task was further confirmed by the data collected during interviews.

c) Monitoring stage:

The HPG tended to treat the Monitoring stage more holistically, correcting their essays both at the local and discourse levels. At the local level, the participants seem to work for function and content words, while at the discourse level they take their whole utterance into account when they check for the pragmatics, syntax, and semantics of their utterances.

For the LPG group, the corrections took place mostly at word level and, in rare cases, at sentence level. They sometimes paused to look at what they had written so far and then continued with the activity.

One of the processes noticed was repetitions of some words in L1 by the members in the LPG. It might have been used as a metacognitive strategy to correct their immediate productions or compensation strategy to find more ideas by the learners during the think-aloud procedure. Comparing students' use of writing strategies during their written tasks, Chien's (2012) study showed that skilled writers planned more, made more efforts in generating texts, and did more revision and edition on their writings compared with unskilled writers.

Since the transcriptions of think-aloud sessions were prepared after the experiment was run, the researchers did not have further access to participants to obtain more evidence on this point. All the learners marked the end of their written production by the category of "verbal report". They used some verbal comments such as "I'm done" or "Nothing more" and "That's ok".

One of the interesting results found was that no one in both groups tried to reread and revise the manuscript after they finished their writings. Of course, we cannot be sure about the reason(s) of this happening. One explanation might be the inherent difficulty of writing while thinking aloud that made the participants exhausted. So they wanted to finish the task sooner. Another justification might simply be that the participants did not feel their writing production need any further revision as our analyses showed that the participants of both groups planned their revisions and corrections during the Execution stage itself. Therefore, the first draft produced by our participants turned to be their final one.

V. INTERPRETATIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

With the aim to contribute to the field of writing, especially in EFL environments, the findings of the present study suggest that EFL production is a linear procedure consisting of three stages of Formulation, Execution and Monitoring for both proficiency levels under this study.

To summarize our findings, it should be said that in spite of the fact that the two groups were significantly different in terms of their proficiency levels, they all planned and managed their writing productions linearly. However, to be specific, regarding the Formulation stage, all of them performed almost the same. But, when it comes to the Execution stage HPG members tended to treat their writing in a more iterative and global manner while the participants in the LPG tended to move in a step by step manner. We can understand this from their pauses times (3 up to 20 seconds for the LPG and at most 3 seconds for the HPG) i.e. while HPG members had an idea and developed it in their writing, LPG members tried to develop an idea during their writing little by little with a lot of revisions. Finally, in the Monitoring stage, it was found that HPG members corrected their essays both at the local and discourse levels, while LPG members' corrections took place mostly at word levels and at most in rare cases at sentence levels.

Ellis and Yuan (2004) while asserting that there is no universally accepted theory of L2 writing, mention some available theories that believe in similar sets of processes in L2 writing, generally being accepted to be broadly similar in both L1 and L2 writing.

Although the findings directly confirm Kellogg's (1996) model of writing, Levelt's (1989) model of the speaking process is also implicitly confirmed. The reason is that both models are somehow the same except in that in Kellogg's

model the articulation stage is missing. Kellogg himself (1996) considers it safe to assume that oral and written productions share much in terms of their processes. Therefore, as also confirmed by Ellis and Yuan (2004), one may find Levelt's model of speech production and Kellogg's model of writing similar in some ways. The reason seems straightforward. Articulation involves the production of individual phonemes in a language which through their combinations we produce our language in the oral mode. To be on the safe side, we think that both models are at work in our study and the results of our study seems to be corroborated by both models, since the participants appealed to both models during their think-aloud activities as well as their writing process. The present study's findings suggest that EFL learners' writing processing takes place in a linear fashion in three stages of Formulation, Execution and Monitoring as supported by these models.

The results of our study also seem to be in line with the results of De Larios, Marin, and Murphy (2001), which showed that formulation played a more important role than other stages involved in production of argumentative tasks.

Further research is needed to investigate the relationship between fluency, language proficiency, and outlining during the Execution stage by the EFL learners. Also, our research was limited from two other points. First, what is the effect of different task types on the writing production of EFL learners? Our study only involved argumentative tasks. Moreover, we controlled any prior planning in our study. What will happen if students have the opportunity to plan before they start their writing project? Yuan and Ellis (2004) mention that when EFL learners have enough time they tend to devote this extra time to both careful formulation of their message and monitoring the output of phases of formulation and articulation. In fact, both operations involve much more attention to form.

The findings of the study theoretically contribute to a better understanding of the nature of language processing in EFL contexts, especially in the area of writing skill. From a practical point of view, the results may be found useful for language teachers, curriculum planners and material developers. Informed by the way our language production is processed, teachers can focus on the specific areas in which their learners feel difficulty and work on that. For example, when writing, some learners may have some difficulty just on the formulation stage, they are not able to set their goals, think over ideas and assemble them meaningfully in their minds, while for others, these problems may appear on the execution stage. This means that they can plan and set their goals in a meaningful framework in their minds but they cannot proceed to the next stage which is the execution stage due to the lack of appropriate and sufficient knowledge of forms (words, structures, and their pronunciation) in the second language. Teachers may find that some of their students have problems in more than one stage and they may respond to the specific needs of the learners. By doing so, we think that more time is saved for teachers because on the one hand they do not need to work on all stages for a particular learner which is unnecessary. On the other hand, some learners may share some common problems in terms of the stage they face difficulties that eliminate a need for individual explanations. For instance, almost all the participants in our study had problem with the last stage, that is, monitoring.

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The Effect of Using Video Games on EFL Learners' Acquisition of Speech Acts of Apology and Request

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Abstract—This article presents a discussion about the inclusion of video game based pragmatic competence instruction as a facilitative tool to develop interlanguage pragmatic competence of Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request. The question this article is intended to answer includes: whether using video game as a facilitative tool for developing interlanguage pragmatic competence have any effect on EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request or not. To answer this question, 40 Iranian intermediate EFL learners were selected via administering the Oxford Placement Test (OPT). Following the Jianda Liu pragmatic competence test (2004) that made test of apology and request speech acts were administered as the pre-test before the targeted speech acts were instructed to them for 8 sessions. The post-test of apology and request speech acts were then administered and data were analyzed via calculating ANCOVA and Mann-Whitney U test. The results indicated that the video game-based instructed EFL classroom showed positive progress in acquisition of apology and request speech acts.

Index Terms—video games, acquisition, speech acts, apology, request

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching pragmatics, which refers to the production and comprehension of a communicative act or speech act at any situation (Eslami-Rasekh and Liu, 2013), seems to be a challenging task for teachers to cope with. Studies addressing the realization of speech acts by second or foreign-language learners have found that knowing the syntax and the semantics of the language by learners, even at high levels of proficiency, does not guarantee success in comprehending and producing all nuances of language meaning. The problem has led to a shift from a grammar focus towards a communication focus which emphasizes the appropriate use of language in communicative contexts (Eslami-Rasekh & Liu, 2013).

Performing acts, including “apologizing” or “requesting”, through linguistic expressions is argued to be the core of human communication in Searle’s (1969) speech act theory. Searle divided speech acts into five categories which included assertive, directives, commissives, expressive and declarations. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) stated that “using textbooks cannot be counted as a reliable source of pragmatic input for classroom language learners” (p. 25). Due to the problems in handling the use of speech acts, EFL researchers and instructors showed an interest towards the implementation of the technology use in the classroom to overcome the difficulty in teaching L2 pragmatics and speech acts (Tatsuki & Nishizawa, 2005). This has led to what is referred to as multiliteracy which includes the knowledge of how to use the new technologies, including the computer, in the educational settings. Therefore, the traditional language classroom is slowly changing with the advances and increasing uses of technology (Nguyen, 2008) into what is known as blended learning (Horton, 2000).

Additionally, according to Pereira (2013), video games, often called digital games by researchers and educators, are serious and are ever more becoming recognized as valid educational tools. Prensky (2007) stated that video games and their use in education, referred to as digital game-based learning (DGBL), have been an area of increased research, and are gaining recognition as a viable medium for serious learning. As suggested by scholars (e.g., Mubireek, 2003; Prensky, 2007; Shokri & Abdolmanafi-Rokni, 2014), video games could be harnessed, in various ways, to serve learning purposes in educational environments. As such, an adventure genre video game- The Walking Dead- was used, in the present study, to see whether it could help Iranian EFL learners learn the speech act of apology and request.

A. *The Significance of the Study*

In these days, most of people around the world are trying to learn another language in order to be successful in different aspects of life. According to (Hamid, 2009, as cited in Trang, Moni and Baldauf, 2012) it is indisputable that English plays a very important role as a global language. English as an international language is a tool for communication without which our main goal of teaching and learning English will be fruitless (Hamidi & Khodareza, 2014). Because of the importance of English in today's world, learners are strongly motivated to learn the language (Trang, et. al, 2012, as cited in Long et. al, 2013).

Key to English language programs, English textbooks are thought to have failed to provide learners with enough authentic language practice opportunities as it is said that they do not offer native-speaker-produced language samples (Vellenga, 2004, as cited in Mahdavian & Shahrokhi, 2014). The problem becomes more eminent in environments, like the Iranian context, whereby the use of new technologies has been neglected.

As technology could provide more opportunities for authentic, or, at least, semi-authentic communication in the target language, learners could be directed or guided to use its facilities in and outside the learning environments (Chirimbu & Tafazoli, 2013). The use of computer presents EFL learners with a gateway to various activities for developing their language skills.

Among the technology tools, computer games might help as an appropriate tool to create a suitable language learning environment for the learners (Mich, et.al, 2004, as cited in Abu Bakar & Nosratirad, 2013). According to Aghlara and Hadidi Tamjid (2011, as cited in Ebrahimi & Zamanian, 2013), through playing digital games, even the shyest students participate in language learning.

Moreover, video games as an instructional tech tool are advised to be used in the language learning classrooms. Ferguson, Cruz, and Rueda (2008) pointed out that language teachers are advised to use video games in their classrooms. Furthermore, video games can be useful for teachers to make the atmosphere of their classes more exciting and meaningful (Shokri & Abdolmanafi Rokni, 2014) than ever. Providing interactivity among the gamers and between the game players and the elements of the game (DeHaan, et al., 2010, as cited in Vahdat & Rasti Behbahani, 2013), video games might both entertain and (help) train learners to become proficient language users as well.

The name of the video game which was used in this study was "The Walking Dead" by the adventure genre of video games and was chosen for the EFL learners' of Experimental group in this research. ESL and EFL language learning needs to be supported with meaningful learning tools, for example computer games, so that learning can be more realistic and meaningful. Because of the objectivity associated with computer assisted language learning, in testing students' performance, this kind of task (using video games in EFL contexts) can have a positive influence, too. In addition, teachers can monitor their students meticulously (Shokri & Abdomanafi Rokni, 2014). Therefore, it was thought that the use of the video games in the EFL/ESL context can be helpful for teachers and their students in teaching and learning a new language.

B. *Statement of the Problem*

As EFL learners determine to learn the English language, it takes a long time and also it is hard to acquire it in a fluent way. According to Riasati (2011), foreign language learning can be a demanding task for many language learners. As mentioned above, in the previous section, a variety of factors, including age, attitude, anxiety, aptitude, intelligence, learning achievement, motivation and personality (Lehmann, 2006, as cited in Zainol Abidin, Pour-Mohammadi & Alzawari, 2012), can affect the learning process. Feeling anxious in a foreign language learning environment might make the language learning experience less enjoyable which can lead to affecting the learners' performance negatively (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2005, as cited in Riasati, 2011).

Speaking is among the skills that prove to be difficult for learners who wish to manifest their ability in the use of language. Preparing students to use the language productively is a demanding task requiring skill and effort as well as the use of available tools by the language teachers to offer enough input to the learners (Bygate, 1987).

As the EFL learners may have some errors in the grammar or using the target language new words, they do not speak in the foreign language very much. Because, they think that they may be fleered by their classmates in this situation. So, in the traditional way of instructing in the classroom, they do not speak as much as they can. Then, the atmosphere of the classroom has to be in a way that, the EFL learners are motivated, and do not get exhausted from the classroom atmosphere. Iacob (2009) pointed out that children up to 12 usually enjoy learning, but not in a monotonous environment. According to Iacob, sitting down and focusing on one person or a book page sounds to be unnatural for the children, at least. The book, having colored pages, might look appealing for the first few moments, but being static demotivates the young learners and causes them to lose interest because the position turns out to be a passive one soon (Iacob, 2009).

Due to the problems mentioned above and in order to help EFL learners cope with the problems of anxiety, demotivation, disinterest and inattention as well as the possibility of the computer games to help children maintain their attention and stimulate their motivation to participate actively in educational effort in and outside the classroom work, the present study tried the use of video games in developing the learners' acquisition of the speech act of apology and request. Video games, in language learning, use repetition (behaviorism) and processes of organization of thought and adaptation (constructivism) (Ang and Zaphiris, 2006, as cited in Vahdat & Rasti Behbahani, 2013). Thus, this study

took a glance at the supposed problem to find out if using video games affects EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request. There are studies that concentrate on “using video games”, “acquisition” and “speech acts” in relation to other issues, but none of them has considered the effect of using video games on these two categories yet.

C. Research Question

The following question is going to be posed in this study:

Does using video games (The Walking Dead) have a significant effect on EFL learners' acquisition of the speech acts of apology and request?

D. Null Hypothesis

H: using video game does not have significant effect on EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Video Games

Video games, prepared for gamers to play, are considered to be electronic games occurring on a screen or any other electronic device (Seppänen, 2008, as cited in Lukkarinen, 2013).

Not solely designed for entertainment purposes, serious games, even, are receiving increasing attention today. It is probably because many areas could take advantage of the experience of playing games designed to help people in various therapeutic and explicitly educational contexts (Poels, Annema, Zaman, & Cornillie, 2012). Materializing reality in simulated worlds which, if well constructed, are not just about facts or isolated skills, but embody particular social practices, video games can, thus, make it possible for players to participate in valued communities of practice and, as a result, help develop the ways of thinking that organize those practices” (Gee, et. al, 2004).

Gee (2007) and others (Koster, 2005; Prensky, 2006), have argued compellingly that well-designed video games incorporate principles of effective learning, and that educators should harness these principles as well as games themselves in order to help students learn. Gee, Halverson, Shaffer, Squire (2004, as cited in Lymbery, 2012) pointed out that the virtual worlds of games are rich contexts for learning because they make it possible for players to experiment with new and powerful identities. According to Jared Baier Schmidt (2012), interest in using video games for the teaching and learning of second languages has been increasing steadily over the past decade.

B. Acquisition

Acquisition is considered an implicit process taking place when the language is used for communication (Krashen, 1981). Furthermore, he maintains that acquisition takes place when learners attempt to convey meaning. Language acquisition is thought to be the process of acquiring the linguistic and communicative competence by learners who are in direct exposure to the target language and the formal language instruction (Ellis, 1999, as cited in Tuan and Nhu, 2010).

According to Littlewood (1984, as cited in Abukhattala, 2013), one of the different ways of developing skills in a second language is acquisition, a supposedly subconscious similar to that through which native tongues are acquired. Emphasizing the meaning or the message content, the new language is deemed to be internalized through acquisition which seems to be untutored or naturalistic (Abukhattala, 2013).

According to Abukhattala (2013, grammar rules or rules of usage have been taught instead of facilitating acquisition of English in the classrooms. It is necessary to change the type of activities performed in class in order to help students develop an accurate, automatic, and long-lasting second language. According to Abukhattala (2013), acquisition is a subconscious process, picking up the learning, results in accuracy and fluency, formal, available for automatic production, and traditional teaching does not help it. Moreover, designing acquisition techniques turn out, at least at present, to be more difficult (Abukhattala, 2013) which might be made easier through the use of new tools.

C. Speech Acts

Speech acts are communicative activities or acts of communication- a very important part of pragmatics- in any language.

Also, Austin (1962) supposes that a speech act looks quite like an utterance as a functional unit in communication and also stated that using an utterance is both saying something and doing that thing. Speech acts are performing things along with the use of words. They include asking, thanking, ordering, promising, requesting, warning, challenging, threatening, and so on (Austin, 1962, as cited in Youssef, 2012). When we speak and perform things at the same time, we are dealing with speech acts; the interpretations and negotiations we make while speaking deals with speech acts; and, when everything including context and discourse are included, we are talking about speech acts (Schmidt and Richards, 1980).

Also, Yule (2006) declares that, speech acts do not only contain words and grammar but they also convey actions. Cohen and Olshtain (1993, as cited in Istifqi, 2009) pointed out that L2 learners are thought to face problems in using speech acts while communicating with the target language native speakers because speech acts are complicated to be used by the L2 learners as speech acts are conditioned by social, cultural, situational and personal factors. Foreign or

second language learners make use of the rules of their first languages when they speak in the foreign/second language which leads to communication breakdown or communication conflict.

D. Apology

Apologies have been studied by numerous researchers. An apology is a gesture through which a person goes through two stages. In the first stage, (s)he finds her/himself guilty for an offence and in the second stage, (s)he dissociates itself from the deficit and affirms a belief in the offended rule (Goffman, 1971, as cited in Scher & Darley, 1997). The three acts that may follow apologies are: (a) relief; (b) appreciation; and (c) minimization. Expressions such as: 'You're welcome', 'That's all right', 'Think nothing about it', 'It's okay' are most common minimizing remarks used in American speech when terminating the exchange (Goffman, 1971, as cited in Adrefiza & Jones, 2013).

As Goffman (1971) asserts, "these remarks indicate an acceptance of apologies, while 'OK' or 'all right' without deictic 'that's' or 'it's' can be identified as an acknowledgement of an apology" (as cited in Adrefiza & Jones, 2013, p. 74). The act of apologizing requires an action or an utterance which is intended to "set things right" (Olshtain and Cohen, 1983). Bergman and Kasper (1993) maintained that the purpose of apology is to re-establish social relation harmony after the offense is committed. Apologies are expressive illocutionary act which can be differentiated from complaint, which are also expressive acts, by being convivial in nature (Trosbog, 1994).

According to Hornby (2000), the word apology is a statement by the meaning of saying sorry for something that has been done wrong or causes a problem.

E. Request

Becker (1982, as cited in Youssef, 2012) pointed out that, in our everyday communications, people are always asked to do things. Others might be asked to provide us with something, or to perform actions for us. These are all requests. Requests are utterances intended to denote the speaker's desire to regulate the behavior of the listener, to make him/her do what the speaker intends him/her to perform. Searle (1979, as cited in FeLix-Brasdefer, 2010) urges the fact that, depending on the context or situation, the requests can be considered direct (during which the speaker makes his or her point clearly) or indirect.

The concept of request is important because it helps us understand how a society is maintained through its peoples' everyday conduct (Youssef, 2012).

III. METHODOLOGY

The participants of the study contained 40 EFL learners who were selected from among 100 EFL learners of an institute in Tehran via administering an OPT test. The participant group was given a pretest of speech acts including Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) for apology and request. The groups were treated with the apology and request speech acts for 8 sessions. In the first step, that of researching, the participants in experimental group were introduced to the walking dead video game for being familiar with this in order to play it in the next sessions. They were also explained what either speech acts are, especially apology and request or what is the difference between apologies and requests. After this explanation, learners were asked to make some examples about these in their mother tongue in different situations and the researcher makes those examples in the target language which is English for them.

On the other hand, in control group, in the first step, that of researching, the participants in control group were introduced to the Institute's exclusive book, workbook and CD for being familiar with them in order to work with them in their class in the next sessions. They were also explained what either speech acts are, especially apology and request or what is the difference between apologies and requests. After this explanation, learners were asked to make some examples about these in their mother tongue in different situations and the researcher makes those examples in the target language which is English for them.

In the second step, the researcher started to make a group discussion about the course material in order to check the EFL learners' existence knowledge of speech acts and after that she taught speech acts and types of it like apology and request to them by a pamphlet which was gathered by her from some sources. This step was equaled in both experimental and control group.

After that, in experimental group, they (the participants) moved on to the third step, which was game playing round. In this step, EFL learners were asked to play with the video game and do not ask any question from each other in order to being quiet until the end of game playing and at the end ask their questions from the researcher. Also, they were asked to write down the dialogues of characters in the game in order to find the apology and request ones.

Moreover, EFL learners in control group were moved on to the third step, which was course content instruction. In this part, the researcher (teacher) started to teach the exclusive institute book units to EFL learners. Each unit includes parts like Conversation, Reading, Listening, and Grammar through Drills, Check it out, Glossary and Workbook Exercises.

The Conversation which has a subject title asks some questions from the learners about its title in order to answering them by EFL learners in order to know their ideas about the related subject. Before this part starts, the researcher gives a warm-up about the subject of it to the EFL learners, in order to think and answer to the question of this part better. A Dialog by a subject title is the next part of the book unit. Before playing the CD of the book for this part, the teacher

gives a warm-up about the subject of the dialog and asks about the EFL learners experiences in that field in order to help them to imagine themselves on that situation. Reading part that first includes some questions for discussing by the EFL learners at the classroom and answer to them. After that, there is a Passage by a subject title which is exist for the EFL learners in order to read by themselves and in the next part, answering to the Comprehension check part by 2 models of questions which includes Multiple choice questions and True or False part. Before this part starts, the researcher gives a warm-up about the title of it to the EFL learners, in order to think and answer to the questions of this part. After they read the reading part and answering to all of the related questions of the reading part, the teacher asks them to read their answers one by one in the class and if they answered in a wrong way, she corrects their wrong answers one by one. Listening part that includes 2 columns named A and B. Column A includes some words that their meaning was found in the column B, and the EFL learner had to match the meanings of the words to the words. Before playing the CD of the book for this part, the teacher gives a warm-up about the subject of the listening part and also after that asks the EFL learners to listen to the question of this part by the played audio in order to answer the question correctly. Grammar through Drills part that includes some grammar notes, and also some questions about this grammar point that the EFL learners had to answer after that. In this part the teacher write the grammar formula on the board of the class and make an example of it in order to make the grammar part easy for understanding of the grammar contents. Check it out part that includes some new words, Idioms and Expressions in order to learn in each unit. In this part, the teacher read the words in a correct way of spelling and after that gives the meaning of the new words, expressions and idioms of this unit to the EFL learners and also makes an example for new words.

In the fourth step, in experimental group, the learners were asked to have conversations about the game playing with each other (their peers) and ask their questions about game playing from each other and at last make a conclusion about it. At last, the teacher (researcher) started to make a conclusion about the played episode of the video game for EFL learners in order to solve their problems in understanding the texts of the video game for learners.

On the other hand, in control group, in the fourth step, the learners were asked to have conversations about the institute exclusive book materials (contents) with each other (their peers) and ask their questions about the exercises from each other and at last make a conclusion about it. At last, the teacher (researcher) started to make a conclusion about the instructed course contents for EFL learners in order to solve their problems in understanding the new contents of it, either grammar or new words to them.

Finally, the group was given a posttest of the speech acts of the study including Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) for apology and request. The data gathered for the hypothesis of the study that was analyzed via applying the ANCOVA and Mann-Whitney U test.

IV. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Analysis of the Data

The data of the present study were descriptively analyzed via using the SPSS software; and the summary of findings have been presented in tables 1 to 7 as follows:

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE APOLOGY AND REQUEST (SPEECH ACTS) VARIABLES IN THE STUDY

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Pretest	40	25	70	53.75	9.041	-.921	.374	1.792	.733
Posttest	40	65	120	87.25	17.466	.431	.374	-1.254	.733
Group	40	2	3	2.50	.506	.000	.374	-2.108	.733
Valid N (listwise)	40								

Table 1 illustrates the means and the standard deviations of the Request variable of the study. As is seen, the difference between the means of the pretest and the posttest of the study is not significant; also, there is more variety among the posttest scores regarding this variable. Also, the value of Skeweness and Kurtosis as indicated in Table 1 were (-.921 and 1.792) for pre-test and the value of Skeweness and Kurtosis as indicated in Table 1 were (.431 and -1.254) so the normality of data was observed.

TABLE 2.
KOLMOGROV- SMIRNOV AND SHAPIRO-WILK'S TEST OF NORMALITY FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND CONTROL GROUP
Tests of Normality

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Pretest	Experimental	.343	20	.000	.746	20	.000
	Control	.217	20	.015	.851	20	.006
Posttest	Experimental	.174	20	.116	.949	20	.355
	Control	.281	20	.000	.855	20	.006

In table 2, the Kolmogrove-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests of normality indicated that the data were not distributed normally. Table 2 illustrates the value of *P* in experimental group pre-test was (*P* = 000) and in comparison group pre-test was (*P* = .006). The value of *P* in experimental group post-test was (*P* = .355) and in comparison group post-test was (*P* =.006). Therefore, the normality of data in experimental group and control group was not observed. So, ANCOVA could not be run.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR KURTOSIS AND SKEWNESS GAIN SCORES FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND COMPARISON GROUP

	N Statistic	Minimum Statistic	Maximum Statistic	Mean Statistic	Std. Deviation Statistic	Skewness		Kurtosis	
						Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Gain Score	40	5	90	33.50	24.992	.629	.374	-.702	.733
Group	40	2	3	2.50	.506	.000	.374	-2.108	.733
Valid N (listwise)	40								

Table 3 illustrates the value of Skewness and Kurtosis which were (.629 and -.702), because the value of Skewness and Kurtosis were between -2 and +2, it was assumed that the data was normal.

TABLE 4.
KOLMOGROV-SMIRNOV AND SHAPIRO-WILK'S TEST OF NORMALITY FOR EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND COMPARISON GROUP

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Gain Score	Experimental	.188	20	.062	.882	20	.019
	Control	.309	20	.000	.842	20	.004

The Kolmogrove-Smirnov and Shapiro-Wilk's tests of normality indicated that the data were not distributed normally. The Significance *P*>.05 indicated that the data are normal. Table 2 illustrates the value of *P* in experimental group gain score which was (*P* = .019) and in comparison group gain score which was (*P* = .004). Therefore, the data were not distributed normally to run t-test. The results indicated that the data in this study were not parametric, because the normality of data was not observed. In order to examine the differences between experimental group and comparison group, non-parametric test was allowed. So, the Mann-Whitney U test was run.

Descriptive data related to Mann-Whitney U test for gain scores were illustrated in Table 5. The mean ranks and the sum are illustrated in Table 6, too.

B. Inferential Analysis of the Data

The inferential analysis of the data of this study was done through calculating the Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) between the pretest and the posttest of each participant group separately. The summary of findings here has been presented in tables 5 to 7 below:

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR GAIN SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND COMPARISON GROUP

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Gain Score	40	5	90	33.50	24.992
Group	40	2	3	2.50	.506
Valid N (listwise)	40				

TABLE 6.
MEAN RANKS AND SUM OF RANKS FOR GAIN SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND COMPARISON GROUP

	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Gain Score	Experimental	20	30.50	610.00
	Control	20	10.50	210.00
	Total	40		

Table 6 illustrates the mean scores of the experimental group (mean rank = 30.50) is significantly higher than comparison group (mean rank = 10.50) therefore to check Mann-Whitney U test is run to check its significance.

TABLE 7.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST FOR GAIN SCORES IN EXPERIMENTAL GROUP AND COMPARISON GROUP
TEST STATISTICS

	Gain Score
Mann-Whitney U	.000
Wilcoxon W	210.000
Z	-5.483
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.000

Table 7 illustrates that the Mann-Whitney U test for groups differences is significant (U = .000, *P* < .000, Z = -5483).

V. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study as a result of descriptive and inferential analyses of the data contribute to final comments on the hypothesis of the study.

Accordingly, the hypothesis of the study i.e. 'using video games does not have significant effect on EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request was rejected.

The rationale behind such a rejection comes from the evidence in tables 1 and 3. Tables 2 and 4 provide the data necessary to show the rejection of the hypothesis.

The results of this study may bring the research to the point that Iranian EFL learners' acquisition of speech acts of apology and request can be affected by using video games in classroom. As a result, the findings of the current study are expected to lead to devising new teaching materials that enhance English language speech acts acquisition. They are also expected to result in devising new teaching methods that include techniques to teach learners how to work to produce and use English as a foreign language.

Finally, the findings of the current study should contribute to using new teaching approaches that will enable language teachers to direct their language teaching techniques towards the use of language attributes that teaching them through their acquisition of new things or contents in foreign language like speech acts of English language.

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Interpersonal Meaning and Translation Strategy

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Abstract—To grasp the meaning of the original language is the first step in translating. Interpersonal meaning is one of the key point in understanding the meaning of the original language. This paper examined the different expressions of interpersonal in English and Chinese, including the different system of mood and modality in both languages. Based on the analysis, the paper examined the translation strategies, especially the strategies about the interpersonal meaning.

Index Terms—context, mood, modality

I. THE MOOD SYSTEM OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE AND TRANSLATION STRATEGY

There are many ways to express interpersonal meaning both in English and in Chinese. According to the Functional grammar, one way of Interpersonal meanings of roles and relationships is realized through ways which is called mood.

According to the functional grammar, mood mostly relies on the different types of sentence structure such as declarative or interrogative, the degree of certainty or uncertainty expressed in the usage of modality, the usage of tag questions, vocatives, attitudinal words that either has a positive or negative meaning, expressions to show the degree of intensification, and usages to show various extent of politeness. In functional linguistics, transitivity system is about what is the content of propositions, and mood system is concerned with the approach how that content is presented. Because of the mood system, the relationship between communicative exchanges and grammatical forms can be shown. In this way, when translating, translators will change to the mechanisms which link the highly abstract and universal propositions with the totally physical and context-dependent message or passage.

In the introduction of 《近代汉语语气词》, the author points out some characteristics of mood:

1) Mood indicates the different functions of sentences, and it can express the various sentiments of different communication purpose.

2) Mood is adhered to the whole sentences.

3) Mood is grammatical category, and different kinds of moods can express different grammatical meanings.

In all languages, intonation can express the mood on oral English. Even the words and sentences are the same in written language, different intonation can show quite different meaning. But it is difficult to record vocal sound to prove this, so the paper is going to analyze the diversified forms of written language only. Besides intonation, there are many other ways that have the same function in written language. Let's look at the mood structures of English first.

A. The Mood System of English

When we come to look closely at statements and questions of English, we will find that in English they are typically expressed by means of a particular kind of grammatical change, leaving the reminder unaffected.

Halliday, the writer of *Brief Introduction to Functional Grammar* gives us the following example. (Halliday, 2000, p.36)

The duke's given away that teapot, hasn't he?

-Oh, has he?

-Yes, he has.

-No, he hasn't!

-I wish he had.

-He hasn't; but he will.

-Will he?

-He might.

In this dialogue, what is happening is that one particular component of the clause is tossed back and forth in a series of rhetorical exchange, and it is this component that carries the argument forward. Meanwhile the reminder, here "away that teapot", is simply left out. In functional grammar, "the component that is bandied about is called mood. The mood structure of the clause refers to the organization of a set of functional constituents. It consists of two parts: the (1) subject, which is a nominal group, and (2) the finite operator, which is part of a verbal group" (Halliday, 2000, p 45).

The subject may be any nominal group or pronoun. It supplies the rest of what it takes to form a proposition. The finite element is one of a small number of verbal operators expressing tense by reference to the time of speaking, or modality (*can, must*) by reference to the judgment of the speaker. It has the function of making the proposition finite by relating the proposition to its context in the speech event. In some instances, the finite element and the lexical verbs are connected into a complete word. e.g. *loves, loved*. This happens when the verb is in simple past or simple present tense,

active voice, and positive polarity. In fact, these 'fused' tense forms are the two most common forms of the English verb.

The finite verbal operators are listed as follows (Halliday, 2000, p56):

Temporal Operators:

	Past	Present	Future
positive	did, was, had, used to	does, is, has	will, shall, would, should
negative	didn't, wasn't, hadn't	doesn't, isn't, hasn't	won't, shan't, wouldn't, shouldn't

Modal Operator:

	low	medium	high
positive	can, may, could, might	Will, would, should, is/was to	must, ought to, need, has/had to
negative	needn't, doesn't/didn't +need to, have to	Won't, wouldn't, shouldn't	mustn't, oughtn't to, can't couldn't mayn't, mightn't hasn't/hadn't

What is ideal is that one typical function is corresponding to one mood structure, and also one structure is corresponding to one typical function, as is listed in the following column.

Speech function	Typical mood in clause
statement	declarative mood
question	interrogative mood
command	imperative mood
offer	modulated interrogative mood
answer	elliptical declarative mood
acknowledgement	elliptical declarative mood
accept	minor clause
compliance	minor clause

But language is not that simple, there are many other types that do not belong to these columns which are called non-typical clause moods.

Now, let's look at the non-typical clause moods that are often used.

non-typical moods

Speech function	Typical clause mood	Non-typical clause mood
command	imperative	Modulated interrogative declarative
offer	Modulated interrogative	Imperative declarative
statement	declarative	Tagged declarative
question	interrogative	Modulated declarative

Usually we call the typical mood structure marked structure and call the non-typical mood marked structure.

The choice between a marked or an unmarked structure will be influenced by contextual demands, so in order to study this field more clearly, we have to explore the connection between clause structure and contextual dimensions.

e.g. (1) Would you like to put it back?

(2) You'd better put it back.

(3) You have to put it back.

(4) Put it back.

All the four sentences have the same function, but they belong to different mood structures. The first three are marked structures. In the first sentence, the command is expressed by an interrogative sentence. This can show the politeness of the speaker. In the second and the third one, the two statements also have the meaning of command, and the minute difference between the two sentences lies in the different interpersonal meaning of the two verb phrases "had better" and "have to". "Had better" has the meaning of suggestion, but "have to" means it is compulsory. There are many such phrases that can show minute differences, and we will examine them later. The last one is the typical imperative sentence that has the function of command. The above examples show that different mood system may have different interpersonal meaning and indicate the various relationship between the speaker and the listener.

Four Types of Adjuncts that can express mood

There are many kinds of adjuncts, which can be classified by their meta function, and there are four types of adjuncts that can show the interpersonal meaning. They are mood adjuncts, polarity adjuncts, comment adjuncts and vocative adjuncts.

Mood adjuncts are those that express the speakers' judgment regarding the relevance of the message. There are only two polarity adjuncts: *yes* and *no*. These two types express meanings which are directly related to the mood constituents, but comment adjuncts function to express an assessment about the clause as a whole. They are considered interpersonal elements in the clause, since they add an expression of attitude and evaluation, but because the scopes of comment adjuncts is the entire clause, they should be seen to operate outside the mood structure altogether. Like comment adjuncts, vocative adjuncts do not impact directly on the mood constituent of the clause, but affect the clause as a whole.

Therefore adjuncts also carry the interpersonal meaning. The following table shows the detailed information of the four types of adjuncts (Halliday, 2000, p65).

	type	meaning	example
Mood Adjunct	Probability frequency typicality obviousness	How likely? How often? How typically? How obvious?	Probably perhaps Usually sometimes Generally regularly Of cause, surely
Polarity adjunct	Positive negative	Yes no	Yes no
Comment adjunct	Belief Admitting Persuading Request Assumption Desirability Preservation Validation Evaluating Foreseeing	I believe In my opinion I am sure I want you to I think I really hope Generally speaking It is true that To be frank I predict that	In my opinion To be honest Honestly, believe me Please, kindly Evidently, no doubt Fortunately At first In general Wisely, foolishly To my surprise
Vocative adjunct	Person's name		John, Mike, George

B. Mood System of Chinese

Now look at the following example first.

现在去?

现在去吗?

难道现在去?

难道现在去吗?

All the four sentences can express rhetorical mood functioning as interrogation, but they use different ways. In the first sentence, intonation plays the central function; in the second one, the last word can show the rhetorical mood clearly; in the third one, an adverb "难道" also plays the same role; in the last sentence, both adverb "难道" and modal auxiliary word "吗" are used. The examples show that in Chinese, besides intonation, the expressing of mood is mainly depends on adverbs and modal auxiliary words. Though the intonation is an important way of expressing mood, the adding of some adverbs and modal auxiliary words will make the sentences much clearer. In addition, the intonation can only express some limited kinds of mood, and it is very hard to transmit the subtle sentiments of the speaker by itself alone.

Like English, there are also four types of mood in Chinese: declarative sentence, question sentence, imperative sentence, exclamatory sentence. Different word order can show different moods and in turn show different interpersonal meanings. Besides word order, some adjuncts can also have clear interpersonal meaning.

The paper will use Halliday's modal as the reference to examine the adverbs that can express mood in Chinese.

Modal Adjuncts

The following table shows the comparison of adjuncts in English and Chinese to express mood

	type	meaning	example
Mood adjunct	Probability Usuality Typicality obviousness	How likely How often How typically How obvious	也许、或许、可能、一定 通常、经常、有时、总是 一般情况、多数情况 很清楚、很显然
Polarity adjunct	Positive negative	Yes no	是 不是
Comment adjunct	Belief Admitting Persuading Request Assumption Desirability Preservation Validation Evaluating Foreseeing	I believe In my opinion I am sure I want you to I think I really hope Generally speaking It is true that To be frank I predict that	我认为, 我想、个人观点 坦白来讲 真的、确实是 请、希望 毫无疑问、很显然 令人高兴的是、幸运的是 一般来说, 总体来说 奇怪的是 明智地、愚蠢地、错误地 出乎意料地、不出所料地
Vocative adjunct	Person's name	Mr. White, Tom	王石青, 老王, 王教授, 王爷爷

Modal auxiliary words

Unlike English, Chinese doesn't have finite elements to express mood, but it has modal auxiliary words such as

“啊”“吗”“吧”“呢”with the same function. In declarative sentences there is no need to have modal auxiliary words and it is called unremarked mood. In interrogative sentence, we should add “吗”“呢”etc. In imperative sentence, we should use “吧”“啊”to express mood, and “啊”“啦”can be found in exclamatory sentence.

- eg. declarative: 他是王梅的哥哥。
 interrogative: 你是学生吗?
 interrogative: 谁在敲门呀?
 imperative: 注意啊! 比赛马上就要开始了!
 exclamatory: 这是多么安静美好的夜晚啊!

The analysis of the mood system of English and Chinese show that both languages can express the interpersonal meaning by different modal adjuncts, so when translating, the translators should try to use the corresponding one to replace the adjuncts in the original. There are still differences between the two systems of the two languages. For example, the finite operators can express the interpersonal meaning in English, but there are no such kind usages in Chinese. There are modal auxiliary words in Chinese; but there are n such kind auxiliary words in English. When we translate, sometimes we cannot find the corresponding words, but have to use other ways to translate the meaning.

II. TRANSLATION STRATEGY ON INTERPERSONAL MEANING

A. Addition of Auxiliary Modal Words

Different from English, Chinese doesn't have tense or inflection or finite elements to show the meanings expressed by these grammatical elements in English, so Chinese have to choose the different Chinese characters to express this kind of meanings, in other words, translators have to add some characters when translating from English to Chinese.

eg. 1) We might just well go the whole hog and stay overnight.

我们索性在这里过夜吧。“吧”has the meaning of giving a suggestion or asking for the agreement of the listener, and the same meaning is expressed by the word "might" in English.

2) Don't be angry anymore. I already said I felt deeply sorry, didn't I?

别再生气啦, 我不是已经说了我很内疚了吗? “啦”“吗”has the feeling of making others become calm from angry feeling. In English this meaning is not expressed by words, but a tag question which is a typical grammatical usage.

3) We think we have freed our slaves, but we have not. We just call them by a different name.

我们自以为奴隶已经解放了, 实际上并没有。我们只不过用一种不同的名字来称呼他们罢了。

The phrase “罢了”in Chinese can express the modal meaning of dissatisfaction.

4) Don't take it seriously. It's only a joke.

不要认真嘛! 这只不过是开个玩笑而已。

The adding words “嘛” and “而已”can express the modal meaning in the Chinese translation version.

non-typical mood:

Like English, there are also non-typical moods in Chinese. For example, the declarative sentence is not telling a statement, but it is a kind of command; an interrogative sentence is not asking a question, but it is used to give kind of information; and there are many other types of marked moods. When we translate these kinds of sentences, we should pay much attention to the real intention of the original, and try our best to transfer the original interpersonal meaning.

e.g. 1) Ouch! Isn't that a little steep for a room like this size?

literal translation: 哎呀! 才这么大的一间房, 租金不是太贵了吗?

Actually, this is not a question, but a statement. If we change the question into statement when we translate, it should be better.

change: 哎呀, 才这么大的一间房, 房租未免太贵了吧?

2) Isn't it funny?

literal translation: 不是很好玩吗?

change: 真逗!

3) We shouldn't need very much for a start.

literal translation: 我们不应该在一开始就需要这么多。

change: 一开始何必需要这么多呢?

B. The Translation of Subjunctive Mood

Subjunctive mood is an important grammatical category in English, but there is no such corresponding category in Chinese. This needs us to use lexical ways to translate this kind of mood.

1) If you finished the job, you wouldn't have said that.

如果你已经完成这项工作的话, 你就不会那样说了。

2) If I were you. I'd get up at 5 in order not to miss the train.

假如我是你的话, 我就会在早晨 5 点钟起床赶火车了。

The subjunctive mood is expressed by tense in English, but in Chinese, the meaning can be translated using “如果.....”

的话”。

III. MODALITY OF ENGLISH AND CHINESE

A. *Modality of English*

Modality is the other way of expressing interpersonal meaning, without which we cannot give a perfect description of interpersonal meaning. In the modal adjuncts, the term polarity has been introduced. Polarity is the choice between the positive and negative. In English, the polarity is expressed in the elements which has both the negative and the positive usages. However, in reality, besides the two ends yes and no, there are many other levels which are not definitely yes or no. There are many intermediate degrees: various kinds of indeterminacy that fall in between. These intermediate degrees, between the positive and negative poles, are known collectively as modality. "Modality is the expression of the speaker's attitude towards what s/he's saying, and it has a close relationship with mood. It is the way the speaker gets into the text: expressing a judgment about the certainty, likelihood, or frequency of something happening or being." (Bassnet, 1998, p.76) Modality is an inherently pragmatic phenomenon and it involves many ways in which attitudes can be expressed. Modality should be studied in proposition and in proposal. It may be accomplished by means of modal operators, but it is not necessarily expressed by the modal operators. There are many other ways that have similar function. Adverbs (frankly, seriously, obviously), adjectives (it is probable that, it is certain that) and even prosodic means can be used to express modality.

In functional grammar, there are two main types of modality. The first type is the modality expressed in proposition, and the second type is the modality in proposal. "In proposition, there are two kinds of intermediate possibilities: (1) degree of probability: possible/ probably/ certainly; (2) degree of usuality: sometimes/ usually/ always" (Halliday, 2000, p.125). Halliday uses the term "modalization" to refer them.

If the speaker chooses to express modalization, this may be achieved grammatically in the following three ways: " (1) by a finite modal operator in the verbal group. (2) by a modal adjunct of probability and usuality. (3) by both "(Halliday, 2000, p. 138)

In proposals, there are also two types of intermediate possibility depending on the speech function, whether command or offer. (1) In a command, the intermediate points represent degrees of obligation. (2) In an offer, they represent degrees of inclination. Halliday refers these two types as modulation.

- e.g. 1. They must have known.
 2. They certainly knew.
 3. They certainly must have known.
 4. It must happen.
 5. It always happens.
 6. It must always happen.
 7. You must be patient.
 8. You are required to be patient.
 9. I must win.
 10. I'm determined to win.

As far as we have concerned, the finite modal operators and the modal adjuncts have already been covered. There is another word that can function as modal adjunct, and that is the word "not", and in this case, it is phonologically salient and may also be tonic. Because it belongs to the function of prosodic feature, it will not be examined in detail in this paper.

- e.g. We were /not im/pressed.

B. *Modality of Chinese*

The modality of English can be expressed by modal operators: can, could, may, might, must, shall, should, will, would, ought to, used to, need, dare, have to, and modal adjuncts or by both. In Chinese, there are no operators and the modality is expressed by these words:能, 能够, 会, 可以, 敢, 愿意, 肯, 要, 得, 应该, 应当, 该 etc. These words have similarity with the modal operators when used to express the interpersonal meaning.

- e.g. 1.你能解决这个问题。能
 2. 他们可定会通知老师的。肯定
 3. 硬让我去, 一定得捅出乱子来。一定得
 4. 你这样自以为是是要栽跟头的。要
 5. 这种事经常发生。经常
 6. 这种事不应该经常发生。不应该经常
 7. 你得常回家看看。得
 8. 我愿意到高校当老师。愿意

1). The Translation Strategy of Modality

The last section of this paper has analyzed the two systems of modality in Chinese and English, and the two systems show that there are a lot of differences between the two languages, so the translation of the modality is not simply to

find the corresponding words of the original language, but to understand the meaning of the original modal operators of English and the *nengyuan* (能愿) words in Chinese, then to find a proper way to translate the interpersonal meaning.

e.g. 1. If I didn't walk every day I should expired.

我一天不散步就会断气。

2. You ought to go and try Macy'. They may have some right ties to go with your suit.

你应该去梅西百货公司看看，他们可能有配你的西服的领带。

3. He might pay us. He is quiet well off now.

他也该还我们钱了，他现在已经相当富裕了。

4. Her trip to Latin America may offend some 19th century chauvinists but the first lady's striking a blow for the full partnership of women.

这位第一夫人的拉美之行也许会触犯某些十九世纪式的大男子主义者，但她的这次出访是为妇女的充分参政打出了有力的一击。

IV. CONCLUSION

All the modal operators in these examples are translated into *nengyuan* words in Chinese. However, because of the two different systems, *nengyuan* words in Chinese cannot fully express the subtle differences of the original. For example, in English, the three modal operators must, ought to and should have minute difference: the meaning of "ought to" is stronger than "should", and both "ought to" and "should" emphasize the objective meaning, but "must" emphasizes the subjunctive meaning. This minute difference is difficult to translate into Chinese because there is no corresponding usage in Chinese, so this requires the translators to choose different words and use lexical ways to transfer the subtle meaning.

Actually, vocatives, pronouns, verbs, nouns, and adjectives can also carry the interpersonal meaning. For example, you may use some words that can show your politeness and respect when you talk to your professor or someone who has the higher rank, but you will use a totally different vocabulary if you talk to your best friends.

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Shifts of Time in James Joyce's *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man*: A Narratological Perspective

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Abstract—One of the main issues in narratology is the concept of time. The centrality of time is echoed in Ricoeur's (1984) debates when he says narratives are one of the many ways by which time can be actualized. The present study is to investigate the concept of time as well as the shifts of time in *A Portrait of the Artist as a Young Man* (*A Portrait*) in the light of Genette's (1980) model. Being a modern novel, *A Portrait* travels through the experiences of its narrator utilizing the stream of consciousness technique. Time takes the reader back and forth immersing him/her in the narrator's experience. It becomes frozen in some parts while expands in other parts, by detailed descriptions of a moment of its narrator's feelings, thoughts, and experience. For all these, the present study will focus on this novel from the point of view of time and temporal shifts. The article tries to show the instances as well as the quality of time shifts. For this, Genette's model of time is considered: the three techniques of order (analepsis and prolepsis), duration (pause, scene, ellipsis, summary, and stretch), and frequency (singulative, repetitive, and iterative). The results demonstrate that all the components of Genette's model have been shifted. The most time shift instances in each category were: analepsis (37 times), pause (118 times), iterative frequency (53 times). This shows the predominant use of pause in this novel which is a novel of stream of consciousness, too. Pause is mainly hired for describing the protagonist's (Stephen) state of mind and what he thinks.

