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The Unity of Plurality: Literary Effects in the 19th and 20th Centuries

Carmen Romero Sánchez-Palencia
Department of Humanities, Francisco de Vitoria University, Madrid, Spain

Abstract—The artistic manifestations that have taken place in the modern era have been reflected in modernisms. These varied and international aesthetic movements are primarily characterised by not having a single viewpoint or a single way of interpreting or understanding reality. Thus different, yet equally valid manifestations coexist at this time, among which we will highlight Realism and Symbolism. In parallel, we mustn't forget that the root of the word 'modern' has always encompassed the idea of the importance of the past, the embracing or denial of what came before, generating a feeling of superiority.

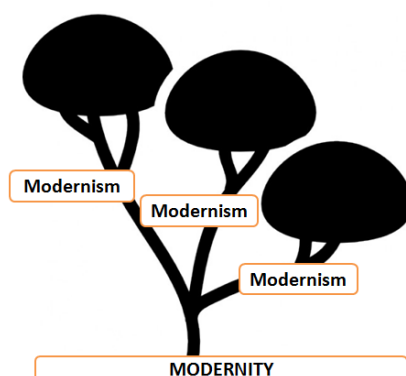
Index Terms—symbolism, realism, modernisms, individualism, art, time

I. THE MODERNISATION PROCESS AND ITS MANIFESTATIONS

The concept of 'modern times' is purely chronological, ranging from the 16th century to the early 20th century. Modernity is the mentality that accompanies this increasingly secular historical period, and modernism is the international aesthetic movement during which personalities as diverse as Fernando Pessoa, Miguel de Unamuno, Antonio Machado, Marcel Proust, Oscar Wilde, Virginia Woolf, James Joyce, T. S. Eliot and Ezra Pound have appeared. Distinguishing the current era of modernity and modernism is not a trivial matter if this is pursued through an attempt to understand the historical context of the modern world.

Since the beginning of human history, the term modern has been used to characterise the mindset of eras that felt a need to distinguish themselves from their immediate past, and wanted to show their superiority over the previous period. In the 5th century AD, the fathers of the Christian Church used the term modern to refer to the new era of Christianity. The Renaissance—14th and 15th centuries—was modern in terms of rising above those deemed modern in the dark medieval years. In the European enlightenment of the 18th century, modernity is not only the immediate past, but also that which is ancient and, in parallel, its superiority points to the future progress of mankind through scientific knowledge and the emancipation of human beings by using reason.

Thus, the modernisation or illustration process arises. This is a process of change and transformation that includes all planes of existence, and cognitive, moral, social, and artistic relations. Science replaces religion as the preferred instrument for understanding the world; great distances cease to be so great; and time starts to be a fundamental factor (there were no watches until the Late Middle Ages). The feeling of living in a world that is constantly changing is something that modern man perceives, and modernity leads to a feeling of vertigo (Lozano, 2008, p. 407). Here, 18th century modernisms arise, which are simply intellectual movements of all kinds that created their artistic or literary works as the material of modern man's experiences. These modernisms offer a balanced vision of modernity, taking their positive and negative aspects into account. However, in the late 19th and early 20th centuries, unbalanced modernisms emerged, which were both positive, seeing only the good in modernisation, such as technology that will lead us to a better future, or negative modernisms, which only see the crisis and disorder that is running rampant in these fields in which this new world is emerging. We view modernity as a large tree, and modernisms as its different branches. See Fig. 1:



Since the mid-19th century and throughout the 20th century, the word ‘modern’ has been applied to innovations in all areas, to anything that has displayed an iota of originality. This situation was caused by the diversity that characterises it. It is for this reason that the examples here range across a very broad field: painting, sculpture, prose and poetry, music and dance, architecture and design, theatre and cinema. The diversity of styles shows great respect for imaginative individuality, which sparked debates about tastes, expressiveness, morality, economics, policy, causes and social implications for two centuries. And although no researcher has attempted to include all the manifestations of modernity in one historical epoch, there is one common symptom: the particular threatens to impose itself on the general.

Despite these differences, modernity in any trend pursued two attributes, the lure of heresy and self-criticism. As regards the lure of heresy, artists derive satisfaction from carving out a revolutionary path—their own—and the fact of not being subordinated to the dominant authority. For this reason, much happiness comes from creating a poem, a picture or a building, and this is grounded in the idea of going against the establishment. The fight is for the absolute artistic autonomy of its creator, and the exercise of self-criticism goes beyond opposing convention and, at the same time, is an exploration of the self.

But modern artists reacting against that which has been established so far is just one sign of the importance that the past has for them. The importance of past statements generates denial or is overcome, something that is always displayed in an environment in which the particular individual is the centre. For each individual, his particular self is the most important thing and everything that happens to him is observed from there. The relevance of the individual against the group leads modernists to see viewpoint as something artificial, a union of selfish individuals. Thus, a new era of risk and uncertainty also emerges, leaving man isolated from a world that pretends to be new, and the specific individual wants to make a difference through his artistic work. According to Berman, modernity unites humanity in a paradoxical way, in the union of disunity (Berman, 2011, p. 1).

But modernity is unthinkable without a significant and influential number of sponsors willing to back it. The breeding ground of modernity arose in the United States, through an industrialisation and urbanisation process that—although it started at the end of the 18th century in England—developed somewhat later in other countries (for example, in Belgium, Germany and France), ushering in signs of social prosperity along with it. The invention of the railway led to a breakthrough in the transport of passengers and goods. In parallel, one of the main routes of modern art re-appeared, the urban phenomenon, whereby cities grew rapidly, and concert halls, theatres and stadiums were erected that consumers flocked to and filled. At this time, Paris became identified as a cultural city.

Another element to consider is the dissemination of art. This is because in earlier times this had been a monopoly of elite tastemakers responsible for defining fashion. The dissemination of art extended beyond the exclusive and cultural circles of the aristocracy, engendering the coining of the term bourgeoisie. The fact that art was targeted at an expanding public contributed to increasing its diversity. Capitalism developed techniques in order to make better use of its resources and, while the era of modern art took flight, mechanisation championed the process. On the negative side, these changes also resulted in unsafe neighbourhoods and in the excessive exploitation of workers, which some social critics denounced as the selfishness of capitalists.

In this atmosphere of progress, we can see the figure of Charles Baudelaire as the most plausible candidate to whom the paternity of modernisms could be attributed. To him, modernity lies in what is ephemeral, fleeting and contingent, and beauty is not found in politics or war, but in life itself. Baudelaire’s talent in combining technical knowledge with emotions is the trait that turned him into a paragon for modern poets. In the personal arena, this also contributed to him enjoying a dubious reputation as a bohemian, who consumed hashish and opium, seeking what he himself baptised ‘artificial paradises’. According to Matei Calinescu, modernity is no longer a given condition to Baudelaire, instead becoming a heroic choice, as the road to modernity is fraught with risks and difficulties (Calinescu, 2003, p. 64).

II. MODERN LITERARY MOVEMENTS: SYMBOLISM AND REALISM

Acceptance of the new literature was hardly an easy achievement, because avant-garde novelists demanded a degree of attention and concentration from their readers that other more accommodating writers saved them from. Modern literature became an arduous task, not only for its creators, but also for the public, and so not all of its creators followed this path. It was possible to distinguish between three types of reading public: the first group was the largest and this was made up of the uneducated masses, who had no knowledge of what literature was demanding. The second group, smaller than the first, but still representing a significant number, had easy access to culture and considered themselves above the mainstream, although they were reluctant to invest the time and effort involved in a cutting-edge piece. Finally, there was a tiny elite core of readers who were open to innovation and experiments. In addition, modern authors caused their readers to feel a certain degree of anxiety, due to the entirely unpredictable quality of their works, and this difference was most noticeable between traditional novelists and their modern successors. In contrast, traditional authors’ techniques did not require so much attention, something that the modernists’ creations did.

In Europe, the 17th and 18th centuries were a period of great development in mathematical and physics theories. However, poets far from seeing the universe as a machine, envisioned it as something mysterious and less rational. Literature then moved to the individual soul, the romantic poet who described things as he experienced them, searching for their ultimate meaning. This was the scenario that saw the birth of the Symbolist movement, founded by Stéphane Mallarmé a French poet who devoted his life to working with poetic language. According to him, accepting everything

as it deprives the mind of the delicious allure of believing that you are creating. Naming an object is to dispense with three-quarters of the pleasure of the poem, which stems from the satisfaction of slowly unravelling and divining it. Thus, it must be suggested and evoked, which is what the human imagination needs. Becoming intimate with things, rather than plainly stating what they are, is one of the purposes of the symbolists. Mallarmé supposes somewhat more, and the presumptions on which symbolism is based lead us to formulate its doctrine as follows: every feeling or sensation, every moment of consciousness is different. This makes it quite impossible to reproduce our feelings, as we experience them, in reality, by using conventional language or common literature. Each poet has a unique personality, so his task is to find a special and specific language that suits the expression of his personality and his feelings, always bearing in mind that each element is equal to the combination of other elements. Symbolism invents a new artistic language using symbols, because it is not possible to directly express something that is peculiar, fleeting and vague in the form of statements and descriptions. Instead, this can only be done through a succession of words and images, which will be used to make suggestions to the reader.