Index Terms—narratology, time shifts, Genette, modern fiction, Joyce's *A Portrait*

I. INTRODUCTION

Time is known to be a complex entity and has been contemplated on by many philosophers. Qasemipour (2007) expresses that Albert Einstein had once said time is exactly what people see on the pointers of their clocks. He continues that St Augustine once said that "when people do not ask me what time is, I know what it is; but when they ask me about the nature of time, then I cannot answer" (p. 124). Ricoeur (1984) pinpoints Augustine's ontological question about time: "the phenomenology of time emerges out of the question: *quid est enim tempus?* ("What, then, is time?") (Ricoeur, 1984, p. 17). As soon as this question is posed, all the ancient difficulties regarding the being and the nonbeing of time surge forth (ibid.). It is difficult, thus, to provide a comprehensible definition of time from a phenomenological perspective; but the interaction of time with other disciplines like narratives and its emergence in such forms, makes it possible to be defined.

The difficulty of having a coherent picture of time is echoed in Ricoeur's (1984) belief about time, when he says understanding time as a single separate entity is difficult; however, Ricoeur continues that time can be concretized and understood when it is put in the form of narrative. One of the key concepts in narratology is the relationship between time and narrative, and how time actualizes in narrative work. Rimmon-Kenan describes: "By narrative fiction I mean the narration of a succession of fictional events" (2002, p. 2). Yet, others say that narratives are understood as representations of event-sequences, are defined and differentiated by their temporality (Scheffel, Weixler, & Werner, 2013).

The ties between time and narrative are not deniable as Bruner (1991) puts it, "a narrative is an account of events taking place over time. It is irreducibly durative" (p. 6). Herman (2009) also asserts that the temporal dimension is used to differentiate between narrative and non-narrative types of text. Laszlo (2008) affirms that temporal structure is considered an essential property of a narrative. He continues that "narratives are always about events taking place in time" (p. 16). He differentiates between narrative time and calendar time and says these two are not the same; and that narrative time is not segmented by the ticks of a clock or a metronome, but by the unfolding events (ibid.).

The present study focuses on the analysis of time structure—as a component of narratology—in narratives. For this, it mainly draws on Genette's ideas on the classifications of time. Genette's model of time which concentrates on the relation between story time and narrative time and also encompasses issues like order, duration, and frequency, will be used for the analysis of James Joyce's *A Portrait*. This study is an attempt to show the instances of time shifts in the selected 60-page sample (however for the category of frequency, the whole novel is considered) as well as to specify how these shifts take place. Besides, the types of the shifts will be indicated and explained in details.

II. TIME AND STREAM OF CONSCIOUSNESS IN MODERNIST NOVELS

What distinguishes modern fiction from the classic ones is the way writers manipulate time which was due to the emergence of some techniques. One of the techniques used by writers of the 20th century was stream of consciousness. Numerous labels have been offered to define this unique approach: "thought stream" (Kumar, 1963, p. 2) or simply "stream novel" (West, 1965, p. 46), "time novel" (Edel, 1955, p. 143), "psychological novel" (Edel, 1964, p. 11), and more broadly "experimental novel" (Macauley & Lanning, 1964, p.88).

Abrams and Harpham (2009) state that stream of consciousness was defined for the first time by William James in his *Principles of Psychology* (1890) as: "the unbroken flow of perceptions, memories, thoughts, and feelings in the waking mind" (cited in Abrams & Harpham, 2009, p. 345). Abrams and Harpham (2009) see this technique as a sort of "introspection" (ibid., p. 345), in which the narrator records in detail what passes through a character's awareness. Moreover, they explain that this technique has to do with "the narrator's description of the sustained process of a character's memories, thoughts, and varying feelings" (ibid.).

The stream-of-consciousness technique, in fiction, received much critical attention during the second and third decades of the 20th century. Golden (1968) asserts "although the origin of this type of fiction is not clearly known, it is generally agreed that James Joyce was chief promulgator of the new technique (p. 1).

Deviations of time in stream of consciousness fiction are utilized to show how this stream takes place. Sometimes it becomes so difficult and frustrating to trace the real events of the story and this is because of the mingling of different layers of time in various layers of the characters' consciousness. This type of style is used predominantly in modern fictions. As stated by Abrams (1986), in modern novels there is a "new view of time" and time is not "a series of chronological moments to be presented by the novelist in sequence with the occasional deliberate retrospect..." (p. 1733). It is further explained by Abrams that:

the view that we are our memories, that our present is the sum of our past, that if we dig into the human's consciousness we can tell the whole truth about people without waiting for a chronological sequence of time to take them through a series of testing circumstances, inevitably led to a technical revolution in the novel. (1986, pp. 1733)

This "technical revolution" is the "view of time as a constant flow rather than a series of separate moments" (ibid., p. 1733). From what was said, it can be inferred that there are close ties between (the manipulation of) time and stream of consciousness technique. It is this mixture that makes reading a modern work difficult.

III. GENETTE'S PERSPECTIVE OF TIME

According to Genette, every text discloses traces of narration, which can be studied in order to understand exactly how the narrative is organized. In his book *Narrative Discourse* (1980), Genette differentiates between story, discourse, and narrating:

[T]o use the word *story* for the signified or narrative content (even if this content turns out, in a given case, to be low in dramatic intensity or fullness of incident), to use the word *narrative*¹ for the signifier, statement, discourse or narrative text itself, and to use the word *narrating* for the producing narrative action and, by extension, the whole of the real or fictional situation in which that action takes place. (Genette, 1980, p. 27)

He makes a distinction between narration and the narrative itself (as a manifestation or product of the narration). He also emphasizes the importance of story, narrative/discourse, and the structure of time in these two. Being one of the critical elements of narratology, the category of time is framed by Genette according to the relation between story time and narrative time. Whereas story time is the fictional time taken up by an action episode, or, more globally, by the whole action (Smuda, 1981; Stevenson, 1998, chp. 3; cited in Jahn, 2005, N5.2.2.), 'narrative time' refers to the time it takes an average reader to read a passage, or, more globally, the whole text (Jahn, 2005, N5.2.2.). Genette considers three aspects for the relation between story time and narrative time: order, duration, and frequency as illustrated in the following figure:

¹ 'Narrative' is used interchangeably with 'discourse' (e.g. in Huhn's *Handbook of Narratology*, 2013) as Genette himself has hinted to it when he continues: "narrative for the signifier, statement, *discourse* or narrative text itself".

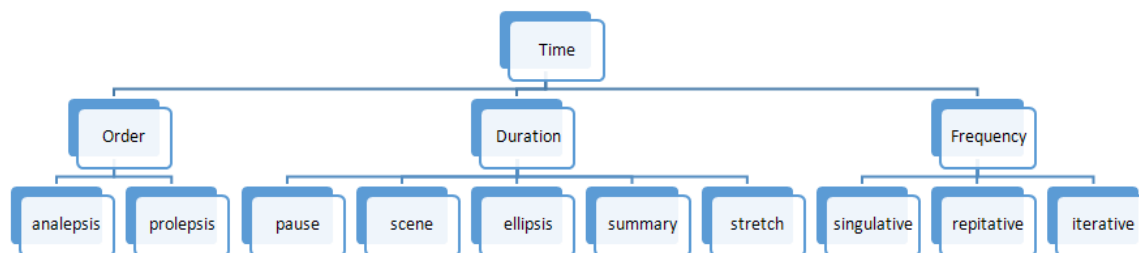


Figure 1. Genette's Categories of Order, Duration, and Frequency

Order refers to the comparison (degree of concordance or deviation) between the temporal ordering and sequencing of events in the discourse and the temporal sequencing of the same events in the story (Genette, 1980). A narrator may choose to present the events chronologically, or he can recount them deviating the chronological line of a narrative. *Anachrony* is what Genette uses for the shift that occurs in the chronological line of events. This he divides into two types: analepsis and prolepsis. *Analepsis* is Genette's term for what, based on Rimmon-Kenan, is traditionally known as flashback or retrospection; and prolepsis is what he uses instead of foreshadowing or anticipation (2002, p. 48). More specifically, 'analepsis' refers to the attempt of the narrator to recount the past events. 'Prolepsis' on the other hand, is what he narrator anticipates events that will occur after the main story ends. Genette presents a formula by which he attempts to show the ordering and disordering of events (of course, this is a very simple primary representation of this formula; He uses the A-B-C-D-E-F-G-H formula to present a complete chronological, ordered sequence of events. When there is analepsis it would be like: B-C-D-E-F-A-G-H, since chronologically speaking the event actually happened *before* the events that precede it in the discourse. But when prolepsis occurs this formula may be like: A-E-B-C-D-E-F-G-H, where the events of the future are anticipated or foreshadowed earlier in the story by the narrator or any one of characters. Prolepses are much less frequent than analepsis, Rimmon-Kenan (2002) confirms. He adds some uses of prolepsis as being suspense creator. He says prolepses are "telling the future before its time" and should be distinguished from "a preparation of or a hinting at a future occurrence" (p. 50). Whalting (2010), too, believes that one of the uses of prolepsis is creating suspense. He moreover asserts that one common form of prolepsis is the use of dreams and prophecies as narrative devices.

Duration is associated with the speed with which story events are presented in narrative. In the narratives of literary texts, the narrator can speed up or slow down the narration with respect to the events being told. For example, we can summarize someone's entire life in a single sentence, or we can take a thousand pages to recount events occurring over a 24-hour period. Genette calls the deformation of duration *anisochrony* (1980, p. 86). He discerns four types of story-discourse relations which inherently show the relation between story time (ST) and narrative time (NT): *ellipsis*, *summary*, *scene*, and *pause* (p. 95). Prince (1982) added a fifth item that is *stretch* (p. 56). *Ellipses* is illustrated by "NT = 0, ST = n, thus: NT < ST", based on Genette (1980, p. 95). This means that there is no narrative time allocated to an event which happened in the story. Story time is 'n' indicate the number of times an event may happen in a story. The relation between the two which is: "NT < ST" shows that the written material that is narrative or discourse does not include the events which actually have happened in a story. Todorov (1981) says ellipsis is a state in which the story time has no one counterpart/symmetry in the narrative time, and this means not including a considerable amount of period. *Summary* is when "NT < ST" (story time is larger than narrative time). Toolan (2001), believes that the pace of narration is accelerated when summary is done, so that a specific period in the story is summarized to occupy less discourse space. *Scene* is shown as NT = ST by Genette. It is when narrative time corresponds to the story's time. *Pause* is the situation when the event-story is interrupted to make room exclusively for narratorial discourse. Static descriptions fall into this category (ibid.), which is indicated by NT = n, ST = 0, thus: NT > ST. Finally, *Stretch* which is opposite to summary. It takes longer to describe an action than actually elapsed while it was happening. Fludernik (2006) provides an example of stretch and says that the most striking examples of this type can be found in death scenes in which "the whole of the protagonist's life unfolds before her/his eyes. The relatively brief moment when death occurs is filled out with many pages of description". (p. 33)

Frequency is a temporal component which was not touched in narrative theory before Genette (Rimmon-Kenan, 2002). It is the relation between the number of times an event appears in the story and the number of times it is narrated (or mentioned) in the text (ibid.). Thus, frequency is associated with repetition. Repetition-relations between story events and their narration in the text can take the following forms:

Singulative is telling once what 'happened' once.

Repetitive is telling n times what 'happened' once.

Iterative is telling once what 'happened' n times. (Rimmon-Kenan, 2002)

IV. JAMES JOYCE AND HIS *A PORTRAIT OF THE ARTIST AS A YOUNG MAN*

A Portrait details events which closely correspond with those of Joyce's life himself. According to Ellmann (1982) Joyce hoped that his *Portrait* would be an autobiographical novel "turning his life into fiction" (p. 149). In similar respects, Herbert Gorman writes that Joyce had in mind:

an autobiographical book, a personal history, as it were, of the growth of a mind, his own mind, and his own intensive absorption in himself and what he had been and how he had grown out of the Jesuitical garden of his youth. He endeavoured to see himself objectively, to assume a godlike poise of watchfulness and observance over the small boy he called Stephen and who was really himself. (Gorman, 1941, p. 133)

Bulson (2006) attempts to assign a genre for this novel when he declares *A Portrait* "belongs to the genre of the *Bildungsroman* which is a "novel of education", and "the *Künstlerroman*" which can be a novel of "artistic development" (p. 49). He says in these novels there is always a young person who struggles to achieve "experience" and "success" in his life (ibid.). Bulson considers the two novels of *Bildungsroman* and *Künstlerroman* in more details and tries to contrast them by the deeds of their protagonists; With respect to the former, he says that the protagonist understands his or her status in society, however, s/he becomes disappointed by what she understands about the world and reality. About the latter, however, he mentions that the protagonist denies what is the routine and the commonplace of life which is imposed to him/her by the society. Bulson continues that in both cases the protagonists' ambitions may seem noble at the beginning, but they are anyhow "put under pressure by the powerful corrupt social and political institutions of their time" (p. 49). He asserts that Stephen (the protagonist of *A Portrait*) follows both of these traditions as he opposes "the social, political, and religious institutions that want him to conform and he rejects them for the artistic life" (p. 49).

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Data

The concept of time has been changed in modern fiction compared to classic writings. Deviating from its linearity, time brings about a challenging discussion in modern writings. Accordingly, this study centers on analyzing James Joyce's *A Portrait* which is a modern novel. Twenty pages from the beginning, middle, and the end parts of the novel were chosen for the analysis (i.e. 3-23, 87-107, and 176-196 respectively; the version with Belanger's introduction and notes, 2001). Concerning this amount of data, one point should be raised about the third category of frequency. Frequency of events, makes clear how often a specific event takes place. Actually this category can be viewed as a kind of deviation or shift from the normal happening of events. But unlike order and duration, for frequency we have gone beyond the 60-page sample because we believe *events* cannot be limited to samples as they may be repeated anywhere in the novel.

B. Procedure

To do the analysis, firstly, the whole novel was read in order to make a coherent understanding of the general style of writing and also becoming marginally familiar with the overall pattern of time hidden between the lines, paragraphs, and pages of this novel. Simultaneously though, the researchers try to find the instances of shift, together with noting the specific kinds of shift. Finally, for a better comprehension and sum up of the data, the results of the analysis are summarized and classified in tables. The analysis is going to be done based on the model Genette (1980) provides.

VI. RESULTS

The results of order and duration are considered in one table since they both have the same amount of sample:

TABLE 1.
THE FREQUENCY OF TIME SHIFTS IN THE CATEGORIES OF 'ORDER' AND 'DURATION'

	A. Order		B. Duration				
	Analepsis	Prolepsis	Pause	Scene	Ellipsis	Summary	Stretch
First 20 pages (3-23)	17	5	49	31	5	6	15
Second 20 pages (87-107)	2	5	27	8	4	11	8
Third 20 pages (176-196)	18	6	42	12	2	13	2
Total	37	16	118	51	11	30	25

A. Shifts in Order

Table 1 shows that analepsis has been used 37times, somewhat twice the amount of prolepsis. This means that the dominant chronological breaks in this sample are achieved via analeptic digressions. This novel being an autobiographical one (accounting to us the life of Joyce himself from his infant times to his adulthood), in itself forms an overall analepsis.

1. ANALEPSIS

Analepsis or what many writers refer to as flashback is the telling of an event which happened in the past and which is remembered or told when a character is in his/her present. The following paragraph is an explicit analeptic leap which

is the result of certain phrase use. The phrase *'he remembered an evening'*, causes this explicitness. Here, the omniscient narrator penetrates through Stephen's thought and let us know the hero's exact state of mind.

And he remembered an evening when he had dismounted from a borrowed creaking bicycle to pray to God in a wood near Malahide. He had lifted up his arms and spoken in ecstasy to the sombre nave of the trees, knowing that he stood on holy ground and in a holy hour. And when two constabulary men had come into sight round a bend in the gloomy road he had broken off his prayer to whistle loudly an air from the last pantomime. (p. 179, *A Portrait*²)

The next passage is where Stephen jumps from near to far memories:

That was mean of Wells to shoulder him into the square ditch because he would not swop his little snuff box for Wells's seasoned hacking chestnut, the conqueror of forty. How cold and slimy the water had been! (...)

—All in! All in! (p.6)

What is critical here, is that Stephen shifts in between his memories (all happening in the past). This is an analepsis in which another analepsis occurs. In fact, this passage can well illustrate Stephen's inward overlapping memories coming to him one after the other. There can be seen no logical relationship between the two events he remembers. Actually, this is not a weird phenomenon in modern novels as they present to us the characters' intermingled thoughts and this is what is stressed through the literature about modern novels. Parsons (2007), for instance, raises this issue and tells us about the difficulty of tracing the real events in a modern novel; she ascribes this difficulty to the feature of "the mingling of different layers of time in various layers of the characters' consciousness". This is to say that in this very passage Stephen first remembers the day when one of his classmates, named Wells, pushed him in a square ditch and the cold water he experienced. Then and without any interruptions or pause (which could make readers ready for another wholly differing subject), the narrator presents Stephen's other memory which came to him in that very moment, that is his home, his mother, and Dante. Like most of Stephen's recalls, his memory of 'home' is also vivid and his consciousness and thoughts are presented to readers with concrete images, clearly describing the setting. Through these analepses, we become aware of other characters in the story like Dante who is a well-read knowledgeable woman. In between those lines, *'Father Arnall'*—a priest in Stephen's school—comes to his mind.

2. PROLEPSIS

Prolepsis is when the discourse jumps forward in relation to the story's timeline. As mentioned earlier, prolepsis has a number of functions one of which is visionary prolepsis or based on Whalting (2010), "prophetic prolepsis". Prophetic prolepsis predicts some events to happen, like what prophets foresee. This prophecy may describe a state of doom or luck. What is evident from the next instance, is a state of doom presented to us via Stephen's thoughts about the possible future that all human may be confronted with one day:

Rain was falling on the chapel, on the garden, on the college. It would rain forever, ... till the waters covered the face of the earth. (p. 89)

The description of the way the rain falls suggest a fear Stephen suffered from. The way he tells us about the ubiquitous rain as it falls *'on the chapel, on the garden, on the college'*, clearly shows this fear of the doomed fate. This is a prophetic prolepsis because it is associated with the horrible fate of human beings and it is similar to what prophets did in their prophecies about the gruesome future of unfavorable bad people. This passage is also an allusion to the lurid storm of Noah, which took place to destroy the bad.

B. Shifts in Duration

Noticing Table 1, we may consider the second category, duration which has the highest frequency for 'pause' with 118 times of occurrence. It was said previously in the definition of pause, that it is a state when the actions and events (that is story) are stopped and the discourse is devoted to describe static settings. Pause was used in this sample, mainly for describing the protagonist's (Stephen) state of mind and what he thinks about an already occurred action or dialogue.

1. PAUSE

Pause seems to be the most prevalent technique of time shift used in this sample. One of the instances of pause is the time when Stephen had returned home sitting on the table and waiting for the turkey to be brought for dinner. As the previous example, this pause occurs as a result of Stephen's thinking and recalls:

Stephen looked at the plump turkey which had lain, trussed and skewered, on the kitchen table. He knew (...) studded with peeled almonds and sprigs of holly, with bluish fire running around it and a little green flag flying from the top. (p. 21)

Stephen thinks about the turkey and describes it so greedily, but then he hints in his thoughts about the huge price his father has paid for it. The part: *'—Take that one, sir. That's the real Ally Daly'* is considered as a scene in this pause since it consumes almost the same discourse time that it actually had consumed in the story when it had been uttered by the seller. As we had mentioned the elements of time in Genette's categorization can be combined. This is what Guillemette and L'évesque (2006) also affirm. They believe that the four kinds of narrative speed can be used to varying degrees and also be combined e.g. a dialogue scene can contain a summary within it. More importantly they refer to the relative importance of a specific event which can be more or less depicted via the variations in speed within a narrative. There are instances in which a narrator passes quickly over a particular fact, lingers over it, or omits it entirely, there is certainly reason to ask why he made these textual choices. The sentence the seller says to Stephen's father seems not so

² All the extracts are from the novel *A Portrait*.

much important, thus, the narrator passes it quickly by talking about another thing. The ending 4 lines are the detailed description of smell of turkey and dinner. Here, too, because nothing happens in the story and the narrative is longer than what actually happened in the story (NT = n, ST = 0. Thus: NT > S), we say there is a pause.

2. SCENE

Scene is the second most frequent durational mode after pause. This is the case where the story and discourse occupy almost the same amount of time and the most representative example of this kind, as reiterated throughout the literature, is in *dialogues*. In this sample, we see that Joyce has brought short and sometimes very long dialogues among characters. This technique causes the story and discourse to occupy the same amount of time. The following example shows a part of the dialogue between Mr Dedalus, Dante, and uncle Charles as they talk about politics and religion:

Mr Dedalus covered the dish and began to eat hungrily. Then he said:

—Poor old Christy, he's nearly lopsided now with roguery.

(...)

—Mary? Here, Stephen, here's something to make your hair curl (...). (pp. 21-2)

The above dialogue is extracted from the dialogues of Mr. Dedalus, Dante, and uncle Charles who fervently were discussing political and religious matters. This dialogue occupies nearly eight pages of this novel (pp. 21-29). This is another case of scene since there is equal amount of time in both story and discourse levels. We may speculate the time of the dialogue in the story by reading this dialogue out loud. The time it takes for reading this dialogue loudly may be the approximate time in which the real dialogue has taken place in the story. In addition to dialogues, prayers are found to form some instances of scene in this sample. For instance, the following passage is when Stephen prays:

He prayed:

—*He once had meant to come on earth in heavenly glory but we sinned; and then He could not safely visit us but with a shrouded majesty and a bedimmed radiance for He was God (...) across the bleak wilderness guide us on to our Lord Jesus, guide us home.* (p. 106, Italics original)

What readers see and read on the page take nearly the same amount of time as Stephen praying in the story. The act of reading these lines themselves is as if we readers, are praying too.

3. ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis has the lowest occurrence (frequency of 11). The elliptic sections are the ones to which no discourse is allocated. Ellipsis seems to be an indispensable part of every novel because logically, a novelist cannot incorporate the many years of his/her protagonists' lives. In this sample for instance, it was impossible that Joyce could portray Stephen's years from infancy to adulthood (nearly 20 years), all in this 196-page novel. In such a case, the technique of ellipsis is used to insert such rapid shifts i.e. from infancy to six-years of age as on Page 4 of *A Portrait*. The novel starts with a father telling a story to his three year old child. Almost one page is allocated to Stephen who is three. But there is no account of his first two years since it is completely deleted from discourse. Even his three year old state is not fully described. This again, in itself, forms an ellipsis. As we move to the next page, we see a sort of change in language and environment; a change from baby song to a playground swarming with boys:

Pull out his eyes, (...)

Apologize.

The wide playgrounds were swarming with boys. All were shouting and the prefects urged them on with strong cries. The evening air was pale and chilly and after every charge and thud of the footballers the greasy leather orb flew like a heavy bird through the grey light (...). (p. 4, Italics original)

After the song, a three-year ellipsis occurs and we are confronted with Stephen who is six years old and it is accounted to us that he is in the playground seeing the boys (his friends). This ellipsis is not only due to the explicit reason of the paragraph break, but also because of implicit, semantic, and environmental reasons.

4. SUMMARY

Summary, a technique of durational time, is identified in *A Portrait* with approximately 30 times of occurrence. This technique is used less in this sample compared to other techniques of duration such as pause or scene. This is due to the style of the novel which tries to give a detailed sketch of the hero's feeling and most of the times zooms on events to explain them via stream of consciousness. But in summary there is not such a thing but vice versa i.e. the events are shortened. Consider the first example:

...Just then my father came up. Introduction. Father polite and observant. Asked Davin if he might offer him some refreshment. Davin could not, was going to a meeting. (...) Says I was cut out for that. More mud, more crocodiles. (p. 194)

The events in this paragraph are parts of Stephen's diaries. Unlike his other diaries, this one depicts the events so telegraphically, e.g. by deleting the subject pronouns from the beginning of sentences. This causes some parts to be deleted and thus told in a summarized way. The summary which is evident in the above example is also the result of 'list-like event nomination' specifically in phrases like: 'Introduction', 'Father polite and observant' and in 'Wants me to read law'. For instance, in 'introduction', there could be more explanations about what exactly was said and how the greeting was done.

5. STRETCH

Stretch is when the narrative spends many lines writing about the events which have happened in the story level just shortly. This technique is used 25 times in this sample. This amount seems to be large since stretch is to be known a rare phenomenon (based on Jahn, 2005). Anyhow, in all the three samples which I have chosen from the beginning, middle, and the end of the novel, the use of stretch is obvious. This is to large extents due to the style of writing in modernist writings in which writers tried to show their characters' detailed feelings, impressions, emotions, and thoughts through the stream of consciousness technique. Let us consider an example of stretch which also exploits this technique:

... White roses and red roses: those were beautiful colours to think of. And the cards for first place and second place and third place were beautiful colours too: pink and cream and lavender. Lavender and cream and pink roses were beautiful to think of. Perhaps a wild rose might be like those colours and he remembered the song about the wild rose blossoms on the little green place. But you could not have a green rose. But perhaps somewhere in the world you could. (p. 7)

The above passage is about Stephen's realization of colours. His obsessions with colours rise because he was just thinking about the cards that some days Jack Lawtons and sometimes he got for first. Stephen does not abruptly and directly thinks about the cards. His thoughts are so delicately expressed so as to take readers from one thought to the other i.e. his first realization about roses and their beautiful colours is there to tell us about the colour of cards with which he is obsessed. Stephen's realization of the roses and his permanent descriptions about their colours indicate a sort of stretch in the discourse because the five-line allocation of discourse to Stephen's thoughts about the colours of roses is relatively much.

C. Shifts in Frequency

Frequency deals with the number of repetition and emergence of specific *events*. An event may occur anywhere in the novel. A specific event may occur on Page 5 and repeated immediately in the next page or very late in the ending pages of the novel. This is the reason and the justification that the researchers have considered this category in relation to the whole novel. The frequency of events has three components: singulative, repetitive, and iterative, frequencies of which are demonstrated in the following table:

TABLE 2.
THE FREQUENCY (NUMBER OF OCCURRENCE) OF THE THREE COMPONENTS OF 'FREQUENCY'

C. Frequency			
The whole Novel Considered	Singulative	Repetitive	Iterative
30	16	53	

1. SINGULATIVE

Singulative Frequency is when an event is narrated only once. Singulative frequency occurs nearly 30 times. An example is the time when Stephen does not do his homework because he has broken his glasses:

—Why are you not writing like the others?

—I ... my ...

(...)

—Where did you break your glasses? repeated the prefect of studies... (p. 37)

This is Stephen's dialogue with Father Arnall about not doing homework. This event, though carrying a heavy sense of pity and sympathy, is only narrated once in the whole novel. This is where Stephen is punished unjustly. He is accused of a laziness that prevented him from doing his homework. His excuses, which were the broken glasses and his weak sight, were unfairly ignored. A critical point here is Stephen's objection to this injustice. This objection is important as we see these little incidents (though narrated once) accumulate and gradually shape Stephen's personality as we see him at the end of the novel a man who have become so free and so ambitious in achieving his share in life.

2. REPETATIVE

Repetitive frequency in a story is a state when an event which happened once in the story is recounted more than one time. This instance occurred 16 times. This kind of frequency shows the number of times a theme, a concept, an action, or an event is repeated all through the novel. Repetition of specific events or specific thoughts exist in this narrative as well and some reasons have been raised for such recurring repetitions. Such repetitions may be due to 1. the importance of a specific event/thought, 2. the psychological burden an event has for the characters, 3. foregrounding some events, 4. repeating anachronies, 5. bringing an event in a different context for creating an effect. In this novel, besides events, there are some recurring themes and concepts, as well as specific thought streams whose repetitions are considered as this type of repetition.

There are some places in *A Portrait* where the theme of politics, for instance, is raised and discussed among the characters. There have been found 4 places where this issue is discussed (Pages: 10, 18, 22, and 46). The political matters which are spoken about through the novel reflect the state of Ireland—Stephen's country—which seemed to be an uncomfortable place for both Stephen and his real-life contemporary, Joyce. The next repetition happened when Stephen was pushed in a 'square ditch' by Wells, one of the friends in Clongowes whom he dislikes. This event is repeated 4 times in the novel. The first time when this event has been mentioned is on Page 6. This shows how much Stephen was obsessed with this Wells' deed. His falling in the ditch may suggest Stephen's (the protagonist of *A Portrait*) weakness and fragility. The repeated mentioning of this event shows the psychological burden it left on

Stephen. Because Stephen avoided to divulge Wells's bad, this became a psychological burden for Stephen and he tried to release this burden almost unconsciously by thinking about it and condemning it through the novel.

3. ITERATIVE

Iterative frequency is recounting once the events of a story which happened more than one time. The iterative technique functions as a reducer. It is a technique which reduces the number of times same events actually happen at the level of the story (in most cases) regularly. The novel disclosed 53 instances where it was struggled to bring a replacement for useless repetitions of same events again and again. There exist two kinds of iterative passages in this novel. There are some sections where the sematic and interpretive clues lead us to conclude a specific passage to be an iterative, whereas in some other sections of the novel, iterativity is gained through a number of linguistic indicators (such as everyday/morning/four seconds, Sundays/Mondays, always, for hours, used to). To clarify what it is meant by a semantic interpretive clue let us consider the following example:

The wide playgrounds were swarming with boys. All were shouting and the prefects urged them on with strong cries. The evening air was pale and chilly and after every charge and thud of the footballers the greasy leather orb flew like a heavy bird through the grey light. He kept on the fringe of his line, out of sight of his prefect, out of the reach of the rude feet, feigning to run now and then (p. 4)

The first two lines of this paragraph indicate to readers, only implicitly, that there exists a playground where the boys get out and play in it every day. The boy's shouts and playing as well as the playgrounds suggest so implicitly and so interpretatively that this happens every day in the Clognows School. Hereafter, there is no passage describing such a setting and such activities; this is so described by the narrator, to let us know about a recurring setting in the coming days at Clognows. This is why this passage is considered an iterative one.

There are however, a number of linguistic indicators which clearly show that the events happened many times in the story but are recounted only once in discourse level, as in:

On Sundays Stephen with his father and his grand-uncle took their constitutional. The old man was a nimble walker in spite of his corns and often ten or twelve miles of the road were covered. The little village of Stillorgan was the parting of the ways. (p. 46)

The beginning of the above passage starting with 'on Sundays' shows an activity happening regularly on every Sunday. The use of such phrases (on Sundays) prevent the repetition of same events. According to Genette (1980) "the narrative is not by any means condemned to reproduce" repetitious events in narrative (p. 144).

VII. DISCUSSION

Rimmon-Kenan (2002) asserts that analepses are more frequent than prolepses, what is also found in the present study. In the present study's sample, also, the dominant chronological breaks (anachronies) are achieved via analeptic digressions. This novel being an autobiographical one (accounting to us the life of Joyce himself from his infant times to his adulthood), in itself forms an overall analepsis. In most analepses, the roles of mind, memory, and recalling were conspicuous ones. This is in line with Whalting (2010) who ascribes analepses to have explanatory roles which develops a character's psychology by recounting some of his past events. Considering prolepses, Rimmon-Kenan (2002) asserts that they are suspense creators. As it can be seen from the already analyzed instances, the functions of prolepsis are not limited to creating suspense only. However, it includes a range of other functions like prophesying. This is what contradicts Rimmon-Kenan's statement who has asserted just one outcome for prolepsis, that is 'suspense creating'. Noticing the second category, duration, the highest frequency is apparent in 'pause' with the total 118 times of occurrence. Most of the pauses were concerned with the protagonist's state of pondering and thinking about the depth of both important and trivial matters. The feature of these thoughts (which created pause) was to large degrees consistent with the features of pause elaborated by Fludernik (2006) who expounds pauses to be descriptions of "states of mind" which "do not correlate at all with any action in the world of the story" (p. 33). After pause, the other most frequent durational mode is scene. This is the case where the story and discourse occupy almost the same amount of time and the most representative example of this kind, as reiterated throughout the literature (Genette, 1980; Herman & Vervaeck, 2001) is in dialogues. In this novel, too, Joyce has brought short and sometimes very long dialogues among characters. The literature (e.g. Genette, 1980; Herman & Vervaeck, 2001) cites dialogues to be examples of scenic representations. However, there is no account of other examples as the ones found in this study such as story telling (e.g. at the very beginning of the novel), song reading, praying, and admonitions. These all have one feature in common and that is the same amount of temporal space in both story and discourse. This Fludernik (2006) refers to as "isochrony" (p. 33). In line with the present finding, Fludernik declares this sort of time occurs only when "the words of characters are rendered verbatim or a blow-by-blow account of a series of rapid actions is given, as might be the case with the description of a 'fist fight'" (p. 33).

Concerning the frequential modes, the iterative one stands high with 53 number of occurrence. The novel disclosed 53 instances where it was struggled to bring a replacement for useless repetitions of the same events again and again. Erll (2009), also, notes what Genette has done in Proust's novel about the iteratives; Erll says there are some sentences in Proust's novel like "For a long time, I went to bed early" which "'general events' of our autobiographic memory" (p. 214). Erll believes Genette's categories of frequency are compatible with memory processes. This claim is appreciated since in the present study, too, these categories depict the memory processes of Stephen in *A Portrait* well enough. The

next instance is the repetitive frequency which happens 16 times. This kind of frequency shows the number of times a theme, a concept, an action, or an event is repeated all through the novel. The repetition of a specific event in a story, however, is not identical to its other repetitions because based on Rimmon-Kenan (2002), the repetitive events happen in a different context and location and this causes some qualities of the events to be deleted (and thus not to be exactly identical to when they are repeated anywhere else in a novel or a story). This conception was met in *A Portrait* as well. We see that in different sections and setting of this novel even the repetition of the same events are not similar. Moreover, readers' interpretation at each stage of reading that event will be different. Another point is about the importance of the events which are repeated. Sometimes repetitions aim to show the psychological burden by which the protagonist is wrestling with all through the novel. In this respect, Erll (2009) as well considers repetitive frequency depict important events, particularly the events which have a traumatic quality" (p. 214).

VIII. CONCLUSIONS

This study struggled to determine the time shifts hidden in Joyce's *A portrait*. Hiring Genette's framework for time, 10 instances were identified and analyzed. A number of findings has been achieved in this study. First, the findings show that linearity is disturbed in this sample and the event sequences are not presented as they really happen in the story world. Second, it was shown that time shift techniques are inevitable in this novel due to three reasons: a. to fit this narrative within the limited space of a novel, b. to make this narrative (short and thus) readable, and c. to add to the stylistic features. The last finding is that time is subjective in this novel. *A Portrait* was identified to have rich examples of the stream of consciousness technique used to reveal the protagonist's thoughts and ideologies. Since readers become immersed in such thoughts, they will realize a sort of time that is subjective i.e. it takes form in the protagonist's thoughts. Time appears, in most cases, in self-ponderings, idea expressing, moral reflections, perceptions and emotions, all of which yield subjective presentation of time.

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Writing Complexity, Accuracy, and Fluency among EFL Learners: Inspecting Their Interaction with Learners' Degree of Creativity

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Abstract—Based on the peculiarities of developing second language (L2) writing among English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners and the significance of studying the way writing skill interacts with EFL learners' internal factors, the present study attempted to inspect the relationship between EFL learners' creativity, on one hand, and writing complexity, writing accuracy, and writing fluency, on the other hand. The participants of the study were 185 male and female adult Iranian EFL learners ($M_{age} = 26$). The Persian version of O'Neil, Abedi, and Spielberger's (1992) Creativity Questionnaire, validated by Zaker (2013), was employed in order to estimate participants' degree of creativity. Participants' two exploratory and descriptive writings were analyzed through employing the Profile of Larsen-Freeman (2006) by two raters in order to estimate participants' writing complexity, accuracy, and fluency. Through running Pearson's Product-moment correlations it was indicated that there are significant correlations between participants' creativity and writing accuracy, $\rho = .84$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$; creativity and writing fluency, $\rho = .77$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$; and creativity and writing complexity, $\rho = .69$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$. Moreover, running three linear regressions revealed that Creativity can predict 70.1 percent of participants' writing accuracy ($R = .837$, $R^2 = .701$); 60 percent of their writing fluency ($R = .775$, $R^2 = .600$); and 47.5 percent of their writing complexity ($R = .689$, $R^2 = .475$). The study concludes with a discussion on the findings and stating a number of recommendations for further research.

Index Terms—creativity, second language writing, writing accuracy, writing complexity, writing fluency

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing as one of the main and productive skills and a significant requirement for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners is regarded to be one of the most important communicative skills in English language learning (Hayes & Flower, 1986; Sharples, Goodlet, & Pymberton, 1989). Writing's significance in learning language has been acknowledged by many researchers and educators (Richards & Renandya, 2002). While most people have no difficulty in being proficient in other language skills in their native languages, becoming a skilled writer even in the mother tongue is quite challenging; let alone becoming a competent writer in second or foreign language (Gregersen, 2003). For instance, in the Iranian context, as an EFL context, a number of researchers (Hasani & Moghadam, 2012; Mirzaii, 2012) have reported that the writing performance of Iranian Second language (L2) learners is not satisfactory. Based on these points, English language teaching circles are paying further attention to writing skill (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 1999).

Writing is often considered as the most difficult skill to be mastered because of its complexity. Hapsari (2011) argues that writing is generally known as the most difficult of the four skills. The difficulty is seen in generating and organizing ideas and the mastery of the different aspects of writing such as grammar, spelling, word choice, punctuation, and so on. Researchers in the area of second/foreign language learning (Ellis, 2003; Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Skehan 1998) are now in agreement that L2 proficiency, in general, and writing proficiency, in particular, are multi-componential in nature, and that their principal dimensions can be adequately, and comprehensively, captured by the notions of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF; Housen & Kuiken, 2009).

Skehan and Foster (1997) define writing complexity as, "Learners' capacity to use more elaborate and complex target like language" (p. 230). According to Skehan (1996), complexity is "the stage and elaboration of the underlying inter language system" (p. 46), which utilizes complicated and structured inter-language (Skehan, 1998). Writing accuracy refers to "the extent to which the language produced conforms to the target language norms" (Skehan & Foster, 1996, p. 232). Skehan (1996) also defines accuracy as a characteristic concerning "a learner's capacity to handle whatever level of inter-language complexity s/he has currently attained" (p. 46); that is, how similar produced language is to the target language. Finally, fluency is defined as "the number of words produced in a specified time frame, together with lexical

frequency, irrespective of spelling and content, provided that the writer's meaning is readily understandable" (Fellner & Apple, 2006, p. 19).

According to Housen and Kuiken (2009), "CAF have been used both as performance descriptors for the oral and written assessment of language learners as well as indicators of learners' proficiency underlying their performance; they have also been used for measuring progress in language learning" (p. 461). The origins of CAF lie in research on L2 pedagogy where in the 1980s a distinction was made between fluent versus accurate L2 usage to investigate the development of oral L2 proficiency in classroom contexts. One of the first to use this dichotomy was Brumfit (1984) who distinguished between fluency-oriented activities, which foster spontaneous oral L2 production, and accuracy-oriented activities, which focus on linguistic form and on the controlled production of grammatically correct linguistic structures in the L2. The third component, complexity, was added in the 1990s, following Skehan (1989) who proposed an L2 model which for the first time included CAF as the three principal proficiency dimensions.

The quality of writing is not simply restricted to the learning of linguistic items and gaining mastery over different dimensions of performance. In essence, the way people produce language in both oral and written forms may have been affected by different factors (Nosratinia, Abbasi, & Zaker, 2015). Dörnyei (2005) highlights the importance of studying factors such as personality types, self-regulation, self-esteem, and creativity which are considered as individual differences that have great effect on language learning, especially writing.

Researchers and educators have concentrated on the development of learners' creativity since its enhancement is considered as one of the top goals in all societies (Baucus, Norton, Baucus, & Human, 2008). Creativity is one of the most important cognitive factors whose role in writing has been acknowledged by the majority of L2/EFL researchers (Tse & Shum, 2000). The concept of creativity first was introduced by Goltan (1869). Lots of works have been done since then to define creativity. "Creativity is generally characterized as the ability to create new and original products which are considered appropriate for the features and limitations of a given task, where products can refer to a variety of ideas, viewpoints, and innovations" (Lubart, 1994, p. 15). "These products must be original as they should not be just a mere copy of what already exists" (Lubart & Guignard, 2004, p. 43).

As Sarsani (2005) stated, "Philosophy sees creativity as a process of change" (p. 132). Education must thus "Enable people to generate and implement new ideas and to adapt positively to different changes in order to survive in the current world" (Jeffrey, Craft, & Leibling, 2001, p. ix). To this end, according to Agarwal (1992), developing creativity at all levels in the educational system seems critical in improving educational attainment and life skills.

Considering the stated contribution of creativity to learning language skills (e.g. writing) and the significance of CAF in determining L2 writing quality, the present study aims to investigate the relationship between creativity, on one hand, and the three dimensions of writing (i.e. complexity, accuracy, and fluency), on the other hand, in an EFL context. A further objective of this study was to determine the extent to which CAF are predicted by EFL learners' creativity. In order to accomplish these objectives, the following research questions were formulated:

Q₁. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing accuracy?

Q₂. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing fluency?

Q₃. Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing complexity?

Considering the observed significant relationship among the variables, the following research questions were posed:

Q₄. How much can EFL learners' creativity predict their writing accuracy?

Q₅. How much can EFL learners' creativity predict their writing fluency?

Q₆. How much can EFL learners' creativity predict their writing complexity?

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of the present study were 185 intermediate male and female (30 males and 155 females) EFL learners studying English in three language schools, namely Iranmehr, Shokuh, and Zabansara in Tehran. Their ages ranged from 20 to 32 ($M_{age} = 26$). The process of participants' selection was done conveniently, i.e. the available intermediate students were asked to participate in the study. The preliminary number of participants was 250, but 65 of them were excluded from data analysis due to careless coding, and incomplete answers bringing the final number to 185 participants.

Furthermore, two English teachers (one of the researchers and one of her colleagues holding an MA degree in TEFL) participated in this study as the raters of the writing papers. In order to estimate the inter-rater reliability between the two raters, a randomly selected cluster of writing compositions, including 28 sets of compositions, scored by the two raters was employed. Running Pearson correlations between these score sets indicated that there were significant agreements between the scores of writing accuracy ($r(28) = .80, P < .05$ representing a large effect size), writing fluency ($r(28) = .88, P < .05$ representing a large effect size), and writing complexity ($r(28) = .74, P < .05$ representing a large effect size) as provided by the two raters. As a result, it was appropriate to employ the mean of the two scores provided by the two raters as the final score for each participant's writing performance (indicating CAF).

Instrumentation

Creativity Questionnaire

In this study, creativity was operationally defined as the scores participants received on the Persian version of Creativity Test. The original English questionnaire was designed by O' Neil, Abedi, and Spielberger in 1992, translated into Persian by Daemi and Moghimi (2004), and validated by Zaker (2013). The validated questionnaire (Zaker, 2013) contains 50 three-point Likert items. Responses to the individual items are scored on a scale ranging from 0 to 2, from the least to the most creative response. The allocated time for answering the questionnaire is 50 minutes, and the total scores fall within the range of 0 to 100.

According to Zaker (2013), the internal consistency of the Persian Creativity Test was estimated to be 0.85 employing Cronbach's alpha coefficient. In this study, the reliability of the Persian Creativity Test was estimated to be 0.93 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Two Compositions

The participants were asked to write two compositions on two different predetermined topics based on their course book in descriptive and exploratory types, namely:

1. *Describing the characteristics of a successful English teacher in Iran.*
2. *Unemployment is a problem facing many countries today. Explain how the governments can possibly reduce the rate of unemployment.*

The compositions consisted of 150 to 250 words. The participants had 50 minutes to write about each predetermined topic. The compositions had to have three parts -introduction, body paragraphs, and conclusion.

Profile of Larsen-Freeman

In order to score the two abovementioned compositions objectively, the researchers used the Profile of Larsen-Freeman (2006) which is a reliable rating scale. Larsen-Freeman (2006) conducted an in-depth analysis on English language learners' performance through an objective assessment. Through her study, Larsen-Freeman (2006) introduced a profile which utilized T-units in assessing both oral and written language productions in terms of accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Larsen-Freeman (2006) defined writing accuracy, fluency, and complexity as follows:

a) Accuracy: The proportion of error-free T-units to total T-units (in terms of lexical, morphological, and syntactic errors);

b) Fluency: The average number of words per T-unit; &

c) Complexity: The total number of clauses divided by the total number of T-units.

T-Unit Guideline

Polio (1997) developed a guideline through which the systematic determination of T-units and errors is possible. The concept of T-unit has been defined as "one main clause with all subordinate clauses attached to it" (Hunt, 1965, p. 20). T-units are usually employed for analyzing written and spoken discourse because it has been proven that T-units are strongly correlated to language proficiency (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005; Wolfe-Quintero, Inagaki, & Kim, 1998). In this study, the researchers used this guideline to determine T-units, in the first place, then, used the Profile of Larsen-Freeman (2006) in order to determine the scores of CAF.

Procedure

Initially, the Persian version of the Creativity Test (Zaker, 2013) was administered to 250 male and female EFL learners (see participants). The participants were fully briefed on the process of completing the questionnaire. Also, the researchers announced that the results of the questionnaire would just be used for the sake of the academic value of this research. The researchers observed the process of filling out randomly to make sure that the participants were capable to fully understand the questions and responses. The completed questionnaires were collected (after 50 minutes) and scored by the researchers, revealing that from the initial 250 administered questionnaires, only a number of 185 questionnaires were answered completely and were usable for the statistical analyses.

In the two following sessions, the 185 participants were asked to take part in two composition writing tests and write two different descriptive and exploratory type essays. The participants had 50 minutes to write each composition. Their performances were scored objectively in terms of accuracy, complexity and fluency by two raters (see participants) following the Profile of Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Polio's (1997) guidelines for T-units and error analyses.

As stated above, (see instrumentation), in order to estimate the writing accuracy, the proportion of the error-free T-units to the total T-units were calculated. For finding out the writing fluency, the average number of words per T-unit was taken into account, and, finally, in order to score the writing complexity, the total number of clauses divided by the total number of T-units was calculated. This was followed by the statistical procedures whose results are stated in the following sections.

III. RESULTS

This descriptive study investigated the way EFL learners' creativity and their writing accuracy, writing complexity, and writing fluency are associated. To do so, a series of pertinent calculations and statistical routines were conducted which are presented below.

Preliminary Analyses

The data were analyzed through running Pearson's Product-moment correlation coefficient and linear regression, both of which share a number of assumptions, namely normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. The last two will be discussed later; however, the assumption of normality is discussed here through using two methods, the Skewness and

Kurtosis Ratio test and Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. As displayed in Table 1, the ratios of skewness and kurtosis were within the range of ± 1.96 ; this supported the normality of the data.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS; TESTING NORMALITY ASSUMPTION

	N	Skewness		Kurtosis	
		Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Creativity	185	-.116	.179	-0.65	.137
Accuracy	185	.132	.179	0.74	.141
Fluency	185	.118	.179	0.66	.095
Complexity	185	.043	.179	0.24	-.438

The normality of the present data was also supported by the inspection of the normal probability plots, Normal Q-Q Plots. As displayed in Table 2, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov indices of normality were all non-significant ($p > .05$); this backed up the normality of the present data.

TABLE 2:
TESTS OF NORMALITY

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Creativity	.056	185	.200*	.994	185	.595
Accuracy	.057	185	.200*	.989	185	.181
Fluency	.061	185	.095	.994	185	.616
Complexity	.064	185	.065	.987	185	.096

Answering the Research Questions

Owing to the fact that the assumptions of normality, as stated above, were met, parametric formulas could be employed in order to answer the research questions. The following sections present the results.

The First Research Question

Regarding the relationship between creativity and writing accuracy, the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were met (Figure 1). As demonstrated in Figure 1, the spread of dots clustered around the diagonal which supports the linearity of the relationship between the two variables. The spread of dots does not show a funnel shape distribution, narrow at one end and wide at the other. Thus, the assumption of homoscedasticity was also met.

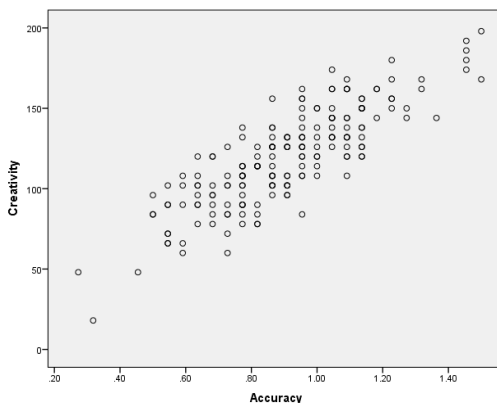


Figure 1: Relationship between writing accuracy and creativity

The results of the Pearson correlation ($r(185) = .83, p < .05$, representing a large effect size; Table 3) indicated that there was a significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing accuracy.

TABLE 3:
PEARSON CORRELATION; WRITING ACCURACY WITH CREATIVITY

		Creativity
Accuracy	Pearson Correlation	.837**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	185

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

The Second Research Question

Regarding the relationship between creativity and writing fluency, as demonstrated in Figure 2, the cluster of spread of dots around the diagonal and the lack of any funnel shape distribution seem to support the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity.

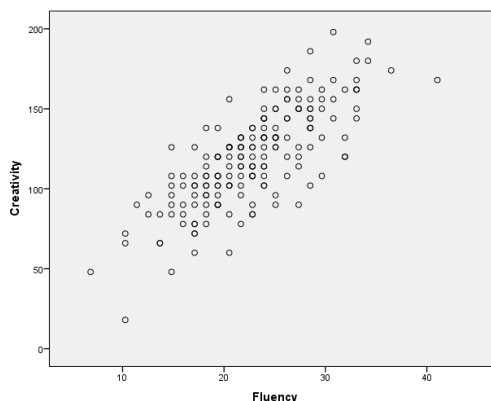


Figure 2: Relationship between writing fluency and creativity

The results of the Pearson correlation ($r(185) = .77, p < .05$, representing a large effect size; Table 4) indicated that there was a significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing fluency.

TABLE 4:
PEARSON CORRELATION; WRITING FLUENCY WITH CREATIVITY

		Creativity
	Pearson Correlation	.775**
Fluency	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	185

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

The Third Research Question

Regarding the relationship between creativity and writing complexity, Figure 3 demonstrates the cluster of spread of dots around the diagonal and the lack of any funnel shape distribution; as a result, the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity were met.

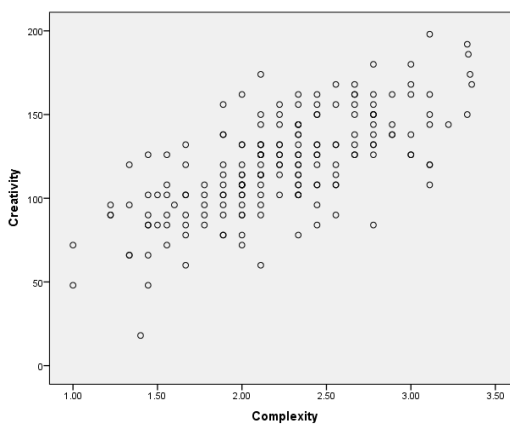


Figure 3: Relationship between writing complexity and creativity

The results of the Pearson correlation ($r(185) = .69, p < .05$, representing a large effect size; Table 5) indicated that there was a significant relationship between EFL learners' creativity and writing complexity.

TABLE 5:
PEARSON CORRELATION; WRITING COMPLEXITY WITH CREATIVITY

		Creativity
	Pearson Correlation	.689**
Complexity	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000
	N	185

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

The Fourth Research Question

A linear regression was run to probe how much EFL learners' creativity can predict their writing accuracy. Based on the results displayed in Table 6, it was concluded that creativity can predict 70.1 percent of EFL learners' writing accuracy ($R = .837, R^2 = .701$). The adjusted R^2 -value was .700. Moreover, the difference between the observed and adjusted R^2 ($.701 - .700 = .001$) indicated that the observed predictive power had .001 (.01 percent) difference with the

population index. Based on these results, it was concluded that the regression model has appropriate generalizability power.

TABLE 6:
MODEL SUMMARY^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING ACCURACY)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.837 ^a	.701	.700	.12469	1.193

a. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity
b. Predicted Variable: Accuracy

The Durbin-Watson (DW) index of 1.19 indicated that the assumption of independence of errors was met. Table 7 examines the statistical significance of the regression model. The results ($F(1, 183) = 429.70, P < .05, \omega^2 = .69$ representing a large effect size) indicated that creativity significantly predicted writing accuracy.

TABLE 7:
ANOVA^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING ACCURACY)

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	6.681	1	6.681	429.708	.000 ^b
	Residual	2.845	183	.016		
	Total	9.527	184			

a. Predicted Variable: Accuracy
b. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity

TABLE 8:
COEFFICIENTS^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING ACCURACY)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.150	.038		3.979	.000		
	Creativity	.006	.000	.837	20.729	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Predicted Variable: Accuracy

As reported in Table 8, the beta value of .837 indicated that one full standard deviation change in creativity resulted in .837 standard deviation change in writing accuracy. The results of the *t*-test ($t = 20.72, P < .05$) indicated that the beta value enjoyed statistical significance. The other two important statistics, i.e. Tolerance and VIF, indicated that the assumption of lack of collinearity was met.

The Fifth Research Question

A linear regression was run to probe how much EFL learners' creativity can predict their writing fluency. Based on the results displayed in Table 9, it can be concluded that creativity can predict 60 percent of EFL learners' writing fluency ($R = .775, R^2 = .600$). The adjusted R^2 -value was .598. The difference between the observed and adjusted R^2 ($.600 - .598 = .002$) indicated that the observed predictive power had .002 (.02 percent) difference with the population index. Based on these results, it was concluded that the regression model has appropriate generalizability power.

TABLE 9:
MODEL SUMMARY^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING FLUENCY)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.775 ^a	.600	.598	3.608	1.668

a. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity
b. Predicted Variable: Fluency

The Durbin-Watson (DW) index of 1.66 indicated that the assumption of independence of errors was met. Table 10 examines the statistical significance of the regression model. The results ($F(1, 183) = 274.52, P < .05, \omega^2 = .59$ representing a large effect size) indicated that creativity significantly predicted writing fluency.

TABLE 10:
ANOVA^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING FLUENCY)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	3573.678	1	3573.678	274.528	.000 ^b
	Residual	2382.213	183	13.018		
	Total	5955.891	184			

a. Predicted Variable: Fluency
b. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity

TABLE 11:
COEFFICIENTS^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING FLUENCY)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	5.294	1.091		4.851	.000		
	Creativity	.146	.009	.775	16.569	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Predicted Variable: Fluency

As reported in Table 11, the beta value of .775 indicated that one full standard deviation change in creativity resulted in .775 standard deviation change in writing fluency. The results of the *t*-test ($t = 16.56$, $P < .05$) indicated that the beta value enjoyed statistical significance. Tolerance and VIF values indicated that the assumption of lack of collinearity was met.

The Sixth Research Question

A linear regression was run to probe how much EFL learners' creativity can predict their writing complexity. Based on the results displayed in Table 12 it can be concluded that creativity can predict 47.5 percent of EFL learners' writing complexity ($R = .689$, $R^2 = .475$). The adjusted R^2 -value was .472. The difference between the observed and adjusted R^2 ($.475 - .472 = .003$) indicated that the observed predictive power had .003 (.03 percent) difference with the population index. Based on these results, it was concluded that the regression model has appropriate generalizability power.

TABLE 12:
MODEL SUMMARY^b (CREATIVITY AND WRITING COMPLEXITY)

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Durbin-Watson
1	.689 ^a	.475	.472	.37753	.867

a. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity

b. Predicted Variable: Complexity

The Durbin-Watson (DW) index of .86 indicated that the assumption of independence errors was not met. As noted by Field (2013), DW indices between 1 and 3 are acceptable. If errors are correlated, the findings may not be generalized to population. The R^2 -value of .475 indicated that the creativity can predict less than 50 percent of writing complexity. Table 13 examines the statistical significance of the regression model. The results ($F(1, 183) = 165.41$, $P < .05$, $\omega^2 = .47$ representing a large effect size) indicated that the creativity significantly predicted writing complexity.

TABLE 13:
ANOVA^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING COMPLEXITY)

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23.576	1	23.576	165.413	.000 ^b
	Residual	26.083	183	.143		
	Total	49.659	184			

a. Predicted Variable: Complexity

b. Predictors: (Constant), Creativity

TABLE 14:
COEFFICIENTS^a (CREATIVITY AND WRITING COMPLEXITY)

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
1	(Constant)	.802	.114		7.026	.000		
	Creativity	.012	.001	.689	12.861	.000	1.000	1.000

a. Predicted Variable: Complexity

As reported in Table 14, the beta value of .689 indicated that one full standard deviation change in creativity resulted in .689 standard deviation change in writing complexity. The results of the *t*-test ($t = 12.86$, $P < .05$) indicated that the beta value enjoyed statistical significance. Tolerance and VIF values indicated that the assumption of lack of collinearity was met.

IV. DISCUSSION

Writing is known to present a fairly challenging task for both teachers and learners (Ferris, 2003; Kroll, 1994). As rightly stated by Alexandra (2001), "Writing is undoubtedly one of the most difficult skills in learning a second language." (p. 257); the Iranian context, as an example, has shown the challenge that EFL learners are faced with in developing writing skills (Hasani & Moghadam, 2012; Mirzaii, 2012). Therefore, attempts should be made to enhance our level of understanding about writing skill and factors affecting it (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Fazio, 2001). To do so, the first step seems to be obtaining an objective estimation about EFL learners' writing performance. Such an estimation on the principal dimensions of writing can be captured by the notions of complexity, accuracy and fluency (CAF; Housen & Kuiken, 2009).

According to Housen and Kuiken (2009), "CAF have been used both as performance descriptors for the oral and written assessment of language learners as well as indicators of learners' proficiency underlying their performance; they have also been used for measuring progress in language learning" (p. 461). Assuming that CAF can be the legitimate representative of writing skill, it seems reasonable to inspect the way CAF interact with other factors (Seidlhofer & Widdowson, 1999). One major category of learning-affecting factors are learners' cognitive, metacognitive, and, generally, internal factors (Dörnyei, 2005, Fahim & Zaker, 2013; Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014, 2015; Zaker, 2015). Creativity is one of the most important internal factors whose role in writing has been acknowledged by the researchers (Tse & Shum, 2000).

Based on the abovementioned premises, the present study attempted to investigate the relationship between creativity, on the one hand, and the three dimensions of writing, CAF, on the other hand, among EFL learners. The results of the statistical analyses in the current study indicated that:

- 1) there is a significant correlation between creativity and writing accuracy, $\rho = .84$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$;
- 2) there is a significant correlation between creativity and writing fluency, $\rho = .77$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$;
- 3) there is a significant correlation between creativity and writing complexity, $\rho = .69$, $n = 185$, $p < .05$;
- 4) creativity can predict 70.1 percent of EFL learners' writing accuracy ($R = .837$, $R^2 = .701$);
- 5) creativity can predict 60 percent of EFL learners' writing fluency ($R = .775$, $R^2 = .600$); and
- 6) creativity can predict 47.5 percent of EFL learners' writing complexity ($R = .689$, $R^2 = .475$).

The abovementioned findings confirm the results of previous studies, accentuating the role of creativity in L2 achievement (Ai, 1999; Atkinson, 2004). The results are also in line with the findings of Naderi, Abdullah, Aizan, Sharir, and Kumar (2009) which supported the positive relationship between creativity and academic achievement among Iranian EFL learners. More specifically, the results indicated that creativity and accuracy have the highest relationship, followed by fluency. The relationship between creativity and writing complexity was the lowest one. Yet, all the relationships had large effect sizes. These findings seem to provide further systematic support for the previous researches on the relationship between creativity and writing (Pishghadam & Javan Mehr, 2011; Soleimani & Najafgholian, 2014).

As stated above, complexity of learners' writing compositions exhibited the lowest correlation with their creativity which predicted only 47.5 percent of participants' writing complexity. One possible reason for this might be the trade-off between accuracy and fluency, on one hand, and complexity, on the other. According to Limited Attentional Capacity Model (Skehan, 1996), human beings have a restricted information processing capacity, and the more complicated the tasks are, the more attentional resources the L2 learners require (Skehan, 1998, 2001). Accordingly, trade-off effects may exist among the three dimensions of language production (CAF; Skehan & Foster, 2001). In other words, as focus is put on the accuracy, the complexity and fluency of the production may be less and vice versa.

The results also indicate that although creative people might think differently and complicatedly, when it comes to writing, they seem to have more focus on the accuracy and fluency of their work than the complexity. McLain (1993), in investigating the role of creativity in teaching and learning second language, concluded that creative learners are more willing to take risks and more open to changes. Yet, the obtained results showed that creativity is more associated with accuracy than complexity in writing.

The findings of the present study can highlight the influential factors in developing writing among EFL learners. This gives EFL teachers and researchers the information required to humanize the process of writing instruction (Ashwell, 2000; Chandler, 2003; Fazio, 2001). The findings not only lead to a better understanding about the nature of writing difficulties, but, more importantly, they could lead to finding a reliable way to treat learners' weaknesses and problems in developing their writing skills.

The results of the current study have implications for EFL learners, encouraging them to become more creative about their learning activities. Being creative is among the critical factors in supporting life-long learning in general and writing effectively in particular. On the other hand, syllabus designers and material developers need to consider the significance of creativity in EFL programs and incorporate creativity in course books and other materials. Moreover, relevant training hints or motives regarding creativity and the three dimensions of writing (CAF) should be inserted in appropriate parts of EFL programs and course books.

Based on the limitation and the focus of this study, other researchers are encouraged to inspect the relationship between creativity and other specific features of the writing (e.g. formality degree). It is also suggested to inspect the relationship between creativity and speaking accuracy, fluency, and complexity. Other studies can also investigate the relationship between CAF and other learner factors (e.g. critical thinking, self-regulation, and motivation). Finally, this study can be replicated among other age groups to inspect the generalizability of the findings.

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A Functional Approach to the Status of Theme and Textual Development*

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Abstract—Theme is defined as the starting point for the message, the information contained within Themes correlates with the method of textual development, and contributes to the production of a coherent discourse. The present research takes an anecdote as the data, making an analysis about how the experiential, interpersonal and textual Theme elements are distributed in the anecdote and how they propel the text development, and how such choice and distribution of Themes lead to the realization of the communicative goal of the story.

Index Terms—theme, coherent discourse, social goal

I. INTRODUCTION

A central Hallidayan idea is that the meaning of any text is a product of three metafunctions which are experiential, interpersonal and textual function. Textual function is concerned with the ordering of information, with what comes first, last and in the middle, with what links the parts of a piece of writing to each other so as to create a coherent discourse, systemicists are interested in two systems of textual meaning: Theme + Rheme and Given + New (Eggins, 1994). Halliday (1985, p.39) defines Theme as the element which serves as “the starting point for the message: it is what the clause is going to be about”. It is recognised that such concept is useful in the study of text development method. Fries claims that the information that is contained within the Themes of the various sentences of a passage correlates with the method of development of the passage (Fries, 1983). The continuous choice of Themes in the process of discourse production is not random but manifests how the information central to the discourse is arranged so as to produce a coherent discourse. Since Theme contains known or given information, i.e. information which has already been mentioned in the text, or can be figured out from the context, and it is typical that we depart from places we are familiar with, Theme often occupies the initial position of sentence. However, it is not always the case that Theme coincides with Given while New falls within the Rheme, the opposite is also common, especially in spoken English where new information occurs at the beginning and is signalled by prosodic prominence (Downing, 2001).

Theme identification is usually based on order, it is the element which comes first in the clause, Rheme is the part that follows in which Theme is developed. The development of Themes and Rhemes propel the text to develop forward and provide continuity in discourse, this is referred to as Thematic Progression which is firstly put forward by Czechoslovakian linguist Frantisek Danes (1974). From then on, researches have been done concerning the status of Theme and Thematic progression, etc. in varying discourses. Francis (1990) compared news reports, editorials, and letters from newspapers in terms of transitivity and mainly discussed the choice of participants and processes as Theme of clauses. Nwogu (1989) investigated medical texts to find its features of Thematic Progression patterns. Zhao Jian-cheng, Yu Yu-guo (1993) studied the characteristics of Thematic progression patterns in English car advertisements. Martinez (2003) compared the choice of Theme in the sections of method and discussion of biology articles from academic journals.

All researches indicate Theme is not randomly chosen, but is writer-selected taking the genre needs into account in constructing text. Intended for different imaginary or authentic audience groups, different genres of texts will lay stress on different aspects, thus are developed in different ways. Martin (1984) defines genre as a goal-oriented, purposeful activity in which speakers engage as members of our culture. Genre is the means by which we use language to achieve various communicative goals and represent an event or set of events. Communicative purpose of events is a key factor in the creation of genre and makes some type of texts have the same structure in a general way. This paper will analyze a narration about Einstein and his driver from the textbook of *College English*, the story is in the genre of anecdote, it is written not only to tell what happened but also to introduce the multi-faceted personality of Einstein and his driver to reach the social goal of entertaining readers. By the analysis of the choice of Theme elements and Thematic structures both at syntactic and textual level, the present research is mainly aimed at answering three questions:

1. What are the Theme types employed by the story writer?
2. How are the experiential, interpersonal and textual Theme elements distributed in the anecdote and how do they propel the text development?
3. How does such choice of Themes contribute to the realization of the social goal of the story?

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II. DEFINITION AND CLASSIFICATION OF THEMES

A. Definition of Theme

Within the framework of functional grammar, clause is the basic unit of discourse analysis. Thompson (2000) states in his monograph *Introducing Functional Grammar* that “a clause is (potentially) any stretch of language centered around a verbal group” (p.16). Halliday (1985) defines thematic structure primarily for clause which is composed of Theme and Rheme and is one of the means to achieve the cohesion of text. As a key component of clause, Theme is defined as what is being talked about, the point of departure for the clause as a message, the remainder of the message that develops Theme is called Rheme in Prague School terminology. “The major function Theme serves is to locate and orient the clause within its context (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.64); it is the ground from which the clause is taking off. As orienter to the message of each clause and the departure point from which the speaker/writer proceeds, the choice and ordering of Themes, as well as the hyperthemes of the superior text units---the paragraphs, can create textual meaning and establish interaction between readers and writers, and fulfill the social purpose of a discourse. Putting all Themes together, we may easily catch the writer’s trail of thought and his way of text development. The main Thematic thread run through the Thematic content of component sentences, and can be perceived as the method of text development.

B. Experiential, Interpersonal and Textual Theme

According to the thematic content and what function it performs, Theme can be divided into three categories, they are experiential, interpersonal and textual Theme.

(1) Experiential \Topical Theme

According to Halliday (1985), experiential Theme represents human experience, inner world, conceptions mostly obtained by people from the outside world. The topical or experiential element in a multiple theme is the obligatory constituent, a representative of experiential elements a transitivity part involves. In a sentence, experiential Theme invariably occurs in the initial position followed by Rheme, it can be the participants, temporal adjuncts or adverbials, etc. In functional terminology, it can be Actor---the subject of a material process, or Circumstance which is realized mostly by the adverbial or prepositional phrase in all different process, or Senser---subject or object of a mental process, for example:

TABLE 1
ANALYSIS OF EXPERIENTIAL THEME

He	chased three squirrels just now.
On the university campus	they dance every evening.
I	hate telling you the truth.
Theme	Rhyme

Theme can be further divided into marked and unmarked Theme. If Theme element conflates with the subject of the clause, it is unmarked Theme. Otherwise, it is marked Theme. The unmarked Theme is realized by i) the Subject of the declarative clause, ii) the finite verbal operator plus Subject in the yes/no question, iii) Wh-word or group in wh-question, iv) the thematic equative and v) the initial element in the imperative clause and the exclamatory clause as illustrated in Table 2 below.

TABLE 2
ANALYSIS OF UNMARKED THEME

Mary	is a top student.
Do you	like English?
What topic	did you choose?
What you need to do	is to make a response.
How beautiful	The girl is!
Unmarked Theme	Rhyme

(2) Interpersonal Theme

By interpersonal, it is meant interaction between writers and readers. Interpersonal Theme is composed of vocative, modal and mood-making elements (Halliday, 2000). A vocative is an item used to address, it may appear in any position of the clause and is thematic if it appears before topical Theme. A modal adjunct like *surprisingly*, *frankly*. etc becomes a modal Theme when it occurs before the topical Theme. Such modal adjuncts convey to readers the speakers’ judgment of the relevance or truth value of their message. They can be regarded as the comment on the message rather than the content itself (Thompson, 2000, p.134-135). Finite verbal operator like *would*, *can*, etc. also serves as the interpersonal Theme.

TABLE 3
ANALYSIS OF INTERPERSONAL THEME

Unfortunately	the doctor	hasn't left an address.
Would	you	like this teapot?
Mary, Mary won't	you	marry me?
Interpersonal Theme	Experiential Theme	Rhyme

(3) Textual Theme

Textual theme is used to arrange information in a certain order. There are three types: continuative, conjunctive and structural Theme. Continuatives refer to the discourse markers such as *yes, no, well, oh, now*, etc which signal the beginning of a new move in the exchange, if more than one textual element is present, they occur in the order of continuative, conjunction, conjunctive, for example, '*Well but on the other hand...*' (Thompson, 2000, p.136). Conjunctions such as *and, but* obviously work primarily between two or more clauses, join two clauses into one sentence and indicate the types of semantic relationships. Conjunctive adjuncts do not link the clause into a larger structural unit, but link the content of the clause to that of other clauses without forming part of the content, and show how two sentences relate to each other through the use of *alternatively, as a result*, etc., they relate the clause to the preceding text, signal how the clause as a whole fits in with the preceding text.

C. Theme Types

According to the constituents of a Theme, it can be classified into simple Theme, multiple Theme and clausal Theme.

(1) Simple Theme

Simple theme is "the Theme of a clause that is composed of only one structural element and it is realized usually by only one element---one nominal, prepositional or adverbial component" (Halliday, 1994, p. 39). It is an independent unit which can no longer be further divided into smaller functional unit. For example:

My brother (T) | has been assigned that task by the teacher.

Very carefully (T) | she put him back on his feet again.

On weekend days (T) | I go back home from school.

(2) Multiple Theme

Multiple Theme is the Theme that consists of topical Theme together with anything else that comes before it (Halliday, 1994, p.53). According to its semantic constituents, multiple Theme can be further divided into three types of Themes, namely, the experiential, interpersonal, and textual Theme. In a multiple Theme, the Theme of the clause ends with the first constituent that is participant, circumstance, process and it extends from the beginning of the clause up to the first element that has a function in transitivity, which means that the last constituent in a multiple Theme has to be an experiential or topical Theme. The element that comes before the topical Theme can vary from elements which are textual and /or interpersonal in function.

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF MULTIPLE THEME

Not surprisingly,	Then,	its operations	were viewed with admiration.
interpersonal	textual	experiential	
Theme			

(adapted from Thompson, 2000:137)

(3) Clausal Theme

Clausal Theme, as the term indicates, means a clause serves as the Theme. Halliday (1985, 1994) defines thematic structure largely for the clause, but makes it clear that other units like clause complex also has thematic structures. A clause complex is a combination of clauses linked together by conjunctions that indicate the logical relationships between clauses. Clause-complex can be classified into two types: paratactic clause-complex and hypotactic clause-complex. If a clause-complex is a combination of two or more equal clauses, it is a paratactic clause-complex. If the combination is made up of clauses with unequal status, it is a hypotactic clause-complex. In the clause-complex, the clause that takes the initial position in the clause complex is given the Theme status, and at the same time Halliday (1994) states that there will still be a thematic structure in each of all the constituent clauses (p.57). The following examples illustrate the two means of identifying clausal Theme.

John ran away, (T) | and Fred stayed behind(R).

John (T) | ran away (R) || and Fred (T) | stayed behind (R).

In analyzing a text, to signal more clearly the method of text development, we can choose any of the two ways of analysis, either to identify the dependent clause in initial position as the Theme or the subject of the clause as Theme, different analyses indicate different aspects of what is going on.

III. ANALYSIS OF THE STATUS OF THEME IN TEXT DEVELOPMENT OF THE ANECDOTE

The selected data is an anecdote about Einstein and his driver. An anecdote includes abstract, orientation, crisis,

reaction and coda (Harmond et al., 1992; Gerot & Wignell, 1994). Orientation is the introduction of the background information, crisis is the climax of the story, reaction is how the crisis is settled and coda is the reflection or moral lessons we can draw from the story. The lexical-grammatical features are as follows: 1) The use of rhetorical questions, exclamations, emphatic elements such as *really*, *quite*, etc. 2) Material process or behavioral process in the transitivity system to express what happens. 3) The use of temporal adjuncts. 4) The use of additive adjuncts. 5) The use of causal adjuncts. 6) The use of mental process to show how the story teller feels. 7) The use of expressions that describe the storyteller's attitude or judgment. An essential feature of a narration is the arranging of events and incidents into a tellable sequence through the use of temporal, additive, causal and conjunctive adjuncts, in addition to mental process, material process and behavioural process which tell the details about what happens in the story, of course the author's personal judgment and attitude are also to be revealed through the use of comment adjuncts also called interpersonal Theme elements. The present research mainly focus on the discussion of the function of different Theme elements in text development and the realization of social goal, we will not only analyze reasons for choosing certain constituents as Themes, but also explore how Theme choices at the level of clause and clause complex throughout the text signal its underlying coherence, and reach the social goal of entertaining readers.

Since Theme is the orienter to the message of each clause, the departure point from which the speaker proceeds, we should expect the writer to begin most of the clauses with various temporal adjuncts, conjunctions, conjunctive adjuncts and referring expressions to tell place, time, characters and so on, for they are supposed to be the most important elements that constitute a story. It turns out that the general picture of the distributions of Themes well confirms our assumption, as the statistical figure from Table 5 indicates among 28 Themes (that include 15 simple Themes, 9 complex Themes, and 4 clausal Themes), there are 27 experiential Theme elements which refer to either the participants or the circumstance, there are 6 interpersonal Themes through which the storyteller tells to his readers his personal attitude and comment on what happened, and 5 textual Themes which establish inter-sentential logical relationships and coherence. The Thematic content shows that the writer employs more experiential elements to convey the information about participants and circumstance. In this section, we will discuss how the choice of Themes and Thematic content contribute to the creation of textual meaning and helps to fulfill the social purpose. For the sake of clarity, each Theme has been given a number.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF DIFFERENT THEME TYPES AND THEME ELEMENTS

Theme types	No	Examples of Themes in the anecdote		Subtypes of each Theme type	Total
Simple Themes	15	1. At one time 2. He (Einstein) 3. The driver 4. which (the lecture) 5. One day 6. he (the driver) 7. he (the driver)	8. he (the driver) 9. Einstein 11. The driver 12. That evening 13. Nobody 21. The driver 26. he (the driver) 27. the question	Experiential Themes (12+3): Participants (12) circumstances (3)	Experiential elements (12+3+8+4 =27) Interpersonal elements (5+1=6)
Complex Themes	9	10. why don't you 15. Then he 16. Sure enough, he 18. Then he 19. while Einstein 22. Of course he	23. but he 24. as if he 28. In fact, in order to show how simple it was,	Experiential Themes: participants (8) Interpersonal Themes: comment (5) Textual Themes: (5)	Textual elements (5)
Clausal Themes	4	14. As the driver took his place on the stage 17. It was a great success, and when it was over, 20. Just before they got to the door, 25. When the man stopped talking,		Experiential circumstantial Themes: (4) Interpersonal Themes: (1)	

A. Distribution of Different Theme Types in the Narration

All the three Theme types occur but with different frequency. As is shown there are 15 simple Themes accounting for about 53.57% of the total as listed in Table 6. Among the 15 simple Themes, *1. At one time*, *5. One day*, *12. That evening* are circumstantial elements talking about the time, the other 12 are participant elements about Einstein, his smart driver, the lecture and the question asked by one of the audience without which the story can not be a complete one.

TABLE 6
DISTRIBUTION OF SIMPLE THEMES

1. At one time	8.he(the driver)	Circumstantial elements(3) Participant elements (12) {the driver(7) +Einstein(2) +the lecture (1) +Nobody(1) +the question(1)}
2. He (Einstein)	9.Einstein	
3.The driver	11.The driver	
4.which(the lecture)	12.That evening	
5.One day	13.Nobody	
6.he(the driver)	21.The driver	
7.he(the driver)	26.he(the driver)	
	27.the question	

Complex Themes are composed of at least two of the three kinds of the elements---textual, interpersonal and experiential elements, through the use of interpersonal elements, the author can make his personal judgments or comments on what happened to create interaction between the author and his readers. As Table 7 indicates, there are 9 complex Themes. 10, 16, 22, 24 are composed of experiential participant elements and interpersonal elements, the other 5 are made up of textual and experiential Theme elements through which the author not only tells the story itself, but also makes his own comment on what happened to the driver, as if telling the story face-to-face with readers, thus drawing closer the distance. For example, by 16. Sure enough, he, the author shows his strong confidence in the driver giving the lecture in the place of Einstein because he had listened to the lecture again and again, then by 22. Of course he, the author suggests that he is quite sure that the driver did not understand the question asked by one of the audience, thus creating the suspense. Then by 23. but he, the author brings about a natural transition with the textual element of but and interpersonal element of as if in 24, to tell readers that the driver pretended to understand the question, then in complex Theme 28. In fact, in order to show how simple it was, the author deliberately chooses the phrase In fact to show the driver's pretension of relaxation and his casualness with which he comes up with a solution to the crisis. The driver said that to show how simple the question was, he would ask his driver to answer it. Readers will be deeply impressed by the driver's wise and stoical way of coping with the awkward situation. In this way the author not only amused readers, but also arouses readers' admiration for the driver's quick-mindedness and sense of humour, in fact interpersonal elements, in spite of its limited number, do play a critical role in the fulfillment of social goals.

TABLE 7
DISTRIBUTION OF COMPLEX THEMES

10.why don't you	22.Of course he
15.Then he	23.but he
16.Sure enough, he	24. as if he
18.Then he	28. In fact, in order to show
19.while Einstein	how simple it was,

There are 4 clausal Themes which are marked ones. 14, 20, 25, and one part of the complex Theme 17. when it was over are the circumstantial elements, which set the information that comes after in the story in a sequenced time frame (Thompson, 2000: 131), they indicate the time order in which the story happened. In complex Theme 17, besides the circumstantial element, the interpersonal element tells the author's personal comment on the driver's lecture and comes in the initial position which means what comes after will be centered around the success of the lecture, so that driving readers to continue their reading to know what happened later.

- 14. As the driver took his place on the stage
- 17. It was a great success, and when it was over
- 20. Just before they got to the door,
- 25. When the man stopped talking,

B. The Status of Theme and Textual Development

Thompson (2000) states that in the analysis of a text, the way Themes work to signal the method of text development emerges clearly if we identify temporal clause as the point of departure for the whole clause complex, therefore, when identifying the Themes of clause complex that contains temporal clause which comes at the initial position, the whole temporal clause is considered to be the circumstantial element of the whole sentence. We notice that besides the temporal clause, the writer mainly uses temporal adjuncts including circumstantial Adjuncts of time and Conjunctive Adjuncts of time in Theme position. In other words, these temporal adverbials have been Thematized and become the Marked Themes of clauses. The succession of Thematized Adjuncts of time are used to indicate the time frame for the text development. Throughout the whole text, we can see that Themes 1, 5, 12, 15, 18 and 19 all begin with the Thematized elements of time, in 14, 17, 20 and 25, temporal clauses are part of the complex Themes.

- 1. At one time Einstein traveled all over the United States giving lectures.
- 5. One day he told Einstein that he knew the lecture so well that he was sure that he could give it himself.
- 12. That evening two of them went along to the lecture hall.
- 14. As the driver took his place on the stage everybody clapped.
- 15. Then he began the lecture
- 17.....and when it was over,

18. Then he started to leave, shaking hands with everybody,

19....while Einstein followed quietly a few steps behind.

20. Just before they got to the door,

25. When the man stopped talking,

It is apparent that all the Themes pertain to the experiential meaning of time, indicating the time sequence of the story: One day→That evening→ As the driver took his place on the stage→ Then he→ ... when it was over→ Then he→ ... while Einstein→ Just before they got to the door,→ When the man stopped talking. At the same time, participants including Einstein, the driver, the lecture, the man who asked the question also occupy the Theme position. The writer uses proper names, personal pronouns, non-personal pronouns and nouns referring to the main participants in the Theme position, 20 out of the 27 experiential Theme elements refer to participants, the iterative selection of the driver and Einstein as the Themes indicates that they both are important participants. These Themes also serve as the Subjects of the sentences, they are unmarked Themes and provide a departure point for the interpretation of the rest of the message.

It is worth notice that 14 out of the 20 participant Theme elements are the driver, while Einstein is mentioned only 3 times, the remaining 3 are which (the lecture), Nobody, the question which means that the driver is the hero rather than the scientist in this story. Nobody is chosen to be in the Theme position as in the sentence *Nobody there had seen Einstein before* for the purpose of emphasizing that none of the people who came to attend the lecture had seen Einstein before, this set the stage for the creation of humour.

C. Realization of Social Goals through the Interpersonal Theme Elements

This story is in the genre of anecdote, according to Hammond et al. (1992) and Groot & Wignell (1994), the communicative function of anecdote is to share with others the unusual and interesting event, this story is told to entertain audience by showing the wisdom of the driver. It is noticed that there are in total 6 interpersonal Theme elements as listed below which are the key to the realization of interpersonal meaning.

10. why don't you

16. Sure enough, he

17. It was a great success, and when it was over,

22. Of course he

24. as if he

28. In fact, in order to show how simple it was,

In telling the story, the author tries to establish interaction with readers by telling them his judgment and comment on what was going on. For example, in 10.why don't you..., the scientist plays a joke by suggesting the driver give the lecture, which of course will arouse readers' interest in what happens next, this very well reveals another facet of Einstein, easy-to-approach and humorous, then by 16. Sure enough, he..., the author shows his strong confidence in the driver giving the lecture, and 17. It was a great success, confirms his assumption. Then comes the crisis, the so-called climax, in 22.Of course he..., by the use of *of course*, the writer implies that what happens next is something quite natural that the driver did not understand a thing about the question, through which he creates the suspense to draw readers' attention to continue their reading. 24.as if he surprises audience by bringing about an unexpected quick and smart response from the driver, which well manifests acuteness, wisdom and sense of humor on the part of the driver. Then by the use of 28.In fact, the driver draws audience's attention from him to Einstein by commenting that the question is not worth his answer for it is too simple, he would ask his driver to answer it! With this the story comes to a happy ending. Everybody feels relieved, amused and at the same time realizes that ordinary people like the driver can be wise, stoical and humorous just as the great scientist can also be as funny and mischievous.

IV. CONCLUSION

A functional approach to text analysis is meaning-oriented, its main purpose is to do the interpretation of the statistical figure about the distribution of related linguistic resources. As the discussion above reveals when telling the story, the writer paces the material, that is, arrange the events in such a way as to give primary emphasis to its most important constituents of participants, circumstance and process, which constitute the main framework of the story. The choice and ordering of Themes can create textual meaning and fulfill the social purpose. Putting all these Themes together, we may have the basic structural organization of the text, interpersonal Themes do play a critical role in creating interaction between writers and readers. The Thematic thread running through the Thematic content of component sentences is the time sequence, the method of development of this narration.

APPENDIX

At one time Einstein traveled all over the United States giving lectures. He traveled by car and soon became quite friendly with the driver. The driver listened carefully to Einstein's lecture, which the great scientist gave again and again. One day he told Einstein that he knew the lecture so well that he was sure he could give it himself. Einstein smiled and said, "why don't you give the lecture for me the next time?" The driver agreed. That evening two of them went along to

the lecture hall. Nobody there had seen Einstein before. As the driver took his place on the stage everybody clapped. Then he began the lecture. Sure enough, he didn't make a single mistake. It was a great success, and when it was over, people clapped and clapped. Then he started to leave, shaking hands with everybody, while Einstein followed quietly a few steps behind. Just before they got to the door, a man stopped them and asked the driver a very difficult question. The driver listened carefully. Of course he did not understand a thing, but he nodded his head as if he did. When the man stopped talking, the driver said that he thought the question was interesting but really quite simple. In fact, in order to show how simple it was, he would ask his driver to answer it!

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The Effect of Language Learning Experience on the Appropriate Use of Speech Act ‘Request’

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Abstract—Nowadays emphasizing linguistic competence is not a sufficient path to reach a target-like communicative competence. Pragmatic competence should be put emphasis on as well. The importance of learning speech acts which is one aspect in the pragmatics is clear to those who want to learn a second or foreign language. This study after investigating the interest of language learners in the acquisition of appropriate use of second language speech acts, traces the variation over time in the use of speech act of request in Iranian EFL University students and for further clarification a group of non-language University students. The results showed no effect of time on the appropriate use of speech act “request”.

Index Terms—linguistic competence, communicative competence, pragmatic competence, speech acts, request

I. INTRODUCTION

Emphasizing linguistic competence is not a sufficient path to reach a target-like communicative competence; since learning a language is not merely learning its grammar, vocabulary and other skills and sub skills, great importance should be put on pragmatic competence as well. Pragmatic competence means the comprehension of speech acts and conversational implicatures (Garcia, 2004). Therefore, we should try to appreciate a theory which accounts for language use (other than language usage). In this regard, speech act theory plays a crucial role (Schmidt, 1983). A speech act in linguistics and the philosophy of language is an utterance with a performative function in language and communication. The main contribution of this theory is to explain communicative competence. As Schmidt (1983) puts it, speech act includes all the acts we do while speaking, such as invitation, request, apology, and compliment. Austin, the developer of speech act (1962) and Searle et al. (1980) state: "the theory of speech acts starts with the assumption that the minimal unit of human communication is not a sentence, but rather the performance of certain kinds of act".

Studies done on speech act are not rare. Various researchers from different cultures conducted cross-cultural studies in order to compare one or more types of speech acts in two cultures. For example Taghizade Mahani (2012) studied the speech act of request between Iranian EFL learners and English natives. Hill (1997) carried out a study on speech act of request on Japanese EFL learners in different proficiency levels. Felix-Brasdefer (2007) examined the speech act of request performed by American learners of Spanish as a second language in three proficiency groups.

These studies and many others (e.g. Barron (2003), Kondo (1997), and Trosborg (1995)) were conducted to investigate the variation of speech acts between two cultures, taking into account some factors like gender or proficiency. But based on the author's investigation, little studies have focused on the development and variation in performing L2 speech acts by EFL learners especially in the academic settings.

This study after investigating the interest of language learners in the acquisition of appropriate use of English speech acts, traces the variation over time in the use of speech act of request in Iranian EFL university students. The researcher aims to investigate how close the L2 learners get to second language cultural norms in using the speech act of request in different stages of their academic span.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Pragmatics is one of the issues involved in discourse studies which have received a lot of attention over the past decades by many researchers from all over the world (e.g. Barron 2003, Barron and Warga, 2007). This issue plays a very important role in the production and perception of language; and this is the reason for interlocutors to use different strategies during their conversations in order to express their intended speech acts.

Research literature in pragmatics has been dominated by the studies which address the ways non-native speakers differ from the native speakers of the target language (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2001), and this owes to the fact that native

speakers of a language have been logically and traditionally regarded as the ideal reference of pragmatic knowledge and performance.

Reaction of people in different cultures is different from each other to various types of speech acts, since their views to pragmatic principles are quite different, and this is the reason for worldwide researchers to have a variety of studies about speech acts.

There are several studies which focus on the effect of proficiency on pragmatic competence (Rose 2000; Trosborg 1995). The findings of these studies indicate that in many cases grammatical and pragmatic competence seems to develop together but relatively independently. Hill (1997) studied speech act of request on Japanese EFL learners in different proficiency levels. The results showed that with increasing proficiency, learners decreased the use of direct strategies and became more native-like speakers. Felix-Brasdefer (2007), examined the speech act of request performed by American learners of Spanish as a second language in three proficiency groups. The findings showed that the production of direct request by beginners was the most, while intermediate and advanced groups produced more indirect requests with a decline in direct request approximating the native speaker patterns. Jalilifar (2009) explored Iranian EFL learners' realization of requestive speech acts. The results showed Iranian language learners' pragmatic development in making requests. However, unlike the native respondents who exhibited balanced production of indirect strategies, the higher proficiency EFL learners manifested overuse of the indirect strategies, while the lower proficiency level Iranian learners excessively produced direct request strategies. Jalilifar, Hashemian, and Tabatabaee, (2011) investigated the request strategies used by Iranian EFL learners and Australian native speakers of English. Although results revealed pragmatic development, particularly in the movement from direct to indirect strategies on the part of EFL learners, learners with higher proficiency displayed overuse of indirect type of requesting. The lower proficiency learners, on the other hand, overused the most direct strategy type.

Research questions and hypotheses

Questions

This study intends to answer the following research questions:

RQ1. Which group of language learners i.e. freshmen, sophomores or seniors is significantly closer to native English speakers regarding the appropriate use of the speech act of request?

RQ2. Is there any significant difference between English language learners and non-language learners in the appropriate use of the speech act of request based on the English native speakers' norms?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants of this study included 17 English natives as base of the study, 30 Persian natives, 47 freshmen, 32 sophomore, & 38 seniors' learners of English as a foreign language. The English natives were collected from professors in Imam Khomeini university of Qazvin, Tehran University, and searching for tourists in 9 hotels. The other 4 groups were collected from Vali-e-Asr and Narjes Khatun Universities of Rafsanjan. For the first part of the study, the researcher selected 18 EFL participants in the Vali-e-Asr University at random to check their attitudes in the acquisition of speech act in the University, in the second part, a DCT questionnaire including 12 situational descriptions was given to the three groups of English academic learners; furthermore, a Persian translation of the DCT questionnaire was given to the Persian natives. In the last part, she selected 10 persons in each group except the English natives, at random to check their precision in answering to the questionnaire.

B. Instruments

Some researchers have stated that the most authentic data in sociolinguistic research is spontaneous speech gathered by ethnographic observation (Manes & Wolfson 1981). However, there are some documents about the difficulties of relying solely on this method (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989), and have led to the wide use of an elicitation procedure called the Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The instrument used in this study is "discourse completion test" which has a wide use in sociolinguistic and pragmalinguistic studies in order to elicit authentic responses from participants. The DCT (adopted in 1982 by Blum-Kulka, for the purpose of investigating speech acts) is a questionnaire containing a set of briefly described situations designed to elicit a particular speech act. Beebe and Cummings (1985) concluded that this device results in the researcher's ability to collect a very large corpus of data, on a wide range of difficult-to-observe speech behaviors, in a short period of time. The questionnaire is about speech acts of request which is consisted of 12 situational descriptions, followed by a space in which the participants have to provide the appropriate linguistic form of the speech act. The questionnaire is included in the appendix.

An attitude questionnaire was applied to 18 EFL students of Vali-e-Asr University at random check their attitudes in the acquisition of speech acts in the University. The questionnaire was given to 40 students, but only 18 persons answered it. And an interview was conducted to 10 participants from each group to check their precision in the answering to the questionnaire.

C. Procedure

As the first step of the study an attitude questionnaire was given to 18 EFL students at the Vali-e-Asr University at random to know whether they would like to acquire speech acts in the University. Then after this step, in the main part of the study, 17 English natives selected to administer a DCT. This group acted as the base of the study with which the other four groups were compared.

As the next step, the same DCT questionnaire was given to the 3 groups of Iranian EFL students and one group of Persian native students at Vali-e-Asr University. Then 10 students from freshmen, 10 students from sophomores, 10 students from seniors, and 10 persons from non-language students were selected at random and then they had been interviewed in order to understand the precision of their answers to the questions involved in the questionnaire.

IV. RESULT

The results of the attitude questionnaire showed that 11% of the participants were neutral, 44% chose agree, and similarly, 44% selected strongly agree for acquiring the speech act in the University showing the majority of students' inclination toward covering the request speech act in language classes. The finding further inspired the researcher to take the next steps of her investigation. In the next step of the study, after giving the questionnaire to every 4 groups and interview with 10 persons of each groups at random, the result was checked. The following table is a comparison among groups using questionnaire and the interview.

TABLE 1
COMPARISON OF DCT AND INTERVIEW

I G	Item1	Item2	Item3	Item4	Item5	Item6	Item7	Item8	Item9	Item10	Item11	Item12
GQ1	49	47	52	55	67	77	72	42	43	51	67	47
GI1	10	20	20	10	20	30	20	10	12	16	10	19
GQ2	82	78	88	74	57	135	153	59	59	79	127	60
GI2	11	20	23	13	18	21	23	12	20	20	24	18
GQ3	44	51	58	47	54	94	83	40	44	49	59	45
GI3	12	14	16	16	16	18	16	18	16	18	18	18
GQ4	49	64	69	58	66	99	98	50	62	74	89	52
GI4	12	19	19	29	19	35	22	10	10	30	27	35

Table 1 shows the results obtained on the students' responses to the DCT and interview. In this table, "GQ1" stands for questionnaire group 1 (Persian group), "GI1" for interview group 1 (Persian group), "GQ2" for questionnaire group 2 (freshmen group), "GI2" for interview group 2 (freshmen group), "GQ3" for questionnaire group 3 (sophomore group), "GI3" for interview group 3 (sophomore group), "GQ4" for questionnaire group 4 (senior group), and "GI4" for interview group 4 (senior group). The achievement of each group with regard to each item is indicated in the respective row. The result of this part showed that no major differences were noticed in any of the comparisons. The highest score of a situation in one group was almost parallel to the highest score in the other. The results, thus attained, put further confirmation on the precision of the data obtained through the DCT.