The Symbolist movement was born in France and was limited to a rather esoteric kind of French poetry, but over time it was destined to spread throughout the Western world. In 1899, the poet and critic Arthur Symons, influenced by Mallarmé's theories, published an essay entitled, "The Symbolist Movement in Literature". In the essay, he asserted that the soul of things can be made visible through symbols, and he proposed experiments in poetic prose and original ways of exploring poets' inner worlds in order to dominate their subjectivity. As we can see, Symons's vision raises questions about the language relating to tone, tact, vocabulary and intuition. Another Symbolist poet is Jules Laforgue, the heir to much of Corbière's literature. Laforgue's work is closely associated with the poetic commentator, something that should be noted, as few modernists were willing to take on the role of interpreters of their own art. One of Laforgue's most defended theories is the need for the poet to have a historical outlook: the past, in addition to having the quality of being the past, is present in our lives and affects us. Another of his ideas consists of espousing the impersonality of the poet, who lends his voice without sharing the feelings to which he refers. This greatly influenced the thought of several modern authors such as William Butler Yeats, Gertrude Stein, T. S. Eliot and James Joyce, since their works are—to a large extent—a continuation or expansion of symbolism.

The idea merits mention that both Joyce and Eliot pursued Symbolism without renouncing Realism, as both simultaneously observe and try to understand reality, which is quite uncommon. The Realist explains what happens and seeks the causal why (how, when, where), that is, he seeks solutions. The Symbolist seeks the essential why, the meaning and sense of things. In the two authors' works, we find the permanent desire to describe the world, without relinquishing that which upholds and explains it, since the complexity of the human soul can only be explained via the union of Realism and Symbolism.

It is interesting to note here the idea that, through their works, both Joyce and Eliot forsook developing a single theory that could explain everything, annulling the richness of the multiplicity of particularities. In the case of Joyce, his attitude towards the modernist climate is widely affected by the loneliness and experience arising from it. *Ulysses* was conceived as a book capable of expressing multiple styles and 18 different points of view, as this was the only way to capture the essence of the relativity that is present in reality. And the various narrative methods in *Ulysses* are different ways of ordering experience. Eliot, in the same way as Joyce, although primarily via poetry, takes the existence of a diverse and plural world as a starting point, in which there is a multiplicity of individuals and experiences. Reality is too rich to be expressed through one single omniscient narrator who knows and understands everything. What is authentic is diverse and, from a literary perspective, this can be translated as the presence of different viewpoints and states of mind. According to Edmund Wilson, the world of Proust, Einstein and Joyce is always changing, as it is perceived by different observers and by these observers at different times, something which could also be used to describe T. S. Eliot (Wilson, 1996, pp. 221-222).

According to this conception, Eliot's poetry would be a ritual and a mystery similar to a Cubist collage. Thus, Walton Litz said that Eliot's main poem, *The Wasteland*, would represent the biggest revelation of modern mankind's spiritual state, or 'Hell seen from Purgatory', with its plurality (Litz, 1973, p. 8). For an opposing interpretation, see R. M. Adams, who says that two early Eliot poems, entitled *Prufrock* and *The Wasteland*, instead of expressing modernism, describe the author's personal disintegration in the context of post-war Europe. For Adams, Eliot's modernism took place during a brief and limited period, in which he had a direct relationship with the poet Ezra Pound. One could say that Adams only supports true modernism in Eliot's early work (Adams, 1973, pp. 145 and 151). Furthermore, Hugh Kenner argues that *The Wasteland* is a determinant for a better understanding of modernism, and even perhaps of post-modernism (Kenner, 1973, p. 24). Similarly, Menand says that Eliot is modern, while rejecting the romantic trends of modernist literature, which in turn is a cause of liberalism, secularism and *laissez faire* that he personally detested (Menand, 2007, pp. 7 and 166).

III. LIFE AND BEAUTY: ART FOR ART'S SAKE

As mentioned, there are also other authors who, unlike Joyce and Eliot, defend Symbolism, and only Symbolism, as the authentic literary stance. This would be the case of Oscar Fingal O'Flahertie Wills Wilde, who through his slogan 'art for art's sake' asserted the sovereignty of creators and their creations (Gay, 2007, pp. 68-69). This adage has many followers. To some, such as Baudelaire, the artist's task is not to copy reality, but to use imagination to unveil the

world's mysteries that, as we will see, somewhat matches Oscar Wilde's thought in his 1890 essay entitled "The Critic as Artist". The piece is a Socratic dialogue between two characters, Gilbert, who sets out the author's ideas, and Ernest, who like a student expresses his doubts and suspicions on different topics related to beauty and its manifestations. What is surprising in the text are Gilbert's explanations, as he responds to all of the objections that Ernest outlines naturally, even managing to convince readers. The essay is a textual defence of Symbolism, as alluded to above, from a theoretical stance.

Wilde asserts the supremacy of literature over other arts, as only literature is a reflection of human beings' everyday activities: 'Life and Literature, life and the perfect expression of life' (Wilde, 2001, p. 72). Life is the highest form that exists in the world, and only literature can express its richness. Art is spirit expressed through the subject matter. Artistic experience needs a physical medium, such as contemplating an oil painting, or reading a poem written on paper: 'Such things are less than the yellow trumpet of one daffodil of the field, far less than the meanest of the visible arts [...] for, just as Nature is struggling mind into matter, so Art is mind expressing itself under the conditions of matter, and thus, even in the lowliest of her manifestations, she speaks to both sense and soul alike' (Wilde, 2001, p. 184). There are very few human beings who are called upon to create, and not all who call themselves artists deserve that name, since in addition to a certain personal ability, both preparation and effort are required. Which is not to say that art can be subjected to the rigidity of a scientific formula, at which point it is no longer a passion. But literature, in addition to needing life to fulfil its function, requires a creator to make it true, infusing it with his breath, a task entrusted to the poet. This is why artists must have a prominent social position, because the world needs them in order to have art.

Wilde, as a good modern artist, far from wanting to deny the self, defends it, urging all poets to develop it and to be themselves, which is, in his opinion, the only way authors have of doing their job correctly: 'If you wish to understand others you must intensify your own individualism' (Wilde, 2001, p. 155). If we delve deeper into the issue, we discover that for Wilde the purpose of art is emotion itself, namely that art exists for mankind's enjoyment, for the delight of the senses. The slogan 'art for art's sake' therefore shows that life consists of enjoying the useless. This is expressed in the dialogue between Gilbert and Ernest below, the two protagonists in the essay quoted above: 'emotion for the sake of emotion is the aim of art, and emotion for the sake of action is the aim of life, and of that practical organisation of life that we call society' (Wilde, 2001, p. 178). The enjoyment or experience that human beings can obtain from their union with the artwork they gaze upon as viewers, which becomes part of them through their emotions, can only be achieved from an emotional standpoint. If we want to enjoy art, it is necessary to set reason aside, as it is an impediment: 'There are two ways of disliking art, Ernest. One is to dislike it. The other, to like it rationally' (Wilde, 2001, p. 218). In addition, for the artist beauty occupies a privileged place among human beings, having its own identity. There is a sense of beauty that is independent of reason and superior to all other senses. The sense of beauty possesses a value that is similar to the soul, prompting some to create, and others, to pure contemplation.

Another key issue to be noted is the relationship between the critic and the artist. According to Wilde, authentic criticism is loftier and more creative than the creation that spawns the critique, because it is a second form of creation of an already created artwork. Art criticism is more valuable than art itself because it echoes beauty in general, not stopping at particularities: 'It is the highest Criticism, for it criticises not merely the individual work of art, but Beauty itself' (Wilde, 2001, p. 134). The artist cannot recognise the beauty of another's work because he is too stuck on himself and on his task.

Oscar Wilde bears the past and its events in mind to then do away with it. The past is important, it exists, and I want to destroy it because, like what happens to most modern artists, the author believes tradition is a loadstone that must be discarded. Finding the meaning of our existence from that which has already existed would undermine artistic quality. We can only face the future if we are not tied to yesterday. In the words of Wilde: 'The man who regards his past is a man who deserves to have no future to look forward to' (Wilde, 2001, p. 210).

IV. CONCLUSIONS

The fact that Oscar Wilde asserts the critic's supremacy over actual creation is no small matter if one seeks understanding of the true meaning of the term, in addition to understanding his thought. Criticism is understood not as a negation of something or a simple listing of negative items, but is instead deemed a fair and realistic description of that which is being assessed. The true critic, especially the aesthetic critic, demands and pursues the perfection of what we have before us through truthful judgement of the subject. The critical spirit absolutely makes artistic creation possible.

As seen, there are many different authors and styles that arose during the modern era where, unlike the classical world, society starts to view itself as an artifice, since it was created by humans seeking their own survival and pleasure. However, if we are all seeking the same thing, is peaceful coexistence possible? This is the scenario in which modernisms erupt, which combines realism and mere description with other theories that advocate reflecting the richness of the world through the search for meaning.

In the same way that modernity was a long process that engendered changes in different areas of reality, these variations have influenced the specific way in which we—the Postmodernists—have of understanding the world and others. The importance of the individual, the self, is a cornerstone of modern structures, where we sometimes feel precisely that these structures are more important than we are. Disproportionate egos and selfishness have led to the

depersonalisation of processes, such as the internet, where the speed and constant updating of news turns out to be more important than us actually understanding them.

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Carmen Romero Sánchez-Palencia, Doctor in Social Sciences and Humanities. The doctoral thesis on Thomas Stearn's Eliot defended in Madrid (Spain) on 25 October 2012.

A full-time lecturer and academic collaborator in the Department of Humanities of Francisco de Vitoria University in Madrid. She lectures on the History of Thinking and Anthropology in different degree courses, including Law, Fine Arts, Advertising, and Nursing. Publications:

- Book chapter: "El arte de educar: la seducción del conocimiento" in the book entitled: *Construyendo la nueva enseñanza superior* ("The art of education: the seduction of knowledge" in *Building New Higher Education*), pp. 514-523, 2014, McGraw-Hill, Madrid, Spain.

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- Article: *Actualización docente: La postmodernidad y la película de Matrix (Teaching Update: Postmodernity and the Film Matrix)*, Opcion, Vol. 31, 2015, pp. 1086-1103, Venezuela.

She was Deputy Director of a University Women's Hall of Residence. Teachers' awards at Universidad Francisco de Vitoria, Madrid, Spain: Academic Year 2010-11, 2011-12, 2012-13, 2013-2014. Current and previous research interests: Philosophy (Aesthetics, Anthropology) and Literature.

Doctor Romero Sánchez-Palencia is currently the chief researcher of the Integral Formation Impact international working group, working with Finis Terrae University of Chile.

Translating *Tutur si Waloh* in Karonese Society into English

Milisi Sembiring

Fakultas Sastra, Universitas Methodist Indonesia, Medan, Sumut, Indonesia

Abstract—*Tutur si waloh* are eight kinship terms in Karonese society. The functions of each kinship term are different and they have their own responsibility. They are applied in daily life and at cultural events. This study sought to explore the translation problems and its procedures in translating the eight kinship terms in Karonese society into English. The study was conducted using the qualitative research method and the data obtained was analyzed through translation and cultural analyses. The results reveal the absence of *tutur si waloh* in the target language, which was the translation problem in this study. However, Newmark's translation procedures were workable in translating them into English. The researcher applied paraphrase, cultural equivalent, descriptive equivalent, transference and couplet translation procedures.

Index Terms—*tutur si waloh*, Karonese society, translation procedures

I. INTRODUCTION

Linguistics and culture are the centre of analysis in the process of translation. The source language (SL) which is transferred into the target language (TL) has different linguistic and cultural features. The differences make it difficult to establish equivalence in the TL. The translator should be familiar with the linguistic and cultural features of both the SL and the TL. The researcher as the translator focused his study on translating cultural texts from Karonese society into English. He is familiar with Karonese culture; it is his own culture and he is active in his cultural activities. He has done other research on Karonese culture, his most recent research being translating Karonese *Daliken si telu* texts into English. It was published in the *International Journal of Language Studies* volume (9) number 3. *Tutur si waloh*, the 'eight kinship terms', is a cultural aspect which acts as standard markers of kinship in Karonese society. The kinship system occurs through parentage, sibling relationships and marriage. Every Karonese community has kinship terms, which can be established by relationships of blood or marriage. Practising the kinship terms preserves the status of one group in relationships with another in Karonese society. The terms consist of *kalimbubu*, *senina* and *anakberu*. Karonese society follows the principles of *mehamat man kalimbubu*, *metenget man senina* and *ras metami man anakberu*. Sembiring (2014) translates them literally as 'honor the wife givers', 'respect the elders of the clan', and 'understand and encourage the wife takers'. *Metenget man senina* could be translated as '*senina* should be careful or wise with those of their same clan'. *Sembuyak* or *senina* meaning 'ruler', *anakberu* meaning 'those who serve' and *kalimbubu* meaning 'those who are served' form a cultural connection system that indicates the position of someone in the kinship structure of Karonese society. Many young Karonese people do not know their kinship terms, and they do not understand who are their *senina*, *anakberu* and *kalimbubu*.

The researcher translated the *tutur si waloh* to be eight kinship terms in English. The text was written by Ginting (2014), in his book entitled *Ranan Adat: Orat Nggeluh, Rikut Bicara Kalak Karo, Ope Tubuh seh Idilo Dibata*.

Karonese society inhabits the *Karo* Highlands, the sub-districts of Deli Serdang, Langkat, Dairi and Southeast Aceh, as well as the city of Medan in the Province of North Sumatra. The name of this ethnic group is used for one of the areas they inhabit, the *Karo* highlands of *Karo* District. *Karo* District is located in the Bukit Barisan Mountains and it is the source of a river. The area of *Karo* District is 2,127.25 km² and it is between the latitudes of 2°50'–3°19' north and the longitudes of 97°55'–98°38' east.

The boundaries of *Karo* District are:

- a. Deli Serdang and Langkat districts on the north;
- b. Dairi and Toba Samosir districts on the south;
- c. Deli Serdang and Simalungan districts on the east; and
- d. Aceh Tenggara district on the west.

The Karonese are known as friendly people and they practise a unique culture in their daily life. They practise *tutur si waloh* in their daily activities. Their functions and positions are different in certain ceremonies. One can be a *kalimbubu*, *sembuyak* or *anakberu*, depending on the context and situation in the Karonese kinship system.

The significance of this study is in the production of the TL as the documentation for translating Karonese kinship terms into English and as a reference for cultural translation studies. It has useful information for research in the process of translating which focuses on the strategies, methods or procedures of translation.

The role of the translator is to facilitate the transfer of messages, meaning and cultural elements from one language to another, and create an equivalent response from the receiver (Nida 1964: 13). Culture and language are very important,

but culture is more difficult than language structure in the process of translating. Newmark (1988) suggests two opposing methods; *transference* is a strategy when an SL word is transferred into a TL text in its original form, which gives color to the text, for example keeping cultural names and concepts; and *componential analysis* excludes the culture and highlights the message.

Sembiring (2015:133) explains translation as the process of transferring the message and form of a written SL text into an equivalent TL text. This requires linguistic and cultural understanding, and the analytical processing of both the languages and cultures of the SL and the TL.

In the process of translating *tutur si waloh* kinship terms texts in Karonese society into English, the researcher as the translator translated them equivalently, based on the references and the cultural semantic equivalences. *Tutur si waloh* is a Karonese cultural heritage, which has been used for cultural activities and daily life.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Hatim and Mason (1990: 30) confirm that translation itself is regarded as an activity in which each meaningful SL text item has to be represented by an equivalent TL text item and vice versa.

The central problems of translating *tutur si waloh* in Karonese society into English were to find the equivalences of the SL in the TL. To overcome these problems the researcher applied Baker's theory of translation.

Baker (1992) proposes six types of equivalence:

- (1) equivalence at word level;
- (2) equivalence above word level;
- (3) grammatical equivalence;
- (4) textual equivalence: thematic and information structures;
- (5) textual equivalence: cohesion;
- (6) pragmatic equivalence.

This approach is seen as follows:

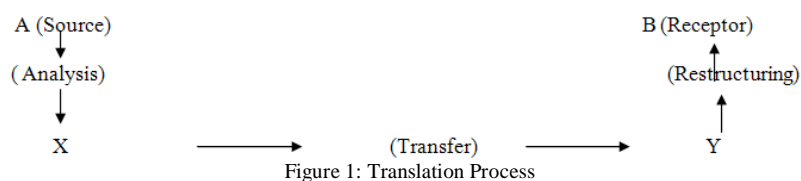


Figure 1: Translation Process

Besides that, the researcher applied Newmark's methods of translation. Newmark (1988: 45) divides the translation process into eight methods, four oriented to the SL, and the other four oriented to the TL. The eight methods are illustrated in the form of a flattened V diagram (Fig. 2).



Figure 2: The Flattened V Diagram

Bell (1991: 13) adds that the aim of translation is to reproduce as accurately as possible all the grammatical and lexical features of the SL original by finding equivalents in the TL. This can be a difficult problem, which the researcher thinks is caused by the linguistic and cultural differences between the SL and the TL.

Catford (1965:94) contends that translation fails, or untranslatability occurs, when it is impossible to build functionally relevant features of the situation into the contextual meaning of the TL text. Ricoeur (2006) reveals that untranslatability occurs because of diversity and it affects all the operating levels of language:

- the phonetic and articulatory division at the root of phonetic systems;
- the lexical division that separates languages, not word for word, but from lexical system to lexical system;
- the verbal meanings within a lexicon consisting of a network of differences and synonyms; and
- the syntactic division affecting linguistic untranslatability.

Linguistics theory and translation theory are interrelated in analysing the message in both the SL and the TL. Linguistics theory develops the translation theory in the process of translation.

The researcher as translator is not familiar with the specific cultural terms in English, because they are only found in the Karonese language. In his opinion, it is more difficult for him to translate his mother tongue language into English than translating English into his mother tongue language. It is not enough for him to recognise and understand a different language, social and cultural source context, but he should also be able to reproduce the meaning in the TL. To overcome these situations he needs to understand how the source text (ST) is translated into the target text (TT).

Therefore, the description and the explanation of specific cultural and kinship terms are essential elements in translation.

Furthermore, to enable the translation to be well-accepted by readers the researcher as translator applied some particular translation procedures in translating the SL into the TL.

Newmark's (1988) translation procedures were applied in discussing the process of the translation of the *tutur si waloh* of Karonese society.

Descriptive equivalent is the procedure of translation which needs additional explanation in the TT. So the meaning of the *tutur si waloh* in the ST is explained in several words in the TT. Shifts or transpositions are also applied in the process of translating a culture-bound term (CBT) from the ST to the TT.