After collecting the data of DCT questionnaire, it was analyzed. First the assumptions were checked. There were no violation of assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance in the data. Then, in the descriptive part, the means of each group were obtained. This is clarified in the table 2. As the table shows, mean scores of 4 groups were close to each other and the total mean score was 22.03.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

speech act request								
	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
English term 1	47	22.28	2.872	.419	21.43	23.12	12	26
English term 4	32	20.97	3.881	.686	19.57	22.37	10	27
English term 8	37	22.46	3.228	.531	21.38	23.54	17	29
Persian group	30	22.27	4.042	.738	20.76	23.78	16	32
Total	146	22.03	3.467	.287	21.47	22.60	10	32

From the samples mean scores, it could be expected that no difference would be existed between all groups of the study. This expectation is proved by the next table, the ANOVA table.

TABLE 3
ANOVA

ANOVA					
speech act request					
	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	47.400	3	15.800	1.323	.269
Within Groups	1695.429	142	11.940		
Total	1742.829	145			

ANOVA table is the main table in the study which tells whether the null hypothesis is retained or rejected. The significance value should be less than the critical value 0.05 in order that the null hypothesis be rejected, meaning there is a difference between groups of the study. Here, the magnitude is 0.269 which is more than the critical value 0.05. Therefore, the 3 null hypotheses of the study were retained. In other words, the Iranian EFL learners exhibit no variation in performing L2 speech act during their 4 years of academic career, and also, seniors, sophomores, and freshmen do not show significant difference in appropriately performing the speech act of request with regard to the native speakers' norms. And finally, there is no significant difference between Persian natives' students and EFL university learners in appropriately performing the speech act of request based on the English native speakers' norms.

V. DISCUSSION

The present study was an attempt to find the effect of the length of academic education on EFL learners' enhancement of using the speech act of request in English. As the results of the analysis showed, there was not a significant difference among the 3 groups of EFL learners. The findings also indicated no significant difference between EFL learners and non-English language learners in this regard.

Nearly the articles conducted about the speech act revealed the effect of proficiency on the use of specific kind of speech act (Trosborg, 1995; Hill, 1997; Felix-Brasdefer, 2007; Taguchi, 2011; & Jalilifar, 2009). The belief is that with increasing proficiency the appropriate use of certain kind of speech acts increase and get closer to the target language native's norms. But in this study, the result was contradictory by showing no effect of time and proficiency on the use of speech act and that the Persian native students had the highest amount of nearness to the norms of the English natives. In this study, 3 hypotheses were retained which means that Iranian EFL learners exhibit no variation in performing L2 request speech act during their 4 years of academic career, and that also, seniors, sophomores, and freshmen do not show significance difference in appropriately performing the speech act of request with regard to the native speakers' norms, and that there is no significant difference between Persian natives students and EFL university learners in appropriately performing the speech act of request.

The findings of this study are in contrast with some other findings such as a study done by Trosborg (1995) to elicit speech act of request, complaint, and apology in the performance over three proficiency levels of EFL learners. The result was that with increasing proficiency, the use of internal and external modifications improved, approximating the learners to the native speaker patterns. Another study done by Hill (1997) showed that with increasing proficiency, Japanese EFL learners became more native-likes, and findings of the study by Felix-Brasdefer (2007) showed that with increasing proficiency, American learners of Spanish approximated native-like patterns. However, there are some other studies with findings somehow in agreement with the finding of the current study. For example, Beal (1998) in a study investigated the developmental patterns in the requestive behavior of foreign language learners of Greek, at lower intermediate, intermediate, and advanced levels, and found that although several aspects of the learners' pragmatic competence develop with increasing proficiency, the advanced learners' performance lags far behind native speakers in several respects.

The results of the study indicated no significance difference between EFL learners with different lengths of academic experience. One of the justifications to make is that this study focused on the length of academic experience not the language learners' proficiency level. But on one hand, we expect the seniors of a particular course of study to be higher in their own field compared with freshmen, sophomores or juniors, and on the other hand, even the non-English language students didn't differ significantly from EFL students in appropriately using the speech act of request. Such a finding could be justified based on a cross-cultural comparison of a particular speech act. One reason to offer here for such a closeness of performance of the 4 groups could be closeness of the way the speech act of request was dealt with by native speakers of English and native Persian speakers. This similarity or closeness may not necessarily exist regarding other speech acts.

Some limitations of the current study would be that it included relatively small sample sizes while large samples can lead to more reliable results. Besides, the present study resorted to a baseline of both American and British speakers. Cultural factors may make changes in the norms of English used by either of the two groups. Finally, the present study due to the practicality reasons didn't distinguish between the male and female responses, while when dealing with such aspects of language, gender may play an important role.

The findings of this study are significant to course designers, syllabus designers, and English language teachers at different levels. Course designers by defining L2 cultural elements that the learners may find interesting in the course, identifying teacher's cultural competence, and including cultural elements, can enhance the learning of the L2 cultural norms of the target language as much as possible. Syllabus and material designers can make learners proficient speakers by addressing the non-verbal as well as the verbal components of language and how these may be incorporated into language lessons by teachers. This type of syllabus which is called cultural syllabus, leads to the increasing of the communicative competence of the learners, allows more authentic language learning, motivating learners to learn languages, and instilling an intercultural competence for the learners.

And finally, English language teachers should be informant of these cultural norms, due to being in direct contact with the students.

There are some suggestions for further research about this study: the result would be better if more amount of target language natives would be applied; there may be a more precise and acceptable result if the amount of samples in each groups increase; The current study focused on the perception of speech acts while other studies are needed to explore the effect of the length of academic experience on the production of the requestive speech act; The present study dealt with the speech act of request while further studies can investigate other speech acts; Studying the acquisition of the speech acts of other languages can also lead to different results; Furthermore, besides DCT, prospective researchers can employ other data collection tools such as recording authentic interaction, elicited conversations (open and closed role-plays), multiple-choice questionnaires, and scaled-response formats in order to obtain a comprehensive set of data on Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic perception, comprehension, interpretation as well as production.

APPENDIX

Thank you for participating in this survey. 12 situations have been created for this study. Please try to imagine that these situations are real and please write down what you would say in these situations in real life.

First part: your information:

Age:

Gender: Male Female

Second part: The 12 created situations:

Situation 1

You really have to take this course in order to graduate, but you found that the course is already closed. So, you decide to ask the professor, whom you DO NOT KNOW personally, to allow you to take this course. What would you say to get this professor to grant you permission to participate in this course?

Situation 2

You are going to visit your friend, who lives in the college dormitory. You are on campus, but don't know where the dorm is. You are going to ask a student, who is passing by, for the location of the dorm. How will you ask the student?

Situation 3

You are a senior and the vice president of a campus club/organization. You need to get the phone number of Mary, another member of the club. You think that a new member (who seems to be a FRESHMAN and whom you DO NOT know personally), sitting next to you may know Mary's number. So, you decide to ask the new member Mary's phone number. How would you ask?

Situation 4

You are very much interested in auditing a class taught by Professor Kim. You already have taken two classes from Professor Kim, and you KNOW him personally very well. So you decide to ask this professor's permission to audit. What would you say to get this professor to allow you to audit this class?

Situation 5

You and your best friend are members of the college skiing club. You are riding the bus and have just arrived at the mountain. You see that your BEST FRIEND, seated next to you, is applying sunscreen lotion. You want to use that lotion because you have forgotten to bring your own. You turn to your best friend. How would you ask?

Situation 6

Your roommate is your best friend's younger sibling, who is your high school junior. Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your ROOMMATE whether you can borrow his computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favor for you?

Situation 7

Your history mid-term exam is approaching and you find that the scheduled date of the test is the same date as that of your brother's wedding. You can't do both on that day and you prefer to join this unforgettable moment of your family, so you decide to ask the professor (whom you DO NOT know personally) to rearrange another day especially for you to take this test. What would you say to get this professor to allow you to take the exam on another day?

Situation 8

A friend of yours from out of town is paying you a visit. You are showing your friend around campus and both of you would like to take a photo together to remember this happy moment, so you decide to ask a nearby person (who is a STRANGER to you) to do you this favor. What would you say to get this student to take your picture together?

Situation 9

You are a senior member of a student organization. You are in a meeting now. You need to borrow a piece of paper in order to take some notes. A unfamiliar member, who seems to be a FRESHMAN and whom you DO NOT know personally, is sitting next to you and might have a piece of extra folder paper. How would you ask this new member for a piece of paper?

Situation 10

You are applying for a scholarship, and you decide to ask Professor White, who knows you very well as your ACADEMIC ADVISOR, to write a recommendation letter for you. What would you say to get Professor White to do this favor to you?

Situation 11

Because of the stomach flu, you were absent last Friday history class that you are enrolled in. So you decide to borrow your INTIMATE classmate's notes to catch up with the rest of the class. What would you say to get this friend to lend you notes for the class you missed?

Situation 12

You are a senior and the president of a student organization. You are in a meeting now. You would like to take some notes, but you don't have a pen. A close junior member (who is a sophomore, and whom you KNOW very well personally) of the organization is sitting next to you and might have an extra pen. What would you say to get this close junior member to lend you a pen?

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The Effect of Implicit versus Explicit Corrective Feedback on Intermediate EFL Learners' Speaking Self-efficacy Beliefs

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Abstract—Although a majority of previous studies have investigated the efficacy of corrective feedback (CF) and a number of them have compared implicit and explicit CF types, there are still many variables, one of which is speaking self-efficacy, that have not been investigated along with CF. Therefore, this study aimed to compare implicit versus explicit CF to see if they affect EFL learners' speaking self-efficacy beliefs differently. To this aim, 44 intermediate EFL learners were randomly assigned to two implicit (n=22) and explicit groups (n=22). All participants were female students whose age ranged from 14 to 35. In the first session, speaking self-efficacy questionnaire (Hairuzila et al., 2011) including 23 items with choices on a 5-point Likert scale was administered to the participants. After 18 sessions of receiving two different types of CF, the same questionnaire with some changes in the order of the items was given to the participants. The results revealed that there were no significant differences between the implicit and explicit groups regarding their speaking self-efficacy beliefs. Moreover, a follow-up interview was held with 12 participants two weeks after the end of the treatment. The results of the interview showed that the participants in the implicit group had more positive beliefs towards speaking self-efficacy than the explicit group. The results have some implications for EFL learners, EFL teachers, curriculum designers and teacher trainers.

Index Terms—implicit corrective feedback, explicit corrective feedback, speaking self-efficacy beliefs

I. INTRODUCTION

Corrective feedback (henceforth CF) is considered as one of the various aspects of the teacher's language to help foreign or second language (L2) learners to learn more efficiently during their participation in class activities or in the process of learning a language (Ellis, 2012). CF is defined as "the feedback that learners receive on the linguistic errors they make in their oral or written production in a second language" (Sheen & Ellis, 2011, p. 593). Sheen (2011) further points out that teachers can use CF even in those situations that they comprehend each other in a way that form and meaning are both negotiated.

Many researchers have attempted to categorize and classify CF since it was proposed by Lyster and Ranta (1997). Depending on whether CF is written or oral, it has different typologies. Written CF (WCF) is categorized as focused vs. unfocused WCF, direct vs. indirect WCF, and explicit vs. implicit WCF (Ferris, Liu, Sinha, & Senna, 2013). Ellis (2012) also classifies oral CF (OCF) which is the focus of this study as input-providing (i.e. the correct form is given to the student) or output-prompting (i.e. the student is prompted to self-correct), then separates implicit from explicit feedback and divides each into separate parts (Recasts, Repetition, Clarification Request, Explicit/Direct, Metalinguistic, and Elicitation). Ellis's (2012) taxonomy can be applied both for negotiation of form and negotiation of meaning. By implicit feedback the teacher tries to show that the student's utterance lacks veracity and linguistically contains an error and needs to be reformulated (the correct force of feedback is covert). In turn, by explicit feedback a formal aspect of language which contains an error is explained to the student and corrected (the correct force of feedback is overt) (Campillo, 2003).

Based on Carroll's (2001) autonomous induction theory, CF fosters acquisition if the learner recognizes the error but implicit CF does not locate the error most of the time. As Sheen (2006) indicates, recasts for instance, does not help the learner to recognize the error, depending on the type of recast (partial or full) made by the teacher. In contrast, explicit CF locates the error exactly for the learner.

Speaking has often been regarded as the most essential language skill (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Students need to speak in order to communicate in the classroom and also with the English-speaking world. Thus EFL/ESL teachers attempt to promote the development of listening, speaking and pronunciation in their students. As Goh and Burns (2012, p. 15) support this idea, "speaking can facilitate language acquisition and contribute towards the academic development of many second language learners". But because of lack of enough exposure for EFL learners, learners often do not have

the chance to improve their oral skills. So, students value and expect their teacher's feedback in their work. However, correcting students' errors in the classroom is an exasperating task for teachers because of the nature of subjectivity due to some individual variables such as background knowledge, pronunciation and spontaneity as influential parts (Hughes, 2002). Therefore, teachers should be more careful about error correction so as not to discourage the students from practicing the language.

In addition, self-efficacy as a component of the social cognitive theory plays a pivotal role in learner's performance in educational contexts (Bandura, 1997), and also affects the learners' motivation to learn (Schunk, 2003). Bandura (1997, p. 2) explains that self-efficacy "refers to beliefs in one's capabilities to organize and execute the courses of action required to manage prospective situations". It is based on the theory that individuals prefer to participate in activities for which they have high self-efficacy than those activities for which they have low self-efficacy. Some studies have been conducted on self-efficacy beliefs of L2 learners (e.g., Aregu, 2013; Barkely, 2006; Fahim & Nasrollahi-Muziraji, 2013; Ghonsouly, Elahi & Golparvar, 2012; Liu, 2013; Pajares, 2000; Rahimi & Abedini, 2009).

Lunenburg (2011) posits that self-efficacy affects people's capability in learning, their motivation and their performance and people usually prefer to learn and do tasks that think they can accomplish successfully. According to Brown (2007), whenever the learner feels s/he is capable of doing an activity, in other words, s/he has high level of self-efficacy, s/he attempts in achieving success. Failure in success then can be attributable to not attempting sufficiently and rarely to something such as bad luck. But those learners with low self-efficacy level attribute their failure to some external factors and lack of ability.

Statement of the Problem and Purpose

The type of strategy that the teacher selects in dealing with students' errors may hamper learning and result in students' anger, inhibition and feeling of inferiority (Truscott, 1999). Moreover, there are lots of controversies on which type of CF is more effective (Ellis, 2008). Ellis (2007) also argues that in exploring CF, researchers should consider the psychological characteristics of individual learners; however, a look at related literature reveals that there is scant research on such variables. Among all psychological variables, self-efficacy is the most consistent predictor of behavior and learners' achievement and also the most influential arbiter in human agency that has a pivotal role in decision-making (Bandura, 1997). Some studies have been conducted on self-efficacy in relation to second and foreign-language learning in general (e.g., Ayooobian & Soleimani, 2015; Fahim & Nasrollahi-Muziraji, 2013; Hairuzila, Rohani & Muhammad Ridhuan, 2011; Liu, 2013), and writing, reading and listening in particular (e.g., Rahimi & Abedini, 2009; Barkley 2006; Naderi, 2014). To the researcher's best knowledge, no studies have investigated the effect of CF on the speaking self-efficacy beliefs of learners, and little is known about it.

In order to fill in this gap in the literature, the current study aimed to shed light on this issue by investigating how implicit and explicit CF influence the intermediate EFL learners' speaking self-efficacy beliefs. The research question addressed to fulfill the objectives of the present study is as follows:

RQ: Is there any significant difference between self-efficacy beliefs of Iranian intermediate EFL learners who receive implicit CF in their speaking compared with those who receive explicit CF?

The study also offers the following null hypothesis:

H0: There is no significant difference between self-efficacy beliefs of Iranian intermediate EFL learners who receive implicit CF in their speaking compared with those who receive explicit CF.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A. Theoretical Background

1. Types of Corrective Feedback

According to Ellis (2012), strategies can be input-providing (i.e. the teacher gives the correct form to the learner) or output-providing (i.e. the teacher prompts the student to self-correct). In order to explain the varying assertiveness of CF event, Ellis separates implicit and explicit CF and then divides each into separate parts in order to describe how the correct form is provided through input-providing CF and how output-prompting demands the learners to negotiate language. In fact, Ellis's classification was the most successful one that could show CF as both a means of resolving meaning (i.e. didactic: a linguistic element is corrected) and negotiating form (i.e. communicative: a communication problem is resolved) (Table 1). Ellis's (2012) model was used as the theoretical model of the present study.

TABLE 1.
TAXONOMY OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK (ADAPTED FROM ELLIS, 2012, P.139)

	Implicit Feedback	Explicit Feedback
Input-Providing	Recasts	Explicit/Direct
Output-Providing	Repetition	Metalinguistic
	Clarification Request	Elicitation

2. Explicit Correction

Explicit or Direct Feedback refers to a type of feedback that provides the learner with correct form while at the same time indicates that an error is made (Ellis, 2008). The correction may include phrases such as, "No, you should say ...", "That's not right ...", "In English we say..." (Suzuki, 2005, p. 9).

3. Recasts

Recasts, as another type of input-providing feedback, are considered by many researchers as being more implicit than explicit because the correct form is not directly given to the learner (Ellis, 2012). According to Ellis (2008), "recast is an utterance that rephrases the learner's utterance by changing one or more components (subject, verb, object) while still referring to its central meaning" (p. 227). Recasts can often be used in conversation and include phrases like, "You mean ..." or "Are you trying to say..." (Suzuki, 2005). However, some recasts are more salient than others in that they may focus on one word only, whereas others incorporate the grammatical or lexical modification into a sustained piece of discourse" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). The following example adapted from Ellis and Sheen (2006, p. 576) illustrates recasts:

Teacher: *When you were in school?*

Student: *Yes. I stand in the first row.* (Trigger)

Teacher: *You stood in the first row?* (Recast)

Student: *Yes, in the first row, and sit, ah, sat the first row.* (Uptake)

4. Clarification Requests

Clarification Requests refer to simple phrases that make learners to repeat their preceding utterances. They are viewed as being highly implicit since they do not directly indicate the type of error that the learner has been uttered and include phrases like "Pardon?", "Could you say that again?", "What do you mean? They can also be used to indicate that an "utterance is incoherent" or the listeners themselves have a "comprehension problem" Suzuki, (2005, p.10). Mackey (2012, p. 115) depicted clarification requests in the following example:

Teacher: *There has been a lot of talk lately about additives and preservatives in food. In what way has this changed your eating habits?*

Student: *Uh, I don't eat that many foods with preservatives, anyway even before all that talk.*

Teacher: *Pardon me?* (Clarification request)

Student: *I don't eat, uh, canned foods or foods that have preservatives.*

5. Metalinguistic Feedback

Metalinguistic Feedback refers to comments or questions posed by the teacher using linguistic terms about stress or verb tense. "This kind of CF makes the learner analyze his/her utterance linguistically, not quite in a meaning-oriented manner" (Suzuki, 2005, p. 10). Li (2014, p. 196) presents the following example for clarification requests:

Student: *I go to a movie yesterday.*

Teacher: *You need the past tense.*

Student: *I went.*

6. Elicitation

In this type of CF the teacher asks questions or pauses in order to elicit the correct form from the student directly. "Teachers can also use questions to elicit correct forms, such as, how can we say X in English?" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Elicitation is considered to be the least explicit output-providing CF form since it leads the students to self-correction. Suzuki (2005, p. 10) best illustrates elicitation by giving the following example:

Student: *Because I enjoy city life [laip]* (Error – phonological)

Teacher: *City...* (Feedback – elicitation)

7. Repetition

Repetition feedback occurs when the student's error is repeated and the intonation is adjusted by the teacher to draw attention to the mistake (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). Ellis (2012) views this as an implicit correction form, but output-providing since no form is supplied to the learner. Following is an example in order to understand this better (Sheen, 2004, p. 279):

Student: *Oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars.*

Teacher: *I pay?*

8. Definition of Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1997) pointed out that one way to increase students' achievement is by increasing their self-efficacy. "Self-Efficacy refers to people's judgements of their capabilities to carry out certain specific tasks and, accordingly, their sense of efficacy will determine choice of activities attempted, along with the level of aspiration, amount of effort exerted and persistence displayed" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 16). In other words, people with low level of self-efficacy dwell on their deficiencies or obstacles they encounter during doing some tasks and they do not make any attempt to accomplish those tasks. Therefore, they may lose their belief in their capabilities and give up. However, those with high self-efficacy make any attempt to perform the tasks successfully; they approach threatening situations with confidence and never give up.

Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) also noted that self-efficacy beliefs are only indirectly relevant to actual competence and abilities since these beliefs are the result of another complex product named self-persuasion that is based on

cognitive processing of various sources such as people's opinions, feedback, evaluation, encouragement; past experiencing and training; observing peers and information about appropriate task strategies.

9. *Self-Efficacy and Feedback*

Schunk and Zimmerman (1997) proposed that correcting students' errors by the teacher helps them to succeed in learning and success in learning strengthens their self-efficacy. Moreover, providing immediate feedback in the heat of the moment, when the students are struggling to learn something new, helps them to improve their self-efficacy.

B. *Empirical Studies*

1. *Efficacy of Corrective Feedback in L2 Learning*

There has been a growing interest in the role of CF in L2 learning for years. Many researchers have attempted to find out whether CF has any effect on learner's development with regard to L2 learning, and if it has, what type of CF may be more effective. The results of some meta-analyses (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russel & Spada, 2006) indicated CF is very helpful in assisting learners to learn a language. Li (2010), for example, meta-analyzed 33 oral CF studies and reported that CF had a medium effect on L2 acquisition. However, Li (2010) reported that in laboratory studies, the effect of CF on acquisition was more effective than in a classroom. It may be because students pay attention to the feedback by the researcher in a laboratory better than those learners receive CF in a classroom setting. Li (2010) also proposed that in a foreign language setting, the effect of CF was greater than in second language context because foreign language learners pay much attention to the correction they receive than ESL learners do. He also reported that CF was more effective in treatments that involved discrete-item practice of grammatical structures than in communicative activities.

2. *Studies on Implicit and Explicit Corrective Feedback*

Ellis, Loewen and Erlam (2006) compared the effects of implicit (recasts) and explicit (metalinguistic clue) CF on the acquisition of regular past –ed. The participants were 34 pre-intermediate students studying at a private school in NZ. They were divided into 2 experimental groups, one receiving implicit correction on their errors and the other received explicit correction. The control group received no feedback. The results of the delayed post-test revealed that the explicit group outperformed the other two groups. This study shows a preference and an advantage for the explicit CF (i.e. metalinguistic clue). The result may be different in a longitudinal study on students with different proficiencies or in another context because this study has been conducted in classroom context on pre-intermediate students and in a short period of time.

Loewen and Erlam (2006) also conducted a study on the relative effectiveness of recasts (as an implicit CF strategy) and metalinguistic (as an explicit one) during small group text-chat interaction to acquire the regular past –ed. The results showed no significant difference between the two CF types. Based on the analysis of the participants' pre-tests, the results could be due to their low-proficiency level with the target form.

Loewen and Nabei (2007) compared the effects of recast and two specific types of prompts (clarification request as an implicit strategy and metalinguistic feedback as a more explicit one) and concluded that there is no significant difference between the CF types. The reason for this is reported to be short period of treatment (thirty minutes).

Sauro (2009) carried out a study on the comparative effects of two types of computer-mediated CF (recasts and metalinguistic) on the development of the adults' L2 performance. The results showed no preference for either types of CF, however; metalinguistic group showed significant gains over the control group.

Ahangari and Amirzadeh (2011) also investigated the use of oral CF by teachers in Iran at three proficiency levels. The researchers used a database of 360 CF moves that two Iranian teachers used in class. They identified eight CF types provided by teachers and their distribution in relationship with the students' proficiency level. The results of the study revealed that recast was the most frequent CF type used for students with all proficiency levels.

Lee (2013) later examined the different types of CF that occur in adult ESL classrooms, especially advanced-level classrooms to supplement previous work on recasts and to determine which CF types are more effective. The results revealed that recasts were the most frequent type of CF used by teachers in advanced-level adult ESL classrooms and students preferred to receive immediate and explicit correction.

In a quasi-experimental study, Vahdani and Nemati (2014) investigated the effect of six different CF strategies on 186 Iranian English language learners' IELTS writing test. The results of the study showed that the reformulation strategy was the most effective one.

3. *Speaking Self-Efficacy and Related Studies*

According to Bandura (1986), speaking self-efficacy refers to the students' perceptions about their abilities to communicate in the target language. A student with low level of self-efficacy may not make any attempt to use the target language. In contrast, a high efficacious student feels competent and tries his/her best to speak in the target language.

Hairuzila and Subarna (2007) conducted a study on the self-efficacy beliefs of pre-university ESL students at University Teknologi Petronas and the results showed that the students had high levels of self-efficacy to speak in English.

Furthermore, Hairuzila, et al. (2011) studied 169 senior-year students in University Technology Petronas (UTP). The results showed they had high level of self-efficacy in their oral communication ability based on three constructs: aptitude (ability), attitude and aspiration.

Liu (2013) studied the effect of an English Bar, a place for students to improve their speaking, on Chinese college students' self-efficacy enhancement. Results indicated that students who went to the bar to speak in English showed higher level of self-efficacy than those who did not do that.

The results of studies working on the efficacy of CF types indicated different results depending on the design, type of measurement and the context of the study; some findings revealed the efficacy of implicit CF (e.g., Rassaei, 2015) and some others reported that explicit CF had a greater role (e.g., Ellis et al., 2006). The findings of the studies carried out on self-efficacy also revealed that self-efficacy is an important predictor of performance (e.g., Barkley, 2006; Hairuzila, et al., 2001). In addition, few studies have investigated the learners' differences and affective factors with regard to CF types.

III. METHOD

A. Design of the Study

To identify which type of CF is more effective in learners' speaking self-efficacy, a quasi-experimental comparison group design was adopted.

B. Participants

Initially, 70 EFL female students were selected. Some were taking conversation courses through Top Notch English language textbook at Aria Private Language Institute and some others were students of Daneshvaran Public Exemplary High School in Shoush, Iran. In order to homogenize the participants, they took Top Notch/Summit Placement Test. Finally, 44 students at the intermediate level were selected. All participants were native speakers of Persian; they have never been abroad and their age ranged from 14 to 35 and their educational level varied from high school to Master's degree. They were randomly assigned to two experimental groups, implicit group (n=22) and explicit group (n=22). Throughout the study, the implicit group used to receive implicit CF and explicit group used to receive explicit CF. We had no control group because it was difficult to justify that a group receives no feedback during instruction. The reason for selecting intermediate level students was that they were expected to be able to speak English fluently to engage in class discussions with their peers and it was assumed that they had acquired enough proficiency in oral production. The author believed that through this study, these participants could provide more justified responses to the questionnaire.

C. Instruments

1. Placement Test

To homogenize the participants based on their proficiency level, Top Notch/Summit Placement Test was administered (Saslow & Asher, 2006). The test includes four sections: 10 listening questions, 10 reading questions, 120 general English questions, and an interview in which the participants were asked to look at a picture and answer 10 questions related to it. They were interviewed in English and scored by an expert teacher. The interview took about 10 minutes for each student.

2. Speaking Self-Efficacy Questionnaire

As Best and Kahn (2006) put it, questionnaire is a useful instrument to measure opinion in different areas. To answer the research question, a 23-item survey questionnaire (Hairuzila et al., 2011) in the form of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from strongly agree (1) to strongly disagree (5) was administered to the participants to assess their self-efficacy perceptions. For the sake of clarity, the questionnaire was translated into Persian by two experts in translation and the translated version of the questionnaire was shown to two other experts for revision.

The questionnaire is based on three constructs: the first construct, *aptitude*, including 14 items that mostly addresses the respondents' perceived ability to speak and discuss English to communicate with peers and also international students. The second construct, *attitude*, consists of 6 items that addresses the respondents' perceptions towards activities that require them to speak English. *Aspiration* is the third construct that contains 3 items measuring respondents' aspirations concerning speaking in English.

The questionnaire was empirically tested and used by many researchers. It was, first, a 32-item questionnaire designed and used by Bandura (1990) and later was used and modified by some other researchers such as Hairuzila and Subarna (2007) in different contexts. It was also applied to participants in some studies conducted by Liu (2013). Hairuzila et al. (2011) conducted a factor analysis in order to identify any underlying constructs measured by the variables. According to Hairuzila et al. (2011), the total alpha level for all three constructs was .94. In the present study, the questionnaire's reliability measured through Cronbach's alpha by the researcher was .84. Therefore, the scale was found to be highly reliable.

3. Follow-up Interview

In order to better understand the differences between two groups of the learners regarding the effect of implicit and explicit CF on their self-efficacy beliefs, 12 students were randomly selected and interviewed two weeks after the treatment. The interview consisted of five open-ended questions. The interviewer was an expert teacher teaching at ILI and Aria Private Language Institute in Shoush, Iran. The interview took about 10 minutes for each interviewee. The interview questions were selected by the researchers based on the CF questionnaire developed by Agudo (2013) and the

speaking self-efficacy questionnaire used in the present study. The questions were also shown to two experts to obtain suggestions for improvement.

D. Procedures

For conducting the main study, on the first day of the study, the participants took the Top Notch/Summit Placement Test to see if they enjoyed the same level of proficiency. Then, they were divided randomly into two groups of implicit (n=22) and explicit CF (n=22). The data collection began the next session in which the speaking self-efficacy questionnaire was administered to all participants to see if there were initial differences between them. It took 15 minutes to fill in the questionnaire. The researcher asked the participants to answer the questions honestly and assured them of the confidentiality of the data.

Before the start of the treatment sessions, the researcher provided some written points and some examples of different types of CF and gave them to an experienced teacher. The teacher studied and practiced CF types by himself and then a preparatory session with the participants was held in the presence of the researcher to make sure that the teacher was fully informed of the treatment.

The study lasted eighteen 90-min sessions, three sessions a week. Top Notch English language textbook 3 (Saslow & Asher, 2014) was taught. During the sessions, the participants received different types of CF, one group received implicit CF types and another group received only explicit ones based on the Ellis's (2012) taxonomy of the CF types. The medium of instruction was English; Persian was used when it was necessary to assure that the participants understood the feedback given by the teacher. All the sessions were recorded by the researcher. In the last session, the questionnaire was administered to the participants again to see the effect of the treatment. Two weeks later, 12 participants were randomly selected and were interviewed by an expert and well-experienced teacher. The participants were interviewed one by one; the order of the questions was changed for each participant and their voice was recorded by the researcher with their permission and then transcribed by the researcher. It lasted 10 minutes for each interviewee and they were assured that the data would be confidential and would be only used by the researchers.

E. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the collected data, Chi-square tests were run to find whether the frequency of strategies used by participants were statistically significant or not. For qualitative data, i.e. interview, the participants' voices were transcribed by the researcher.

IV. RESULTS

A. Results of the Questionnaire

In order to identify the effect of implicit and explicit CFs on the participants' speaking self-efficacy beliefs including three constructs of aptitude, attitude and aspiration, Chi-square tests were applied. Table 2 compares the implicit and explicit CF groups based on the three self-efficacy constructs in pre-test.

TABLE 2.
CHI-SQUARE VALUE OF SPEAKING SELF-EFFICACY CONSTRUCTS IN PRE-TEST BY IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT GROUPS

	Value	df	Sig.
Aptitude Construct	13.682	4	.080
Attitude Construct	1.970	4	.741
Aspiration Construct	3.867	2	.145

The results of chi-square indicated no significant difference between the two groups regarding their speaking self-efficacy beliefs ($p > 0.05$). Table 3 compares the implicit and explicit CF groups in the post-test based on the three constructs of speaking self-efficacy beliefs.

TABLE 3.
CHI-SQUARE TESTS ON SPEAKING SELF-EFFICACY CONSTRUCTS IN POST-TEST BY IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT GROUPS

	Value	df	Sig.
Aptitude Construct	.618	4	.961
Attitude Construct	9.992	4	.041
Aspiration Construct	2.119	2	.347

As Table 3 depicts, it can be concluded that there was not any significant difference between participants' speaking self-efficacy beliefs based on the aptitude and aspiration constructs ($p > 0.05$), whereas the results of Chi-square test on the attitude construct revealed a significant difference between the two experimental groups ($df = 4$, $p = .041$). It shows that most probably the participants' attitude toward their speaking self-efficacy changed after they have been given explicit feedback. This further suggests that the more explicit the feedback given to the learners, the more likelihood of attitude change toward the participants' speaking self-efficacy.

B. Results of Follow-up Interview

In order to explore why there were no significant differences in participants' speaking self-efficacy beliefs after receiving implicit and explicit CF, the researchers analyzed the interview transcriptions. The results of the interviews revealed more details about the participants' preferences for CF types and their effects on the student's speaking self-efficacy beliefs. First of all, all of the interviewees wanted their errors to be corrected by the teacher since it improves their speaking ability and helps them not to commit that error again and become a better speaker. Here are some excerpts.

Error correction helps me improve my English; it helps me evaluate myself and I really love it (Mahsa's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

I want the teacher to correct my error(s) and it is part of his/her job. In this way, I can improve my English speaking ability and I feel good. (Shirin's interview, Aug 15, 2015)

Secondly, the following interview transcriptions showed the participants' tendency for CF types. Nine out of twelve participants pointed out that they preferred their errors to be corrected implicitly, because it helps them to recognize their errors themselves, and to learn better; it gives them a chance to think and lets them feel more confident.

I prefer the teacher to correct my errors indirectly. It makes me recognize my errors myself (Parnian's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

In my opinion, indirect correction by the teacher is more helpful; it makes me to think more and learn better (Narges's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

In my opinion correcting indirectly is better, since it's amazing for me to find my own mistakes (Zahra's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

It is better that the teacher corrects my errors indirectly. In this way I feel more confident (Simin's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

In contrast, in the following transcriptions, we see that three other participants (one from implicit group and two from explicit group) preferred their errors to be corrected explicitly because it helped them to recognize their errors more easily.

I prefer that the teacher corrects my errors directly. In this way I can learn faster and more efficiently. It helps me to remember my errors and not to commit them again. Correcting errors in an indirect way, I think, is a waste of time! (Sanaz's interview, Aug 15, 2015)

In my opinion the overt error correction is much better than the indirect one, because it helps me to recognize my errors (Niloufar's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

Error correction is better to be done directly, because it makes me notice my errors (Fateme's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

Most importantly, the six interviewees from the implicit group pointed out that CF did not make them upset or angry; they did not get embarrassed or lose confidence and all of them said they continue speaking with confidence. In contrast, five out of six interviewees from the explicit group reported that CF makes them feel angry, embarrassed and sad. They lose confidence and prefer not to continue talking and just one of them felt good and didn't have any problems with CF. Here's the transcriptions.

It makes me feel happy since I learn to speak without those flaws. Interrupting me by the teacher doesn't make me feel upset and I usually go ahead and try to keep talking after that.

It's the job of a teacher to correct students' errors and it doesn't make me embarrassed. I usually listen to the teacher while correcting my errors and then I continue talking. Humming during speaking is common for every student (Mahsa's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

Many students get worried when their teacher interrupt them and corrects them. They should know that it is necessary if they want to learn better. It doesn't dread me feeling the teacher is ready to correct me each time I want to talk. I like to evaluate my knowledge by someone more superior than me. I usually practice more not to commit that error again and remember it (Sanaz's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

This makes me angry and sad and I lose my confidence. Sometimes I doubt my speaking ability. But I usually continue speaking after the error correction. (Fateme's interview, Aug 15, 2015)

I usually get embarrassed, angry and upset when the teacher corrects me. It sometimes made me not to go on talking and sit in silence in the classroom. But most of the time I continue talking and try to talk without errors (Zeinab's interview, Aug 15, 2015).

The result of the interview showed that all participants benefited from CF and implicit CF was more favorable than explicit CF. Moreover, the participants' speaking self-efficacy in the implicit group was more positive than those in the explicit group. Therefore, there was a significant difference between implicit and explicit groups regarding their speaking self-efficacy beliefs in terms of three constructs of aptitude, attitude and aspiration.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

A. Discussion

The results showed that there was no significant difference between speaking self-efficacy beliefs of participants based on the three constructs of the questionnaire. Regarding the CF variable (implicit and explicit), the results of the current study could run counter to the methodologists' views in post-method era that CF has an affective damage on

learners (Ellis & Shintani, 2014); however, we observed that neither implicit nor explicit CF influenced the participants' affect negatively. As Ellis and Shintani (2014) proposed, teachers should tailor CF to the developmental level of participants in order to be helped to use linguistic features that are not capable of doing autonomously and no CF type is considered the best.

The findings of the study are in line with Loewen and Nabei (2007) who compared the effects of implicit and explicit CF on question formation and realized that there was no significant difference across feedback types. The results are also in line with Loewen and Erlam (2006) and Sauro (2009) that investigated the comparative effects of two types of implicit and explicit CF and found no significant difference between the two conditions.

An important point is why there were no significant differences between implicit and explicit groups regarding their speaking self-efficacy beliefs. This might support the claim by Bandura (1982) that individuals' self-efficacy beliefs can be fixed over a span of time. It does not change depending on how the belief is acquired, the strength of your belief and your experience, as well. The strength of self-efficacy depends on one's certainty about doing a specific task.

The findings of the interview in two groups of implicit and explicit CF indicated that the participants favored being corrected by their teacher. The results of interview are consistent with the results of some other studies that investigated learners' beliefs on CF (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Sato, Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russel & Spada, 2006). Another finding of the interview was that most interviewees preferred their errors to be corrected implicitly. The significant gains evident for the implicit CF might be attributed to the chance given to the participants to induce their own interlanguage and find the gap autonomously and this helped them to learn more efficiently. The findings of the second part of the interview are congruent with the findings of some previous studies (e.g., Ahangary & Amirzadeh, 2011; Li, 2014; Long, 2006; Lyster, 2014). The results are not in line with the study done by Ellis et al. (2006) which showed a preference for the explicit CF (i.e. metalinguistic clue). The findings of the third part of the interview revealed that there was a significant difference between interviewee's speaking self-efficacy beliefs in the two explicit and implicit groups based on the three constructs of aptitude, attitude and aspiration. The interviewees in the implicit group felt more confident, not upset and continued speaking after being corrected by the teacher. In contrast, most interviewees in the explicit group indicated that correcting their errors made them lose their confidence, feel upset, angry and preferred to stop talking after being corrected by the teacher. Therefore, this affected their performance in participating in class oral activities. The reason is that explicit CF types influenced students' speaking self-efficacy beliefs negatively, whereas implicit CF influenced their speaking self-efficacy beliefs positively. The results of this part of the interview lends support to Ellis's (2012) findings considering implicit strategies (recasts) as the most favorable among researchers because they are less face-threatening than other strategies.

B. Pedagogical Implications of the Study

The study provides valuable findings to students in a way that they learn how to respond to teachers' CF and inform them that CF is an indispensable part of the teaching and helps them to improve their English. It also suggests that individual differences such as self-efficacy beliefs have an effect on students' willingness to uptaking of feedback and their willingness to continue speaking. It also suggests that all three constructs of self-efficacy must be taken into consideration since it may help students to increase their level of self-efficacy in order to be more active in conversation activities. Therefore, teachers could realize the most beneficial way to correct students' errors and to be acquainted with features of each CF type. The curriculum designers also take advantage of the results of this study. They could account for students' needs to accomplish their goals by designing books and other materials. Designing learner-center materials could be of help to learners with low or high level of self-efficacy. Trainee teachers could also be informed about the appropriate CF types during communicative activities, and that when to correct their students' errors, and how to correct them in order not to disturb their sense of self-efficacy.

C. Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

The present study acknowledged some limitations like any other studies. This study incorporated the two variables of implicit and explicit CF in relation to speaking self-efficacy, but the small sample size did not allow us to have a control group. Also, because of limited number of teachers, the researcher did not hold a follow-up interview with the teachers. Research can account for teachers' thorough descriptions and viewpoints about the results of the study. Moreover, in the current study, the results of the questionnaire and interview measures were contradictory. More studies are needed to arrive at a logical explanation for it.

In this study the researcher did not engage male participants. Further studies can be conducted on both males and females. Future studies can also investigate the impact of CF types on the L2 learners' speaking self-efficacy beliefs across different proficiency levels.

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A Review on Critical Discourse Analysis*

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Abstract—Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), a new branch of modern linguistic researches rose abroad in recent years, aims to reveal the interrelationship among language, ideology and power. During the thirty years' development process, studies of CDA present different characteristics in different phases. So far, both in China and abroad, great achievements concerning CDA has been made. Through reviewing the multiple perspective studies of CDA at home and abroad, classical theories and analytical approaches related to CDA are elaborated, some new trends of CDA are also discussed and explained. The aim of this paper is to help scholars to get a comprehensive understanding of the development of CDA, with the ultimate purpose of promoting related academic researches.

Index Terms—critical discourse analysis, review, development, new trends

I. INTRODUCTION

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), a kind of discourse analysis methods, is a new branch of modern linguistic researches rose abroad in recent years. Among various studies of CDA, researchers' focus was put not only on what language is, but also on why language presents to be such a state. In other words, CDA tries to explore the meaning of discourse and how such kind of meaning is produced by discourse. Through the surface level of language form, CDA aims to reveal the influence of the ideology on discourse, the counteractive influence of discourse on the ideology, and how the two elements derive from and serve for social structure and power relations. In a word, it aims at revealing the relationship between language, ideology and power. CDA takes Systematic Functional Linguistics (SFL) which is proposed by M.A.K Halliday as its main theoretical foundation. Besides, it also absorbs the research achievements of many other subjects such as psychology, sociology, ethnology, mass media, etc. and combines them with the study of linguistics, which attracts the attention of more and more scholars of different fields.

To study discourse in a critical perspective began in the late 1970s, and developed later on in the turn of the century. So far, both in China and abroad, great achievements concerning CDA has been made. Through reviewing the multiple perspective studies of CDA at home and abroad, the purpose of this paper is to help scholars to get a comprehensive understanding of the development of CDA, with the ultimate purpose of promoting related academic researches.

II. REVIEW OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS STUDIES IN THE WEST

In the past few decades, numerous linguists have contributed a lot to the development of CDA. Especially in the west, related monographs and papers have been published continuously. The well-known representatives include Fowler, Kress, Fairclough, Wodak, van Dijk, etc. On the basis of M.A.K. Halliday's Systematic Functional Linguistics, not only the theoretical studies but also the discourse analytical approaches concerning the study of CDA have been developed by a number of scholars, who have made great contribution to the development of CDA and put their own analytical approaches forward. This part is mainly an overview of abroad studies and theories of CDA, which is analyzed through the following sections: the origin of CDA, studies in the 1980s, in the 1990s and early 21 century, and the new trends of CDA development.

A. The Origin of Critical Discourse Analysis

When it comes to the origin of CDA, "Critical Linguistics" can never be ignored. It's believed that the rise of CDA has its root in Critical Linguistics. Specifically speaking, CDA can be seen as a development of Critical Linguistics, which broadens the criticism perspective in discourse analysis studies (Tian Hailong, 2006).

The term "Critical Linguistics" was first coined in the book *Language and Control* (Fowler et al., 1979) written by Roger Fowler and Gunther Kress in 1979. Fowler and Kress are two acknowledged pioneering linguists in the study of Critical Linguistics. In their book, Halliday's SFL was adopted as the fundamental theoretical framework, based on which they conducted their researches from the following perspectives: over-lexicalization, classification, modality and transitivity. According to Fowler and Kress, Critical Linguistic Analysis can be a "powerful tool for the study of

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ideological processes, which mediate relationships of power and control" (Fowler et al., 1979, p.186). What's more, the research focus of Roger Fowler's studies is mainly put on the theories and methodologies, while Gunther Kress contributes a lot to the specific application of critical linguistic theories. Kress believes that CDA is a kind of linguistic instrument, which should be used and can be applied to practical discourse analysis situations, e.g. the analysis of popular discourse. In this period, through the employment of the analytical method of social and linguistic analysis, Roger Fowler, Gunther Kress, and many other critical linguists conducted a series of researches on how discourse functions in both the political process and the ideological process.

As the pioneering scholars of Critical Linguistics, Roger Fowler and Gunther Kress have opened up new approaches for the follow-up linguists and scholars to dedicate themselves into the development of CDA. Their explanations of key terms and concepts, of the analytical viewpoints and theoretical framework related to CDA are employed by many linguists in their own studies. In the past few decades, all of them have contributed a lot to the development of CDA.

B. Studies in the 1980s

In the early 1980s, while Fowler shifted his focus in the study of Critical Linguistics and concentrated mainly on the interdisciplinary studies of literary criticism and linguistics, it seemed that CDA studies developed at a relatively low speed. In 1985, Gunther Kress published an article entitled *Discourse, Texts, Readers and the Pro-nuclear Arguments*, in which he proposed his own ideas to develop Critical Linguistics. He argued that the tendency of critical linguistic studies is to be reader-oriented, that is, to realize the function of criticizing the social ideology throughout the usage of existing research achievements. Later on, in 1986, the book *Linguistic Criticism* written by Fowler was published, and the next year, Fowler wrote an article named *Notes on Critical Linguistics*, which represented his research focus returned back to the study of CDA.

In contrast, in the last few years in the 1980s, the study of CDA seemed to get into a phase of rapid development. The studies and research monographs which can be seen as the forming symbols of such a phase are represented by several books—*Prejudice in Discourse* (van Dijk, 1984), *Language, Power and Ideology* (Wodak, 1989), *Language and Power* (Fairclough, 1989).

The birth of CDA theory can be comprehended from two aspects. On the one hand, it retains the term "critical", as it insisted on the critical essence of the former studies; on the other hand, using "discourse analysis" instead of "linguistics" indicated that CDA is not restricted to the traditional Halliday's SFL framework, as it accepts the concept of "discourse" from social science. In other words, CDA carries on the critical feature of Critical Linguistics, remedies the shortcomings of Critical Linguistics, and thus broadens the analytical approaches used in discourse analysis from a critical perspective.

C. Studies in the 1990s and Early 21 Century

In 1990, an academic journal—*Discourse & Society* was founded as an interactive platform of academic exchange for scholars and linguists to publish their reviews and articles related to CDA. This academic journal was promoted by Teun van Dijk, who is a professor of University of Amsterdam in Netherlands. In January, 1991, Teun van Dijk, Norman Fairclough, Gunther Kress, Theo van Leeuwen, and Ruth Wodak got together in Amsterdam and successfully held the seminar of Critical Discourse Analysis, which made it possible for different schools of CDA study to directly communicate and exchange their ideas.