In the process of translation, the message cannot be separated from the culture and context of the language. Newmark (1988:9) defines what translation theory does:

1. It identifies a translation problem (no problem – no translation theory);
2. indicates all the factors that have to be taken into account in solving the problem;
3. lists all the possible translation procedures or methods; and
4. recommends the most suitable procedures, plus the appropriate translation.

Methods and Procedures of Translation

Newmark (1988: 81) classifies the difference between translation methods and translation procedures. He writes, "translation methods relate to whole texts, while translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language." He goes on to refer to the following methods of translation:

a. *Word-for-word translation* is often demonstrated as interlinear translation, with the TL immediately below the SL words. The SL word-order is preserved and the words translated singly by their most common meanings, out of context.

b. *Literal translation* occurs when the SL grammatical constructions are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context.

c. *Faithful translation* attempts to produce the precise contextual meaning of the original within the constraints of the TL grammatical structures. It transfers cultural words and preserves the degree of grammatical and lexical 'abnormality' (deviation from SL norms) in the translation.

d. *Semantic translation* occurs when a translator translates less important cultural words by culturally neutral third or functional terms but not by cultural equivalents.

e. *Adaptation* is the freest form of translation, and it is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, and plots are usually preserved; the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text is rewritten.

f. *Free translation* reproduces the matter without the manner, or the content without the form of the original.

g. *Idiomatic translation* reproduces the 'message' of the original but tends to distort nuances of meaning by preferring colloquialisms and idioms where these do not exist in the original.

h. *Communicative translation* attempts to render the exact contextual meaning of the original in such a way that both content and language are readily acceptable and comprehensible to the readership. (1988: 45-47).

Newmark (1988) differs between translation methods and translation procedures: the translation methods relate to whole texts, while translation procedures are used for sentences and the smaller units of language.

The researcher applied two of Newmark's methods of translation, which are literal translation and semantic translation.

Translation procedures focused on sentences and smaller units of language within the text. They were applied by the researcher in an effort to formulate an equivalence for the purposes of transferring elements of meaning from the ST to the TT.

Sembiring (2015) applied six of Newmark's procedures, in translating *Daliken si Telu Texts in Karonese Society into English*. They were descriptive equivalent, transference, paraphrase, couplets, notes and transposition. In this current study, the researcher applied five of Newmark's procedures of translation. They were cultural equivalent, descriptive equivalent, paraphrase, couplets and transference. The reasons for choosing these procedures are that many specific CBTs are found in *tutur si waloh* texts and they are hard to translate into English. Newmark (1988) describes some translation procedures as follows:

a. *Transference (emprunt, loan word, transcription)* is the process of transferring a SL word to a TL text.

b. *Naturalization* adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology (word-forms) of the TL.

c. *Cultural equivalent* means a SL cultural word is translated by a TL cultural word.

d. *Functional equivalent* is applied to cultural words, requires the use of a culture-free word, sometimes with a new specific term; it therefore neutralises or generalises the SL word; and sometimes adds a particular word.

e. *Descriptive equivalent* occurs when description and function are essential elements in explanation and therefore in translation.

f. *Componential analysis* in translation means the basic process is to compare a SL word with a TL word which has a similar meaning, but is not an obvious one-to-one equivalent, by demonstrating first their common and then their differing sense components. Normally the SL word has a more specific meaning than the TL word, and the translator

has to add one or two TL sense components to the corresponding TL word in order to produce a closer approximation of meaning.

g. Synonymy is in the sense of a near TL equivalent to an SL word in a context, where a precise equivalent may or may not exist. This procedure is used for a SL word where there is no clear one-to-one equivalent, and the word is not important in the text, in particular for adjectives or adverbs of quality.

h. Through-translation is the literal translation of common collocations, names of organisations, the components of compounds and perhaps phrases is known as *caique* or loan translation.

i Shifts or transpositions is a translation procedure involving a change in the grammar from SL to TL.

j. Modulation is a variation through a change of viewpoint, of perspective and very often of category of thought.

k. Recognized translation occurs when a translator should normally use the official or the generally accepted translation of any institutional term.

l. Compensation occurs when loss of meaning, sound-effect, metaphor or pragmatic effect in one part of a sentence is compensated in another part, or in a contiguous sentence.

m. Paraphrase is an amplification or explanation of the meaning of a segment of the text. It is used in an 'anonymous' text when it is poorly written, or has important implications and omissions.

n. Couplets occur when a translator combines two translation procedures respectively for dealing with a single problem. They are particularly common for cultural words, if transference is combined with a functional or a cultural equivalent.

o. Notes are additional information in a translation. The additional information a translator may have to add to his version is normally cultural, technical or linguistic and is dependent on the requirement of his, as opposed to the original, readership.

The researcher used only five procedures, which are cultural equivalent, descriptive equivalent, paraphrase, couplets and transference.

Some kinship terms in Karonese society were transferred in detail by applying *paraphrase*. Newmark (1988: 91) asserts paraphrase is the explanation of the meaning of the CBT. Here the explanation is much more detailed than that of *descriptive equivalent*. Newmark's translation procedure of *couplets* was also applied in this study. Newmark (1988: 91) explains that this occurs when the translator combines two different procedures. Another of Newmark's translation procedures is the use of notes or additional information in the process of translation. The best translation procedures applied to resolve the research questions in this study were paraphrase, notes and descriptive equivalent. Employing notes in this study could benefit the TT readers as much as the ST readers.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this study the researcher used qualitative research as an umbrella for the study and a cultural approach to seek the equivalence of transferring the *tutur si waloh* of Karonese society into English. In the process of data analysis, Miles and Huberman (1984: 21) maintain the steps in qualitative analysis include: (1) data collection (2) data reduction; (3) data displays; and (4) conclusion drawing/ verification.

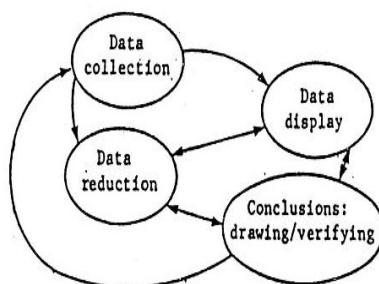


Figure 3: Components of Data Analysis: Interactive Model

Miles and Huberman (1984: 21) emphasise that qualitative data can be reduced and transformed in many ways, including: through sheer selection, through summary or paraphrase, or through being subsumed in a larger pattern.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

Tutur si waluh 'eight kinship terms'

The eight kinship terms in Karonese society, known as *tutur si waloh*, consist of *kalimbubu*, *puang kalimbubu*, *sembuyak*, *senina*, *senina sipemeren*, *senina siparibanen*, *anakberu* and *anakberu menteri*. They are untranslatable because they do not have any equivalences in the TL, English. Therefore, they were translated with lengthy explanations in the TL.

Tutur si waloh can be depicted as follows:

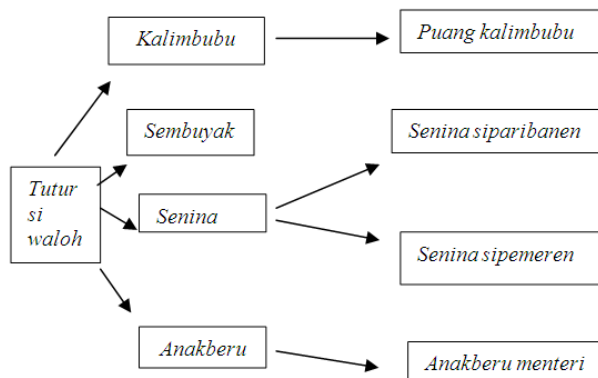


Figure 4.: Tutur si waloh

(1) SL: *Kalimbubu*.

TL: Wife givers

Kalimbubu in SL means members of a man's mother's lineage; they are parents and brothers and other agnatic kin of the wives of the men of the ruling lineage. The term *kalimbubu* is not found in the TL, but it means 'wife givers'. The function of the wife givers in the SL is not the same as in the TL. *Kalimbubu* are the men of the clans which are wife givers and involve the wife's mother's brothers. They are usually respected. Grandfathers, fathers and sons who are wife givers are called *kalimbubu*. So *kalimbubu* is explained in the TL. And all the wife givers are referred to as *kalimbubu*. For the first data, *descriptive equivalent* was applied. Newmark's translation procedure of *descriptive equivalent* was reasonable to explain the meaning of the CBT in several words in the TL.

Sembiring (2014:2) emphasizes that *kalimbubu* follows the principle of *metami man anakberu* which means to 'understand and encourage the wife takers'. So *kalimbubu* should persuade and forgive their *anakberu* or 'new children'. There is no equivalence of *kalimbubu* in the TL and it is translated by the procedure of *descriptive equivalent*.

(2) SL: *Puang kalimbubu*

TL: *Kalimbubu* of *kalimbubu*

Puang kalimbubu are the members of a man's grandmother's brothers' lineage; they are the fathers and brothers. So *puang kalimbubu* are *kalimbubu* of *kalimbubu*. The *puang kalimbubu* are usually seated on the right of their *anakberu*. The data for number 2 is absent in the TL, so it needs a lengthy explanation. Therefore, the procedure of translation for this data was *paraphrase*.

(3) SL: *Sembuyak*

TL: Brother

Sembuyak in the SL is 'brother' in the TL. It means men from the same clan as the mother. A father's brothers are also called 'father' and they are also *sembuyak* in Karonese society. In translating *sembuyak* in the SL into the TL, the researcher applied the translation procedure of *cultural equivalent*.

The equivalence of *sembuyak* in the TL is not accurate because the function of *sembuyak* in the SL and brother in the TL is not the same culturally. *Se* means one and *mbuyak* is a part of stomach.

(4) SL: *Senina*

TL: Brothers who have the same grandfather

Senina are the sons of a father's brothers. They are men of another lineage of the same clan, but they do not belong to the same subclan as the ruling lineage. *Senina* can be classified with general and specific meanings. It is difficult to transfer *senina* in the SL into the TL. It relates to social life in Karonese society.

Senina generally means those who belong to the same clan but have a different lineage. *Senina* in the SL was transferred into the TL with a detailed and lengthy explanation. Therefore, the *paraphrase* procedure of translation for this data was applied. *Senina* is for being in the same clan and having the same parents. *Senina* has three categories; they are *senina siparibanen*, *senina sipemeren* and *senina sipengalon*.

(5) SL: *Senina sipemeren*

TL: Sisters' children

Senina sipemeren are from the lineage of mother. If the mother and her sisters have children, their children are *senina sipemeren*.

(6) SL: *Senina siparibanen*

TL: Sisters' husbands

If the husbands' wives are sisters, the husbands are culturally *senina siparibanen* and sisters' children is *senina sipemeren*.

For the data of numbers 5 and 6 the procedure of *descriptive equivalent* was applied to explain the SL in the TL.

(7) SL: *Anakberu*

TL: Father's sisters's families

Anakberu is used for brothers-in-law, married women of the ruling lineage, plus their husbands and their husband's agnatic kin or descendants. Father's sisters' families are also called *anakberu*. *Paraphrase* translation procedure was applied to translate data number 7, with the meaning of the CBT in the SL being explained in the TL. In this case the explanation of *anakberu* is in much more detail than that of *descriptive equivalent*.

(8) SL: *Anakberu menteri*

TL: *Anakberu of anakberu*

Anakberu menteri are wife takers of *anakberu*. It also means fathers' sisters' daughters' husbands, sisters' daughters' husbands, sisters' husbands' sisters' husbands and grandfathers' sisters' sons. *Anakberu menteri* in the SL was transferred as it is in the TL. The *couplets* translation procedure was applied to provide a clear understanding in the TL. The researcher combined *transference* and *paraphrase* in translating *anakberu menteri* in the SL into the TL. The cultural term of *anakberu menteri* in the SL was borrowed and this CBT was explained in detail in the TL.

Anakberu menteri are usually asked to prepare food and to serve their *kalimbubu*.

Karonese society has specific relationships among people of the wife-taking (*anakberu*) and the wife-giving (*kalimbubu*) clans.

The eight kinship terms in Karonese society have no equivalences in English. They are untranslatable and they are absent in the TL. Instead, they require a lengthy explanation in the TL. The kinship in the SL is still used and explained to convey its meaning. None of the eight kinship terms in Karonese society has its equivalence in the TL because the cultures are different.

Categories of *kalimbubu*

a. *Kalimbubu tua* means 'wife givers of grandfathers'.

b. *Kalimbubu benabena* means 'grandmothers' brothers'.

c. *Kalimbubu simupus* means 'mother's brothers', members of a man's mother's lineage by birth.

d. *Kalimbubu iperdemui* means 'wife's brothers'.

e. *Puang kalimbubu* means '*kalimbubu* of *kalimbubu*'.

Categories of *senina / sembuyak*

a. *Senina langsung ku sukut* consists of *sembuyak*, men who have the same parents, and *gamet* or *senina kuranan*, men who have the same clan, but they have a different subclan. The role of *senina kuranan* is usually practised in a wedding ceremony. He facilitates the message of the groom's party for his *senina*.

b. *Senina sierkelang ku sukut* consists of *sipemeren*, people whose mothers are sisters or whose grandmothers are sisters, and *siparibanen*, people whose wives are sisters.

c. *Sipengalon* means groups who are *senina* because a parent's male cousin married a woman, and the woman's parents would be named *senina sipengalon*.

d. *Sembuyak* means those who have their origin in one abdomen or uterus, and forms the basis of their mutual obligation.

Categories of *anakberu*

a. *Anakberu* means the men who are 'wife takers', including their brothers and their fathers.

b. *Anakberu menteri* are '*anakberu* of *anakberu*'.

c. *Anakberu singikuri* are '*anakberu* of *anakberu menteri*'.

Anakberu singikuri do not have a role in Karonese *adat* (traditional) ceremonies and are, therefore, not included in *tutur si waloh*.

V. FINDINGS

Of all the terms of *tutur si waloh* in Karonese society, only one of them has an equivalence in English. It is *sembuyak* which translates as 'brother'. It was moved from the SL into the TL by the translation procedure of cultural equivalent. But, there are no equivalences for *kalimbubu*, *puang kalimbubu*, *senina*, *anakberu* or *anakberu menteri* in the TL. Instead, they were transferred using Newmark's translation procedures. The researcher applied *paraphrase*, *cultural equivalent*, *descriptive equivalent*, *transference* and *couplets* translation procedures.

Kalimbubu means clans of wife givers. There is usually more than one clan.

Puang kalimbubu means *kalimbubu* of *kalimbubu*.

Senina are grandfathers, father's brothers, brothers, brother's sons and are men of another lineage of the same clan, but not the same subclan, as the ruling lineage. *Senina sipemeren*, and *senina siparibanen* are from the lineage of the mother. They were translated using the procedures of *descriptive equivalent* and *paraphrase*.

Anakberu are wife takers and *anakberu menteri* are wife takers of *anakberu*. *Anakberu menteri* was borrowed in the TL and this CBT was explained in detail in the TL using the translation procedure of *couplets*.

Anakberu singikuri are wife takers of *anakberu menteri*.

VI. CONCLUSION

Newmark's translation procedures were applied in this study. The central problems of translating *tutur si waloh* in Karonese society into English were to find their equivalences in the TL. However, the equivalences of *tutur si waloh*

are not all found in English. The terms *kalimbubu*, *puang kalimbubu*, *senina*, *senina sipemerren*, *senina siparibanen*, *anakberu* and *anakberu menteri* are absent in the TL. Therefore, they need to be transferred with lengthy explanations in the TL. The only *tutor si waloh* which has equivalence in English is *sembuyak*, which was translated by the cultural equivalent procedure to be 'brother'.

The researcher applied the translation procedures of *cultural equivalent*, *paraphrase*, *descriptive equivalent*, *transference* and *couplets* to translate the SL into the TL. Paraphrase and descriptive translation procedures were mostly used in this process because the ST consists of culture-bound terms.

For the further research, translating Karo cultural texts into English using the relevant translation methods and procedures would be very interesting and worthwhile work.

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Milisi Sembiring completed his PhD in Linguistics and Translation at the University of Sumatera Utara. He is the Head of the Department of English Language and Literature and a lecturer at the Methodist University of Indonesia, Medan. He teaches translation at the university.

He has published many articles in different international journals and presented papers at international seminars on Translating Karonese Culture into English.

The Journey from the Inferno to the Purgatory: Eliot's Religious Odyssey

Iman Morshed Hammad

Department of English, An-Najah National University, Nablus, Palestine

Abstract—The poetry of T.S. Eliot is akin to a full term conception of spiritual faith that inevitably ushers in the birth of spiritual salvation after a long period of suffering and labour. This pattern is not perceived in one single poem or a specific collection of poems, but rather in the entire corpus of Eliot's poetry. It is rendered tangible when we trace the process of questing for spiritual faith in his early poetry where the need for faith is the sorest after the panorama of suffering that the human beings brought upon themselves. Throughout his poetic career, Eliot attributed this suffering to mere futility, greedy materialism and loveless existence marred by lechery rather than genuine feelings. This paper tries to prove that Eliot's poetry delineates a mental process that takes the reader from the inferno of contemporary life to the purgatory of religious faith which is potentially capable of lifting Man before falling into the abyss of loss. This being said, the paper aims at drawing the features of Eliot's perception of salvation which seems similar to a piece of mosaic which gets clearer and clearer as every piece is put in its proper place.

Index Terms—poetry, twentieth century English poetry, T.S. Eliot, Eliot's religious odyssey

I. INTRODUCTION

Being religiously inclined, T.S. Eliot, with unrivalled craftsmanship and timeless memorableness portrays stages of spiritual consciousness which start with a world of sickening monotony and agonizing boredom and then develops into an intense recognition of uprootedness and spiritual metamorphosis of a civilization reduced into "a heap of broken images," a recognition which ushers in spiritual contemplation. After a long process of contemplation, Eliot's quest ends with a recognition that faith is Man's only way out, but it is lost and should be regained, and this is the ultimate goal of the religious odyssey that Eliot's poetry aims at pursuing.

As a religious poet, far from being blindly dogmatic, Eliot's poetry reveals deep respect for all religions which show spiritual faith and esteem for life. He possesses a profound and piercing insight into the human nature which, according to Eliot, aspires to and yearns for the same things despite some essential differences. Eliot's thorough study of the wisdom of the East and the West has enhanced his awareness of their being complementary and the need for an interpretation which accounts for both. Eliot's western ideology was not enough for his attempt to arrive at the unknowable, and, hence he pursued a religious odyssey which took him to the wisdom of the east before going back to anchor himself to the Anglican faith.