According to the different focuses of research in CDA, it is worth noting that there are different approaches of CDA studies. For example, Fairclough takes sociology, social semiotics, and SFL as the theoretical and linguistic foundation of his studies; Ruth Wodak places discourses into the historical context (including society and politics), and develops CDA from the historical perspective as his historical-discourse analysis approach; van Dijk places particular emphasis on text linguistics and cognitive linguistics, and concentrates on analyzing discourses in a social cognitive approach; Paul Chilton's critical discourse analytical approach is rooted in developmental psychology and cognitive science. Discussions below are the brief induction of each of their studies in this period.

1. Norman Fairclough

Norman Fairclough is an acknowledged founder in the study field related to Critical Discourse Analysis. Actually, the term Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is derived from Critical Language Study, whose characteristics are discussed by Fairclough in 1989 in his book, *Language and Power*. This book is regarded as a landmark in the developmental history of CDA.

In *Language and Power*, Fairclough introduces his thoughts and definitions of some key concepts about CDA, for instance, discourse, power, ideology, social practice, common sense, etc., which are closely related to his analytical approach of CDA. From the viewpoint of Fairclough, who absorbs much from the SFL theory and Sociological theory, language is argued as social practice instead of simple linguistic phenomenon that is independent from society. Therefore, he argues that language should be studied as discourse, both in speaking and written forms. In addition, he also discusses about "text", which is seen just as a part of people's communicating process. From the perspective of CDA, Fairclough claims that through analyzing language, its ultimate purpose is to raise people's consciousness towards exploitative social relations (Fairclough, 1989, p.4).

Then, on the basis of the theoretical discussions of CDA, Fairclough (1989) put forward his Three-Dimensional Approach of CDA for the first time, which is revised into a new version presented in his another book named *Discourse and Social Change* published in 1992.

In the initial Three-Dimensional Approach, Fairclough suggests that there are three dimensions of discourse, which are text, interaction, and context respectively. The following figure (Figure 1) shows the above three dimensions in more detail.

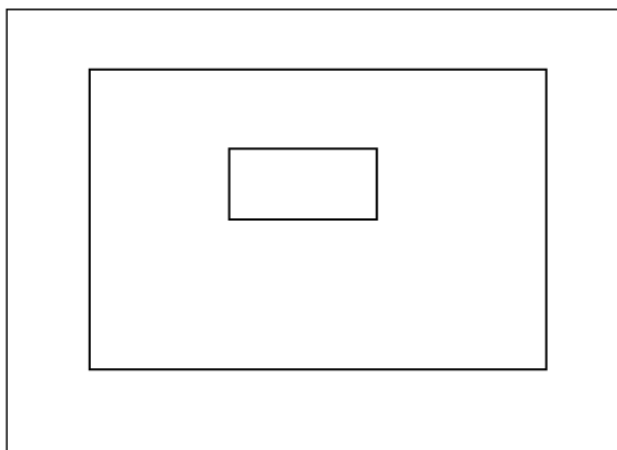


Figure 1. Discourse as text, interaction and context (Fairclough, 1989, p.25)

Later on, in 1992, based on the initial Three-Dimensional Approach, Fairclough makes some modifications and proposed the new three dimensions of discourse—text, discursive practice, and social practice, as is shown in Figure 2.

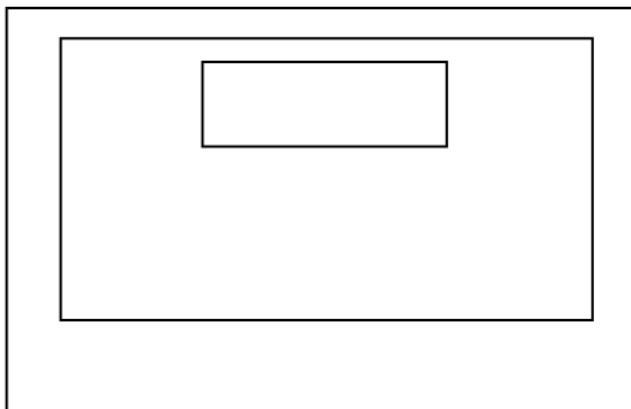


Figure 2. Discourse as text, discursive practice and social practice (Fairclough, 1992a, p.73)

The above analytical approach indicates that text is the production of communication process, or discursive practice. The process of the production of text includes the production, distribution and consumption throughout discursive practice, all of which are influenced or determined by social practice. In other words, the relation between social practice and text is mediated by the discursive practice through production, distribution and consumption.

In addition, Fairclough also distinguishes the three steps or stages along with the three dimensions of discourse when conducting studies with the theory of CDA, which are the description stage, the interpretation stage, and the explanation stage. He argues that when dealing with CDA, the first step is to describe the formal and structural characteristics of the text, while to interpret the connections between text and interaction follows, and to explain the connections between interaction and social context comes as the last step (Fairclough, 1989, p.26).

Fairclough (1992, 1995) and Chouliariki & Fairclough (1999) investigate the advances of CDA by explaining its usefulness and importance in exposing the discursive nature of some contemporary changes in society (Wodak, 2001, p.6). In terms of genres of discourse, Fairclough is interested in the study of media discourse, which he sees as playing a constructing role to the audiences. While in recent years, he turns his focus on some new genres of discourse, e.g. discourses related to global capitalism, new-capitalism, and neo-liberalism. The achievements of Fairclough lies in his respectable amount of work, to name a few, *Language and Power* (1989), *Discourse and Social Change* (1992a), *Critical Discourse Awareness* (1992b), *Media Discourse* (1995a), *Critical Discourse Analysis* (1995b), etc.

2. Ruth Wodak

Ruth Wodak is another famous figure in the study of CDA, who has proposed various studies on particular discourses related to discrimination, prejudice, racism, etc. in society. The historical-discourse analysis approach of CDA is developed by Wodak, who conducted a study on the anti-Semitism discourses in 1990, and which emphasizes the role of historical context in discourse analysis.

Wodak's definition of discourse is similar with that of Fairclough. She argues that language that both in speaking and written form is a kind of social practice, which means that discourse has two forms of expression—speeches and writings. One of the distinguished features that set the historical-discourse analysis approach apart from other approaches is its emphasizing on the historical contexts of discourse in the explaining and interpreting process. Wodak's studies place particular emphasis on racial discrimination and political discourses (Reisigl & Wodak, 2001), and her analytical approach is on the base of ideas from the Frankfurt school, and on sociolinguistics in the Bemsteinian tradition (Wodak, 1995, p.209). Therefore, through absorbing ideas and thoughts from other subjects, this approach works on the strength of large amounts of empirical data from an interdisciplinary perspective. That is to say, it integrates the existed knowledge of both the historical context and the social-political backgrounds, with a further exploration of the ways in which diachronic changes happen towards particular genres of discourses.

Besides, Wodak and Ludwig claim that power and ideology, another two important concepts in the field of CDA, are always embedded in discourse. When there are no power relations, or when there are no connections between values and norms, the interaction, or we say discourse, will not exist (Wodak & Ludwig, 1999). Therefore, listeners or readers who have different positions and ideologies may act differently towards the same discourse. As a result, power and ideology are argued to taken into consideration in CDA.

In 2000, Wodak, in cooperation with van Dijk, conducted a study of parliamentary discourses in six European countries on the immigration issue. The findings of their study also indicate that some arguments towards the issue are dependent on the particular context. More recently, she allocated more energy to investigate identity politics and the decision-making patterns in European Union (Wodak, 2011, p.62).

3. Teun A. van Dijk

Teun A. van Dijk regards discourse as a communicative event, a kind of manifestation pattern of a variety of meanings. He places particular emphasis on text linguistics and cognitive linguistics, and concentrates on analyzing discourses in a Social Cognitive Approach. In terms of cognition, it's not hard to understand that this approach creatively introduces the study of cognition into the analytical studies in the field of CDA by exploring the interrelationship between cognitive phenomenon and discourse structures, as well as social structures. In other words, it is the discourse, cognition and society that formulate the triangle model in terms of van Dijk's Social Cognitive Approach. Another standpoint hold by van Dijk is that the relationship between discourse and its context is a key issue in CDA. The relationship between discourse and context is not a kind of determination, and there is an adjusting layer between these two elements. Van Dijk believes that it's the social representation that plays such an effective role as the adjusting layer, which includes knowledge, attitude, ideology, etc. and is embodied in the discourse by the cognitive mental model.

Rather than using the term Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), he prefers to use Critical Discourse Studies (CDS). He argues that Critical Discourse Study combines various methods and ideas from psychology, critical linguistics, social sciences and humanities, thus it is not only a method (van Dijk, 2009, p.62). In order to make further discussions, van Dijk introduces and defines some of the key notions related to cognition, such as cognition, cognitive process, ideology, etc. in his books (van Dijk, 2009, p.64-65). However, an important point that needs more attention is that the so-called Social Cognition Approach is not simply restricted to the social and cognitive studies. To be specific, it also explores the mental representation of discourse user, the production process and comprehension process of discourse, as well as the ideologies shared by society. For example, in van Dijk's studies on racism (1984, 1987, 1991) and ideology (1998), both social and mental phenomena are investigated through his analytical approach.

Recently, van Dijk attaches more attention on the reproduction of social inequalities and the abuse of power. Besides, he also makes great efforts to explore the importance of context on discourse production and discourse understanding by presenting his context models. What he firmly believed is that it is context models that managed the ways in which we produce and receive discourses. The following are some of the masterpieces of van Dijk: *News as Discourse* (1988), *Racism and the Press* (1991), *Discourse, Power and Access* (1995), *Political Discourse and Ideology* (2000), etc.

III. REVIEW OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS STUDIES IN CHINA

Compared with the developments of more than thirty years in the western countries, the studies of CDA in China stay as a relatively new research field. Although great achievements have been made and more and more interests have been attached to this field, it is far from enough and further explorations still need to be made. Generally speaking, in China, researches of CDA experience two stages, or in other words, related research achievements can be analyzed from the following two aspects: theoretical studies and empirical studies. While many researches are remains characterized by borrowing foreign analytical approaches and theories, more and more Chinese scholars show great interest in the empirical studies in recent years.

A. Theoretical Studies

CDA is a relatively new field of linguistic study in China. Tracing back to the year of 1995, it was the article *A Survey of Critical Linguistics* written by Chen Zhongzhu, a professor from Peking University, that be regarded as the beginning of CDA in China. In his article, Chen explained theories of CDA from four perspectives, which are the philosophical and linguistic basis of CDA, some key concepts related to CDA, such as language, discourse, context, etc., the linguistic analytical approaches applied in CDA, e.g. the transitivity system, the transformation system, etc., and the developments of CDA studies. Chen gave Chinese linguists and scholars a comprehensive review of CDA for the first time, and caught their attention into this field.

Another important figure contributed much to Chinese CDA studies is Xin Bin, who is a professor of Nanjing Normal University. In 1996, he published an article entitled *Language, Power and Ideology: Critical Linguistics*, in which he gave further explanations of CDA theory, its aims and analytical tools, as well as how to conduct CDA studies by showing examples and real cases. Later, Xin published several articles and books concerning the study of CDA, among which the most outstanding one was the book *Critical Linguistics: Theory and Application* (Xin Bin, 2005). In this book, Xin elaborated on the relationship among language, ideology and power, the methodologies applied in CDA, CDA of English media discourse, and intertextuality. With a focus on the methodologies of CDA studies, Xin elucidated the reason why CDA took Halliday's SFL as its theoretical and methodological foundation: firstly, SFL investigates the ideographic function of language constituents in texts in terms of semantic meaning; secondly, SFL has the qualities of social semiotics in essence; thirdly, ideas of register, context, cohesion, etc. in SFL provide theoretical framework and specific methods for CDA to examine the discourse structures and the relationship between discourse and context (Xin Bin, 2005). He also explained the detailed methodology of conducting CDA from the perspectives of classification, transitivity, modality, and transformation.

What's more, Xin keeps on conducting studies in these years and contributes a lot to the theoretical development of CDA. In his article *Language, Text and Power* (Xin Bin, 2003), Xin investigates what power is and how it is manifested by discourse. He states that power is the ability to manipulate and to control others, and power relations can be realized through the use of language. Later, Xin attaches his attention to the socio-cognitive approaches of CDA and argues that CDA can absorb much from cognitive linguistics and cognition studies, such as the theory of figure and ground, trajector and landmark, the prototype theory, the prominence view, etc. (Xin Bin, 2007). More recently, Xin Bin and Gao Xiaoli reviews the goal, methodology, and developing trends of CDA (Xin Bin & Gao Xiaoli, 2013), which enriches the theoretical studies of CDA in China.

Besides the great efforts that have been made by the above mentioned scholars, there are some other prestigious Chinese scholars who contributed a lot to the developments of CDA. In the article *The Review of Critical Discourse Analysis* published by Ding Jianxin and Liao Yiqing (2001), the linguistic foundation of CDA, the relations among language, discourse and power, and inspirations to pedagogy were investigated. Through illustrating the major issues of Critical Discourse Analysis, they argued that CDA was social compared with mainstream linguistics. Also in 2001, Ji Yuhua illustrated the main methods of CDA from the following three aspects: Systemic Functional Grammar, intertextuality and the discourse-historical method. Later, Ji (2009) published an article in which he classified and analyzed the definition of discourse from different perspectives, namely, structural and grammatical perspective, functional and semantic perspective, sociolinguistic and pragmatic perspective, sociopolitical and ideological perspective. In the same year, Ji Weining and Xin Bin co-authored an article entitled *On Fairclough's Theory of Critical Discourse Analysis*, which presented detailed explanations of Fairclough's main ideas as well as the inadequacy of his theory.

B. Empirical Studies

Along with the theoretical studies of CDA, a multitude of articles had come into being with increasing speed. In the article *Critical Discourse Analysis: Theoretical Reviews and a Case Study*, Dai Weihua and Gao Jun (2002) not only discussed the theoretical foundations such as the concept, principles, etc. of CDA, but also did real case studies through employing the framework of CDA in the final part of this article, which was very helpful in developing the empirical studies of CDA. Similarly, two years later, Dai Weihua and Chen Yujun investigated the influence exerted by ideology on the writing process, and further argued that CDA has special advantages in analyzing public discourses.

From the above discussion, it is clearly noticed that a large amount of theoretical studies have been done in these years, which paved the way for the further developments of CDA in China. During the developing period of CDA, an important fact that need to be put emphasize is that scholars are no longer confined to review western theories, but many of them try to conduct case studies of CDA, that is, to analyze real discourses within the Critical Discourse Analysis framework. In terms of empirical studies, or case studies, a great number of researches on different types of discourses, such as political discourse, media discourse, advertisement discourse, etc. have been conducted by some Chinese professors and scholars from the perspective of CDA. We can get lots of articles that are already published on periodicals or master thesis related to empirical studies of CDA. For instance, large quantities of works had been done from various perspectives as advertising discourse (e.g., Yin Baolian & He Weina, 2008; Zhou Jing, 2010; Zhao Xia & Zhu Xiaoping, 2010; Wei Ping & Liu Qunfang, 2010; Yu Jianhong, 2011; Wang Yixin, 2013; Li Ying, 2014), media discourse (e.g., Xiao Xiangming, 2005; Liu Juan, 2007; Hou Xiaojing, 2007; Tang Lan, 2008; Lu Zong, 2009; Liu Yuhua, 2010; Ren Li, 2011; Zhou Pei, 2011; Yang Sisi, 2014; Yin Qiuxue, 2014), political discourse (e.g., Zeng Yaping,

2009; Fan Qian, 2010; Wei Shanhua, 2010; Zhao Linjing, 2011; Song Qiang, 2012; Fang Chenchen, 2012; Fei Yao, 2013), etc.

Although the empirical studies of CDA seem to be conducted from different perspectives and various types of discourses are analyzed, a common aim of those studies is to uncover the ideological assumptions hidden in different types of discourses, thus to enhance people's political and social awareness. More recently, concerning the studies and developments of CDA, some of the empirical studies draw more attention on the relationship between CDA and other disciplines, for instance, sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, pragmatics, and so on. Representative scholars and their studies have widened the analysis perspective of CDA. Dai and Gao argues that psychology and cognition are two significant components that need to be taken into consideration for further studies of CDA, as they employ the cognitive approaches to investigate discourse production and components of discourse. Tian Hailong (2006) combines CDA with pragmatic and societal studies to examine power relations and the features of power; while Wu Zongjie and Hou Song (2012) make detailed discourse analysis to explore the Confucian wisdom through a CDA point of view, which contributes a lot to both the development of CDA and the study of Chinese cultural heritage. In China, the empirical studies and interdisciplinary studies of CDA have flourished on the basis of previous theoretical studies, which have opened up new approaches in discourse analysis.

IV. NEW TRENDS OF CRITICAL DISCOURSE ANALYSIS

Since CDA has caught more and more attention of scholars and linguists both at home and abroad, the studies of CDA is developing into a new phase. Therefore, an interdisciplinary subject, Critical Applied Linguistics, is born and as a result of the combinational study of CDA and various other disciplines, e.g., Critical Linguistics, Critical Pedagogy, Critical Sociolinguistics, Critical Sociology, Critical Language Awareness, etc. Through reviewing a multitude of research work related to CDA, some new trends of present and future directions of CDA research can be analyzed and discussed as follows.

A. *Corpus Linguistic Approach*

One of the new trends in the field of CDA studies benefits a lot from the contributions of corpus linguistics. Through absorbing inspirations from corpus linguistics, a corpus linguistic approach is developed in CDA. For example, some linguists and scholars conduct interdisciplinary studies of CDA and corpus linguistics to detailed analyze the ideologies hidden in specific political and news discourse, and make further argument to point out the significance of corpus linguistic approach in reveal the relationship between language and power (e.g. Stubbs, 1996; Baker, 2008; Kandil, 2009; Salama, 2011). In recent years, some Chinese scholars and professors are also aware of the trend of combining CDA with corpus linguistics, such as Qian Yufang (2008, 2010), Tang Liping (2011), Zhu Xiaomin (2011), etc. They conducted critical discourse analysis studies (e.g. analysis of terrorism discourse appeared in newspapers, analysis of reports on government work, etc.) on the foundation of corpus. An advantage of such an analysis approach lies in that the analyzing subject, the discourse, is the most typical and representative linguistic pattern that retrieved from a great number of discourses, rather than the individual discourse selected by the researcher under the analysis framework of a corpus linguistic approach. Therefore, by applying approaches of corpus linguistics, such as collocation, key word, distribution, etc., the structure and regular patterns of language can be reflected in the discourse, along with the critical discourse analysis of the discourse, the influence of ideology on language and society can also be revealed.

B. *Cognitive Linguistic Approach*

As early as in the 1990s, some CDA scholars (e.g. van Dijk, Wodak) argued that language and society are not directly combined with each other, while human brain serves as the mediation between these two elements. Therefore, they emphasized the significance of cognition which consists of various elements such as knowledge, memory, emotion, etc. and mediates between social structure and personal language. Similarly in China, more and more scholars turn their concentration into the cognitive studies of CDA (e.g., Ji Yuhua & Chen Yan, 2007; Zhang Hui & Jiang Long, 2008; Zhang Hui & Zhang Tianwei, 2012; Xin Bin, 2007, 2012; Wang Wei & Zhang Hui, 2014; Hu Xuhui & Chen Xinren, 2014).

In terms of employing cognitive linguistics theory into CDA, Hart is a significant figure who systematically combined CDA and cognitive linguistics together. In his monograph *Critical Discourse Analysis and Cognitive Science: New perspective on immigration discourse* (Hart, 2010), Hart discussed the relations between cognitive science and CDA by arguing that cognitive science gives us inspirations to explore the reason why language may have misleading guidance and may finally result in abuses of power and discrimination, which contributes a lot to the cognitive turning of CDA in a new decade. Moreover, another book edited by Hart published the next year provided new approaches of CDA from the cognitive perspective. The book, entitled *Critical Discourse Studies in Contexts and Cognition* (Harter, 2011), is actually a collective work of some intelligent scholars who are interested in both CDA and cognitive linguistics. The works investigate CDA from newly developed perspectives which concentrate on the combination of discourse analysis with cognitive pragmatics, cognitive semantics, social cognition, and so on, which undoubtedly promote the theoretical and methodological cognitive linguistic approach studies of CDA.

C. *Critical Multimodal Discourse Analysis/Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis*

Over the past two decades, Multimodal Discourse Analysis (MDA) together with Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), the two strands of discourse studies, have gained considerable attention in linguistics. Although these two strands of discourse studies have different focuses towards discourse analysis, as MDA mainly investigates different modes' meaning-making potential, their practical usage and interactions with each mode and with the social and cultural context, while CDA put more emphasize on exploring the relationship between language and power by studying how social ideologies are revealed from discourses, they do share some fundamental understandings, as both MDA and CDA view discourse as social and is interactive with certain social context. In this sense, there is a new trend which can be termed Multimodal Critical Discourse Analysis or Critical Multimodal Discourse Analysis (termed according to different concerns) emerged as a combination of MDA and CDA. David Machin and Mayr share their ideas of CDA from a multimodal point of view in their co-authored book *How to Do Critical Discourse Analysis: A multimodal introduction* (Machin & Mayr, 2012), which provides a new visual angle of CDA. Another representative book of such a trend is *Critical Multimodal Studies of Popular Discourse*, edited by Emilia Djonoy and Sumin Zhao and published by Routledge in 2014. In this volume, fourteen contributions of discourse studies are presented, which aim at promoting the establishment of the critical analysis of multimodal discourse as a clear academic field, as well as complementing the developments of CDA with employing theories of multimodality.

V. SUMMARY

Critical Discourse Analysis dedicates to explore the interrelationship among language, ideology and power, and has achieved a lot in developing its theoretical framework and analytical approaches. Meanwhile, a considerable newly emerged linguistic theories and approaches have continuously injected vitalities into both the theoretical and empirical studies of CDA, e.g., the corpus linguistic approach, the cognitive linguistic approach, the combinations of CDA with multimodal discourse analysis and a variety of other disciplines such as psychology, sociology, humanity, etc.

Through the above reviews and discussions of the orientation and development of CDA, significant achievements both in the theoretical category (theoretical basis and analytical approaches) and in the practical category (real applications of CDA theories in empirical studies) are presented from different perspectives. Lots of scholars and linguists make contribution to the theoretical innovation of CDA and develop some new analytical approaches which can offer valuable points of view in analyzing various types of discourses. Generally speaking, along with specific methodologies and research methods, each approach has its own theoretical position in developing CDA studies. As is noted by Kress, "Every theoretical approach in CDA is inherently interdisciplinary because it aims at investigating complex social phenomena which are inherently interdisciplinary and certainly not to be studied by linguistics alone". (Kress, 2007)

CDA has a relatively longer history in western countries than it has in China. Like other newly developed things, CDA has been criticized a lot by some scholars through its decades of development. Some critics hold the view that CDA tends to always develop itself along with the stream of linguistic development since it doesn't have solid theoretical foundations. Others question the unidirectional research process employed in CDA, which is seen as having little impact on linguistic theoretical construction and development. However, beyond the critical essence of these critical ideas to Critical Discourses Analysis, they are also beneficial to the development of CDA in the new developing phase, in that these critiques do provide new research methods, and broaden the horizons and fields for the study of Critical Linguistic Analysis. It's believed that by drawing strength from various disciplines that belong to different research fields, CDA will likely to free itself from its own limitations, thus shine a new life for its future developments.

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The Effects of ESA Elements on Speaking Ability of Intermediate EFL Learners: A Task-based Approach

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Abstract—In the history of language teaching, speaking has been the main point of interest for many researchers due to the fact that it is the first and foremost important skill by which learners are judged and needs instruction. The purpose of the present study is to investigate the development and implementation of teaching-learning techniques through the utilization of three engage, study and activate (ESA) elements involved in teaching of tasks in improving intermediate EFL learners' speaking skills. In the current study, two intact groups of 15 participants were involved: the control group receiving regular instruction and experimental group receiving instruction through utilization of three ESA elements involved in teaching of tasks. Subjects were chosen from Chabahar Maritime University majoring in translation studies. The subjects were given a TOEFL proficiency test before the study to ensure that both are at the intermediate level of study at the outset. Then, both groups were given an FCE pretest of speaking to ensure both groups equivalence and homogeneity. After that, the control group was taught using audio-lingual method of teaching and the experimental group was taught by the utilization of ESA elements involved in teaching of speaking tasks. Finally, a posttest of speaking was administered to both groups to assess their speaking ability at the end of the study. The data analysis using independent samples t-test revealed that the subjects in the experimental group outperformed on mastering their speaking skills post-test compared with the control group.

Index Terms—ESA elements, task-based language teaching, speaking

I. INTRODUCTION

As a matter of fact, mastering oral ability to most EFL learners is of utmost importance. Most researchers, language experts, curriculum designers, educationalists, teachers and language trainers claim that speaking is the main core feature of the second language learning and teaching. The main reason for this claim is that speaking is used in most daily interactions and transactions. Besides, English is now widely known as the major language of intercommunication, international commerce, diplomacy, advertisement, science and technology and so on.

On the matter of importance of speaking, Ur, P (1991) states that, "of all four skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) speaking seems intuitively the most important: people who know a language are referred as to 'speakers' of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowing and many if not most foreign language learners are primarily interested in learning to speak" (p.120). Correspondingly, Lazaraton (2001) puts forth the idea that it goes without saying to state that most people believe that to be able to converse a language is parallel with knowing that language because speech is the most primary means of interpersonal interactions (cited in Silva, 2012). In addition, Graves (2008) asserts that the main objective of learning a language in TL-free contexts are markedly different, but the drive is to learn language to communicate, to promote one's economic outlook, to enlarge one's horizon's both literally and/or figuratively to be a global citizen (As cited in Nazara, s, 2011). To shed more light on the importance of speaking, a short saying by Richards and Renandya (2002) would suffice. They point out that most of the world's language learners study English so as to expatiate proficiency in speaking.

In teaching, one of the salient features of 19th century revolution was the focus on the spoken language and the methods presented including Audio-lingual and Audio-visual were mostly speech based. As Holliday (1985) states "writing is not speech written down, nor is speech writing that is read aloud" (p. 91). Chaney (1998) holds that speaking is the process of constructing and sharing meaning by using verbal and nonverbal symbols in variety of contexts. Therefore, speaking is a way of communicating our thought, feeling and intention orally and student's ability to communicate these, needs to be applied in real communication settings. Harmer's How to teach (Harmer, 2007) also encapsulates the real communicative aspect of language teaching and learning and this approach is entirely relevant to the notion that ample exposure and engagement to the language use would boost learners speaking abilities as well as their motivation.

Since there was a great demand to master speaking ability of EFL learners, a number of methods, approaches, techniques and strategies have been implemented and experimented in order to find an efficient as well as effective way

which could help learners to satisfy their speaking and communicative needs. According to Willis, D and Willis, J (2007) proponents of TBT hold that the most practical method to teach a language is by engaging learners in real language use through designing tasks, discussions, games, activities and so on which require learners to use the language in real life situations. Accordingly, Harmer (2007) notes that unless learners are emotionally engaged with what is going on, their learning will be less effective in which speaking is not an exception rather it plays the most important role. An outlook of former studies denotes the fact that most researches have been carried out to find better ways to motivate and master speaking ability of most learners.

This study is promising owing to the fact that it attempts to fill the gap in the field of language teaching and learning. Hence, this study is significant owing to the fact that it tries to eliminate the inadequacies of former studies and present a new way of teaching speaking by the use of Harmer's ESA (Engagement, Study, and Activate) utilizing a Task-based syllabus.

II. THEORETICAL AND APPLIED BACKGROUND OF THE STUDY

As far as speaking is concerned, it is regarded as one of the prime skills to be mastered. With the increasing attention on the acquisition of language skills, especially speaking, it seems indispensable to find and implement techniques and methods which significantly can help teachers and learners to master this skill. Due to this reason, it is the skill that displays the language proficiency and competency of the learners.

As (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997) put forward, speaking is an interactive process of creating semantically meaningful utterances that involves producing and receiving, coding and decoding of information.

Chaney (1988) and Gebhard (1996) define speaking as a process of building and sharing meaning verbally and orally. Elsewhere, Hedge (2000) gives a brief definition and believes that speaking is "a skill by which they [people] are judged while first impressions are being formed" (p. 261). Additionally, Nunan (2003) defines it as consisting of systematic verbal utterances that are produced and convey meaning. Moreover, Bygate (1987) mentions that speaking in a second language (L2) involves the mastery of a specific type of communicative skill.

In sum, speaking is a distinct spoken discourse and its essence is social indeed and people essentially engage in daily interactions mainly for social intentions and in social contexts. (Burnkart, 1998 as cited in Nazara, S, 2011). Bygate (1987) state that speaking is reciprocal, that is, at the same time any interlocutors can make contribution to the discourse and respond afterward to each other's contributions. In the same manner, in oral communication many people can contribute to the same interaction, making it somewhat less predictable than written interaction.

A. Rationale for Teaching Speaking

Teaching speaking involves utilizing a wide variety of activities, tasks, physical conditions, supportive environment, effort, time, energy on the side of the teacher, motivational factors, and so on to be taken into consideration. Luoma (2004) states that the ability to speak in a foreign language is a burdensome task and speaking competence take too long to promote. The reason that this study puts more emphasis on speaking skill is that it requires learners to enable their productive skills in situations where they need to communicate effectively in L2 situation.

According to Nunan (1991) "speaking is the same as oral interaction which are conventional ways of presenting information, expression one's idea and thought have in one's mind"(p. 40). Hence speaking or oral interaction is not only expressing one's ideas and thoughts, but also a way of presenting new information to others.

In teaching speaking, Brown (2001, Pp. 275-276) proposes seven most significant reasons for designing speaking techniques:

- 1) Use techniques that cover the spectrum of learner needs, from language based focus on accuracy to message-based on interaction, meaning, and fluency.
- 2) Provide intrinsically motivating techniques.
- 3) Encourage the use of authentic language in meaningful contexts.
- 4) Provide appropriate feedback and correction.
- 5) Capitalize on the natural link between speaking and listening.
- 6) Give students opportunities to initiate oral communication.
- 7) Encourage the development of speaking strategies.

In addition, Nunan (2003, p.54-56) proposes at least five axioms for teaching speaking:

1. Be aware of the differences between second language (SL) and foreign language (FL) learning context.
2. Give students practice with both fluency and accuracy.
3. Provide opportunities for students to talk by using group work or pair work, and limiting teacher talk.
4. Plan speaking tasks that involve negotiation for meaning.
5. Design classroom activities that involve guidance and practice in both transactional and interactional speaking.

Having this entire in mind, it should be made clear that the most significant rationale for teaching speaking is that it urges teachers to use a wide variety of methods, techniques, tasks and activities.

B. Elements for Successful Language Learning

Current language teaching practice generally tries to cover most of the language teaching elements and ideas. Nowadays, the language teaching practice generally gives the students the opportunity to think about how a piece of conversation works, while at the same time providing for language use in communicative activities and task-based procedures. To meet these objectives, language experts select some parts of the language best elements from a number of different ideas and methods. Harmer (2007) calls this a principled eclecticism.

Considering the fact that, students need exposure, motivation and opportunities for language use, Harmer (2007) suggests that most teaching sequences need to have specific features or elements. These elements are **engage, study and activate**.

Engage

Things are much better learned if both our minds and hearts are brought into service. Moreover, it can be said that arousal and affect are essential for successful language learning. With regard to the abovementioned proposition, the main argument would be the fact that if learners are not emotionally engaged with what is happening in the learning process, their learning will be less productive. Here, the main objective for the teacher is to provoke learners' curiosity, attention, and interest and to provide tasks or activities which constantly engage learners. Activities and materials which constantly engage students include: visual aids, simulation activities, game, topic, music, discussions, dramatic stories, etc. (Harmer 2007).

Shulman (2002) stress the essentiality of student engagement and say "learning begins with student engagement" (p.37). Newmann and colleagues (1992) define engagement as "the students psychological investment in and effort directed toward learning, understanding, or mastering the knowledge, skills, or crafts that academic work is intended to promote" (p. 12). Elsewhere, The National Survey on Student Engagement (NSSE) (2009) defines engagement as "the frequency with which students participate in activities that represent effective educational practices, and conceive of it as a pattern of involvement in a variety of activities and interactions both in and out of the classroom and throughout a students' college career" (Cited in Elizabeth F.Barkley 2010, p. 4). Jillian Kinzie (2008), The NSSE's associate director, states that student engagement has two key constituents. The first one involves the amount of energy and time learners invest in their studies and the tasks that result in new experiences and flourishing outcomes which establishes their success. The second entails the path the language departments and institutions apportion means and provide pedagogical opportunities and utilizations to provoke learners to get engaged in and take advantageous such tasks and activities (Cited in Elizabeth F.Barkley 2010, p.4). This stage can also be called 'presentation' stage. Ur, P (1991) believes that one of the teacher's jobs is to mediate in the learning process so that the learners have access to the materials they have been given. He calls this process 'presentation'. The term presentation is applied to and involves: the modeling of target language when doing the warm up process to engage the learners in tasks or topics of the discussion. In this case, learners can get a sufficient amount exposure to the 'comprehensible input' in the form of spoken language. And presentation can also be applied in giving instructions and explanations of the discussion task. Another contribution or necessity of presentation lies in the fact that it can help teachers to activate and attract learners' attention; intelligence, conscious, metacognitive abilities which will foster the learning process.

Study

The study phase of ESA describes teaching and representation of any language teaching and learning elements where the main attention centers around on how something is formed. The focus of this stage is mainly on the form of the language and the learners are obliged to do form-focused activities. These may include specific intonation patterns, a specific relative clause or the way a lexical phrase is made or used (Harmer, 2007).

This stage of teaching is also called the language' practice' phase and learners are required to do tasks related to the language practice activities. He refers to practice as" the rehearsal of certain behaviors with the objective of consolidating learning and improving performance" (p.19). He asserts that language learners are required to gain an intuitive, automatized knowledge which will enables them to benefit from fluent comprehension and self-expression. Practicing the language has much in common with the 'learning of a skill'. He also holds that the process of learning a skill entails three-stage process: verbalization, automatization and autonomy.

At the first stage the skills to be learned are verbalized, described or demonstrated. For instance, the teacher may explicate the meaning of a word or the rubrics of a grammatical structure and their contextual use as well.

At the second stage, the teacher gets the learners to demonstrate the target behavior, while monitoring their performance. The errors made by the learners show that the teacher must practice more in the form of more telling or demonstration. This stage involves practicing; performing the skillful behavior consecutively, until it becomes their intake, that is, doing it right without giving it much thought. At this point, they are said to have' automatized' the behavior.

Eventually, they improve on their own by the use of the set of behaviors they have mastered previously. The stage involves learners to do more practice. When learners perform on their own, they are said to be' autonomous'. Ur, P believes that this stage involves reception rather than production and is in fact a more advanced form of 'practice'.

Activate

This stage gives the description of any stage at which learners are provoked to make use of all or any of the language elements they know. As an example, communicative tasks are prepared to activate the learners' language knowledge.

Harmer Jeremy (2007) holds that the more learners are given opportunities to activate different elements of language they have accumulated in their brains, the more autonomous their use of these elements become. Accordingly, students systematically become autonomous language learners and language users. It means that they can utilize words and phrases systematically and fluently without giving it much thought. Activation is the objective of most classroom teachers. Since it gives information about the learners learning process and the teacher can understand what the students' problems are and can give remedial work where necessary. Ur. P (1991) introduces 'IRF', the Initiation-Response-Feedback as a useful technique in activating or eliciting learner knowledge. He holds that 'IRF' is a convenient and easily administered activation technique which provides the teacher with necessary information about what the learners know. This technique allows teachers to monitor and receive feedback about what has been taught. Another universally used activation technique in teaching is questioning. This technique is mainly used within the Initiation-Response-Feedback pattern.

Another technique used in activating learners' knowledge which is a more valuable tool in oral fluency work is called 'group work'. In this type of activity learners perform a learning task through a group work activity. Ur, Penny (1991) asserts that this type of activity in contrast to other activities like full-class size activity has got numerous merits; he states that learners in class divided into five groups get five times as many opportunities to talk.

The last but not the least of activation techniques used in classroom setting is the role play. According to Richards and Rogers (2001) role play refers to the tasks which involve both teachers and learners to take part in a role required of them to play. It can also include their social as well as interpersonal relationship between the participants of the role play.

As Harmer (2001) puts it, ESA has three basic lesson procedures:

Straight arrows: this sequence is much like PPP. At the engage stage of the procedure, the teacher engages or involves the students to participate in the topic discussion by presenting a picture or a situation which assists the teacher to provoke learners' interest or attention. At the next stage, that is, study stage of the procedure, the lexical and structural forms of the language are be explicated fully. Subsequently, the teacher is bound to present by modeling the language and involve the students with repetition drills and rehearsal activities. Eventually, they begin to activate the new language they have acquired by making use of it in sentences of their own.

Boomerang procedure: this procedure is more like the task-based or deep-end procedure. Here the order is EAS; first of all, before activating learner's knowledge by asking the students to do something like a written task, a topic, a communicative game or a role play, the teacher gets the students engaged. Then, after they have performed the task, students study some features of language which they have not understood or which they used incorrectly.

Patchwork lesson sequences which are distinct from the prior two procedures may follow multiple sequences. To cite as an instance, the students who are considerably engaged in the task or topic are instigated to activate their knowledge before studying one and subsequently another language element, and ulteriorly getting back to more activating tasks, after which, before doing some more study the teacher again engages them and the process continues.

C. Task-based Language Teaching

For the past two decades, task-based language teaching (TBLT) has gained a profound significance among second language acquisition (SLA) researchers, curriculum developers, teacher trainers, educationalists, and language teachers worldwide (Branden, K, 2006). Although primarily the focus was on form focused task activities, Long (1985), Prabhu (1987) and others supported an approach to language pedagogy in which functional tasks are given prominence, and learners are asked to concentrate on exchange of meaning as well as use of language. In addition to abovementioned statement, other advocates of TBLT (Nunan 1989, Willis 1996, Skehan 1998, Bygate and Ellis 2001) also hold that language proficiency must emphasize the importance of language use and negotiation of meaning to generate outstanding results. Task-based language teaching is the strong version of CLT, which means that tasks are the basis for the language curriculum (Ellis 2003). Accordingly, Willis, D and Willis, J (2007) proponents of TBT hold that the most practical method to teach a language is by involving learners in real life language use through designing tasks, discussions, games, activities and so on which require learners to use the language in real life situations.

Ellis (2003) identifies three different approaches to using tasks in language pedagogy:

1. The initial approach to the design of task-based teaching is humanistic language teaching. Humanistic tenets of education stress the accomplishment of learners' complete potential for advancement by acknowledging the significance of both affective and cognitive dimension in learning.

2. Another approach to task-based teaching is the 'procedural syllabus' advised by Prabhu (1987). He contrived a series of meaning-focused activities comprising of pre-tasks, which the teacher carried out with the whole class, preceded by tasks where the learners performed with comparable activities on their own.

3. The final approach to the design task-based teaching is called the 'process syllabus' proposed by Breen and Candlin (1987). Although the procedural syllabus offers a description of tasks to be implemented in the classroom, the process syllabus is built up through negotiation between the instructor and the learner (P. 31-32).

Although there are a number of definitions of tasks in terms of structural tasks to more classroom tasks, here we will define tasks in terms of interaction, language use, negotiation of meaning, learner output, and learner communication which are essential components for mastering learners' oral capabilities.

Nunan (2004, p.4) defines a task as “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”.

Bygate, Skehan, and Swain (2001) define task as an activity in which it urges learners to use language, with considerably stress on meaning, to obtain an influential goal.

Ellis (2003, Pp. 9-10) identifies six essential characterizes of tasks:

1. A task is a work-plan.
2. Meaning is the primary focal point of the task in hand.
3. It involves real-life use of language.
4. Any of the four language skills can get involved.
5. Intermingles cognitive processes
6. It has a fixed communicative result.

In short, based on the abovementioned premises, it can be argued that the most effective and suitable tasks that worth to be utilized in classroom settings is the ones that put more emphasis on communicative and interactive aspect of language use. Therefore, there must be a shift from form-focused activities to more meaning-focused activities which focus on negotiation of meaning in real world situations.

Task Activity Types

Regarding the facts that since tasks and activities provide a framework for the genuine and real world learning task in oral interaction, it would be a good idea to look at some activity types that can activate and engage learners in the process of communication and interaction. Following are two different activities proposed by Prabhu (1987) and Pattison (1987). In these activities, they mainly focus on some sorts of tasks and activities which stress real-world and pedagogical use of the language. Prabhu (1987, cited in Kamaravadivelu 2006) uses three main meaning-focused activity types in Bangalore Project. They are:

1. Information-gap-activity: an activity in which learners transfer a piece of information they know to one another - or from one place to another, from one form to another, generally it includes the encoding and decoding of information. For example: a pair-work activity. In this type of activity a member of one of the pairs have total information of an incomplete picture and tries to share orally the part of the information to the other.

2. Reasoning-gap-activity: entails emanation of some new information from the information existent previously by the means of processes like practical reasoning, deduction, inference, or perception of links and patterns (Prabhu, 1987, p. 46 as cited in Kumaravadivelu 2006). For instance, a group of learners working together making decisions on the best way to achieve effective outcomes for a given objective and within given limits.

3. Opinion-gap activity entails discovering and enunciating a personal preference, feeling or attitude in response to a particular theme, topic or task. For instance, like someone participating in a debate or discussion of a controversial social issue.

The second type of activity is proposed by Pattison (1987). He proposes the following activity types:

1. Questions and answers

The basis of these activities is on the tenet that it will create an information gap among learners by allowing them to make a personal and secret choice from among a list of language items. For example, one of the learners asks related question of the location of an object and the other pair answers based on the given shared information.

2. Dialogues and role-plays

Although this type of activities can be executed improvisely, if they are given a clear objective of what they say in their role-plays or dialogues, they may attend these activities more willingly and therefore, it will enable them to learn more meaningfully.

3. Communication strategies

These types of activities are designed to encourage learners to use as many communicative strategies as they can to foster their process of communication. The following are some of the communication strategies: paraphrasing, borrowing, coining new words, using gesture, simplifying, asking for feedback, etc.

4. Pictures and picture stories

In this type of activity, learners are given a picture and are asked to spot the differences, sequence the pictures or tell a story based on the given picture. This type of activity can also stimulate their communicative abilities.

5. Discussions and decisions

Here, learners are required to collect and share information to reach a decision. For example, they may be asked to discuss which recipe of food is good for baking a delicious cake.

Selecting a proper activity types depends largely on the purpose and need of classroom instruction. As an example, a discussion task type is a criterion to engage learners and urge them to participate in class discussion. Or role play can help teachers activate learners' knowledge and receive feedback. This feedback helps teachers to see where the students need more instruction and correction to be used later in study phase of ESA teaching approach.

III. RESEARCH QUESTION AND METHODOLOGY

Research Question

Considering the discussed theoretical and practical perspectives so far, the present study attempts to answer the following research question:

Q1: Does application of ESA elements on tasks have a significant effect on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners?

Research Hypothesis

Based on the pedagogical implications of the study the following null hypothesis is to be tested:

H01: Application of ESA elements on tasks has no effect on speaking ability of Iranian EFL learners.

A. Method and Design of the Study

Having a meticulous look at the topic, research question and hypothesis, the nature of the design of the study can be unveiled. Therefore, it can be claimed that the present study is quantitative in nature and aims at showing the effect of applying ESA elements within the framework of task-based teaching on the speaking ability of EFL learners. Since randomization was not possible and the experimental and control groups had already been enrolled to their courses. That is, the two groups participated in the study were intact groups which were administratively defined with regard to the syllabus, level and classroom; this research undertook a quasi-experimental design. To do this, the design of the study will have five stages:

1. Administration of a TOEFL General Proficiency test to ensure the level of the participants.
2. Administration of a pretest of FCE speaking to participants of both control and experimental group to ensure their equivalence before the study as well as comparing the learners' scores with the scores of the posttest.
3. Random selection of two intact classes as one serves for the control group and the other as for the experimental.
4. Treatment of the experimental group via applying ESA elements using a task-based approach and treatment of the control group via a traditional method of teaching.
5. Administration of a posttest FCE speaking to participants of both groups to ensure whether the treatment had significant effect on speaking of Iranian EFL learners after the study.

According to the abovementioned statements, the researcher tried to answer the research question in these two intact groups by taking a TOEFL test of general proficiency prior to the study to establish their homogeneity and to ensure that learners are at the same level of proficiency. However, their homogeneity has already been established. Consequently, after making sure that they were at the same level of proficiency, it was the time to treat both experimental and control group differently. The control group received placebo and the experimental group received the treatment i.e. application of ESA elements on tasks. At last, the data obtained through test results were analyzed using different kinds of statistical tools which are processed through statistical package for social sciences (SPSS) software. An independent sample t-test was run to find out whether there is a significant difference between the performance of control and experimental group.

B. Participants

In this study, the subjects were a number of 30 students, both male and female; with the same level of proficiency majoring English translation at Chabahar Maritime University all of which had had the same amount of exposure to English language learning and have passed their dialogue course. All the participants are learning English as L2 language and are native speakers of Persian. Their ages, mainly ranged from 20 to 25. These subjects were assigned into two groups: experimental group having 15 subjects and control group having the same number of subjects. Both groups received the same amount of instruction time i.e. two sessions every week, each session lasted 90 minutes for nearly 12 sessions. This study also gets the help of two assistant professors to assess analytically the speaking performance of EFL learners in pre-posttests of speaking. In order not to influence negatively or positively the results of the study, learners were told that they are having a special course working on speaking.

C. Data Collection Instruments

With regard to the research question, the following instruments were used:

- A proposed ESA task-based lesson plan written and designed based on ESA approach to teach the experimental group students on the required speaking skills. This includes the present study lesson plan program objectives, methods of teaching used in ESA and task approach, activities as well as formative evaluation techniques, mainly portfolio assessment.
- A proposed TOEFL general proficiency test administered to ensure they were all intermediate EFL learners.
- A pre-post ESOL English language FCE speaking proficiency test for measuring overall speaking ability of both control and experimental group before and after the treatment. The tests were taken from Official Examination Papers from University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations (2008).
- FCE result course book (2008), Get on Track to FCE (2002) working on part speaking.
- Four Task-based activities which are prerequisites of FCE speaking test. They include: question and answer interview task, picture and picture stories task, dialogues and role play, and discussions and decisions task.
- Recording device for playing back the audio to be used for data collection analysis.

- An evaluation rating scale to score students' oral performance on the pre and post speaking test. This includes two different assessment criteria rubrics. One is taken from Cambridge ESOL evaluation technique for speaking test in which one rater uses, and Hughes (2003) speaking assessment rubric in which the other assessor uses.

Validity and Reliability of Research Instrumentation

Taking into consideration the fact that validity and reliability are two critical factors in every test, it was tried to ensure that the tests applied in the study were reliable and valid enough. Because the reliability and validity of TOEFL and FCE tests was already established through their lifelong credit, which proves that the reliability and validity of the TOEFL and FCE test is standard, only the adopted FCE test needed to be examined. Reliability of this test was established using a pilot test. That is, the FCE speaking test was applied to a different group of students with the same conditions. The estimated reliability, which was calculated through the application of Cronbach alpha formula, amounted to be $r=0.71$. The results revealed that the test was reliable enough to be applied in this study.