"Eliot was nothing if not a seeker: seeking to reconcile the culture he saw with what he hoped it to be; seeking to reconcile an inner despair with a parallel want of faith" (Dobrinska, 2015, p.1). It seems that Eliot's awareness of the schism between what is and what should be forms the very backbone which links his early poems to his latest.

In his early poems Eliot deems it necessary to start first by What Spurr (2010) calls evoking "the nihilism of modern lives and societies" (p.1) before recommending any amendments or solutions. However, "part of the problem with Eliot's late use of Christian spirituality to fill the void of modern times is that in his early and middle poems he made the void so large" (Bottum, 1995, p. 25). Nevertheless, Eliot's readers should not overlook his exploration of other beliefs specifically those of the east before he returns to the west and offers his own version of Christian spirituality.

For Eliot, there are common grounds among all religions. Hindu and Christian belief, for example, urge their followers to seek perfection through mortification of senses and fleshly desires (Chiari, 1979, p.144). Life itself is a quest for perfection that human beings have been striving to achieve, and this is exactly what can be gleaned from reading literature since old times. All religions eventually share the same ultimate goal, but the means and the details of its attainment are different.

Apart from Eliot's allusions to other beliefs, he portrays the quest for spiritual fulfillment by drawing contrasts between the past and the present. Eliot explores modern Man's loss in the realms of angst and aimlessness and denounces spiritual stagnation which obstructs the attainment of faith. Apart from the juxtaposition of antiquity and contemporaneity, Eliot lays much stress on the parallel between spiritual drought and the drought of the land, between spiritual starvation and yearning for water and between the cracked land and the split within the human psyche. When the poet reaches with his readers to the spiritual apprehension and meditation, he makes it explicit that the true believer can never be absolutely sure that he is perfectly attained to God's grace.

II. METHODOLOGY

The research methodology requires a profound reading of a good number of Eliot's poems and then reading a thorough analysis of these poems from different sources basically books and articles written by major critics who analyzed and interpreted Eliot's poetry like Gardner, Chiari, Southam, Drew, etc. The research is basically analytical and descriptive aiming at spotting a pattern that relates Eliot's early poems to the ones he wrote later in his poetic career. The hypothesis of the paper revolves around the idea that Eliot's poetry seems to have pursued a religious odyssey from the hopeless world of despair and futility to the world of salvation and redemption after a horrid portrayal of the imagery of waste, suffering and lack of any spiritual anchor.

III. THE ANALYSIS OF ELIOT'S POETRY AS A JOURNEY TOWARDS REDEMPTION

Eliot's conception of spiritual faith can be best comprehended within the context of his writings. In other words, a close examination of Eliot's poetic achievements would shed light on Eliot's gradual absorption of spiritual faith.

In his earliest poem "The Love Song of J Alfred Prufrock", Eliot probes subtly into the world of the tormented psyche of the sophisticated modern man—highly cultured, extremely involved with details of his existence, neurotic, emotionally disturbed, thirsty for love and craving for fulfillment. Prufrock, the poem's speaker, seems to be absorbed in the process of finding someone to love and to be loved by. On the other hand, Prufrock being a prototypical modern man, experienced too much of life to possess the courage to directly approach a woman. The comments others make about his inadequacies are still buzzing in his ears and obstruct any step he might take. The poem roams some concrete physical settings and then shifts to describe the attractive things a man may see in women with meticulous details. This causes Prufrock's frustration to build up, and then to vent itself by distancing himself emotionally from the world. The vague imagery of the ocean in the poem, one can argue, might be placed in the context of the sea of faith that retreated in our contemporary life and rendered us unable or rather unwilling to have in anyone or anything.

"The Love Song of J Alfred Prufrock" is, therefore, "an essay of the soul which takes place in a world of illusions, suffering and hypocritical self-deception." Oddly enough, this world is the world that we as readers consider real. These allusions, however, indicate a reality which lies "behind the shadow of the world of illusion and deceit" that both the poem and the epigraphs of the poem allude to. (Ward, 1973, p. 13).

Similarly, in Eliot's poetry, it is implied that modern civilization is nothing but soulless materialism which offers no anchor, no crutch and that it betrays those who rely on its efficacy and, most likely, they will shrivel to nothing but a dreary realm of paralysis and formlessness which is skillfully delineated in "The Hollow Men."

Shape without form, shade without colour

Paralysis force, gesture without motion. (11-12, p. 89)

After "The Hollow Men," Eliot has written religious poems the emergence of which is hardly predictable, but they "follow in natural sequence from such persistent absorption in the nature of spiritual reality." These poems do not reveal "easy faith"; they significantly show how Eliot's experience has been leading him upwards away from the "pit of his Inferno." They reiterate the thirst for faith, the comprehension of "its importance to the human spirit, the impalpable movements of the poet's mind from doubt towards acceptance, his gradual comprehension of what he himself believed to be a very great but difficult Christian virtue, humility" (Mathiessen, 1968, p. 99). Eliot seems to have been trying to conclude that it is by "the awful daring of a moment's surrender that we exist by praying" (Gardner, 1991, p. 172). In Eliot's later poetry, "the intensity of apprehension is replaced by an intensity of meditation" (Gardner, 1991, p.100) which is vital for moments of spiritual insights.

In "The Hippopotamus," Eliot explores decay which has crept into religion. The poem exposes the devitalization of the "True Church." The hippopotamus stands for man's fallibility and limitations. At the end, it is suggested that perhaps the "True Church" is the hippopotamus, mud-bound, whereas fallible man may ascend to heaven and be blessed by the choring angles (Headings, 1964, p. 40). This entails that the individual himself enjoys more access to God's grace than religious institutions which might get marred by corruption which hinders assuming the role of ushering believers to salvation.

To put this point more clearly, the hippo represents "the weakness of men, lukewarm in religious zeal but more acceptable to God than a disingenuous episcopacy" (Smith, 1956, p. 39). It brings into contrast—the "more or less innocent materialism of the secular world" and the "hypocritical materialism of the church (Drew, 1949, p. 37).

"The hippopotamus is the church, broad-backed, resting on its belly in the mud, and merely flesh and blood, therefore capable of errors and misdirection" (Chiari, 1979, p.54).

Flesh and blood is weak and frail

Susceptible to nervous shock;

While the true church can never fail

For it based upon a rock

The hippo's feeble steps may err.

In compassing material ends,

While the true church need never stir

To gather its dividends (5-12 p. 51).

One might add that Eliot presents the contrast between an animal that cannot help but be controlled by physical needs and an institution which is supposed to be governed by faith. Ironically enough, the materialistic needs of the hippo are nothing if compared to the avaricious materialism of the church.

Likewise, in "Sweeney among the Nightingales," Eliot implicitly criticizes contemporary life, and presents "a nostalgic rebuke to drab materialism in contradistinction to the vanished glories of a remote epoch when culture rested on ritual and religion, on piety and faith" (Smith, 1956, p. 46) and not on soulless materialism which weakens the angelic side of the human nature and nourishes the carnal desires which lead human beings astray.

A similar example can be found in the epigraph of "The Love Song of J. Alfred Prufrock" which introduces Guido as a man condemned to hell for his continued attachment to the world that he treats as a reality which is desirable, but can never be achieved again (Ward, 1973, p.13), a belief that hinders the attempt to rise.

In the same way, in "Gerontion" Eliot exposes a civilization based on materialistic values and secular ideologies with no spiritual communion or sense of human society, of irritated nerves, mental exhaustion, emotional fossilization and spiritual petrification (Drew, 1949, p. 48). Hence, one should ask about the reason behind Gerontion's crisis.

Drew (1994) thinks that Gerontion's dilemma lies in his lack of values; he never "fought" for the sake of what he believes in. This kind of spiritual stagnation is accompanied by physical sterility, a recurrent motif in Eliot's poetry which often depicts weariness. For instance, the goat is "starving and unhealthy" and the woman is not "a mother" or "a helpmate" but a "pretty housekeeper with petty ailments" (p.50).

To drive this point home, Gerontion is surrounded by emblems of decadence and futility. Gerontion has "shrunk to an abstract intelligence, anchored to nothing stable, with no organic relationship between himself and a living culture" (Drew, 1949, p. 51). It is spiritual faith, which is now missing, that gives human beings a feeling of security and a sustaining sense of relatedness that modern life has failed to provide.

Moreover, Gerontion is frustrated spiritually and sexually (Smith, 1956, p. 63) so much so that he has developed an awareness of the presence of guilt (Kenner, 1959, p.114):

After such knowledge what forgiveness (32, p. 40)!

This state of feeling proves that the Inferno of the human mind is a situation that one needs to experience in order to be able to pass to the Purgatory. These two states are not only physical but primarily spiritual, a realization that modern man needs to reach before he sets on his religious odyssey to attain a state spiritual equilibrium.

Gerontion proceeds by talking to Christ to excuse his behavior by explaining the reasons of his failure. Firstly, history gives no help and no security. The tree of life becomes "wrath-bearing tree" producing agonizing suffering. Secondly, he lives in a place which is not his and over which he has no control. Thirdly, he has lost his faith and senses and this loss thwarts intimate contact (Chiari, 1979, p.50-1). The knowledge here is knowledge of the sign which is his apology to the Word (Williamson, 1974, p.110). Figuratively, modern Man's suffering is identical with that of "Gerontion", for modern life caused Man to go back to the first square to seek a sign anew.