In addition to the abovementioned statement about validity of FCE tests, there are also some scholars who support the validity of FCE tests. According to Hymes (1972) and other works of researchers specialized in task-based learning and assessment such as Skehan (2001) and Weir (1990, 2005), the approach taken by Cambridge ESOL university is chiefly rooted in communicative competence models. (Cited in Silva, 2012).

D. Procedure

The procedure used in response to the research question involves the following steps:

First of all, this study selected two intact groups each of which having 15 candidates from Chabahar Maritime University studying English translation. Then, a TOEFL general proficiency test was administered to ensure their level as intermediate. After that, FCE pretest of speaking skill was administered to both groups before the study to ensure both groups equivalence and homogeneity. Next, the first group received regular instruction. According to regular instruction, participants in the control group were given little communicative opportunities to practice the speaking skills. It consisted of an eclectic method of teaching of two GTM and ALM., with regard to the *FCE result course book (2008)* and *Get on Track to FCE (2002)*, provided for this group consisted of both Persian to English and English to Persian translation followed by a wide range of mechanical drills. Additionally, students receiving regular instruction were not provided with any activities to assist them analyze or self-assess themselves. Conversely, the second group received a task-based approach to teaching English in which ESA elements were used as the point of techniques involved in teaching of tasks. The lesson plan provided for this group consisted of a wide range of tasks and activities which focused mostly on three phases of teaching speaking through elements of Engagement study and activate. The tasks were taken from Pattison (1987). These tasks which reflect the viewpoint of FCE speaking test criteria include: Question and answer interview task, picture and picture stories task, dialogues and role play, and discussions and decisions task.

Finally, a posttest of speaking was administered to both groups to assess their speaking ability at the end of the study and compare the results of the experimental group with the results of the control group.

Instructions for TOEFL (the Paper Based Test) Proficiency Test Administration

In order to ensure that the participants of the study were at the intermediate level of language proficiency, they were given a TOEFL test of proficiency taken from Phillips, D, 2001. They were asked to do the test in 115 minutes. After determining their level as intermediate EFL learners according to TOEFL (the Paper Based Test) scoring scale, one class was selected as the control and the other as the experimental group.

TABLE 1.
TOEFL (THE PAPER BASED TEST) SCORING SCALE

Score Scale	Level
380	Elementary Level
450	Intermediate Level
550	Working Proficiency at
630	Advanced Level at

Based on toefl.org

Instruction for FCE Speaking Assessment

In FCE test, part speaking each candidate's performance is assessed according to his/her individual performance and not in respect to their peers. Examiners assess their performance based on what is expected from a FCE level learner and not what is expected from other levels of Cambridge ESOL speaking tests such as PET, CAE and CPE. The interlocutor awards a mark for global achievement, and the assessor awards mark according to four criteria: Grammar and vocabulary, discourse management, pronunciation and interactive communication. (First Certificate in English, 2003). In this study, candidates are given a global mark by the interlocutor during the test. Second, simultaneously two assistant professors proficient at teaching give an analytical score based on the ESOL assessment criteria. At last, the researcher records the candidate's voice and gives another analytical score based on Hughes (2003) speaking assessment criteria. According to Hymes communicative competence, all criteria are absolutely essential to effective communication and consequently each criterion weighs the same. Noticeably, in order to obtain a high interrater reliability of test scores of given raters score, a correlation analysis was computed. It also should be kept in mind that

raters were kept unaware of the expected outcomes of the study and were randomly assigned. According to the table2, it can be construed that the computed correlation is strong evidence that there is a relative positive correlation between the scores assigned by the raters. Hence, the scores obtained by the raters are to be consistent.

TABLE2.
RATERS SCORE CORRELATION ANALYSIS

Correlations

		VAR00001	VAR00002	VAR00003
VAR00001	Pearson Correlation	1	.723**	.845**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.002	.000
	N	15	15	15
VAR00002	Pearson Correlation	.723**	1	.709**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002		.003
	N	15	15	15
VAR00003	Pearson Correlation	.845**	.709**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	.003	
	N	15	15	15

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

IV. RESULTS AND FINDINGS

Statistical procedures used to analyze all the data in this study included mean scores, and Independent sample t-test. They were used to process the data gained from each of the research instruments. The SPSS software was used for statistical analysis of the data collected from all of the research steps.

A. Data Analysis Prior to the Experiment

For the purpose of this study, 30 intermediate EFL learners were selected, 15 as the treatment group and 15 as the control group, in an intact group design. To gauge the participants’ language proficiency and homogeneity, TOEFL general proficiency test and FCE speaking pretest was run. Moreover, to make certain the comparability of the groups level as the intermediate EFL learners, it suffice to state that they are all students of English translation and have passed the dialogue course.

Performance of the Participants on the TOEFL General Proficiency Test

In order to ensure that all the participants were intermediate EFL learners, they were administered TOEFL general proficiency test. The estimated language proficiency mean of all participants amounted to 428.67. Therefore, according to the TOEFL paper-based scoring scale, it can be ensured that all the participants are intermediate EFL learners.

TABLE3.
RESULTS FOR THE TOEFL GENERAL PROFICIENCY TEST

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
VAR00001	30	340.00	520.00	4.2867E2	57.15878
Valid N (listwise)	30				

Performance of the Participants on the FCE Speaking Pretest

In order to ensure the comparability of both groups, the control and experimental group’s performance were compared. All the participants were administered an FCE speaking test to ensure they were all homogenous.

As table 3 indicates, the language proficiency mean and the standard deviation for the control group amounted to 13.20 and 1.69, respectively, and the evaluated mean and standard deviation for the treatment group amounted to 13.13 and 1.72, respectively. An independent sample t-test was run to determine any significant difference between the mean scores (tale 4).

TABLE4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RESULTS OF FCE SPEAKING PRE-TEST

Group Statistics

	Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
VAR00001	Control	15	13.2000	1.69874	.43861
	Experimental	15	13.1333	1.72654	.44579

TABLE5.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE FCE PRE-TEST OF THE TREATMENT AND CONTROL GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	.175	.679	.107	28	.916	.06667	.62539	-1.21438	1.34772
	Equal variances not assumed			.107	27.99	.916	.06667	.62539	-1.21440	1.34773

As it is shown in table 4.2, the P value is more than 0.05 which indicates that both groups are homogenous and there are no statistically significant differences between the control and experimental groups on the pretest in overall speaking performance. As a result, it can be consummated that the two groups were relatively at the same level of proficiency in speaking. On that account, any incongruity between the two groups that may arise after the application of the program will be attributed to it.

B. Posttest Findings

The aim of this study is to investigate the effects of application of ESA elements on tasks on boosting speaking ability of EFL learners. It was hypothesized that this type of instruction has no significant effect on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' speaking skills improvement.

Performance of the Participants on the FCE Post tests

Table 6 and 7 display the results of the post-test for the treatment and control groups. The computed speaking performance development mean and standard deviation of the participants in the control group equaled 13.80, and 1.52, respectively. And the computed speaking performance development mean and standard deviation of the participants in the treatment group equaled 16.60, and 1.54, respectively. An inspection of the mean scores showed that there was a considerable difference between the treatment group and the control group in terms of overall speaking performance. Moreover, the independent-samples *t*-test analysis showed that this difference was statistically significant ($p=0.000$). Hence wise, it can be surely said that there were statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups on the post- test in overall speaking in favor of the experimental group. Therefore, the null hypothesis which states that, applying ESA elements on tasks has no significant effect on improving speaking performance of intermediate EFL learners is rejected.

TABLE6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE RESULTS OF FCE SPEAKING POSTTEST

Group Statistics					
Grouping	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	
VAR00001	Control	15	13.8000	1.52128	.39279
	Experimental	15	16.6000	1.54919	.40000

TABLE7.
INDEPENDENT-SAMPLES T-TEST RESULTS FOR THE FCE POSTTEST OF BOTH GROUPS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
VAR00001	Equal variances assumed	.000	1.000	-4.995	28	.000	-2.80000	.56061	-3.94836	-1.65164
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.995	27.99	.000	-2.80000	.56061	-3.94838	-1.65162

As a result, it can be concluded that the results approved the significant impact of applying ESA elements on tasks in mastering speaking performance of learners. Therefore, the findings confirm that the experimental group has outperformed the control group.

V. CONCLUSION

The present study was an attempt to investigate the probable impact of applying Harmer's ESA elements on tasks in improving speaking ability of intermediate EFL learners. Although numerous studies in relation to tasks have been carried out, it seems a few of the studies have noticed the importance of student engagement in presenting tasks through ESA elements. Based on the theoretical and applied background of the study, it is made clear that this study confirms the positive role of the Harmer's ESA elements applied on tasks in mastering speaking performance of the learners. Likewise, the results of the study show that this technique is quite influential in the development of speaking proficiency of EFL learners.

The findings of this study recommend some courses of action for EFL teachers, material producers and methodologists that enable them to choose the best method of dealing with the reality of EFL speakers' problems. The study encourages EFL teachers to address speaking ability via employing ESA elements involved in teaching of speaking through tasks.

One of the most salient privileges of this approach seems to be that participants in the experimental group exhibited a higher tendency in task engagement and had more opportunity to express their ideas and feelings more freely compared to participants of the control group who preferred to use memorized bits of fixed phrases.

Further studies; however, is needed to ascertain whether this type of technique is utilitarian in teaching other kinds of skills such as reading, writing and listening as well as teaching grammar and vocabulary knowledge.

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The Relationship between Translation Trainees' Thinking Styles and Their Translation Quality

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Abstract—Translating is not just a single activity that is done by measure of knowing SL and TL; it is a complex work in which many factors are involved. Among all factors that affect translators' renderings, Thinking Styles are those that make more challenge for the translators. Therefore, the researcher of this quantitative correlational study tried to find out whether there was any relationship between thinking styles and translation quality of thirty B.A. Translation students at Islamic Azad University Eslamshahr Branch based on Sternberg's (1999) theory of Thinking Styles and Waddington's (2001) model D of translation quality assessment. To this end, the Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI) as a self-report twenty four-item Likert scale questionnaire and four paragraphs as the Translation Product Test (TPT) were administered consecutively to evaluate the research question. To analyze the obtained data, Pearson product-moment correlational analysis and multiple regression analysis were accomplished. Based on the results, a null hypothesis was set stating that there is not any relationship between thinking styles and Translation quality of the undergraduate Translation students. As the results of the correlation analyses conducted, this null hypothesis was rejected, because the three thinking styles targeted had a positive correlation with the participants' scores on translation quality. In addition, the results of multiple regression analysis indicated that the three thinking styles could cumulatively predict a significant amount of the variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. The findings of the present study have important implications for translation theories, assessment, and training.

Index Terms—translation quality, thinking styles, translation students

I. INTRODUCTION

What is a good translation?" should be "one of the most important questions to be asked in connection with translation"(House, 1981, p. 127), "it is notoriously difficult to say why or even whether, something is a good translation". (Halliday, 2001, p. 14)

"Translation is a complex activity, involving expertise in a number of areas and skills" (Waddington, 2001, p. 2). To exchange ideas and information, translation plays a significant role in the development of knowledge from one end of the world to the other. Accordingly, it is needed to investigate and examine different facets of translation in order to improve both theory and practice in the field of Translation like other scientific fields. According to Schaffner (1998, p. 1), in discussion about translation (as product), "the question of quality has always been one of top priority".

"Translators and interpreters have long been trained informally, basically through trial and error, unstructured apprenticeship arrangements, or any of the various translating activities that accompany the study of a foreign language and culture within the Liberal Art traditions" (Baker, 2004, p. 280). Therefore, different Translation Studies (TS) scholars have investigated translator training as a route to new professional opportunities in modern language.

Mostafavi, Akbari, and Masoominezhad (2012) and Sharkas (2009) are among the most related pieces of research in this aspect of Translation field. Mostafavi, et al. (2012) in their work entitled "The Relationship between Interpersonal, Visual-Spatial Intelligences and Technical Translation Quality", published by *Journal of Research in Peace, Gender and Development*, concluded that there was a significant relationship between students' interpersonal, visual-spatial intelligence level and the quality of technical translation.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

It is obvious that translation is a complex activity and many factors are involved when a translator is translating a text. Assume, the translation trainees are of the same proficiency level in source language (SL) and almost the same in target language (TL), their translations are highly different on the part of quality.

In assessing the quality of translation, the target text (TT) is compared to the source text (ST) in order to see whether the TT is an accurate, correct, precise, faithful, or true reproduction of the ST. This comparison involves both quantitative (i.e. completeness of message transfer) and qualitative aspects (i.e. Accurate in "denotation and connotation, referentially and pragmatically". (Newmark, 1991, p.111)

During translation classes both undergraduate and graduate ones, many theories, and concepts about translation are discussed. It is emphasized by translation professors that translating is not just a single activity that is done by measure of knowing SL and TL, it is a complex work in which many factors are involved, for example, it can be true that extrovert students are better language learners than introvert. This also can prove true in the field of Translation.

We all know that psychological behaviors of people have direct effect on their educational activities and on their life styles. Consequently, these facts create questions in the mind of present researcher like, What psychological aspect of a translation may have influences on his/her translation quality or is there any relationship between thinking style of a translator and his/her translation quality that in fact, this question makes the problem of my study that is under investigation.

Among all factors that affect translators' renderings, thinking styles are those that may make more challenge for the translators. Therefore, the researchers of this study tried to find out whether there was any relationship between such factors as thinking styles and translation quality of Translation trainees. The present research made an attempt to see whether there was any relationship between thinking styles as the psychological factor and translation quality of B.A. Translation students at Islamic Azad University Eslamshahr Branch based on Sternberg's (1999) theory of Thinking Styles and Waddington's (2001) model of translation quality assessment.

According to Sternberg's thinking styles principles (1999), there is a match between styles and abilities that creates a synergy that is more than the sum of its parts. He believed that thinking styles are teachable. Therefore, the finding of this research may benefit translation trainers whose teaching translation and thinking styles will improve the quality of translations by trainees. Teachers may find the results of this research useful to get to new attitudes in teaching translation literature and procedures.

To achieve the objectives of the present study, the following question was posed:

Is there any relationship between thinking styles and translation quality of the undergraduate Translation students?

Based on the research question, the following null hypothesis was formulated:

There is not any relationship between thinking styles and Translation quality of the undergraduate Translation students.

Like all studies, this research had a number of limitations, the major one being that of gender. Since female students outnumbered males in almost all faculties of foreign languages in Iran, the researchers could not possibly select an equal number of male and female students for their study. Hence, the gender variable that might be of significance in this study was not controlled. In addition, the age of the participants was not considered as a variable, either, because the most students are within a limited age cohort.

This study intended to investigate the relationship between thinking style of translation trainees and their translation quality. Therefore, the present researcher should eliminate other factors, affecting the translating quality. In the present study, convenience sampling was adopted. Hence, the generalizability of this study to larger population might be questioned.

The first delimitation posed by the researcher in this study was that she chose a general text as the translation text that required no specific background knowledge or cultural orientation in order to minimize the effect of unfamiliarity of some students with a specific literary genre, tone, or technique. The second delimitation was that the researcher conducted both tests in one setting in order to keep the physical condition of the administration of both tests identical and remove certain intervening variables affecting the responses of the participants if they were to sit two different times for the tests.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The total number of participants consisted of thirty male and female senior students of English Translation at B.A level who voluntarily took part in this study. It is noteworthy that the participants of this study were undergraduate Translation students of Islamic Azad University Eslamshahr Branch.

B. Instrumentation

In order to assess the relationship between Thinking Styles and Translation Quality two data collection instruments were administered consecutively. These instruments were the Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI) and a translation production Test (TPT).

Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI) was developed based on Sternberg's (1999) theory of mental self-government; the TSI is a self-report Likert scale questionnaire in which respondents rate themselves on a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (not at all well) to 7 (extremely well), describing the way they normally carry out their tasks. The twenty-four items represent these three thinking styles completely. There are eight items, constituting one scale, which assess each style. The present study employed Persian version of the inventory.

Translation Production Test (TPT) consisted of The Snows of Kilimanjaro (Ernest Hemingway) -- Editor's Note and two first paragraphs of The Snows of Kilimanjaro's chapter one. In Fact, 4 paragraphs and 394 words in length by Stefan Pollklas (1900) was selected as the TPT. The participants were asked to translate the text into Persian in sixty

minutes and they were allowed to use dictionary, if needed. Translation production Test was administered for evaluating the participant's translation quality.

The model used in this study was a mixture of the two methods for scoring translation quality proposed by Waddington (2001) titled as Method D. According to Waddington (2001), "method D consists of combining error analysis Method B and holistic Method C in a proportion of 70/30; that is to say, Method B accounts for 70% of the total result and Method C for the remaining 30%" (p. 315). Further, before assessing the participants' translation quality, it was necessary to predetermine the score range based on which the participants' translation assignments were to be scored. Waddington himself suggested that for short texts (which was the case in the present study), a range of 80 would be more suitable, because it would let for distinguishing among the translators' performance. Therefore, a range of 80 was also adopted in the study as the score base.

The scoring process was as the following. The rater subtracted 1 score for each language error and 2 scores for each translation error from the score base of 80. The decision whether each error was a language error or a translation error was based on the recognition that the error would damage the transfer of the meaning from the SL into the TL. If the error damaged the transfer of the meaning, it was considered as translation error; otherwise, it was counted as a language error. Further, the effect of each translation error on the quality of translation was counted and the score for the effect was subtracted from the participant's whole score. The participant's score of 80 accounted for 70% of his/her final score. Then, the rater scored each participant's translation assignment again, this time holistically. The rater gave each piece of assignment a score out of 80. This second score accounted for 30% of the participant's final score. To score the participants' translation production test, both the researcher and another independent rater used the above scoring guidelines. The independent rater was asked to score the participants' translation assignments so that the inter-rater reliability of the scores could be obtained.

C. Procedure

As the first stage, the TSI was administered to the participants, and afterwards the participants were asked to answer the TPT. The time allocated to the first and the second tests was fifteen and sixty minutes. The participants filled out the Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI) that is based on Sternberg's theory of mental self-government. The TSI was a twenty-four item self-report test in which respondents rated themselves on a seven-point scale, with 1 indicating that the statement does not describe them at all and 7 indicating that the statement characterizes them extremely well. For the translation production Test (TPT), the participants were allowed to make use of the dictionary if they needed.

D. Design

The current study strived to investigate the relationship between thinking styles and translation quality. In order to evaluate the research question in the most general manner, Pearson product-moment correlational analysis and multiple regression analysis were accomplished.

Correlation coefficient is a measure of association between two variables, and it ranges between -1 and +1. If the two variables are in perfect linear relationship, the correlation coefficient will be either +1 or -1. The sign depends on whether the variables are positively or negatively related. The correlation coefficient is 0 if there is no linear relationship between the variables. Two different types of correlation coefficients are in use. One is called the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient, and the other is called the Spearman rank correlation coefficient, which is based on the rank relationship between variables. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (Pearson's r) is more widely used in measuring the association between two variables.

There were two variables in the study; thinking styles were considered as the independent variables and translation quality as the dependent variable. In this investigation, X shows for Thinking Style Questionnaire score and Y shows for Translation production test score.

E. Interrater Reliability

To make sure about the reliability of the participants' scores on translation quality, the participants' translation tests were also scored by another independent rater who was an M.A. graduate in Translation Studies. This second rater was a native speaker of the target language (Persian) and had an advanced level of the source language (English).

The two sets of the scores on translation quality (i.e., those by the researcher herself and those by the independent rater) were then submitted to Pearson correlation coefficient analysis to determine the degree of consistency between the two sets of scores. The results of the analysis indicated that these two sets of scores enjoyed a Cronbach alpha of 0.84 ($r = 0.84$). This amount was higher than the minimum cut-off point suggested which is 0.70 (Dörnyei, 2007). Therefore, it can be inferred that the participants' scores used for further analysis are a reliable measure of their translation abilities.

F. Ethical Considerations

The participants were informed about the purposes of the study and their consent was obtained, before starting the data collection procedure. To observe the ethical considerations suggested in research on Humanities and Social Sciences (e.g., Loue, 2000; Oliver, 2010), the participants were informed that their responses on the Thinking Styles

Inventory would be kept confidential. They were also told that their translation production tests would be scored anonymously and the obtained scores would be kept to the researchers alone.

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

As it was mentioned before, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between thinking styles and translation quality of the undergraduate students. The data collected which consisted of two series of scores, that is, scores of thinking styles and scores of translation production test were analyzed based on the related statistical computation of Pearson correlation and multiple regression. Further, the results of statistical analyses conducted to investigate the research question are reported as follows.

A. Results of Study

a. Descriptive Statistics of the Dependent and Independent Variables

In this section, the descriptive statistics for both the dependent and the independent variables are reported. For each variable, the mean score and the standard deviation of the participants' scores on that variable are presented. Table 1 indicates the descriptive statistics for the participants' translation quality. As you can see from Table 1, the participants gained a mean score of 58.44 and a standard deviation of 5.37 on the measure of translation quality.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Translation Quality	58.44	5.37

Table 2 indicates the participants' scores on the Thinking Styles Inventory (TSI). As the TSI consists of three subscales in term of function (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles), Table 2 also includes the mean and the standard deviation of the participants' scores on the single subscales. As you can see from Table 2, the participants gained a mean score of 118.33 and a standard deviation of 4.27 in the whole TSI. Further, their mean scores and standard deviations on the subscales of the TSI were as the following; a mean score of 40.83 and a standard deviation of 2.91 on the Legislative Thinking Style, a mean score of 37.61 and a standard deviation of 3.16 on the Executive Thinking Style, and a mean score of 39.88 and a standard deviation of 3.04 on Judicial Thinking Style.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
Thinking Styles Inventory	118.33	4.27
Legislative Thinking Style	40.83	2.91
Executive Thinking Style	37.61	3.16
Judicial Thinking Style	39.88	3.04

b. Correlation between the Translation Quality and the Thinking Styles

The first statistical test used to analyze the obtained data in the present study was Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. The participants' scores on translation quality were correlated with their scores on the Thinking Styles Inventory. Further, to see whether the participants' translation quality had any relationship with each of the thinking styles, their scores on translation quality were correlated with their scores on the Legislative Thinking Style, Executive Thinking Style, and Judicial Thinking Style. Table 3 indicates the results of correlation analyses conducted.

TABLE 3
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS BETWEEN THE DEPENDENT AND INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

Variable	Thinking Styles Inventory	Legislative Thinking Style	Executive Thinking Style	Judicial Thinking Style
Translation Quality	0.53**	0.41**	0.47**	0.23*

*Sig. at 0.05

**Sig at 0.01

As you can see from Table 3, the participants' scores on translation quality had a positive correlation with their scores on the Thinking Styles Inventory ($r = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$). In addition, their scores on translation quality had a positive correlation with the three thinking styles of interest; i.e., the Legislative Thinking Style ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$), the Executive Thinking Style ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$), and the Judicial Thinking Style ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$). To sum up, these results show that the participants' scores on translation quality had a positive relationship with the Thinking Styles Inventory and its subscales.

As previously mentioned, a null hypothesis was set stating that there is not any relationship between thinking styles and Translation quality of the undergraduate Translation students. As the results of the correlation analyses conducted, this null hypothesis was rejected, because the three thinking styles targeted had a positive correlation with the participants' scores on translation quality.

However, in literature on statistics in Humanities and Social Sciences, correlation analysis is usually considered as a weak tool for examining the relationship between variables. That is so, because correlation analysis only shows that

there is a relationship between two variables, but it does not tell us whether, and how much, changes in the depended variable is caused by the independent variable(s).

The above limitation in the correlation analysis was the reason why the current study has also made use of multiple regression analysis to examine the potential associations between Iranian Translation students' translation quality and their thinking styles. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical test more robust than correlation analysis, because its results show that how much variance in a dependent variable can be predicted by the presence of particular independent variables. In fact, in running multiple regression analysis, correlation analysis is usually done as a preliminary analysis to see whether the independent variables of interest deserve to be included in multiple regression analysis.

c. Results of the Multiple Regression Analysis

After all requirements for multiple regression analysis were checked, it was time to run multiple regression analysis on the obtained data to find an answer to the research question. Of different types of regression analysis in the statistics literature, Standard Multiple Regression Analysis was chosen to analyze the obtained data. Standard Multiple Regression Analysis was chosen over other types of regression analysis, because of two reasons; first, in contrast to other types of regression analysis (i.e., Stepwise Regression Analysis and Hierarchical Regression Analysis), it makes no beforehand assumptions about the relative influence of the independent variables on the dependent variable. This is particularly important, when we do not have a comprehensive theory, or previous research literature, as to which of the independent variable(s) would have the strongest effects on the dependent variable. Second, it is the most commonly-used type of regression analysis in social sciences. (Larson-Hall, 2009)

Table 4 indicates that results of the multiple regression analysis conducted on the data obtained in the present study. In the table, the symbol R^2 shows how much of the variance in the dependent could be predicted by the cumulative effects of the three independent variables in the analysis (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles). In addition, the table also reports Adjusted R^2 . In fact, Adjusted R^2 would comprise the base of the discussion of the findings in the next section. Adjusted R^2 is considered as a more appropriate index of variance prediction in multiple regression analysis, when the size of the sample studied is small (Pallant, 2001), as was the case in the present study. In discussion of multiple regression analysis, Adjusted R^2 is considered as a more conservative index of variance prediction.

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF THE MULTIPLE REGRESSION ANALYSIS

Independent Variables	Regression analysis		Std. Error of Estimate
	R^2	Adjusted R^2	
Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles	0.21	0.18	12.61532

As you can see from Table 4, the three independent variables could predict 18 percent of the variance in the participants' translation quality (Adjusted $R^2 = 0.18$). However, to see whether this amount of variance prediction could reach the level of statistical significance ($p < 0.05$); it was necessary to conduct analysis of variance (ANOVA) on the obtained data as a test of statistical significance. Table 5 indicates the results of ANOVA run on the obtained data.

TABLE 5
RESULTS OF ANOVA

ANOVA	
F	Sig.
5.32	.003

*Sig. at 0.05

As you can see from Table 5, the amount of variance prediction obtained in the multiple regression analysis conducted could get to the point of statistical significance ($F(3, 26) = 5.32, p = 0.003$). Therefore, the three independent variables in the multiple regression analysis could cumulatively predict. Besides, investigating the amount of variance that the three independent variables could predict in the dependent variable, the present study intended to see how much of the variance prediction was contributed by each of the independent variables included in the analysis. Table 6 shows that amount of such contribution that each independent variable has made to the dependent variable. The table also shows whether the contribution of each independent variable to the total variance prediction could get to the point of statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

TABLE 6
THE CONTRIBUTION OF EACH OF THE INDEPENDENT VARIABLES TO THE DEPENDENT VARIABLE

Independent Variable	T	r^2	Sig.
Legislative Thinking Style	2.21	0.08	0.02
Executive Thinking Style	2.69	0.11	0.009
Judicial Thinking Style	0.78	0.02	0.72

*Sig. at 0.05

As you can see from Table 6, the Legislative Thinking Style could contribute eight percent to the total variance in the dependent variable (i.e., translation quality). This amount of contribution of the Legislative Thinking Style to the dependent variable was found to be statistically significant ($p = 0.02$). The Executive Thinking Style contributed eleven

percent to the total variance in the dependent variable. This amount of contribution of the Executive Thinking Style was statistically significant ($p = 0.009$). Finally, the Judicial Thinking Style contributed only two percent to the total variance in the dependent variable and its contribution was not statistically significant ($p = 0.72$).

B. Discussion

The correlation analyses conducted in the present study clearly indicated that there was a relationship between the participants' scores on translation quality with their scores on the Thinking Styles Inventory ($r = 0.53$, $p < 0.01$). Further, their scores on translation quality had a positive correlation with the Legislative Thinking Style ($r = 0.41$, $p < 0.01$), the Executive Thinking Style ($r = 0.47$, $p < 0.01$), and the Judicial Thinking Style ($r = 0.23$, $p < 0.05$), as well. These relationships should not surprise use.

As Fan and He (2012) stated, performance on complex cognitive tasks highly depends on learners' mental structures that, in turn, determine the strategies by means of which learners approach the task. Researchers have found an important role for thinking styles in a wide variety of academic subject matters such as mathematics and language learning and use (e.g., Riding & Caine, 1993). As the process of translation is usually considered as one of cognitive tasks (Gutt, 2014; Shreve & Angelone, 2010), it would be expected that these thinking strategies highly influence the way that translators approach the process of translating from a language to the other.

However, as mentioned in the previous section, correlation analysis only tells us that there is, or there is not, a relationship between two single variables, but it does not determine whether one variable (dependent variable) could be predicted by the presence of other variables (independent variables). Therefore, a further statistical step (i.e., standard multiple regression analysis) was undertaken to serve this purpose in the present study. The results of the multiple regression analysis conducted indicated that the independent variables (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles) could cumulatively predict the participants' scores on the dependent variable (translation quality). Together, these three thinking styles could significantly predict eighteen percent of the variance in the participants' translation quality. Given that thinking styles "characterize how one prefers to think about material as one is learning or after one already knows it" (Zhang, Sternberg, & Rayner, 2012, p. 5), it would certainly affect mental processes, especially those involving deep thinking such as translation. Further, these results are not surprising, because the regression analysis conducted involved three of the most impotent thinking styles (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles). Therefore, it would be expected that these three thinking styles when they come together, could significantly predict the quality of the participants' translation outcomes as was the case in the present study.

Of the three thinking styles targeted, the Executive Thinking Style could contribute most to the variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. As you remember, individuals with higher levels of this thinking style are more successful in following rules (Sternberg, 1999, p.35). Therefore, it can be discussed that, in the present study, the participants with higher Executive Thinking Style could implement translation rules to improve the quality of their translation assignments. These rules consisted of translation strategies that these students have been taught in the translation classrooms. In other words, these students have been more successful in implementing translation strategies that would improve translation quality.

The superiority mentioned above can be ascribed to the proposition that the Executive Thinking Style has a managerial role in cognitive processes (Balkis & Isiker-Bayezid, 2005; Sternberg, 1999) which makes the best decision, when it comes to choose from among the available options. With respect to the translation process, these options consist of translation strategies translators employ, when tackling a text from the source language. Further, the participants with higher levels of the Executive Thinking Style are more successful in managing their time resources, when performing a task (Cano-Garcia, & Hughes, 2000; Lee & Tsai, 2004). Therefore, it is hypothesized here that the participants with higher levels of Executive Thinking Style had managed the time, allowed to complete the translation assignment better than other participants at the stages of translating, revising, and editing.

The Legislative Thinking Style was the second independent variable that could predict a significant amount of the total variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. As you remember, individuals with this thinking style are more creative, when performing cognitive tasks (e.g., Sternberg, 1999). As Wright (2015) stated, such creativity is an essential tool for translators. According to Wright (2015), translators should have the ability to come up with their own ideas, when translating a text so that they could convey the message intended in the source-language text through the target language. The researchers of the present study believe that the participants with higher levels of the Legislative Thinking Style enjoyed such creativity through a good command of their mother tongue (i.e., the Persian language). In other words, these participants were creative users of the Persian language and, thus, used their creative proficiency in the Persian language to translate the message intended by the source language at the best way possible. This, in return, helped to the improvement in the quality of the translation assignment accomplished by them.

Finally, the results of the regression analysis conducted indicated that the last targeted thinking style (i.e., Judicial Thinking Style) could not predict a significant amount of the total variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. This finding is surprising, as many studies have gathered evidence that the Judicial Thinking Style is an important determinant of success in academic achievements (e.g., Cano-Garcia & Hughes, 2000; Lee & Tsai, 2004; Zhang, 2002). However, the inability of the Judicial Thinking Style to predict a significant amount of the total variance can be rationalized. As you remember, the Judicial Thinking Style has the function of evaluating rules, products, and procedure (Sternberg, 1999). In other words, this thinking style functions as a monitor to evaluate outcomes of

performance on cognitive tasks. On the other hand, the monitoring function of the Judicial Thinking Style is believed to be in interaction with the time allowed to perform the task. That is, effects of the Judicial Thinking Style would be better manifested, when performing a cognitive task, if individuals are allowed enough to monitor and evaluate their own task performance. (Lee & Tsai, 2004; Sternberg & Grigorenko, 1995)

As far as the present study is concerned, this means that learners are allowed enough time to monitor what they have translated from the source language into the target language. However, the participants in the present study were only allowed sixty minutes to undertake the translation test. Therefore, it is hypothesized here that the time-limited nature of the translation assignment has prevented the participants with higher level of the Judicial Thinking Style from showing their superiority over other participants. Therefore, it is hypothesized that if the participants were allowed more time to complete their translation assignments, those with higher levels of the Judicial Thinking Style would have the chance to improve the quality of their translation assignments. To see if this hypothesis has traces of truth in itself, it needs to be experimented.

The findings of the present study of the relationship between translation quality and thinking styles could have important implications for translation theorizing, assessing, and training. Further, since the present study has been the first of its own type that targeted the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles, it would be fruitful if this research trend be followed to give us more clear insights into the relationship between translation processes and thinking styles. In the next section, the implications of the present study, along with some suggestions for future research in this area are presented.

V. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this section, short explanation of the answer to the research question is presented. Further, pedagogical implication and suggestion for further research make the final elements of the research as follows:

A. Conclusion

The present study was conducted with the purpose of determining whether translation students' mental structures would influence the way they would approach the process of translation. The study was triggered by the proposition that performance on cognitive tasks is highly dependent on individuals' preferences to process input in particular ways (e.g., Evans & Waring, 2012; Fan & He, 2012) and, since translation is usually considered as a cognitive task (Gutt, 2014; Shreve & Angelone, 2010), it was thought fruitful to investigate whether the translation process is also affected by these preferences. In the literature on Psychology and Education, these preferences are known as *thinking styles*. (Sternberg, 1999; Sternberg & Zhang, 2001)

In fact, the findings of the study indicated there was such a relationship between translation quality and thinking styles. The findings indicated that the participants' scores on translation quality (i.e., the dependent variable) were influenced by their scores on the measures of thinking styles (i.e., the independent variables). The participants' scores on translation quality had a significant, positive correlation with the scores on the Thinking Styles Inventory and its subscales.

Further, the results of multiple regression analysis indicated that the three thinking styles targeted (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles) could cumulatively predict a significant amount of the variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. Further, of the three thinking styles, Legislative and Executive thinking styles could contribute significant amounts to the variance in the participants' scores on translation quality. The Executive Thinking Style contributed the most to the total variance. It could predict eleven percent of the total variance. Next, the Legislative Thinking Style could predict eight percent of the total variance. Finally, the Judicial Thinking Style only contributed two percent to the total variance. The contribution of the Judicial Thinking Style to the total variance in the participants' scores on translation quality could not get to the point of statistical significance ($p < 0.05$).

As mentioned before, the finding that the targeted thinking styles could cumulatively predict the participants' scores on translation quality was not surprising, because the targeted thinking styles are among the most important determinants of success in academic achievements (Cano-Garcia & Hughes, 2000; Zhang & Sternberg, 2000). These thinking styles would determine the way that people/students would go to tackle a cognitive task (e.g., translation) and have significant influences on the final product of the task performance (e.g., translation quality).

Of the three thinking styles targeted, the Executive Thinking Style could contribute most to the participants' scores on translation quality. This was ascribed to the hypothetical proposition that translators with higher levels of the Executive Thinking Style are more successful in choosing the efficient translation strategies and implementing them. Further, such translators are more able to manage their own time resources, when translating a text so that the best can be achieved from the stages of translating, revising, and editing.

The Legislative Thinking Style was the next thinking style that could significantly contribute to the participants' scores on translation quality. It was proposed that translators with higher levels of the Legislative Thinking Style are more creative in using the target language. This can help them to translate from the source language into the target language more efficiently. In other words, they can make creative uses of the target language, when translating a text and this improves the quality of the final product of the translation process.

Finally, it was found that the Judicial Thinking Style could not predict a significant amount of the total variance in the participants' scores on translation quality, even though it was expected that this thinking style could do so. A rather reasonable hypothesis was proposed to explain these findings. The Judicial Thinking Style is most useful for monitoring and evaluating cognitive products and procedures and has an interaction with the time allowed performing a cognitive task (e.g., translation). However, the participants in the present study were allowed a limited time (i.e., 60 minutes) to accomplish the translation task. Therefore, it was proposed that this time limit had prevented the participants with higher levels of the Judicial Thinking Style to demonstrate their superiority over other participants as far as translation quality was concerned.

B. Implications of the Study

The findings of the present study have important implications for translation theories, assessment, and training. Translation theoreticians have tried for years, to determine what factors would influence the quality of a translation work (e.g., House, 2001; Lauscher, 2000; Sch äffner, 1998). Based on the recent findings (e.g., Mostafavi et al, 2012; Sharkas, 2009), and the findings of the current study, it is the time that researchers take translator-internal factors (i.e., thinking styles) into consideration, when intending to propose coherent theories of translation quality.

Another important implication would be for translation assessment. Translation examiners at academic levels should become aware of the possibility that students' translation abilities may be highly influenced by their preferences to analyze data in particular ways (i.e., by their thinking styles). Therefore, when assessing the quality of a translation assignment completed by a translation student, the examiner should know that any observed weakness in the translated work could not be necessarily ascribed to weaknesses in the students' translation competence, as a student may possess particular thinking styles, guiding him/her insufficiently through the process of translation.

The findings of the study have some implication for translation training, as well. Once it has been made clear that translation students' thinking styles have some influence on the quality of their translation assignments, translation instructors can make use of translation training practices that match these individual differences among the students. As a guideline, a series of teaching practices that match different thinking styles has been mentioned in Zhang, Sternberg, and Rayner (2012). Though these teaching practices have not been proposed for teaching translation, translation instructors could get an insightful view for designing teaching practices for their own translation classrooms.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

All research in Humanities, including Translation Studies, is open-ended particularly, because conclusive answers cannot be guaranteed based upon single studies in research on Humanities. Similarly, the present study suggests that research on thinking styles on translation quality be followed in several directions so that our understanding of the relationship can be improved. First, the present study only targeted the effects of three thinking styles on translation quality; the list of thinking styles (i.e., Legislative, Executive, and Judicial thinking styles); however, is not limited to these three and, in fact, includes a larger number of thinking styles (for a rather complete list of thinking styles, see Sternberg & Zhang, 2014). Therefore, it is suggested that other thinking styles be targeted as the focus of investigation in future studies.

Second, it is well-documented in the literature that translators make use of different strategies, when translating texts of different genres. It would be helpful to see whether the selection of these translation strategies is influenced by the individual differences that exist among translators. These individual skills not only include the thinking styles, but also such categories as personality types, creativity, intelligence, etc.

Finally, the present study was carried out on senior students of English Translation at the B.A level. These students have not been experienced or professional translators; therefore, it may be that their thinking styles, and not their translation abilities, were the main sources of variance in translation quality. The researcher of the present study hypothesizes that, in the case of experienced and professional translators, the importance of these thinking styles, or other individual differences, diminishes in the process of translation. In other words, in the case of such translators, they are their translation abilities, not their thinking styles, that would make a distinction among translation assignments of different degrees of quality. This hypothesis needs to be experimented in the future studies.

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Personality, Struggle and Destiny: Feminism in *Lucia Lucia*

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Abstract—Recently there are an increasing number of female writers who have achieved great appreciation all over the world, or at least in their mother land. Adriana Trigiani is one of those popular writers good at women's fictions. As her magnum opus, *Lucia Lucia* is a miniature of the western society's feminism in the era of 1950s. On *Lucia* we can find quite a few virtues and characteristics that were reflected during the fight with prejudice and injustice of traditional mores, and which also have determined her labyrinthine-like life and a happy ending. Having a good knowledge of Lucia's temperament and thinking is helpful for readers to understand the story and the feminism theories better. With the guidance of an old-timed but advanced woman, we are much easier to see a woman's firm personality to promote society's development and progress.

Index Terms—feminism, personality, destiny

I. INTRODUCTION

According to USA Today, Adriana Trigiani is one of the reigning queens of women's fiction. She is beloved by millions of readers from many countries for her hilarious and heartwarming novels. At the same time, Trigiani is a playwright, television writer and documentary filmmaker who has won various awards. She has also written the screen adaptation of *Lucia, Lucia*.

Trigiani grew up in a traditional Italian family in a small coal mining town in southwest Virginia, and now lives in New York City. She chose her hometown for the setting of her most critically acclaimed and bestselling novels. However, as a nostalgic and tender tale imbued with ambition, romance and heartbreak between family, career and love, *Lucia, Lucia* is set in the glittering, vibrant New York City of 1950. Though New York City was not so prosperous at that era, it had originally presented some characteristics of the young America.

It is an enchanted story of a determined young woman with passionate enthusiasm towards life who decided to follow her heart and feeling to live changes her life forever. The following comment is directly from Trigiani's official website which includes all of her works and also it is quoted by amazon website. "This wonderful period piece is set in Greenwich Village with the central family, the Sartoris, a very large Italian family with four sons and one daughter, bound not only by blood but love and tradition. The family owns business. All the sons work with their father, Antonio, in the Groceria in Greenwich Village. Lucia Sartoris is the beautiful twenty-five-year-old daughter of the prosperous Italian grocer. She follows after her grandmother with her exceptional sewing abilities and eye for design. The postwar boom is ripe with opportunities for talented girls with ambition, and Lucia becomes an apprentice to an up-and-coming designer at chic B. Altman's department store on Fifth Avenue. Engaged to her childhood sweetheart, the steadfast Dante DeMartino, Lucia is torn when she meets a handsome stranger who promises a life of uptown luxury that career girls like her only read about in the society pages. Forced to choose between responsibility to her family and her own dreams, Lucia finds herself in the midst of a sizzling scandal in which secrets are revealed, her beloved career is jeopardized, and the Sartoris' honor is tested. Throughout the novel, Lucia is surrounded by richly drawn New York characters, including her best friend, the quick-witted fashion protégé Ruth Kaspian; their boss, Delmarr, B. Altman's head designer and glamorous man-about-town; her devoted brothers, Roberto, Orlando, Angelo, and Exodus, self-appointed protectors of the jewel of the family; and her doting father, Antonio." (<http://www.adrianatrigiani.com/lucia.html>. accessed 26/01/2016)

However, critics from several famous newspaper such as Washington Post, New York Times and People have described "Trigiani's novels as "tiramisu for the soul", "sophisticated and wise", or "dazzling." They agree that "her characters are so lively that they bounce off the page", and that "her novels are full bodied and elegantly written." Perhaps one popular book critic said it best, "Trigiani defies categorization. She is more than a one-hit wonder, more than a Southern writer, more than a woman's novelist. She is an amazing young talent." (www.amazon.com. accessed 26/01/2016) Her books are so popular all over the world that *Lucia, Lucia* was chosen as the best seller of that year 2004 in Britain.

Trigiani feels like writing women who dares to revolt against old traditional mores and to dominate her own destiny. The protagonists appearing in Trigiani's books are mostly similar to her. She likes independent women, and she is one too. She always feels she has to make her own way and make her own living. She does not matter if someone calls her racial feminist. "Being able to take care of yourself" is her hope and motto to women. "The essential feminism element presents in her every book. In general, the term feminism can be used to describe a political, cultural or economic

movement aimed at establishing equal rights and legal protection for women.”(https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Main_Page, accessed 26/01/2016) Feminism emanates from America and then spread to Europe. Feminism has greatly changed predominant conceptions in a wide range of areas within European and American society, scoping from culture to law. Take Lucia, Lucia as an instance, its background is the period of time between the first wave of feminism movement and the accelerating second one. At that time, women worked, made their own money, and many went to college, while in light of the 1950s, lots of them were sent back to the kitchen in frilly aprons. Trigiani was intrigued by this and wrote Lucia, Lucia.

As is known to all, narrators of a novel are very important to the truthiness and development of the plot. Choosing what kind of narrator stands for from which perspective the writer look at the whole incident to some degree. The book begins with Lucia as an relatively elderly and seemingly nonchalant woman, reciting the story of her whole life to a young neighbor girl. The character, Kit, is a endeavoring playwright living in Greenwich Village who has courage to the apartment of the aged but elegant "Aunt Lu" one day and has afternoon tea while listening to her story, which is the fundament of the book. The way the writer deals with the plot easily motivate readers to wonder questions such as “what will happen to Lucia next? Will she marry the handsome young Italian boy that she is so familiar with or will she choose the sophisticated rising business man?” The plot development, while a little obvious in some places, is nevertheless solid. This clear plot allows Trigiani to bring the novel into full circle and offer a relatively satisfying conclusion within a reasonable book length.

There are more viewpoints to be taken into account in a novel than in other genres. Among the three main viewpoints, Trigiani first created Kit to play the role of a third-person narrator, who is not a character in the main fictional world, and then she turned into heroine Lucia to tell her own experience, namely a story within a story. With strong first-person character development, Trigiani draws the reader into the story quickly and firmly. I-narrator may assure readers that what they are reading is truthful and authentic, and further gives the action a sense of directness and immediacy in that the reader shares Lucia’s experiences. (Hu: 2007, p.224) We have found that both of them are females, which indicates Trigiani have more trust and favor on women. She thinks women are more reliable and dependent, so she chose them to be the narrators.

The story talks about the loyalty and responsibility to family that has been taken for granted by Italian tradition all the time. All the family interactions happening there are so perfectly described, even as for the attitudes and social daily customs. It is very easy to feel the emotional impact of the characters in the story. No other can write about Italian families as well as Trigiani. She grew up in such a family and all her writing seems to come straight from the experience. Everything from places to gadgets of clothing, and everyone she describes is near to perfection, all the characters being almost fleshed out. Her adjectives are always right on with the perfect meaning. Whether it is joy or sorrow, Trigiani lets the reader feel all the emotions to their heart. Both as a female and a minority member, she can virtually sense the weak position where Lucia is.

As a minority, Italian Americans are the fourth largest European ethnic group in the United States. In America and some other western nations, Italians have the stereotyped as perpetual foreigners in a lower class, only restricted to blue collar jobs. They have been wrongly stereotyped working as construction workers, beggars, chefs, thieves, plumbers, and in other working class jobs. Nevertheless, glamour is Lucia's story. Trigiani lets you desire to be part of her Italian-American family and experience the 1950s New York. Her readers actually feels for Lucia at each moment. It is also interesting to read Italian-America literature, as it is almost always about African Americans. The Sartori family is from Venetian, so there is a very colorful chapter set in Venice. The novel's nostalgic atmosphere is delicately woven to inspire and touch your heart. As a member of the inferior female and minority group, Lucia is a new woman who isn't completely obedient. She has strong temperament and new ideals, which shows feminism absolutely. Lucia has a relatively satisfying life, not affected by the identification as a female and a minority member, thanks to her personality and never-give-up spirit to struggle.