Gerontion thinks that his consciousness damns him (Kenner, 1959, p.113). In addition, forgiveness is the outcome of love, but a world crushed by hatred and conflict cannot produce it (Rai, 1986, p.36), for even the tree of knowledge bears God's wrath. To know is to suffer more and to forgive one needs to love, but modern knowledge thwarts all that leads to the noble type of love that leads to forgiveness.

In this poem, "the mythical background becomes Christian. The birth of Christ opens a new epoch within which the kind of civilization represented by Gerontion is decaying. Christ is perceived as a tiger, but Gerontion is incapable of revitalizing his life or entering any communion with that elemental source of juvenescence" (Drew, 1949, p.7). In the juvenescence of the year the sign of new life manifested itself differently. Christ, the tiger, has come, an image of terror or a springing form of terror and beauty which anticipates the feeling of waste land" (Williamson, 1974, p.109). Obviously, the imagery of the poem and its mythical background add to its pessimistic view.

The tiger springs in the new year. Us he devours. Think at least

We have not reached conclusion, when I

Stiffen in a rented house (47-49, p. 40).

It is substantially relevant to know that the poem suggests that Christ, the redeemer, turned as an avenger. Christ's change is due to human sins and deviation from the teachings of religion. It is equally important to add that April, the month of Christ's coming becomes cruel because people's conceptions of what is genuine and beneficial have become upside down.

April, in Eliot's poems, "the month of Christ's coming, the month of Chaucerian pilgrimages, is followed by depraved luscious May, overflowing with fruit, to be eaten, to be divided, to be drunk" so as to forget the terror of the tiger, through the pleasures of the senses in the shadow of flowering judas and Judas is also the name of the betrayer of Christ" (Chiari, 1979, p.49).

Obviously, salvation is followed by regression towards desires and pleasures. This is modern Man's way of betraying Christ, the Savior. The images here function to spot light on Man's tendency towards Epicurean ways even after they somehow reach some sort of spiritual awareness which they soon overlook. Man is pulled down every time he aspires to God.

For Williamson (1974), the fearless and resolute honesty of Gerontion's confession is redemption from sheer despair. Without faith, waiting for rain would be futile (p.112) because Eliot associates the aridity of the land with spiritual dryness caused by Man's abandonment of religious teachings.

In the past the Pharisees (members of an ancient Jewish sect) asked Christ for a sign and Jesus gave them the sign. Now "the modern world has taken the revelation with doubt and questioning." The new paganism betrayed the tiger, bringing not communion but division. The clear "Word" has lost all its resonance and is only a confusion of "whispers". (Drew, 1949, p.50-51). Modern consciousness seems to have turned deaf ears to faith and received any sign with resolute skepticism. Man's dilemma throughout time seems to be obviously similar.

Gerontion, one might argue, is a microcosmic figure representing modern man whose soul has become sapless after having lost the spiritual roots that clutch him. Gerontion is one among a countless number of people who dare not ask for salvation because they are burdened with sins. This establishes a recurrent motif in Eliot's poetry which implies that spiritual faith is something lost and must be regained. This poem has developed the theme of boredom and emptiness caused by the loss of faith and, therefore, belongs to the first stage of Eliot's poetic achievements.

Helen Gardner (1991) describes this stage as a kind of "apprehension" which is "a dark glass through which life is seen with strange clarity ... (99). But one might argue that it is not Eliot's glass which is dark, but it is the reality of modern life. What Eliot does is exposing the harsh realities to shock his reader into a kind of awareness.

When "The Waste Land" and "Gerontion" were written, Eliot's poetry was concerned with revealing the self "who does not speak" and disclosing "the self that wills" (Bush, 1984, p.43) and, hence, there seems to exist a state of inertia and inability to act as strong faith requires.

In "The Waste Land," Eliot presents the reader with the immense panorama of the contemporary civilization of broken images, barrenness, mechanicalness and imprisonment in life. The condensed portrayal of modern dilemma is meant to make the reader comprehend the situation and the urgent need for the fertilizing showers which are connected with spiritual revitalization. Physical sterility is related to spiritual sterility. The dilemma is multiple. The land is a desert where the cycle of life is thwarted because of spiritual petrification. People are impotent; animals are incapable of production; the land is dry.

Vegetation rites, Williamson (1974) contests, are impotent in the development of religious consciousness (p.199). Mrs. Weston links the Holy Grail with sex symbols. Therefore, the Grail which symbolizes revitalization assumes a great value for nature and Christian rituals (Williamson, 1974, p.122). This entails that if the lost Grail, faith, is regained, life will be restored for the waste land.

In "The Waste Land," the diseased soul is in search for faith. After having gone through the most agonizing aspects of the western civilization: fruitlessness, unrelatedness, sterile passion, loveless sex marred by mechanicalness, the Fisher King pursues a persistent quest for water and lost potency and, finally surrenders to the possibility of salvation.

The journey of the Fisher King, however, is not easy. "Physical and spiritual anguish distorts his vision as he walks with the last shadow of his fortune, the fisher king, once guardian of the grail (Williamson, 1974, p.48). Metaphorically, it seems that Eliot suggests that any quest one embarks on cannot be crowned with success unless one is armed with faith.

The sexual experience has "universal or religious" importance because it is related to the "state of the land". The "vegetation myths erect the cycle of the seasons into a series of divinely ordered event; and this cycle of life is based on sex and personified in ritualistic figures. The fortune of the land depends on the treatment of these figures and thus upon religion" (Williamson, 1974, p.118). Love itself is a quest for belonging in which spiritual satisfaction is paramount to physical gratification: otherwise, love will turn into mechanical sensuality exactly like prayers without belief. It is Providence that orders the cycle of the seasons in equal proportions with human devotion and readiness to perform the required rituals and, by the same token, love of God leads to spiritual peace and genuine love among human beings.

Eliot's "waste land suffers from the dearth of love and faith. At certain points, physical and spiritual symbols become indistinguishable." Like "Gerontion," the frustration of love is associated with spiritual gloom. The people of the waste land care too much for physical love and little, if at all, for spiritual love (Smith, 1956, p.71), and this in itself is a manifestation of failure in belief which leads to failure in any other significant relationship.

The Grail is considered to be "a supremacy holy Christian relic. It was lost, and search for the Grail became a powerful narrative image for man's search for spiritual truth ..." (Southam, 1974, p.70). For Kenner (1964), the quest for the Grail is "a quest for vision" (P.147). The theme of "The Waste Land" is the possibility, not the certainty, of regaining spiritual, intellectual and emotional vitality. This theme is developed by drawing upon myth, religion and vegetation myths in which the god must die to be reborn so as to bring fertility to the land and "potency" to the people and this parallels with Christ's crucifixion and resurrection (Southam, 1974, p. 69).

"The Waste Land" clearly portrays the unbridged gap between the past and the present which rested on rituals and religious concepts and the vicious materialism of today's people who lack religious orientation and commitment. But human deviation from spiritual norms does not go unpunished, for loss of faith, as Eliot's poetry implies, ushers in omnipotent waste.

The distortion with which the poem starts is extremely significant and its relevance to the development of the current theme of spiritual consciousness is subtly handled:

April is the cruelest month, breeding

Lilacs out of the dead land, mixing
 Memory with desire, stirring
 Dull roots with spring rain
 Winter kept us warm, covering
 Earth in forgetful snow, feeding
 A little life with dried tubers (1-7, p.63).

It is indeed strange that April which nourishes the very vein of life becomes dreary. Water has lost its efficacy. Roots are not revived by spring water; they are dull. Winter keeps them warm. Snow covers the earth and also freezes people's hearts and does not remind them of desire. Above all, spring seems to have lost its resilient touch.

Winter, according to Rai (1986), is a symbol of "spiritual death" (p. 81). This prepares the reader for the full horror of spiritual stagnation as experienced by the inhabitants of the waste land. Southam (1974) maintains that this waste is not caused by the devastating effect of the First World War as such but because of the "emotional and spiritual sterility of western man." (p.69). Southam's view overlooks the fact that Man brought the catastrophic effects of war upon himself. Above all, wars occur because of Man's loveless practices and deviations from the direct path of right.

Christ and Vegetation gods are now dead. The people of the waste land experience a different kind of death; it is death-in-life. Salvation, which comes only through sacrifice, is what the people of the waste land aspire to (Mathiessen, 1968, p. 112) and that is why, the poem is conceived with Christian symbolism pertaining to Christ's sacrifice, baptism and resurrection.

'That corpse you planted last year in your garden
 Has it begun to sprout? Will it bloom this year?
 'Or has the sudden frost disturbed its bed?
 O keep the Dog Far hence, that's friend to men,
 'Or with its nails he'll dig it up again? (71-75, p. 65).

The idea of having a corpse in the garden is horrifying enough and, therefore, it reinforces the theme of horror which is significant for religious awareness. These lines remind the reader of Vegetation rites, but obviously the corpse will not sprout. Furthermore, the "Dog" might dig it up and if it does, this grotesque parody of Vegetation gods will not give fertility to the land. Digging the corpse with the nails is extremely horrifying and indeed annuls the possibility of revitalization and, hence, salvation.

To the ancient people, the city was a symbol of maturity, but now it is deprived of "natural and spiritual sources of life" and because it has lost its "old sense of community" (Drew, 1949,p.73), the city which can be any European city, is now under the cover of "brown fog" which symbolizes the blurred vision of modern man. People in such cities are moving like robots roaming the streets.