II. LUCIA’S PERSONALITY

Lucia is beautiful and tender, but at the same time, the first impression she left readers is her pursuing equality, under the guide of her ideal and desire. Maybe for an old-time traditional woman, husband is much more important than her own career and business. Many girls would rather stay at home, being a qualified housewife. Though from her childhood Lucia was instructed “to be decent, to have morals, to have standards, to be responsible and to be destined for a nice Italian boy”, she has never given up her principles and baseline: she craves for her economic independence and freedom. She doesn't like to depend on somebody. She is proud of making a living by herself. Dante, the son of the local baker, Lucia’s fiancé first appeared when Lucia described her thoughts “I guess I am lucky. I’m engaged to a nice Italian fellow, whom I’ve known all my life. My parents like him. Even my brothers don’t mind him.” Dante is properly a good husband, but he is also a good son listening to his mother’s advice, that’s the reason gives rise to their broken relationship. Lucia did not submit under the oppression of Dante’s family, the representative of old tradition. She insisted she should not quit her job and stay with Dante’s parents, even it meant she would lose her intimate fiancé

A. Considerate to Friends

Lucia is loyal and considerate to her friends. Lucia is happy when she works with her friends, Delmarr and Ruth.

They struggle for their common ideal by hard working. They four women often have gatherings, having a meal with others and telling their secrets at the same time. Both the first meet with John Talbot and having sex with him were whispered to Ruth, because Lucia trusts her and is willing to pour out her thinking. After all trust is the primary condition of a friendship. On the eve of Ruth's wedding, "Ruth and I stay after hours in the Hub to finish the buttons on her wedding gown...Delmarr was sweet enough to leave us the key, so we can let ourselves out through the employee entrance on the main floor." Also at this night Lucia and Ruth had a dispute argument if they should abandon their original career goal to devote into a marriage. Lucia reminded Ruth of things she had to discard if she married. Ruth felt sorry to disappoint Lucia, but she loved her fiancé Harvey. Then Lucia comforted her in the return, saying "Thank you, Ruth, for at least saying you wanted to open a shop with me." In the truth, at this moment Lucia wondered what would become of her. "Ruth is being kind by offering a shop with me, but that's only a dream. Once she's married, she'll work for a while, and then she and Harvey will have a baby, and she'll quit and stay home to raise her family." (Trigiani, 2004, p.107) Although clearly knowing the current situation, Lucia chose to tell a white lie.

B. *Filial to Family*

Lucia is filial to her family, not only to her parents and brothers, but also even to her sister-in-law, Rosemary. Lucia is lucky to have wise and sensible parents always respecting her decisions. Even when she disrupted the engagement dinner, Papa did not put the blame on her, but encouraged her to pursue her life and happiness bravely. Thus, Lucia was so feared upon hearing her father falling down in the grocery and during the last days of her father, Lucia sadly said if anything happened to him, she would die too.

Among all the children, Lucia's parents like her most. Due to her mother's stroke, Lucia gave up her dream to go to California. She had to stay and take care of her mother. "It was sweet of Delmarr to say we'd make our plans at a later date, but we both know the truth. I'd never going to California, I'm never going to work for Helen Rose (a famous clothes designer), and I am never going to sew the costumes of the stars. I'm going to stay here at 45 Commerce Street and take care of my mother for as long as she needs me. When that duty is done, and I hope it won't be for many years, I'll think about my life and what I want. For now, I am the daughter my parents raised, and I will put my family before anything and anybody else, including Delmarr, Helen Rose and a glamorous life in Hollywood. I must find a way to be here, to take comfort in doing my duty." (Trigiani, 2004, p. 301)

Lucia is the youngest child of her family, but she is the strongest. She took the duty as a child when her brothers escaped from it. Lucia's kindness was most obviously presented on her sister-in-law. Due to the unexpected pregnant, Roberto and Rosemary have to marry, so other members were all indifferent to Rosemary when she entered into Lucia's family at first. Only Lucia was enthusiastic to her and helped her adapt to a new family life. Afterwards when the baby Maria Grace died just 2 weeks old, Rosemary was mournful, telling Lucia that she was the only Sartoris member to have embraced the baby and that she thanked Lucia for her cordiality and kindness forever.

C. *Devotional to Lovers*

Lucia ever loved two men-Dante and John. She believes in true love, no matter how many times she was hurt. Once fallen in love with John, Lucia dedicated all her emotion and possessions to John. On account of John being Delmarr's acquaint, Lucia has never asked about his financial issue. She saved 8988.78 dollars during all these years' hard work and gave all of them to John, in order to let John know she was half of this team. She never went on vacations other than the ones with her family, or splurged on jewelry or a car. She made most of her clothes, and the things she couldn't make she bought at Altman's sales with her employee discount. She would keep five hundred dollars in the savings account as a little emergency fund and the rest she put into the down payment for the construction of their dreaming house in Huntington Bay. According to Sartoris tradition, a girl should not have sex relationship with men before marriage, but Lucia gave herself to John ascribed to love. Though Lucia is a little vainglory at times, the shortcoming is pittance comparing to her virtues.

Above all, Lucia is remarkable for feminism about the position of woman in the mid-20th century. Lucia exposes ills of female economic dependence, racial barriers to marriage. She also protests the cultural constrictions that deny women's demand for their energies and intellectual abilities. Trigiani put exciting feminism into Lucia. Trigiani called on all the women "the amelioration of our condition depends on ourselves."

III. LUCIA'S STRUGGLE TO UNFAIRNESS

"Filled with the warmth and humor that have earned Adriana Trigiani hundreds of thousands of devoted readers with her Big Stone Gap trilogy, *Lucia*, *Lucia* also bursts with a New York sensibility that shows the depth and range of this beloved author. As richly detailed as the couture garments Lucia sews, as emotional as the bonds in her big Italian family, it is the story of one woman who believes that in a world brimming with so much promise, she can-and should be able to-have it all." (www.amazon.com, accessed 26/01/2016)

Lucia Lucia is a vivid depiction of female's desire. During a rather long period in the history, women's body has been imprisoned by the social standard. There were a variety of means to constrain their own way of living and limit their freedom, no matter in the East or in the West. Although these methods made women more glamorous and attractive in some degree, at the same time they imprisoned women's body and strengthened their dependence on male power

society. Therefore, in the past rather long years, the female history was a distorted desire-oppressing history. Social order and moral ethics put forward the qualification of elegance, civility, tenderness and consideration etc. According to these requirements, women's real selves have been buried under the magnificent appearance. After women accepted the regulations that their freedom was limited deliberately, their power would gradually shrink and be forgotten. Women were far away from living for their own selves.

For such a lone time, women are located in a relatively inferior position both on the biological meaning and on the social meaning. They were confined at home, giving birth to and bringing up children, providing service for their husbands and doing housework. They do this without even a little payment. They belong to their husbands privately, as well as their possessions. It was advocated that wives and daughters were shameful to work outside and contrary to the traditions. However, the truth is that husbands were expropriating their wives' ability to achieve economic dependence in order to control them and further became the tamed vassal and doll throughout their life, which reminds me of *A Doll's House* by Ibsen. (Wu, 2005, p.71) A new woman should not completely obey the old regulations but to struggle for a independent and brand-new life.

A. *Change of Family Name*

"In the western countries, a married name is the family name adopted by a person upon marriage. In many cultures it is common practice for a person to assume the family name of his or her spouse; this new name typically replaces the maiden name. Brides adopt the last name of the groom. Until the 1970's feminist explosion, few questioned this. Legal documents in various states show most women (roughly eighty-five percent) continue to change names upon marriage. A smaller percentage defer to hyphenation. But why do brides do this? The feminist contingency urges abstention for identity, financial and individualist reasons with scant information explaining why or where this tradition originates." (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/>. accessed 26/01/2016) It is one of the symbols that men have a superior position in the marriage, just like a child following their father's surname. In a scene of Chapter 2, Lucia and Ruth had a fierce dispute on the family name changing problem.

Ruth did not like her future family name Goldfarb and did not want to change hers. Delmarr said she should persuade Harvey to keep her name, Ruth answered, "Fat chance. I could never even bring up the subject. I'm his girl and I'm going to take his name, end of story." This displays Ruth still looked herself as her husband's afflict. In Lucia's mind, Ruth is a brilliant artist, she can draw anything, she has excellent taste and an eye for what works. Delmarr believes she'll be a great designer someday. But all this talk of Harvey and babies makes that seem like a faraway dream, so Lucia is pitiful to lose a talented partner. She feels claustrophobic listening to Ruth talking about children and names. Though we can still sense the helplessness and loneliness of women at that time, Ruth assures Lucia Dante is the kind of guy who would let her to keep her family name. In the inner mind of Lucia, she longed for equal love, but she did not want to lose her right to keep her favorite family name. From then on, Lucia made a determination to marry a man who would allow her to have the right to do what she wanted to do.

B. *Whether to Be a Housewife or Not*

The tuning point of both Lucia's story and the book is the first dinner DeMartinis and Sartoris had, at which they originally planned to discuss about the wedding details. However, it turned into a broken relationship at last. As they began to eat, the chatter was warm and friendly, but when it came to wedding church, there appeared divergence. Lucia wanted to Our lady of Pompeii Church, where she was baptized, while Mrs. DeMartino suggested St. Joseph. The situation became worse when Mrs. DeMartino required Lucia to live with them and help her at home, namely Lucia might become a housewife. She claimed Lucia could sew from her new house instead of having a job. What a ridiculous idea seen from contemporary's prospective! However, this is a normal opinion at the middle of 1950s. "Claudia, my daughter is a career girl. That doesn't mean she won't take care of a home... She has been trained. But she isn't like me and she isn't like you. I have tried to make her realize that a woman has enough to do at home without running to a job... I know it wasn't that long ago that marriages were arranged." (Trigiani, 2004, p.30) Even if Lucia's mother supported daughter's decision and said, she belongs to the advanced women, not the common ones, so she permits her daughter to make the necessary adjustments in her life. Lucia also shouted out women's aspirations of that era, "Things have changed. We want to determine our future. We want a partnership, not a dictatorship."

C. *Defense for Women in Shotgun Marriage*

Moreover, Chapter 3 further indicates how weak and powerless women were, and even are nowadays. Everyone was astounded to hear Lucia's brother Roberto was going to get married with an unknown girl carrying his child. Mrs. Sartori judged it was Rosemary Lancelatti trapped her son because of their family's wealth and reputation. The fact is that Rosemary was too young and innocent to trap anyone. When a girl gets pregnant, the public are intend to accuse her of profligacy. Lucia described Rosemary's helplessness like this, "I've always been taught that gloves are a sign of a true lady, but the bride isn't wearing any. She has no idea what she's in for. Wedding are supposed to be the beginning of new life and love, but I can't see it here. Rosemary was too young to know what she is getting into." (Trigiani, 2004, p.69) During the whole process of wedding, no one paid sympathy on Rosemary except Lucia. Lucia gave her sister-in-law all the carefulness she could give. Afterward when their baby was born, all the family became happy and proud for Rosemary. There is nothing like the moment Maria was born, a new face and hope to Sartoni family. After so

many incidents, Rosemary was accepted and obtained the respect she should own at last. In Lucia's opinion, she wanted to preserve the moment so rare and beautiful, because she knew that the birth of the first child of her eldest brother was an once-in-a-lifetime event. "We go on, I think to myself. We go on and on and on." It was a step in feminism conception.

D. *Shouldering More Duty as a Daughter*

In the last chapter, we can find that some time Lucia did not live a good life. Kit complained that was not fair for her to take care of their mother and that the family should have thanked her or repaid her somehow, but Roberto didn't look at it in that way. A daughter's duty in those days was always to her family. Then Kit asked about Rosemary, Lucia said, "she wasn't in the immediate family. And she's a woman too. I don't believe my brother left anything to her-just the order that the children take excellent care of her. Besides, she had her own mother to look after." When Kit stood and paced, fuming at the injustice. Lucia expressed the sounds of the modern society, "You're of a different generation. These were the rules. I don't like them but I understand them. It all goes back to Italy and the way property is passed down in a family. It's not a good deal for the women, but that's the way it is." (Trigiani, 2004, p.312)

IV. LUCIA'S DESTINY

There are some helpful and feasible theories that can be used to analyze Lucia's personality and destiny, as one of them, Global Feminism is a feminist theory closely associated with postcolonial theory and postcolonial feminism. It considers itself mainly with the forwarding movement of women's rights on a global range. Global feminists proclaim that every woman is faced with all kinds of connections between oppressions during her daily life. In addition, they also emphasize that the oppressions women experience all over the world are connected with each other. As far as a global feminist is concerned, global is local and vice versa. What a woman does in the US affects women's life of other countries. To compensate this, what other countries' women do influence this woman's life too. (Tong, 1998, p.333) Thereby it is meaningful to study about Lucia's personality, efforts she has made and the inevitable direction for her destiny

"Another theory Cultural feminism developed from radical feminism. It is an ideology of a "female nature" or "female essence" that attempts to revalidate what cultural feminists consider underestimated female attributes. It is also a theory that commends the difference of women from men. Its critics assert that because it is based on an essentialist view of the differences between women and men and advocates independence and institution building, it has led feminists to retreat from practicing public politics to a focus upon individual "life-style". (www.kosmix.com, accessed 26/01/2016) Cultural feminism intends to re-estimate the values related to female, create a spiritual space for them and promote female spirits. (Li: 2005, p.77)

A. *Obtainment of Respect and Grace*

Luckily Trigiani does not let the suspension of Lucia's destiny last long. Kit and Lucia converge into one story in the last chapter. Lucia did not lose even a bit of her glamour and charm. On the contrary, after so many experience, good or bad, she is able to look at everything happened in her life quietly. All the villagers respect her in the Greenwich Village. In the eyes of Kit, "She's in her seventies, but has the chic look of New York's older ladies who stay in the moment. Her hair is done, her lipstick is applied in the latest shade of fiery fuchsia, and she wears a vintage Hermes scarf wrapped around her neck and anchored by a sparkly brooch. Aunt Lu is trim and small. Her perfume is spicy and youthful, not flowery like a grandmother's." (Trigiani, 2004, p.3) Only by overcoming difficulties and struggling with injustice can a woman understand how to protect herself and bring her own power into play to be qualified to have a happy life.

On the company of Kit, Lucia agreed to see John. There was no doubt that John did not change at all, slick and confident and full of vinegar. As mentioned above, Lucia deeply knew the principle "You can't keep bad things from happening. And you can take no credit for the good things-they are just luck." Lucia did not regret anything that was happened to her. She did not regret have met John either. She believed she could somehow control the bad thing and turn around things when she is meant to. That's why in the end Lucia got what should belong to her at the earlier time-Dante. They had a date that night, which stands for a new beginning. Lucia won Dante's heart, won Kit's respect and the readers' like. Maybe her triumph is a monument in women's history.

B. *Reunion with Dante*

A woman like Lucia, confident, elegant and optimistic, is born to have a happy ending, in spite of how many tortures and bitter she has experienced. Now we have to refer to Dante, who also appears in the middle of the story. Dante once begged Lucia for many times to save her heart, but in vain. This was the last time Dante went to express his emotion.

'Dante, thank you for being there for all of us. I don't know how to repay you. I don't think there is any way.'

Dante puts his arms around me. 'You're family, Lucia.'

'Almost was.'

'You'll always be my girl. You were from the first moment I saw you. You were sitting in church with your brothers. You were eight years old and I was twelve and I thought, I hope she waits for me. Lucia, I'll wait forever if I have to.'

'You must hate me for the way I broke off our engagement.'

‘How could I hate the girl I used to stare at in church?’ (Trigiani, 2004, p.164)

Many people don't like Trigiani's works, described to the reason that she usually writes a heroine as a princess, having all the beautiful characteristics girls want. But her book fans just like her in this point, because this is how feminism is fully expressed. Women should have a strong heart and live to excellence. In this book, Lucia found Dante was the most suitable to her, while at that time Dante had decided to marry another girl, so she did not mean to scrap another girl's happiness. "I knew that if I told him I wanted him, he would probably drop Juliana Fabrizi and return to my arms. He's waiting for me to say the word but I'm not going to. I will not hurt him again." Above all, Lucia is such a kind girl that even if sacrificing her own future, she will make sure of other's happiness. A kind and hard working girl like Lucia is worth having her own happiness and a true lover.

V. CONCLUSION

Nowadays female writers attract more attention and spotlight in the publish field. Though a minority writer, Trigiani puts a vivid and cordial girl image in front of our readers through detailed description of plots and the relationship between Lucia and people around her. During the past years, what we have done is not enough to carefully analyze women's spirit world. Feminism requires us to look at the protagonist from her standpoint and the author's standpoint. Lucia is not only the most beautiful girl, but also a strong and independent woman. This personality determines her to have an uncommon life. She experienced a lot of sufferance and bitterness, and grew to be a mature real woman. Though not so smooth in her love and family, with so many incidents happening on her, Lucia has never given up hope and optimism. This is the real feminism Trigiani advocates: taking care of yourself. God helps those women who really live by heart. Lucia is qualified to have a happy life through her own struggle. To sum up, it is easy to give the conclusion that looking from the feminism perspective, Lucia's personality is significant to the story. It provides a window for reader so to see this novel deeper and fuller.

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Ph. D. Instructors' and Students' Insights into the Validity of the New Iranian TEFL Ph. D. Program Entrance Exam

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Abstract—Owing to their scope, and decisiveness, Ph. D. program entrance exams (PPEE) ought to demonstrate acceptable reliability and validity. The current study aims to examine the reliability and validity of the new Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) PPEE from the perspective of both university professors and Ph. D. students. To this end, in-depth unstructured interviews were conducted with ten experienced TEFL university professors from four different Iranian state universities along with ten Ph. D. students who sat both the new and old PPEEs. A detailed content analysis of the data suggested that the new exam was assumed to establish acceptable reliability through standardization and consistency in administration and scoring procedures. Conversely, the new exam was perceived to demonstrate defective face, content, predictive, and construct validities. This study further discusses the significance and implications of the findings in the context of Iranian TEFL higher education.

Index Terms—reliability, validity, TEFL Ph. D. programs, University entrance exams, instructors, Ph. D. students

I. INTRODUCTION

Social and educational accomplishments have been firmly tied up with obtaining Ph. D. degree in Iranian context due to the fact that it paves the way for procuring the highest educational degree and consequently reputable jobs. Records of more than 216000 and 240000 applicants sitting the Ph. D. program entrance exam (PPEE) for state universities in 2013 and 2014 respectively (Sanjesh, 2014) are indicative of substantially increasing number of applicants aspiring to qualify for such decisive programs. Despite the annually increasing number of Iranian universities offering Ph. D. programs, administrative limitations are still prevalent in Iranian context. The imbalance between the number of the PPEE applicants and matriculated Ph.D. students, accordingly, has highlighted the sensitivity and significance of such a high-stakes exam and has aroused mounting concerns about it among the applicants and other stakeholders.

Planning and administering Iranian PPEE involved critical modifications in 2012 when the Iranian Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology (IMSRT) resolved to launch a new PPEE in an attempt to pursue educational fairness, to reduce extravagant costs for setting the PPEE, and to admit highly qualified Ph. D. students from all around the country (ISNA, 2012). To this end, universities were deprived from their monopoly on the development and administration of PPEEs, and Sanjesh Organization, a subsidiary of IMSRT, was instead charged with planning, developing, and administering the new PPEEs in national scope. As far as the exam is concerned, two dramatic changes effected were replacing essay type items in the old PPEEs with most radically objective multiple choice ones along with including a number of questions measuring the logical and mathematical intelligences of the new PPEE's applicants. The incentives behind such amendments were to resort to uniform administrative and scoring procedures to achieve the 'educational fairness' through the provision of equal chance of admission.

Such a sensitive and high-stakes exam inarguably needs to demonstrate considerable levels of reliability and validity. From the classical true score (CTS) perspective, reliability is defined as the correlation between the observed scores on two distinct sets of measurement and is measured through internal consistency, stability, and equivalence approaches (Bachman, 1990). This stipulation indicates the empirical nature of reliability. A fundamental concern in investigating reliability, however, is to identify potential sources of error in a given measure and subsequently minimize the effects of such factors on that measure (Bachman, 1990). In CTS all factors other than the ability being measured are considered to be random sources of error, that is, it treats all measurement errors to be unsystematic and unpredictable factors to be minimized. As delineated in CTS, testees' performance on a test, varies as a function of the ability being measured and error including individual attributes of test takers and systematic test method facets. Test method facets are categorized into five groups by Bachman (1990) including the testing environment, the test rubric, the nature of the input the test taker receives, the nature of the expected response to that input, and the relationship between input and response. Despite the statistical nature of reliability, it "may best be addressed by considering a number of factors that may

contribute to the unreliability of a test” (Brown, 2004, p.20). In other words, identification and minimization of the potential impacts of systematic and unsystematic errors can boost the reliability of a given test (Bachman, 1990; Henning, 1987; Neiman, 2011).

Validity has been conventionally classified into content, criterion, and construct validity. Measurement experts, nevertheless, have come to view these as complementary types of evidence to be accumulated in the process of construct validation (see Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Henning, 1987; Johnson, 2001; Messick, 1988). Instead of positing a sliced view of validity, it is defined as a unitary concept which concerns interpretation and use of the information gathered through the testing procedure (Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Messick 1998; Messick, 1992). Messick (1988) argues that viewing different approaches to validation as separate lines of evidence to support a given score interpretation is inadequate. The main processes of validation involve theoretical and operational definition of the constructs of concern, formulating hypothesis regarding the relationship between constructs and other factors interacting with them such as test method facets, and empirically verifying or falsifying the hypothesis through the accumulated correlational or experimental evidences (Bachman, 1990). As products of test scores, such quantitative approaches to construct validation, however, serve critical limitations in view of the fact that they provide no means to scrutinize the underlying processes of test taking (Cohen, 1984; Rezvani, 2010). Hence, language testing researchers have recently begun to take qualitative research into service in order to have more insightful understanding of what test takers actually do when they take tests and what actually tests measure, which has a great deal of potential for providing evidence for construct validation (Weir, 2005). In some cases it may be more appropriate to investigate the appropriacy and adequacy of a test content relevance and coverage in relation to intended course and performance through qualitative examination of experts’ insights (Brown, 2004; Fulcher, 2010; Purpura, 1998; weir, 2005). Similar procedures are worthwhile to accumulate evidence to examine potential threats to the validity of test score interpretation and use (Messick, 1992).

Reliability and validity of a test are two most critical characteristics of any tests which are in direct line with the import of the decisions to be made based on the test results (Bachman, 1990; Chapelle & Brindley, 2002; Hamp-Lyons & Lynch, 1998), that is, the higher the stakes of a test, the more the significance of validation. Accordingly, examining the reliability and validity of a critically sensitive and high-stakes exam like PPEE is of profound significance. Thus, the present study was motivated to explore the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE from the viewpoints of Iranian Ph. D. students and university instructors.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The terms reliability and validity have undergone major conceptual changes over the past decades. Given the fact that the goal of the present paper is to investigate the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE from the viewpoints of Ph. D. students and university instructors, a brief review of these conceptual changes could be of noticeable import. Traditionally viewing, reliability refers to the consistency of measurement from one occasion to another. In objectively scored tests such as multiple choice tests, reliability is basically usually estimated by internal consistency which determines how well the items on a test correlate with each other, whereas in subjectively scored tests such as essays or oral proficiency interviews inter-rater and intra-rater reliability estimation methods are employed (Johnson, 2001). On the other hand, more recent views on the concept of reliability represent it as a broad model which is grounded on the basis of various factors affecting performance of individuals on a given test (Bachman, 1990).

In spite of an ongoing debate on how validity should be defined, one can identify two major periods in the literature concerning the concept of validity in language testing marked by the publication of Messick’s (1989) seminal work on validity. These two periods can be labeled as the ‘pre-Messick’ and the ‘post-Messick’. The pre-Messick definition of validity is primarily associated with different types of validity, such as content validity, criterion related validity, and construct validity. Messick’s (1989) approach to defining validity, nevertheless, set forth an alternative delineation of validity where he asserts that “validity is an integrated evaluative judgment of the degree to which empirical evidence and theoretical rationales support the adequacy and appropriateness of inferences and actions based on test scores” (Messick, 1989, P. 3). The key point of the post-Messick conceptualization of validity can be captured in a unified but multifaceted concept (Johnson, 2001).

Test validation is immensely significant for all test users because “accepted practices of the validation are critical to decisions about what constitutes a good language test for a particular situation” (Chapelle, 1999, p.254). Accordingly, review of assessment literature is highlighted by countless studies on examining reliability and validity of numerous proficiency, aptitude, knowledge, and placement tests (see for example, Carlson et al., 1985; Chi, 2011; Compton, 2011; Dandonolli & Henning 1990; Drollinger et al., 2006; Eda et al., 2008; Greenberg, 1986; Johnson, 2001; Magnan, 1987; Patterson & Ewing, 2013; Sabers & Feldt, 1968; Stansfield & Kenyon, 1992; Thompson 1995; Zhao, 2013). The sensitivity and significance of university entrance exams (UEE), especially in countries where UEEs are perceived as the sole gateways to qualify for university programs, have remarkably necessitated undertaking numerous in-depth inquiries on their reliability and validity around the world (see for example, Frain, 2009; Hissbach et al., 2011; Ito, 2012; Kirkpatrick & Hlaing, 2013). Kirkpatrick and Hlaing (2013), for instance, sought to examine the reliability and validity of the English section of the Myanmar UEE and came to the point that the exam suffered from poor construct and content validity leading to negative washback with regard to learning and teaching. Similarly, Ito (2012) conducted a

validation study on the English language test in the Japanese Nationwide University Entrance Examination and concluded that unlike other tests which enjoyed satisfactory validity, paper-pencil pronunciation subtest suffered from low validity with almost no significant contribution to the total test score. Frain (2009) also examined Korean first year university students before and after sitting the university entrance exams and came to the conclusion that the exam did not properly screen and predict the students communicative competence.

Examining UEEs has also been subject to discussion and research in Iranian higher education context (see e.g. Mahmoudi & Abu Bakr, 2013, Razavipur, 2014; Rezvani & Sayyadi, 2014, Salehi, 2012, Kazemi & Sayyadi, 2014). For instance, the washback effect of UUEs on applicants' motivation (e.g. Kazemi and Sayyadi, 2014), applicants' study plans and strategies (e.g. Rezvani & Sayyadi, 2014), applicants' quality of English learning (e.g. Salehi, 2012; Mahmoudi & Abu Bakr, 2013), teachers' pedagogical strategies (e.g. Salehi & Yunus, 2012; Ramezaney, 2014), and teachers' curricular planning (Ramezaney, 2014), among others, have been pursued recently. The washback effect of the new TEFL Ph. D. program entrance exam on the applicants' study plans and strategies was investigated in a recent comparative inquiry by Rezvani and Sayyadi (2014). That the applicants who sat the old PPEE were required to provide comprehensive and elaborate answers to essentially essay type questions, underscores the requirement to develop and maintain analytic, synthetic and evaluative qualities and capabilities on the part of the applicants. However, the introduction and dominance of multiple choice PPEEs has obviated the need to possess such capacities calling for applicants' lower cognitive abilities of comprehension and recall of information crammed, as argued by Rezvani and Sayyadi (2014).

To conclude, review of the related literature indicates that the reliability and validity of Iranian high-stakes exams have been under-researched. This is more acute when PPEE is a concern. Given its sensitivity, recency, and scope, the present study sought to examine the Iranian TEFL PPEE's reliability and validity from the standpoint of Ph. D. students and university instructors.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

It seems that no published study has been conducted in order to examine the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE as a critically decisive gate-keeping exam. Thus, the present validation study seeks to examine these two crucial considerations validity from the viewpoints of the instructors and Ph.D. students.

IV. METHOD

The current study is a qualitative examination of the new Iranian TEFL PPEE's reliability and validity from the standpoint of Ph. D. students and university teachers.

A. Participants and Sampling Method

As argued by Guba and Lincoln (1981), "sampling [in qualitative research] is almost never representative or random but purposive, intended to exploit competing views and fresh perspectives as fully as possible" (p. 276). Accordingly, the current study employed a snowball sampling procedure, a variation on purposive sampling, where the initially selected participants suggested some further informants who could be appropriate for the intended sample.

The selected participants were ten experienced Iranian instructors and ten Iranian TEFL Ph. D. students. The first group of subjects included ten university instructors currently teaching at four different Iranian universities, that is, Shiraz, Esfahan, Sheikh-Bahaie, and Shahre-kord Universities. From among the instructors taking part in the study, six instructors had the experience of teaching both TEFL M. A. and Ph. D. courses and four instructors had taught only M. A. courses. The instructors had at least four years of teaching experience at universities and aged between 43 and 56. Of the instructors, three were females and seven were males. Table 1 summarizes the demographic information of the interviewed instructors.

TABLE 1:
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE INTERVIEWED INSTRUCTORS

No	Name*	Age	Gender	M. A. teaching experience	Ph. D. teaching experience	Current university
1	Maryam	48	Female	6 years	4 years	Shiraz
2	Meysm	54	Male	13 years	10 years	Shiraz
3	Hamid	46	Male	7 years	5 years	Shiraz
4	Mansur	45	Male	7 years	4 years	Shiraz
5	Nader	44	Male	4 years	–	Shahre-Kord
6	Ahmad	43	Male	4 years	–	Shahre-Kord
7	Javid	50	Male	9 years	6 years	Esfahan
8	Samira	48	Female	7 years	5 years	Esfahan
9	Adel	44	Male	5 years	–	Sheikh-Bahaie
10	Simin	45	Female	5 years	–	Sheikh-Bahaie

Note: The names are fictitious.

A total of ten applicants, 6 females and 4 males, pointed to by the interviewed professors were accessed and interviewed. They were all Ph. D. students who sat both the new and old TEFL PPEE themselves. Of the students

interviewed, four were in their twenties and the rest were in their thirties. Table 2 illustrates the demographic information of the TEFL Ph. D. students taking part in the study.

TABLE 2:
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF THE INTERVIEWED STUDENTS

No	Name*	Age	Gender	Ph. D. university
1	Mahmud	28	Male	Tabriz
2	Saeed	29	Male	Shiraz
3	Parvin	31	Female	Shiraz
4	Zahra	34	Female	Shiraz
5	Amin	32	Male	Shiraz
6	Narges	29	Female	Esfahan
7	Nahid	31	Female	Esfahan
8	Reza	28	Male	Esfahan
9	Razieh	35	Female	Tehran
10	Elham	30	Female	Chamran University of Ahvaz

Note: The names are fictitious.

B. Instrumentation

In line with the objectives of the study, semi-structured interviews were utilized to elicit the interviewees' views and reflections about the new TEFL PPEE. To assure the comprehensibility and quality of the interview questions, they were piloted with two instructors and students with comparable characteristics. They were not included in the main study.

C. Data Accumulation Procedure

The interview questions were developed and asked in English. The participants, however, had a choice of responding in Persian or English. Interviews were conducted individually by one of the researchers and took ten to twenty minutes. They were all recorded using an mp3 player with the permission of the interviewees. Once the data were accumulated, they were transcribed into written texts and then analyzed. To ensure the trustworthiness of the findings, intensive care was taken to avoid bias through employing a prolonged and persistent field-work and accounting for participants' language verbatim accounts meticulously documented as recommended by McMillan and Schumacher (2006). When the responses were in Persian, the statements were carefully rendered into English. In addition, the researchers frequently used member checking to check the data informally with the participants for accuracy during the interviews, and were sensitive to discrepant data that did not conform to the emerging patterns.

D. Data Analysis Procedure

Researchers conducting qualitative scrutiny on the data accumulated through interviews have widely advocated interpretation of the collected data thorough content analysis (Elo & Kyngas, 2008). Accordingly, constant comparative content analysis, as suggested by Glaser and Strauss (1967), was employed in the process of data analysis to code the transcribed interviews involving an inductive reasoning process of frequent sifting through the data to identify similarities and patterns of reference in the interview transcripts. Detailed analyses of the similarities and patterns subsequently gave rise to the emergence of an evolving coding system for the categories. The units of analysis and coding schemes, more specifically, were defined and developed during the process of the content analysis; then, the codes were transformed into categorical labels or themes that were repeated or appeared as patterns in the interviews. This iterative procedure, according to Patton (2002), is intended to help the researchers in "developing some manageable classification or coding scheme" as "the first step of analysis" (p. 463). Data analysis proceeded incrementally and once the coherence and saturation of the data were accomplished, conclusions were drawn based on the analyzed data.

V. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

In-depth analysis of the students' and instructors' insights on the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE led to the emergence of the coding schemes and thematic categorizations illustrated in Table 3.

TABLE 3.
MAJOR CATEGORIES, THEMES, AND CODING SCHEMES

The new TEFL PPEE	Theme	Code
Reliability	Administration consistency	T1
	Scoring consistency	T2
	Standardization	T3
	No bias	T4
Validity	Defective face validity	T5
	Defective content validity	T6
	Defective predictive validity	T7
	Defective construct validity	T8

A. *The Reliability of New PPEE*

1. *Instructors' insights*

Close examination of the instructors' perceptions was indicative of their sanguine attitudes towards the reliability of the new TEFL PPEE. In other words, the new PPEE, in the instructors' view points, has demonstrated a high degree of reliability on account of controlling factors which lead to its unreliability. Nader, for instance, was of the opinion that the new exam has demonstrated an improved level of reliability in comparison to the old exam and argued that:

- "One considerable advantage of the new exam over the old one is its improved degree of reliability due to employing consistent administration and scoring procedures. The old Ph. D. exams were scored by university instructors who could make unfair evaluations of the exams which were planned in essay type questions and called for subjective evaluations. Standardization and nationalization of the new exam, however, have necessitated taking the advantage of a more systematic and fair scoring procedure which could significantly boost the reliability of an exam", (translated by the researchers).

Samira, Maryam, Hamid, and Javid also reflected on 'consistent administration' (T1) and 'scoring procedures' (T2) as the major grounds for the satisfactory degree of reliability in the new PPEE. Maryam more specifically viewed T1 and T2 as "the main reasons to regard the new PPEE fair" and asserted that "I favor the new exam format [including more objective items] because ... [it] is more consistent in terms of the criteria". Moreover, Javid cited that:

- "The positive points regarding the new exam are the uniform scoring procedure utilized and also [the] attempts [made] to develop consistent administration environments. As you know, testing time and environment are two important test method facets which significantly impact the reliability of a test. Fortunately, the new exam, unlike the old one, has been administrated in uniform[day] times with constant time allocations, and [the] applicants are not required to sit the new exam in environments with varying degrees of familiarity. In other words, unlike the past when some students had to go to other cities [other universities] to sit the Ph. D. exam, everyone can sit the new exam in his [own] city", (interviewee's wording).

Furthermore, Adel drew on T1 as well as standardization of the new exam (T3) as the reasons why the new exam demonstrates no bias (T4). More elaborately put, he asserted that:

- "To me, the new exam is fair because it is planned in a standardized way, that is, it provides methods of obtaining samples of behaviour under uniform procedures. Systematized scoring procedures also enhance the new exam's capacity in demonstrating no bias", (interviewees wording).

2. *Students' insights*

Apart from benefiting from the remarks of the instructors on the reliability of the new exam, the viewpoints of the Ph. D. students were sought and subjected to scrutiny. An analysis of the students' responses to the interview questions which concerned the reliability of the new exam indicated that their perceptions were remarkably congruent with the instructors', and that they deemed the new TEFL PPEE a highly reliable exam. It is also worth mentioning that its consistency in administration and scoring procedures were the main grounds the students evidenced, not unlike the instructors, in their comments and assertions. More simply put, from among the 10 students, 7 students highlighted administration and scoring consistency as the priming features of the new TEFL PPEE enhancing its reliability. Amin for instance, argued that:

- "Administration of the new exam by a dependable organization in charge along with avoidance of subjective evaluations through utilization of a uniform scoring procedure without human interference have changed the pessimistic looks towards the Ph. D. entrance exams. The new exam is more reliable than the old one, I suppose", (translated by the researchers).

Nahid was also of the opinion that the new exam has demonstrated an improved degree of reliability. More specifically put, she stated that "to me, the new exam is perceived to demonstrate a high level of reliability because it is set under uniform administration procedures". Concurring with Nahid, Raziieh reflected further on T1 as her main justification for viewing the new PPEE as a noticeably reliable exam and argued that:

- "One advantage of the new exam is that it gives all applicants the same chance to sit an exam with uniform format, testing time, test rubrics, time allocations, criteria for correctness and expected response. As a matter of the fact, controlling such facets under a uniform condition immensely improves reliability of a test", (respondent's wording).

In addition, Mahmud pointed at T2 and T4 as the foundations on which the fairness, and consequently the high reliability of the new exam are built and asserted that:

- "Fortunately, raters' bias and misevaluations do not violate the reliability of Ph. D. exams any more. I sat the old exam three times and despite my great performance in each exam, I could not qualify for the Ph. D. programs due to unfair scoring procedures employed, I suppose", (respondent's words).

In addition, Reza assumed that the new exam, unlike the old one, has controlled some of the factors which make the applicants perform differently under differing conditions including testing times and consistent test rubrics. He also pointed at T4 and argued that:

- "Familiarity of all Ph. D. applicants with the new exam's format creates an enormous opportunity to avoid test bias. To put it more simply, applicants' prior experience of sitting B. A. and M. A. program entrance exams which were developed in similar multiple choice formats awards them with similar degrees of familiarity with the new Ph. D. exam.

However, applicants sitting the old exam used to demonstrate varying levels of familiarity with responding essay type questions in such critical moments”, (translated by the researchers).

B. *The Validity of New PPEE*

Although the respondents expressed quite positive attitudes towards the reliability of the new TEFL PPEE, both instructors and students called the validity of the new exam into critical questions. In what follows their comments will be reviewed.

1. *Instructors' insights*

As regards the interview questions which concerned the validity of the new TEFL PPEE, a detailed examination of the instructors' responses revealed that the new exam suffers from defective face validity (T5), content validity (T6), predictive validity (T7), and construct validity (T8).

Face validity of an exam concerns the degree to which a test appears as if it measures the knowledge or abilities it claims to measure (Bachman, 1990; Johnson, 2001; Hughes, 1989) and is upheld on the basis of the subjective judgments of observers (Ary et al., 2006; Richards & Schmidt, 2002). In regard to the new TEFL PPEE, three of the instructors viewed the new exam's format as a factor violating the sound evaluation and interpretation of the applicants' potential capabilities. Amin, for instance, concisely stated that “filtering Ph. D. applicants through multiple choice exams is a disaster”. His critical comment is also similarly represented in Simin's evaluative view when she commented:

- “Although planning the Ph. D. exam in multiple choice formats improves administration and scoring procedures of the exam, it indeed hinders efficient filtering of applicants. Students' capacities to evaluate and analyze content matters are of fundamental considerations in Ph. D. programs and unfortunately it is impossible to evaluate such capacities through multiple choice exams”, (translated by the researchers).

A more careful examination of Simin's viewpoint calls attention to the new exam's flaw in predicting efficiently the applicants' expected future performance in Ph. D. programs (T7). Nader correspondingly pointed at the defective predictive validity of the new exam and pointed out that:

- “Ph. D. students are supposed to make future university teachers, and as you know, a university teacher should demonstrate more complex capacities than surface knowledge of technical contents acquired through memorization. In other words, a university teacher and in particular a teacher of M. A. courses should possess analytic capabilities. Unfortunately, the new exam's features in format, content and criteria are indicative of the fact that Ph. D. student admissions through the new exam does not ensure educating and training highly qualified and analytic teachers”, (translated by the researchers).

A close analysis of Ph. D. instructors' views on how well the new exam has been able to predict efficiently matriculates' performance as Ph. D. students provides a more accurate view of the new exam's predictive validity. An interesting and common theme, or better concern, emerging from the issues raised by the instructors' of both M.A. and Ph.D. courses concerned its inadequate predictive power. Javid, for instance, complained about its admission of proficiently poor Ph. D. students and favored the old PPEE because, in his view, the old system used to create a more reasonable chance of admitting more qualified Ph. D. students with specific reference to their own policies, expectations, and capacities. Meysam, furthermore, stated that:

- “You know, the Ph. D. students who come and follow the studies are really weak. It shows that the exam is not actually filtering out good students. That is why I believe it has affected the students that we admit”, (respondent's wording).

Content validity concerns “demonstrating that a test is relevant...to a given area of content ability” (Bachman, 1990, P. 224). The new exam, however, was perceived by four of the instructors to employ questions partly irrelevant to the expected area of ability. They concurrently questioned the relevance of intelligence items included in the new exam as the main source of defective content validity of the new TEFL PPEE. Meysam, for instance, argued that:

- “The new one is multiple choice, as you know, and they have included other stuffs such as intelligence parts which might not be relevant at all because for Ph. D. students this is not really important”, (respondent's words).

Samira also criticized the inclusion of intelligence questions in the new PPEE and stated that:

- “I really do not know why such questions should be included in a high-stakes and sensitive exam like Ph. D. exam. They actually evaluate applicants' mathematical intelligence which has nothing in common with their linguistic intelligence”, (respondent's wording).

Construct validity of a test “concerns the extent to which performance on the test is consistent with predications that we make on the basis of a theory of abilities, or construct” (Bachman 1988, p. 51). Two of the instructors were of the opinion that the new TEFL PPEE does not measure what it has to. In other words, the new exam calls for a set of performances which are not consistent with the instructors' expectations of Ph. D. students' required cognitive behaviors. Close examination of Simin's view highlights discrepancy between the abilities which ought to be measured.

- “Students' capacities to evaluate and analyze content matters are of fundamental considerations in Ph. D. programs and unfortunately it is impossible to evaluate such capacities through multiple choice exams. The new exam actually measures applicants' capabilities in recall of memorized knowledge which is of limited significance in Ph. D. programs”, (translated by the researchers).

Meysam also assumed defective construct validity for the new exam and argued that “we do not know what really goes in the minds of people who develop Ph. D. questions because they actually measure some trivial traits”.

2. Students' insights

Analysis of the students' attitudes towards the new TEFL PPEE revealed that the new exam, as they assumed, is demonstrative of defective face, predictive, and content validities. From among the students, two students believed that the new exam's format does not seem pertinent to effective filtering of students. Saeed, for instance, cited that "multiple choice exams do not serve enough discriminative traits to filter Ph. D. applicants effectively". Nahid also attributed the poor proficiency level of Ph. D. students to the new exam's format. She stated specifically that:

- "Unfortunately, my teachers are not satisfied with the general and technical proficiency levels of the Ph. D. students admitted through the new exam in recent years. They are frequently emphasizing that the students admitted through the old system were of higher levels of proficiency because the teachers themselves used to have direct observations and control on test planning and students admissions. If it is true, it can be because of the new exam's format, I suppose. The utilized multiple choice questions make students limit themselves to memorizing trivial details such as abbreviations. And as you know, rote learning is subject to forgetting. I can remember my first days in Ph. D. programs. I could not remember most of technical content matters because I had just memorized them earlier. It was really embarrassing. I had no justifications to offer when I claimed something in classrooms because I had just easily memorized some sentences", (respondent's wording).

Examination of Nahid's perceptions about the impact of the new exam on the technical proficiency levels of the matriculates along with her teachers' assumptions about the recently admitted Ph. D. students could be demonstrative of not only defective face validity but also defective predictive validity of the new exam.

Frequent references were made to the intelligent questions by four of the students, not unlike the instructors, when they commented about the debatable content validity of the new exam. They concurrently argued that the intelligence questions recently utilized in the new PPEEs are substantially irrelevant to the general and technical contents to be measured in the exam. Razieh, for example, challenging its content validity, asserted that:

- "My second experience of sitting Ph. D exam coincided with the first administration of the Ph. D. exam in its new form. I had no presumption of the intelligence tests. I have unfortunately always been terrible at mathematics, and it was really an embarrassing moment when I encountered such questions. Believe it or not, I thought I was taking an exam other than TEFL exam", (respondent's wording).

Elaborating on the distinctions between the question types used in the old and new PPEE, Narges cast doubt on the relevance of intelligence items and asserted that:

- "There was another type of tests [in the new exam] called IQ tests. We had several texts in Persian and then several questions posed on each text, and then questions like mathematics which needed calculation. Finding relevance between such questions and what we were supposed to know was a big dilemma for me (respondent's wording)."

Ensuring the reliability and validity as the most fundamental characteristics of a test is the primary concern in test development and use (Chapelle, 1999; Neiman, 2011; Zhang et al., 2013). The expected magnitudes of reliability and validity have direct relation with the significance of the decision to be made based on the test results (Ary et al., 2006; Bachman, 1990; Cohen et al., 2007). Owing to the scope and sensitivity of the decisions to be made based on the applicants' performance on Ph. D. exams, the new TEFL PPEE ought to procure a high degree of reliability and validity. A close examination of the instructors' and students' insights on the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE revealed that both parties of interest, who were practically and intimately in touch with the exam culture, expressed rather disparate views towards the reliability and validity of the new exam.

Given the format of the new PPEE, the participants' perceptions of the new exam suggested an acceptable degree of reliability for its tendency and potential to avoid previously prevalent bias in the old exams through standardization and consistency in administration and scoring procedures. This stance is in line with the general perspectives on more objective multiple choice exams in the literature (e.g. Cronbach, 1980; Dandonolli & Henning, 1990; Haladyna 2004; Johnson, 2001) where objectivity, ease of scoring, and higher consistency are the qualities attributed to multiple choice exams. It is worth pointing the fact that examinees' performances on tests vary as a function of their competencies and characteristics of the test methods. As a matter of the fact, controlling and minimizing the potential impacts of test methods could serve as a booster of test reliability (Bachman, 1990). Bachman's (1990) framework of test method facets presents a set of test characteristics which can potentially influence one's performance on a given test. The research findings in the present study demonstrated that controlling the potential effects of a set of test method facets including scoring procedure, testing time, test format and rubrics, expected response, and time allocations have been a critical consideration in the development of the new Ph. D. exams. These provisions enhanced the reliability of the exam and hence the respondents' technical attitudes.

As regards the validity of the new TEFL PPEE, the present researchers sought to accumulate and interpret complementary sorts of evidence and did not limit their investigations to collecting factual evidence on one type of validity as suggested by Messick (1992). The new exam's defective format and content relevance along with its limited capacity in predicting Ph. D. matriculates' intended behaviors on the basis of well-theorized and well-researched ability characterization were the grounds the participants reflected upon to underline the arguably low validity of the new exam. Simply put, participants' views on different aspects of the new exam were suggestive of the new TEFL PPEE's deficiency in face, content, predictive, and construct validities. In accordance with Haladyna (2004) who set the item development as the primary and most fundamental source of evidence in validating an exam, the results emerging from

the participants' views reflect the substandard item development and consequently the undesirable validity of the new exam.

Moreover, the findings concerning the defective construct validity of the new exam reinforce the findings of Rezvani and Sayyadi (2014) in another study on the new TEFL PPEE where they concluded that the development of the new exam on the basis of inappropriate competency definitions has negatively affected the study plans and strategies the TEFL Ph. D. applicants bring into service in order to prepare for the exam. In other words, it was argued that tapping into their knack of recalling memorized data instead of their ability to make evaluative judgments provokes the applicants to tailor their study plans and strategies towards comprehending and memorizing details to tackle the Ph. D. exam objective questions.

Administration of educational fairness, reduction of extravagant costs for setting the PPEE, and admission of highly qualified Ph. D. students were the IMSRT's main incentives behind the development of the new PPEE (ISNA, 2012). The new exam's tendency to avoid bias through establishing consistency in administration and scoring procedures along with minimizing certain factors which are substantially potential of fluctuating the applicants' performance has appreciably enhanced its level of reliability. It appears that such convincing and advantageous qualities have served the IMSRT to achieve its first goal of developing PPEEs in their new form, that is, consistency in administration and scoring procedures along with the reduced bias in the new exam have apparently administered a nation-wide educational fairness. On the contrary, the participants' insights regarding the predictive validity of the new exam might raise concerns about the IMSRT's policies to truly admitting academically qualified Ph. D. students as the primest goal. It seems that the admission of competent Ph. D. students through efficient filtering exams is what counts most for universities, and the recently framed policies and plans translated and operationalized in the development and administration of the PPEEs have failed to fulfill such an overriding aim. Defective face, content, and construct validities were the other attributes about which the respondents voiced concerns. More succinctly, it might legitimately be reasoned to presume that the new PPEE developed under IMSRT's supervision is perceived to be fairly reliable but defectively valid. It is argued that the reliability of a test is not a consideration when the test is not valid (Bachman, 1990; Johnson, 2001; Messick, 1989). Therefore, it might be quite justifiable to regard the new exam's fair degree of reliability to be overshadowed by its incapacity to predict effectively the applicants' future performance through taking the advantage of questions developed based on clear constructs characterization, with content relevance and appropriacy.

VI. CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

This study sought to qualitatively investigate university instructors' and Ph. D. students' insights on the reliability and validity of the new TEFL PPEE. The results generated from a careful content analysis of the accumulated data suggested that the new exam is perceived to produce a fair degree of reliability due to attempts made to minimize the impacts of the potentially adverse factors. Standardization, reduced bias, and consistency in administration and scoring procedures were among the advancements leading to the exam's acceptable level of reliability. The new exam nevertheless was believed to demonstrate defective face, content, predictive, and construct validities. In the respondents' views, the new exam has failed to predict Ph. D. matriculates' intended future performance on the basis of a well-thought-out ability characterization, a properly designed format, and more profound questions with adequate content relevance and coverage.

The results of the study might raise the policy makers' and test developers' awareness about how reliable and valid the newly designed TEFL PPEE is viewed by two prime parties of interest directly in touch with it. It is suggested to draw upon the views and expertise of TEFL assessment experts and university instructors of Ph.D. courses to pursue a more scientifically profound PPEE development approach involving better construct characterization along with more accountable format and content determination.

VII. LIMITATIONS AND RESEARCH SUGGESTIONS

The examination of PPEE reliability additionally calls for undertaking empirical analysis drawing on numerical data systematically accumulated, presently unavailable. Though recommended, it should be acknowledged as one of the limitations of the study that the researchers heuristically pondered upon only the respondents' views on the exams' reliability and validity. The study was also limited in its scope. Examining a larger sample, perhaps through more quantitative approaches would provide more comprehensive and complementary validation evidence of the exam. Meanwhile, considering the likely effects such a sensitive exam may have on different stakeholders, it might be fruitful to examine the washback effects of the new PPEE on the applicants and university instructors from various aspects. To scrutinize the validity of the exam from a different perspective, it may be worthwhile to set the predictive utility as the evidence supporting the validity of the exam through examining correlations between matriculates' performance on the new PPEE and their scores on the future exams in Ph. D. programs.

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The Effect of Textual Enhancement Technique on Incidental Learning of Idiomatic Expressions of Iranian Intermediate Students

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Abstract—One of the techniques affecting incidental learning is using textual enhancement. This study was conducted in order to see whether textual enhancement positively affects incidental learning of idiomatic expressions. To do so, a quasi-experimental study with pretest-posttest control group design was carried out. The participants were 40 Iranian intermediate learners selected via convenient sampling and were randomly assigned to control and experimental groups, 20 participants in each. Before the treatment, Idiom Knowledge Scale (IKS) test, taken from Wesche and Paribakht's (1996) was administered to both groups, as pretest. Then the experimental group was exposed to idioms presented with four different textual enhancement techniques (color-coded, bolded, italic and sticky papers). After the treatment, IKS, was again administered to the groups, as posttest. The results of data analysis through ANCOVA indicated that the experimental group outperformed the control group and that the implementation of textual techniques could enhance the incidental idiom learning.

Index Terms—textual enhancement, incidental learning, idiomatic expressions

I. INTRODUCTION

Learning idioms can be considered as an integral part of vocabulary learning. Textual enhancement (TE) has been defined by Nassaji and Fotos (2011) as "an external attention drawing device whereby any particular feature of the oral or written input can be made perceptually salient to L2 learners in a planned way so that they can notice the targeted forms without any explicit metalinguistic explanation" (p. 41) (as cited in Jahan, and Kormos, 2015). Burke (1998) claims that "knowledge of slang and idioms is fundamental to nonnative speakers' understanding of the language that native speakers actually use" (p. 5) (as cited in Jessica, Rodriguez, 2013). Considering the large portion of idioms in any discourse, one can claim that idiom learning is a challenging task for language learners. One of the problems of language learners is, after attending many English classes for some years, not being able to use idioms naturally as natives do. Perhaps, one of the reasons for this problem is the approaches utilized to teach them. The learners need some novel methods that makes them interested in idiom learning, change the mood of the class positively, and also stimulate their learning process at the same time (Huyen & Nga, 2003).

According to Decarrico (2001) "learning occurs when the mind is focused elsewhere, such as on understanding a text or using language for communicative purposes" (p. 289) (as cited in Tanimi, 2015). A great portion of lexical items in first language (L1) and second language (L2) is acquired incidentally (Hulstijn, 2003). So there seems to be a need to provide opportunities for greater incidental idiomatic expressions learning in the classroom.

In 1981, Sharwood Smith presented the technique of *consciousness-raising* as an attempt to solve second/foreign language teaching/learning problems that appeared in focus on forms approaches. *Consciousness-raising* means that the language teacher tries to raise the language learners' consciousness of the new target form(s). However, the syllabus was still synthetic (Rutherford & Sharwood Smith, 1989; Sharwood Smith, 1981). In addition, Sharwood Smith (1991) stated that even if the language learners paid attention to the enhanced target forms, this does not guarantee that they will be able to internalize the form. Moreover, many (Truscott, 1998) have criticized the term because of the lack of the theoretical support for the relationship between conscious and input processing. Therefore, Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) replaced the consciousness-raising term by input enhancement that the teacher can control. The role of input enhancement is to make some forms of the second/foreign language more salient in order to draw the language learners' attention to them. In fact, Sharwood Smith (1991, 1993) divided salience into two kinds: external salience that the teacher or researcher can manipulate and internal salience that language learners cause. There are some techniques that teachers or researchers could use to increase the external salience. As for the internal salience, Park and Han (2008) suggested some factors that can enhance such a kind of salience. These factors are comprehension failure, the learner's current inter-language knowledge, the learner's bias for meaning over form, learners differences and the learner's first language.

N. Ellis (1993, 1995) stated that input enhancement is an effective option in language teaching and learning. Some studies, for example, Lee and Benati (2007) have shown the usefulness of the role of salient input (enhanced input) in directing the learners' attention to second/foreign language forms (discussed in the next paragraphs). However, input enhancement does not guarantee that input becomes intake unless language learners are able to notice the input. Wong (2005) makes a distinction between focus on form and input enhancement. Based on the former learning occurs incidentally in a communicative setting. The latter could be proactive or reactive and does not require a communicative interaction.

Lee and Benati (2007) divide the research on input enhancement into two main components. The first one is manipulating the input that the language learners are presented with using one of the input enhancement techniques. The second component is manipulating how learners interact with the input they are presented with. When using textual input enhancement or what might be referred to as visual input enhancement, the target form(s) that the students are exposed to have different textual properties. These forms might be bolded, capitalized, italicized, underlined or highlighted with different colors (Sharwood Smith, 1993). When implementing such a technique, researchers and teachers either attract the students' attention or direct their attention. The purpose behind textual enhancement is to give the target forms features that are more salient in order to help the learners to notice these forms and to make form-meaning connections. Textual input enhancement has the advantage of directing the learners' attention to form while processing meaningful input. In addition, it can be easily combined with other types of input enhancement such as input flood (e.g. White, 1998). However, textual enhancement is similar to input flood because it does not always guarantee that the learners will notice the target forms and if they did, it does not guarantee that they will understand what it is supposed to be understood. In addition, the focus on the target form might hinder the focus on meaning (Wong, 2005). This kind of input enhancement is only carried out in written contexts in which language teachers present the language learners with a reading material that contains textually enhanced target form(s).

Over the years, researchers have studied textual input enhancement for several purposes. Some of them studied the effect of textual input enhancement when combined with other input enhancement techniques such as input flood (White, 1998) and explicit instruction (Heo, 2007). Others combined textual enhancement with other instructional treatments such as focus on form (Shook, 1994), output activities (Izumi, 2002), simplified input (Wong, 2003) or topic familiarity (Lee, 2007). Some studies, on the other hand, compared textual enhancement with other input enhancement techniques such as explicit instruction (Kubota, 2000; Shook, 1994). A third group studied the effect of textual input enhancement on "noticing" (Alanen, 1995; Leow et al., 2003). However, it seems that the major concern of researchers has been to study the effect of one or more textual enhancement techniques on the students' "noticing" and/or acquisition of grammatical structures in a second/foreign language setting (De Santis, 2008; Ha, 2005; Leow et al., 2003).

In an attempt to examine whether input enhancement makes L2 forms more noticeable to learners' online processing of target forms, Jourdenais et al. (1995) conducted a study. The results showed that learners in the enhanced group noticed and produced more target forms, providing evidence that highlighting the forms in the input increased the likelihood of their being noticed (as cited in Birjandi, Alavi, & Najafi Karimi, 2014). Shook (1994) studied visual or textual enhancement in second language context to determine whether this kind of input was effective in drawing learners' attention to L2 forms. The results showed that those subjects who received the enhanced versions of the passages, performed significantly better than the group who read the unenhanced versions of all the texts. Shook (1994) subsequently states that textual enhancement made a difference, and gave the participants the ability to recognize and produce the target forms. He also points out that there were no significant differences between the group who were told explicitly to pay attention to the enhanced forms and those who did not receive this explicit instruction. This means that reading the enhanced versions was enough for subjects to make improvements in their production without explicit direction (as cited in Birjandi, Alavi, & Najafi Karimi, 2014).

Kim (2003) investigated the relative effectiveness of typographical enhancement, lexical elaboration, and a combination of both among a relatively large sample of Korean learners of English. Three types of texts were used in this study: (1) an explicitly lexically elaborated text with target words followed by a synonym or a definition type vocabulary explanation; (2) an implicitly lexically elaborated text with an appositive vocabulary explanation only; and (3) a typographically enhanced text with target words set in bold face to test the acquisition of 26 low-frequency words. The results showed that (a) lexical elaboration alone did not facilitate form recognition of L2 vocabulary; (b) explicit lexical elaboration alone led to more meaning recognition of L2 vocabulary; (c) typographical enhancement alone did not facilitate form and meaning recognition of L2 vocabulary; (d) lexical elaboration and typographical enhancement combined led to more meaning recognition of L2 vocabulary; (e) both explicit and implicit lexical elaboration facilitated meaning recognition of L2 vocabulary (f) there was no significant difference between explicit and implicit lexical elaboration in terms of their effect on form and meaning recognition of L2 vocabulary (as cited in Birjandi, Alavi, & Najafi Karimi, 2014). Birjandi et al. (2014), conducted a study to examine the relative effectiveness of three types of input — unenhanced input, typographically enhanced input, and lexically elaborated input — on learning English phrasal verbs. To do so, a time series quasi-experimental study was carried out, in which six different texts in three different forms — unenhanced, enhanced, and elaborated — were given to 35 Iranian intermediate EFL learners to read. After the participants read each version of the input, a post-test including the target phrasal verbs practiced in each

section of the treatment was administered. The results showed that the participants' scores on the post-tests were higher after reading the elaborated texts than their scores after reading the unenhanced and enhanced texts. It has been concluded that (a) typographical input enhancement better helps L2 learners learn English phrasal verbs as compared with unenhanced input, (b) lexical input elaboration better facilitates the learning of English phrasal verbs by L2 learners as compared with unenhanced input, and (c) lexical input elaboration is more effective than input enhancement in helping L2 learners to learn English phrasal verbs.

II. METHOD

A. *Research Question and Hypothesis*

Do textual enhancement techniques have a significant effect on intermediate Iranian EFL learners' incidental learning of idioms?

Textual enhancement techniques positively affect Iranian EFL learners' incidental learning of idioms.

B. *Participants*

40 participants, as sample, were selected out of 56 female EFL students at intermediate level of proficiency via convenient sampling. All of the participants were Persian native speakers whose aged ranged from 18 to 30 years old. They were studying a book entitled *English Result* by Hancock and McDonald (2008), under the instruction of the same teacher in Safir Language Academy, Kermanshah, Iran.

C. *Instruments*

In the present study the following instruments were used. The first one was the Preliminary English Test. PET is an English language examination provided by Cambridge English Language Assessment (1994). Cambridge English Preliminary is an intermediate level qualification which demonstrates the ability to communicate using English for everyday purposes. The second one was the Idiom Knowledge Test (IKS) developed based on the Wesche and Paribakht's Vocabulary Knowledge Test (1996). It was used as pretest to check whether the participants knew the targeted idioms or not. The third one was a parallel form of IKS which was administered as posttest.

D. *Materials*

The target idioms were derived from "*Can You Believe it?*" by Huizenga and Huizenga (2005).

E. *Procedures*

40 participants were selected via convenience sampling and were randomly divided into control and experimental groups. Before the treatment a pretest idioms was administered to the groups. Each group of participants were exposed to new idioms each sessions. As to the experimental group the learners were exposed to a text in which the idioms and their meaning were enhanced through some textual techniques (color-coding, bold-facing, and italic). Participants were asked to read the texts and answer some follow up questions. Concerning the control group, the participants were exposed to the same texts and idioms but they were unenhanced and the learners were asked to read the sentences and infer the meaning of each idiom using contextual clues. Finally, a posttest, parallel to the pretest, was administered to the groups.

III. RESULTS

Since in this study there was pretest or covariate which might have affected the groups' scores on the posttest, ANCOVA was used to adjust or remove the effect. As it is evident in Table 1, the mean score and standard deviation of the experimental group on the pretest were 2.50 and 1.701 and they were 7.10 and 2.673 respectively on the posttest, and the mean score and standard deviation of the control group on the pretest were 2.55 and 1.468 and they were 3.25 and 1.372 respectively on the posttest.

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

group		pretest	posttest
experimental	Mean	2.50	7.10
	N	20	20
	Std. Deviation	1.701	2.673
	Minimum	0	4
	Maximum	5	13
control	Mean	2.55	3.25
	N	20	20
	Std. Deviation	1.468	1.372
	Minimum	0	1
	Maximum	5	6
Total	Mean	2.53	5.17
	N	40	40
	Std. Deviation	1.569	2.863
	Minimum	0	1
	Maximum	5	13

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

TABLE 2
THE DISTRIBUTION OF THE EXPERIMENTAL GROUP'S SCORES ON PRETEST AND POSTTEST AS PRODUCED BY ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TESTC

		pretest	posttest
N		20	20
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.50	7.10
	Std. Deviation	1.701	2.673
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.166	.265
	Positive	.129	.265
	Negative	-.166	-.123
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.740	1.185
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.643	.121

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 TESTC

		pretest	posttest
N		20	20
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	2.55	3.25
	Std. Deviation	1.468	1.372
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.170	.219
	Positive	.130	.219
	Negative	-.170	-.158
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.762	.979
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.607	.293

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 ($P > 0.05$).

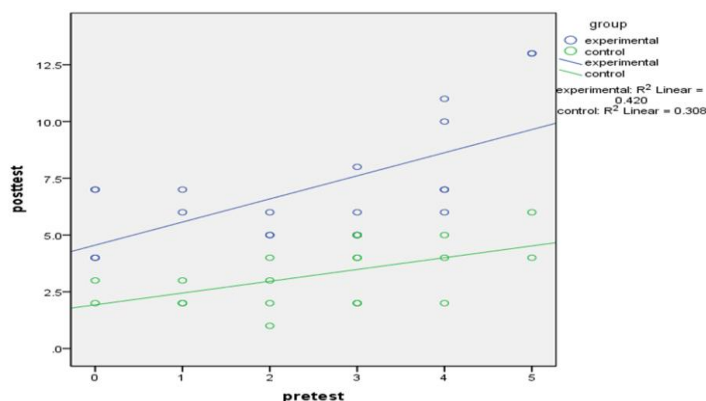


Figure 1 Linear relationship among regression lines

Since the lines run parallel, their slope is homogeneous for all groups concerning both pretest and posttest implying that one of the requirements of ANCOVA was fulfilled.

TABLE 4
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE (ANCOVA)

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects					
Dependent Variable: Posttest					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	216.270 ^a	3	72.090	25.074	.000
Intercept	112.793	1	112.793	39.230	.000
group	18.541	1	18.541	6.449	.016
pretest	55.460	1	55.460	19.290	.000
group * pretest	5.851	1	5.851	2.035	.162
Error	103.505	36	2.875		
Total	1391.000	40			
Corrected Total	319.775	39			

a. R Squared = .676 (Adjusted R Squared = .649)

Table 4. shows that the slope of regression lines was homogeneous for all groups [$F_{(1,36)} = 2.035$, $p = 0.162$, $p > 0.05$].

TABLE 5
UNIVARIATE ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
DEPENDENT VARIABLE: POSTTEST

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	210.420 ^a	2	105.210	35.597	.000	.658
Intercept	107.962	1	107.962	36.528	.000	.497
pretest	62.195	1	62.195	21.043	.000	.363
group	151.301	1	151.301	51.192	.000	.580
Error	109.355	37	2.956			
Total	1391.000	40				
Corrected Total	319.775	39				

R Squared = .658 (Adjusted R Squared = .640)

Table 5 shows that the main effect of the treatment was significant [$F(1, 37) = 51.192$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.580$].

IV. DISCUSSION

Regarding the research question and its corresponding hypothesis, the result of the data analysis showed that the main effect of the treatment was significant [$F(1, 37) = 51.192$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta^2 = 0.580$]. Since the experimental group outperformed the control group in their performances on learning idiomatic expression, it appears that the textual enhancement has had positive effect on learning idiomatic expressions by the participants in the experimental group.

Concerning the finding of the study some explanations may seem logical. First, enhanced texts become more salient compared with unenhanced ones and, perhaps, draw the learners' attention. Second, enhanced texts via some techniques are motivating and stimulating in the process of learning.

The result of this study is consistent with those of Ellis (1993, 1995), Sharwood Smith (1993) and Birjandi, et. al. (2014). These studies found that textual enhancement has positive effects on learning. Ellis (1993, 1995) pointed out that input enhancement is an effective option in language teaching and learning. Sharwood Smith (1993) found TE as a way to facilitate learners' noticing of targeted grammatical forms and enhance their acquisition. Birjandi, et. al. (2014) found that typographical input enhancement helps L2 learners learn English phrasal verbs as compared with unenhanced input.

The result of the present study, however, is different from those of Leow (1997), Izumi (2002), Wong (2003) and Overstreet (1998). Leow (1997), showed that textual input enhancement had no significant effect on noticing and comprehension. Izumi (2002) compared the effects of visual input enhancement and output production on the noticing and acquisition of a grammatical form. Those who received visual input enhancement failed to show measurable gains in learning.

The results of Wong (2003) revealed that text enhancement did not have positive impact on the knowledge and acquisition of the target forms (as cited in Birjandi, Alavi, & Najafi Karimi, 2014). Overstreet (1998) reported that there was no positive effect for either text enhancement or content familiarity on production and recognition (as cited in Birjandi, Alavi, & Najafi Karimi, 2014).

A. Limitation of the Study

This study suffers from some limitations. One of the limitations of this study was that the participants were just conveniently selected only from an English institute. So, the generalizability of findings must be treated more

cautiously. Another limitation of the study was the gender of the participants which was limited to female learners. As gender is an important variable in language learning, it may affect idiom comprehension and production; hence, the results of the present study may be different with male learners.

B. Conclusion

The question “Does textual enhancement techniques positively affect learners’ incidental idiom learning?” was answered positively and the corresponding hypothesis “Textual enhancement techniques have a significant effect on incidental idiom learning” was verified. So, textual enhancement techniques such as color-coding, bold-facing, italic have positive effect on noticing the targeted forms by the learners and thereby enhancing their acquisition. The pertinent environment with textual enhancement techniques may make the input more comprehensible, and the constant exposure to different idioms can be considered as a good trigger to facilitate the incidental idiom learning. Textual enhancement, as an alternative to the traditional ways, can boost learners’ motivation and excitement which, in turn, will bring about better idiom learning.

C. Pedagogical Implications

The results of this study may have some pedagogical implications. Teaching and learning idioms plays a crucial role in mastering a second or foreign language. So using textual enhancement techniques regarding learning idioms will be significant for three groups. First, for teachers, because they can use multiple techniques in teaching idioms to enhance their students’ second language learning. Second, For the students, because they can try a mixture of different techniques in their own learning experiences, instead of the traditional rote learning of idioms; and finally, for the material developers, because the results of the present study show the positive effects of textual enhancement techniques on learning the idioms, they can provide idioms books which are more comprehensible for students through applying different textual enhancement techniques according to students’ interests, level, gender, and culture.

D. Suggestions for Further Research

As a word of recommendation future research are suggested to test enhancement techniques on vocabulary in general, proverbs and collocations across age, gender, and students’ level of knowledge.

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Two Barriers to Teaching Culture in Foreign Language Classroom

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Abstract—The teaching of culture teaching has been listed as one of the five goals in foreign language teaching and learning by the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the new Century*. However, the beliefs and attitudes of foreign language instructors towards the teaching of culture at the college-level remain unclear. The purpose of this study was to investigate language instructors' attitudes and beliefs towards teaching culture and the difficulties and barriers of teaching culture to college-level students. This qualitative case study explored the teaching of culture in Modern Language Department at a university through document mining, classroom observations, and interviews of language instructors who taught various foreign languages. Findings revealed two profound barriers, 1) instructors' beliefs and attitudes, and 2) the lack of professional development opportunities in learning strategies on weaving culture teaching, in foreign language classrooms at the college-level.

Index Terms—teaching of culture, barriers, professional development, qualitative case study

I. INTRODUCTION

The field of teaching culture in foreign language education has been rapidly developing and flourishing ever since the publication of Nelson Brooks' *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice*, in 1960 (Lange & Paige, 2003). This book started a discussion on the topic of teaching culture in the foreign language classroom. About four decades later, the *Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century* (1996) listed culture as one of the five goals of learning a foreign language. Since then, foreign language instructors have generally accepted that teaching culture is an indispensable part of teaching language. In 2007, a Modern Language Association of America (MLA) report on foreign language learning in higher education emphasized the importance of teaching both language and culture at the post-secondary level. This report demonstrates that culture continues to be an important element in foreign language education in the 21st century.

However, most language instructors have negative attitudes towards the teaching of culture because culture is still viewed as the traditional domain of anthropology rather than education (Furstenberg, 2010; Lafayette, 1997). For example, although some foreign language educators (Shrum & Glisan, 2005; Tokuhama-Espinosa, 2008) mentioned using music, fine arts, classical literatures, or other resources, which essentially fall into the cultural products and cultural practices categories, while teaching foreign languages, they still avoid using the word "culture." Moreover, little research exists that investigates instructors' beliefs and attitudes towards the teaching of culture in college-level language classrooms.

This study is a qualitative case study of a modern language department at a university in the Western region of the United States. Data was collected from instructor document mining, classroom observations, and interviews. This study uses pseudonyms for the university and participants to protect anonymity. The results of this study may help scholars and instructors in foreign language classrooms gain a more comprehensive understanding of teaching culture to college-level students when compared to the current research on this topic.

To address the stated purpose, this qualitative case study examined the following research questions:

1. What beliefs and attitudes do foreign language instructors have towards the teaching of culture in college-level classrooms?
2. What are the difficulties and barriers of teaching culture to college-level students, and what are some possible solutions?

II. BACKGROUND

Brooks (1968) started the discussion on culture exclusively for language teachers' use by defining two different sources of a social group's culture, Olympian and Hearthstone, which indicate a culture either comes from the top of a society or from the bottom. From an intercultural communication perspective, Damen (1987; 2003) defined culture as a set of behavioral, cognitive, and emotional patterns. In 1999, the National Standards provided a new definition of

culture, which has heavily influenced language teaching. Since its publication, the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (1999; 2006) has become the most fundamental document in the teaching of foreign language in the United States. As the national standard for foreign language teachers, this document is used in conjunction with state and local frameworks and serves as a guideline to determine the best approaches and most reasonable expectations for students in individual districts, schools, and colleges. In the National Standards, the term “culture” is generally comprehended from the philosophical perspectives, the behavioral practices, and the products (tangible and intangible) of a society (2006, p.47).

Despite different operational definitions of culture, a majority of scholars agree that there is a close relationship between culture and language (Kramsch, 1993; Lange, 2003). Damen (1987) stated that language serves to facilitate classification within cultures and reflects relationships within cultures. Furthermore, Lange (1998) connected language and culture by saying “language is ... one aspect of culture and is the medium for understanding, sharing, and negotiating meaning for all aspects of culture” (p. 24).

The Modern Language Association (MLA) Ad Hoc Committee on Foreign Languages (2007) published a report on teaching culture at the higher educational level in the context of globalization and the post 9/11 environment. This report emphasized “culture” as a comparable concept with “language” in today’s modern language education. As the report pointed out, culture and language are tightly interrelated, “Language is a complex multifunctional phenomenon that links an individual to other individuals, to communities, and to national cultures,” and “Culture is represented not only in events, texts, buildings, artwork, cuisines, and many other artifacts but also in language itself” (p. 236).

The definitions of culture by educators, especially by foreign language educators, have a significant influence on the development of teaching culture. The different beliefs about culture might cause different ways of teaching culture (Lange & Paige, 2003; Damen, 1987). For example, instructors who see culture as fact would view the learning of culture as the acquisition of facts and may only conceptualize culture as the teaching of stereotypes, famous events, and hero figures. In contrast, instructors who believe culture is a dynamic, rather than a static, entity would probably view the teaching of culture as a process of discovery and construction and encourage students to construct their own cultural knowledge. Thus, it is necessary to ascertain how teachers think about culture before asking them about the approaches, strategies and technology that they use to teach culture.

III. METHOD

This study employed a qualitative case study methodology. Merriam (2009) defined case study as an in-depth description and analysis of a bounded system (p.40). In this study, the bounded system is a foreign language department in a university as a single entity—the Modern Language Department at Rocky Mountain University¹ (RMU). As a bounded system, the Modern Language Department at RMU has some characteristics that make it a good example for looking at foreign language programs at universities of similar sizes. For example, this department offers seven foreign languages: Spanish, German, French, Russian, Chinese, Japanese, and Arabic at a university in the Western region of the United States. The department offers more Spanish and French courses than other kinds of language courses. Forty percent of the instructors in the department are native speakers of the language they teach. Most language learners in this department are undergraduate students born in the mountain west region of the United States.

In addition, Thomas (2011) emphasized that a case should be studied holistically by one or more data collection strategies. Thus, we used documents, observations, and interviews to study the teaching of culture and cultural perspectives in the Modern Language Department. Instead of focusing on one or two instructors, we studied a group of language instructors who teach different kinds of languages, come from different age groups, and have different teaching experience. This study adopted several types of data collection including interviews with instructors and students, classroom observations, and document mining in order to holistically study this department from various perspectives.

Participants. In this study, researchers interviewed and observed six participants who are representative of language instructors from various ages (from 20s to 50s), rich teaching experience with the willingness of sharing their understandings, attitudes, and perceptions in their daily language instructions with different course levels (introductory, intermediate and advanced level courses). They also showed intensive interest in the teaching of culture in the foreign language education than the other instructors and talked more about specific instructional strategies they use, and/or shared more insights about teaching culture than other instructors the researchers contacted. Among them, three of them are native speakers, and the other three are not. (See more information in Figure 1):

Participants	Rank	Teaching Experience	Language Course	Native Speakers (or not)
Charles	Tenured Prof.	29	Spanish	No
Hassan	Tenured Prof.	20+	Arabic	Yes
Lin	Senior Lecturer	12	Chinese	Yes
Frank	Senior Lecturer	20	German	No
Claudia	Lecturer	3	Spanish	Yes
Asta	Lecturer	2	German	No

Figure 1. Participants Information

IV. RESULTS

Two types of barriers emerged from the data regarding teaching culture in foreign language classrooms: (a) barriers in beliefs and attitudes in teaching culture and (b) the lack of professional development opportunities in learning strategies on weaving culture teaching

Beliefs of the Relationship between Language and Culture. In each interview we conducted with the six language instructors in the fall semester of 2011, each instructor acknowledged that culture is a key component in foreign language classes. These instructors expressed their beliefs about the relationships between language and culture, as well as noting the possible consequences of teaching a foreign language without teaching its culture. Instructors reported that language and culture are closely interconnected, and that students cannot have a comprehensive grasp of a language without understanding its culture. For example, Lin mentioned:

Personally, every language is the carrier of its culture; therefore, it is hard to teach language without teaching culture. When you use the textbook to teach language, there will be culture between the lines. I mean, you need to teach students about the culture, or you will find a common phenomenon in students' language learning: students have no problem in learning the vocabulary and grammar but when it comes to using them, they do not know how to use them within a certain culture context because they do not know the culture. (Chen & Yang, 2016)

Similarly, Dr. Hassan suggested that, "Language is a primarily cultural practice," when he said:

Culture in the classroom is something that has to be defined as a curriculum. In other words, it should be in teachers' minds even at the beginning level of learning that teachers should not only introduce the mechanics of the language, not only the format of the language, they also need to introduce to students the aspects of culture. They are not only learning the cold language ... If you don't teach culture, your students still can speak the language but would act in totally wrong ways.

Lin and Dr. Hassan explained how language and culture are related in different ways: Lin said that "language is the carrier of its culture" and Dr. Hassan said, "Language is a primarily cultural practice." In spite of the different ways they expressed it, both of them proposed that language and culture are closely interconnected. Because of the interconnection, they reached the same conclusion: instructors must teach culture while teaching a foreign language. Lin's and Dr. Hassan's choice parallels closely Damen's (1987) seminal argument that students need both the knowledge of a language, including vocabulary, grammar, and the knowledge of its culture, such as how to choose suitable words and behave appropriately in certain situations, in order to communicate with native speakers. Lin and Dr. Hassan worried that students probably would not successfully communicate with native speakers in the target languages without the knowledge of the culture associated with the language.

Although the other four instructors in this study did not explicitly address the relationship between language and culture like Lin and Dr. Hassan, all of them discussed culture as a key component in their language classes during their interviews while implying that culture and language are closely interconnected. The close relationship between culture and language has been identified as a basic rationale for the teaching of culture in foreign language education by other scholars in the field (Brooks, 1968; Damen, 1987) and by the National Standards (1999; 2006).

Attitudes towards the Role of Culture. Among the six instructors, there were two main types of attitudes toward the role of culture in language classes. The first type of attitude views culture as an additional or add-on component of teaching language. In this perspective, instructors described culture as a dispensable component in language classes. For instructors who have such an attitude, teaching culture in language classrooms is like adding an appetizer to a meal in order to entice people to eat the main course. These instructors viewed cultural knowledge as an appetizer and language knowledge as the main dish of a meal. An appetizer is usually served to stimulate people's appetite rather than to be the main purpose of a meal. The use of culture is only a way to add interest to a language rather than integral to the learning of the language. Some instructors in the study, for example, believed that talking about cultural knowledge in class would attract students to the target language, but they rarely considered teaching culture as one of the major objectives in class. Claudia, a new Spanish instructor, showed this culture-as-appetizer approach when she shared that she used culture elements such as her personal experience in Mexico, the song people at different ages sing, and food the general public have to capture students' attention. She argued by sharing the cultural elements in teaching grammar (which most of the students found boring), it is easier for her to organize her class and make her class interesting and popular.

In the quote Claudia implied that the teaching of culture is like providing students an appetizer and that grammar is the main dish. Although Claudia talked a lot about teaching grammar, she emphasized that her primary goal in class should be capturing students' attention to teach grammar. And she realized that as a person from Mexico, she has built-in advantages—rich personal experience in the target language environment—to offer such an appetizer to attract students' attention. For instructors like Claudia, culture is not one of the ultimate goals of or a major part in their classes. Since culture is just an appetizer and not intrinsically as important as grammar, there is no compelling reason for these instructors to spend much time on the teaching of culture, or making cultural perspectives a focus of the class.

Lin also believed that culture is an additional, not a major component in her classes. Lin explained:

Based on my knowledge and experience, culture has its tangible and intangible parts and to the beginner, culture teaching will stay on the tangible part ... for beginners, they usually are not encouraged to raise questions on intangible culture; instead, we will focus on the tangible part.

Even though Lin understood that culture contains the intangible part—in other words, cultural perspectives—she still believed that it is not worth the trouble to bring in the complexity. An appetizer is just an appetizer, which is never as important as the main dish. For instructors like Claudia and Lin, teaching language is their ultimate goal, and teaching culture becomes necessary only for the purpose of attracting their students' attention.

In contrast to the first type of attitude, which treats culture as an additional component in class, the second type of attitude considers culture as a broad and important context for language. In other words, culture always surrounds a language and helps to determine its interpretation. For example, Dr. Charles argued, "Language does not exist in the vacuum; you have to have a context, in which language [is] to be taught. And, contexts could be related to the cultures". Dr. Charles indicated that language always exists in a cultural context. Asta shared a similar belief and offered an example:

I think if you really want your students to understand the language, you have to teach culture. For example, in Spanish 1010 we talk about foods. There are some foods that do not exist in America. So you have to teach about that, and how they eat them. If you really want your students to understand the language, culture comes naturally. You also should give students a real context for the language. If you give a real context, the language and culture would come naturally. Just teaching them vocabulary does not make a real context.

As Asta indicated, one language does not simply translate to another language because they exist in different cultural contexts. Some descriptions of German foods do not have counterparts in English since the concepts they represent do not exist in American culture. For example, one day Asta mentioned *Mettbrötchen*, a sandwich frequently eaten in Germany but not as well known in other countries. Teaching the German language without teaching German culture may keep students from learning the appropriate use of the language. Therefore, language instructors must teach culture while teaching a language. For Dr. Charles and Asta and instructors like them, culture plays a central part in their language classes because the accurate and appropriate use of a language always needs to take cultural contexts into consideration.

Dr. Hassan stressed that culture should serve as an important goal of his teaching because he expected his students to eventually become intercultural speakers and promoted exchanges and communications between Arabic and American cultures. He stated:

There are some people (Arabic learners) not being motivated by American security or business, but [by a] deep understanding of culture. Such people, I expect them to become intercultural speakers. They need to learn enough Arabic to read authentic materials, and then write to people back at home. They should be able to interpret Arabic materials independently, and be able to express American behaviors in Arabic to build a bridge between two cultures.

From Dr. Hassan's perspective, culture in language class does not simply serve as an appetizer to attract students' attention to the target language. Unlike some other instructors who only see the teaching of culture as a way to serve the teaching of language, Dr. Hassan believed mutual relationships between teaching languages and teaching culture are crucial elements of his classroom. He argued that language could serve as a tool for students to understand culture. Thus, in Dr. Hassan's class, culture becomes a significant part of the curriculum, and understanding Arabic culture is one of the ultimate goals that his students are expected to achieve. During our three classroom observations of Dr. Hassan's Arabic classes, researchers noticed that culture always served as a major focus of his class activities. Compared with some other instructors who used grammar knowledge as topics, such as past tense and future tense, Dr. Hassan usually brought some culture-related topics into his classes. On one day, for example, one researcher observed that Dr. Hassan brought a cartoon from an Arabic newspaper to initiate a discussion about people's reactions to the conflicts between politicians and religious persons in Arabic countries.

Corresponding with results of the interviews, our classroom observations also showed that Claudia and Lin, who believed teaching culture should serve the purpose of teaching language, usually directly taught culture to their students by introducing famous people and places in the target culture, or by sharing with students the habits and general beliefs of native speakers. Many scholars in the field of teaching culture in foreign language education (Barnes-Karol & Broner, 2010; Kearney, 2010) pointed out that some language instructors, who only teach about famous figures, general cultural knowledge or even stereotypes of a culture, are actually teaching culture as fact. Instructors like Claudia and Lin did not seem to realize that culture is dynamic and knowledge about culture is always relevant to time, location, even individuals (Banks & Banks, 2009; Damen, 1987). Claudia and Lin only taught culture as static facts existing in textbooks and literature. Thus they required students to remember cultural knowledge taught in class rather than encouraged the students to build their own cultural knowledge.

In contrast, Dr. Charles, Asta and Dr. Hassan, who view culture as the context for language, often encouraged students to pursue cultural knowledge on their own by urging students to communicate with native speakers or by assigning them to conduct research on cultural topics. Because language instructors with two different attitudes toward culture in language classes actually teach in two different ways, the two types of attitudes towards the role of culture in foreign language classes are probably a major reason behind the two different kinds of instruction.

This section has addressed language instructors' beliefs about the relationship between language and culture, and their attitudes toward the role of culture in their language classes as two internal factors influencing teaching culture. Many external factors, such as new national guidelines for teaching foreign languages, also have impacted the ways in which these instructors taught culture. For example, culture as one of five goal areas in the National Standards (2006)

and the development of the field of teaching foreign languages are two external factors in the teaching culture in foreign language education. The internal factors and external factors have interconnected relationships. For example, some instructors have changed their attitudes towards teaching culture after they read the National Standards. Or because some instructors believe that it is now important to teach culture, and they are eager to learn more about how to teach culture, they choose to attend conferences in the field of teaching foreign languages to learn more strategies and technology for teaching culture. In the following section, we address how some external factors affected these instructors' teaching of culture in foreign language education.

Professional Development. According to Lunenburg and Ornstein (2012), professional development in the field of education refers to improving teachers' present skills and fulfilling their potential by learning new skills and developing their abilities to the fullest. Since the 1980s, educational scholars have paid more attention to studying the role of culture in the field of language education than ever before (Minami & Ovando, 2004). Especially after the publication of the first edition of the Standards for Foreign Language Learning in the 21st Century (1996) as the National Standards, the theories of teaching culture in foreign language education have developed rapidly. Thus, for today's foreign language instructors, acquiring new knowledge and skills in teaching a language and its culture is essential. In order to understand to what extent instructors get involved in the profession of teaching foreign language and how instructors' professional development influences their teaching, we asked each of the six instructors how much they know about the National Standards and how these standards affect their teaching.

Claudia, a new instructor, said that she did not know anything about the National Standards, but she showed strong interest in learning them and in other professional development materials about how to teach a foreign language. After our two interviews with her, one researcher sent Claudia a list of books, articles and journals for foreign language teachers about how to teach culture and language, as she requested. In contrast to Claudia's lack of knowledge about the National Standards, another new instructor, Asta, was very familiar with the National Standards and 5Cs goals because she took two courses on how to teach a modern language in the College of Education at RMU before she began teaching.

Compared with Claudia, Asta had achieved an understanding of the rationale and importance of teaching culture in language classrooms and expressed more confidence in the teaching of a language and its culture. For example, Asta believed that culture is the context for a language. In contrast, Claudia only taught culture to attract students' attention to the target language. While Asta collected various authentic materials of German culture and arranged various classroom activities to teach culture, Claudia usually limited her talk about culture by talking about her own experience in Spanish-speaking countries or by playing a Spanish song from YouTube for her students. Furthermore, Asta actively took part in a statewide foreign language teacher organization and its professional conferences, as well as constantly cooperated with other German instructors at RMU to teach language and culture. Compared with Claudia who had not been formally trained to be a foreign language teacher, Asta's professional training experience has had a positive impact on her career and allowed her to make numerous connections between her own classroom and the teaching of culture.

Lin, Frank, Dr. Charles, and Dr. Hassan acknowledged that they knew about the National Standards and 5Cs goals. Lin and Dr. Hassan explained that they developed their language program at RMU based on the National Standards. Lin said, "We (two Chinese instructors in the Modern Language Department) follow the 5Cs of the National Standards, and designed a curriculum to cover culture" (personal communication, October 14, 2011). Dr. Hassan also stated that "I designed the language (Arabic) program at RMU based on the 5Cs ... Learning is not just learning a language, it is about learning the 5Cs". Thus, the National Standards have had a great impact on these instructors' teaching practice and the development of their language programs.

Some instructors compared the old objectives of learning foreign languages, such as the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing), to the 5Cs as the new objectives. For instance, Lin stated, "In the past, language learning and teaching focused on listening comprehension, speaking, reading and writing, but now, cultural understanding is added to language learning and teaching". Similarly, Frank stated:

The older expectations are based on skills, the four skills: reading, writing, listening, and speaking. I think we moved away from them a good bit. Those skills are certainly sorts of what we are doing. Those skills neglected the contexts of teaching culture. I think in the modern classrooms, we continually address the four skills and also address the five Cs.

Both Lin and Frank realized that culture has become a part of the new objectives for learning foreign language. However, they implied that the four skills objectives do not conflict with the 5Cs. Even though Lin and Frank would like to teach culture as the National Standards required, they would not give up on the old objectives.

In addition, Frank and Dr. Hassan reported that some people's prejudices against the teaching of certain foreign languages likely have negative influences on their professional development in terms of teaching culture. Frank shared:

There are many misconceptions and expectations that they [students] gained from movies about Germans. Germany is the enemy for the two World Wars, which has left a lot of stereotypes about Germany in the minds of Americans. We have relatively little opportunities to interact with Germans. The stereotypes are very common and often go unclarified.

Frank believed that students' misconceptions and stereotypes of Germans might affect their learning of German culture.

In total, many issues that influenced the teaching of culture in foreign language classrooms emerged in this study. First, the close relationship between language and culture appears to be the primary reason for teaching culture in the foreign language classroom. Second, culture either served as an additional component or a key component in foreign language classrooms. This focus depends on instructors' attitudes towards the role of culture in language classes. Third, many language instructors taught culture and designed their language programs as the National Standards required. Last, misunderstandings and stereotypes towards certain foreign languages and cultures have become obstacles to teaching culture in foreign language classrooms.

V. DISCUSSION & IMPLEMENTATIONS

In this study, we found instructors' attitudes towards the teaching of culture in their language courses can be classified into three categories: (1) teaching culture is not important, (2) teaching culture can be considered as an appetizer to the teaching of grammar, and (3) teaching culture is part of a meaningful context. Language instructors in the first category did not seem to teach culture at all as part of their classes. Our findings revealed that some language instructors have not recognized the close relationship between language and culture or the significance of teaching culture in a foreign language course. These instructors rarely used the word culture while teaching language and did not include culture-related content in the assignments or assessments for their students. Those instructors did not fulfill the requirements of the National Standards (2006) in which culture is viewed as one of five ultimate objectives in foreign language classes.

Language instructors in the second category who taught culture as part of their classes were driven by the perspective that culture should be used as a way to motivate students to learn more about language. Culture, in a sense, was used as an appetizer for teaching language. For these instructors, the teaching of culture is only an additional, not an indispensable, component of their language class. Even though these instructors occasionally introduced some cultural perspectives to students, they still did not help students make connections between cultural products and cultural patterns with underlying cultural perspectives. It is clear that these language instructors did not realize the importance of teaching culture as many scholars have discussed (Matsmoto, 2009; Ormrod, 2012).

Through a series of interviews and observations, we found many difficulties in teaching culture for instructors, such as the lack of knowledge by instructors of the National Standards (2006), the lack of time for preparing classes with cultural elements embedded in them, the lack of appropriate materials, the absence of technological support, and students' misunderstanding or stereotypes of the target culture. However, these difficulties are superficial phenomena. Through our analysis of the data, we found two profound barriers to the teaching of cultural perspectives: (1) many language instructors did not recognize that culture is an important objective for teaching foreign language in the 21st century, and (2) the knowledge of how to teach a language is undervalued.

First, many instructors set up a false dichotomy between the teaching of grammar and culture. They used the importance of teaching of grammar as a major reason to explain why they do not spend more time on the teaching of culture. However, neither the present goals of foreign language learning, as seen in the 5Cs in the National Standards (2006), nor the former goals at the end of the last century—the four skills (listen, speak, read, and write)—places grammar as the most important feature of foreign language teaching. It seems that the instructors in this study still use the lens of grammar-translation to view the teaching of foreign languages. In the 21st century, the teaching of grammar no longer plays a major role in language classes because the primary reason of learning another language is not for the purpose of understanding classic literature any more (Larsen-Freeman, 2000; Richard & Rodgers, 2001). On the surface, the conflict happens between the views on the teaching of grammar versus the teaching of culture. In fact, these instructors' beliefs are the real barrier to the teaching of culture and cultural perspectives. Unless these instructors realize that culture, rather than grammar, is an important objective for foreign language teaching in the 21st century, these instructors would not consider the teaching of culture as a significant part of their courses.

The second major barrier to the teaching of culture is that there is an implicit thinking by many instructors and the department that to become a language instructor, the knowledge of the target language is sufficient, and the knowledge of how to teach a language is optional. Thus, several native speakers in the Modern Language Department at RMU teach foreign language without knowledge or experience of teaching, and many instructors only teach as they were taught when they themselves were students. It is no wonder that many instructors do not fully understand the National Standards and the goals of teaching culture or the importance of cultural perspectives. Moreover, the subtext to such thinking is that if a person can speak the language proficiently, then he/she can naturally teach the language. However, this approach definitely underestimates the pedagogy of language instructors. As a competent language instructor, one needs not only know linguistic knowledge of the target language, but also the knowledge of the target culture and educational knowledge of how to teach, motivate, and assess students. Few people are born good language instructors. A teacher education or preparation program is one major key to making a person a better language instructor.

VI. FUTURE STUDIES

We recognized through this study that not all the instructors feel comfortable in weaving culture into language instruction, nor did they regard the teaching of culture as a critical and essential part of language instructions. While

scholars such as Choudhury (2012) have revealed the role of culture teaching in language learning and instruction, and others Yang and Chen (2014) have called for instructors to reunite our hearts and minds in how we weave and teach culture in language classroom. However, given the current culture instructions in the language classroom practices, it seems wiser to consider all possible barriers to pave the way for the art of culture teaching. Without addressing these barriers, language instructors will experience difficulty in teaching culture in their foreign language classes. Attention to the nature of the relationships at the center of instructors' as well as students' experiences, the way of students' and instructors' interaction in a culture richly embedded classroom should be considered one such areas for excavation.

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