Vulgarity and inertia have devitalized everything including spirituality. Tiresias, the man who also lived as a woman, sees, understands and endures everything and, yet, cannot do anything about it. According to Chiari (1979), he is "merely a passive sufferer and knower, but he is incapable of action" (p. 67). Ironically enough, Tiresias is a blind man whereas modern man has been living as though he were blindfolded. Tiresias' vision furnishes a common background for the understanding of the dilemma of Man through ages. Although Tiresias is blind, he comprehends what sighted people utterly failed to see. For instance, sexual corruption enacted in the contemporary world seems to be a typical extension of ancient depravity:

(And I Tiresias have foresuffered all
 Enacted on the same divan or bed
 I who walked among the lowest of the dead (43-6, p.72).

Madame Sosostris does not have the vital role that fortune-tellers used to assume. Vulgarization of spiritual rites has marred everything including prophecies (Brook, 1968, p. 133). Madame Sosostris "the vulgarized version of Egyptian diviners" cannot fathom the depths of prophecies. She tells the protagonist to fear death by water and does not speak of later associations with Adonis who has hailed the reborn god, speaks nothing of baptism because she does not see beyond the surface level (Drew, 1949, p.71). She is held for ridicule; she has a bad cold and practices fortune-telling under an atmosphere of fear of the police. Paradoxically, she is the wisest woman in Europe.

Madame Sosostris, famous clairvoyante
 Had a bad cold, nevertheless
 Is known to be the wisest woman in Europe,
 With a wicked back of cards. Here, said she,
 Is your card, the drowned Phoenician Sailor?
 (Those are pearls that were in his eyes. Look!) (43-8, p. 64)

In the last section of the poem, "What the Thunder Said," the drought becomes (among other things) a thirst for the waters of faith and healing, and specifically religions enter into the orchestration of the poem." But the sterility of the thunder suggests no renewal, no resurrection (Leaves, 1986, p. 94). Resurrection and renewal are conditioned. If the people do not accept the dictates of the thunder, there will be no revitalization or productivity.

Eliot commends ancient Hindu wisdom as a remedy for drought and impotency that face the modern world. Eliot utilizes the episode from *Birhadaraynaka Unpanished* which describes "how in a moment of doubt and confusion,

men, gods and demons approached Prajapati, the giver of wisdom, for guidance. In his answer to their prayers, the divine teacher uttered in thunder only one Sanskrit word thrice - Da, Da, Da which is interpreted by each group in a different way as " Datta, Dayadhvam, Damyata:; give , sympathize and control. As man himself is the single center of the three properties- human, angelic and demonic, the terms may be taken together to form the three-fold path of deliverance from the darkness of and sterility of spiritual life " (Rai, 1986, p.40). In other words, Eliot employs the Indian faith, which had a strong influence on him to transcend despair and to move to a more positive note.(Bernard, 1972, p. 96). This despair, however, results from the decay and disillusionment of the European civilization which followed the First World War (Bergonzi, 1972, p. 93).

The thunder asks people to sympathize, to rid themselves of selfishness, to understand one another and to help the needy. Giving is the highest value in all religions; it prevents egocentricity. To control is to give subservience to the spirit not to the physical needs, to govern and fight looseness.

"The Waste Land" ends with the dilemma of human situation rendered tangible: "the beginning of wisdom is fear" (Gardner, 1991, p. 98).

I sat upon the shore

Fishing and the arid plain behind me

Shall I at least set my hands in order? (423-5, p. 79)

The theme of " The Waste Land," therefore, is the aridity of life without faith, an aridity that finally echoes with sickening horror and despair in " The Hollow Men" (Mathiessen , 1968, p. 99). It follows, then, that the quest for spiritual faith in "The Hollow Men" is a step forward in Eliot's religious odyssey.

After " The Waste Land", Eliot's poetry seems to be an attempt to find meaning in his experience as a whole to include all that he has passed through. Bergonzi(1972) contests that the aim of the various cultural references in the poem is meant to communicate the themes of the poem pertaining to "sexual disorder" and the need for religious faith which is obviously unrepresented (1972, p. 95). Consequently, Eliot employs allusions thematically to satirize Man's loss of anchor and to condemn his tendency to deviate from the road of righteousness by responding to the distractions of modern life. Bergonzi's "sexual disorder" is but one aspect of modern Man's various plights.

The angst of "The Hollow Men", the despair which is the darkest moment before the dawn, or as Dostoevsky, as quoted by Chiari (1979), puts it, of the one who stands on the last rung but one before the attainment of the most perfect faith (p.145).

We are the Hollow men

We are the stuffed men

Leaning together

Head piece filled with straw. Alas!

Our dried voices, when

We whisper together

Are quiet and meaningless

As wind in dry grass

Or rats' feet over broken grass

In our dry cellar. (1-10, p. 89)

The epigraph of the poem implies that people make "a game of religion" the way children make a game of make-believe out of Guy Fawkes." It is because of that suggestion that the church services are alluded to (Williamson, 1979, p.155). It is then understood that Eliot's poetry suggests that religion should be taken seriously and sincerely if it is meant to offer a salvation of any type.

The epigraph which alludes to Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* lays much stress on spiritual faith. Kurtz allows himself to lose contact with the belief that holds man in one place and keeps him anchored to one solid thing. In both cases, religion is misused and abused to exploit others. The hollow men and Kurtz, who claims that he goes to Africa to teach Christian faith, deceives Christ. It is because they have lost their spiritual faith that they are hollow at the core. Like Kurtz, the hollow men represent a civilization which has drastically reduced the indispensable role of religion, and by doing so, it has lost its bearings. What is left of this civilization is a heap of broken images which constitute sapless materialism, where people walk helplessly roaming their waste land.

In "Ash Wednesday," Eliot seems to have "broken with his own past" (Gardner, 1991, p.78). The poem reflects a religious experience of a soul which yearns for God and eventually manages to find the union it was longing for. It is a quest for a new awareness and heavenly wisdom. Actually, Eliot did not break with his past, as many of his critics believe, but he reached the final stage of his elaborate persistent spiritual quest.

As the title implies, it is "a poem of purification, it deals with the mortification of the natural man, the effort to conform the will" (Gardner, 1991, p.104). It is a poem of religious submission. Eliot moved step by step from the Inferno of loss to the Purgatory of submission.

May the judgment not be too heavy upon us (33, p. 96).

The poem delineates "stages of despair, self-abnegation, moral recovery, resurgent faith, need of grace, and renewal of will toward both world and god" (Williamson, 1974, p.184). Love is conceived as spiritual but earthly power (Smith 1956:136). Meditation in the poem is "transformed into the ageless prayer of the Church" (Gardner, 1991, p. 63).

Meditation eventually led to a realization that submission to God which in turn leads to salvation. This is the last stage of Eliot's religious odyssey which comes to an end as Eliot's poetry drives the human soul back home. Man needs to go back to God to survive life's acid test.

This was the ultimate goal of Eliot's poetry; it must have been the spiritually-oriented mental labour that remained with Eliot from the beginning of his poetic career. Since poetry may be said to be the ongoing search of the poet for the role of faith in Man's life, Eliot must have continued writing poetry even when he felt that the journey faith has achieved its task: portrayal of the journey from the inferno of waste to the threshold of the Purgatory where entrance is a personal option.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

T.S. Eliot's poetry portrays the immense panorama of waste and futility which have become an inherent characteristic of the western civilization. For example, the people of "The Waste Land" fail to capture the essence of love and human feelings, but they excel splendidly in pursuing materialistic gains. This tendency resulted in the metamorphosis of the human nature and the degradation of its essential aspects such as: faith, love, social communion, marriage, effective communication and so on. Therefore, for many, despair seems to be the only proper reaction to this chaotic and soulless existence.

However, a thorough reading of Eliot's poetry proves that Eliot steers the helm towards the Christian faith which could be a viable solution for the predicament of modern Man. It is no wonder then that a glimpse of hope sparkles through the futility of Eliot's waste land and some essence from his hollow men.

T.S. Eliot's conception of spiritual faith emerges from the entire corpus of his poetry. It is rendered tangible when we trace the process of questing for spiritual faith in his early poetry the labor of which led to the birth of "Ash Wednesday."

Consequently, spiritual faith in Eliot's poetry is envisaged as something lost and it has to be regained because it could be. Religion is viewed as a broken image among the heap of broken images crushed by soulless materialism. The outcome of spiritual stagnation is disastrous. Progress is proved to be nothing but a myth, a lie which offers no graspable anchor and no crutch.

Spiritual petrification ushers in inertia, aimlessness, despair and hollowness. It is implied that those who are not anchored to spiritual faith are hollow to the very core, "shape without form"; in short, they are stuffed men.

A significant inference is that Eliot's poetry undergoes a striking shift. In his early poetry, the center is a secular community which is portrayed meticulously and exposed with extremely ironic and merciless clarity and detachment. At that stage, the fossilization of the spirit yields the self to nightmarish horror which condenses gradually till it reaches the darkest hour before dawn.

In his later poetry, Eliot ascends with his readers to the glorious regions of "Ash Wednesday" which depicts bewilderment and despair which precede the faith. Then, the tormented self submits to God's will and aspires to God's grace.

In short, Eliot's poetry has pursued a journey from the inferno of loss and despair to the purgatory of submission, prayers and tranquility. Eliot's poetry is actually a quest for the spiritual faith which aims at culminating these relentless efforts by winning the Holy Grail to attain redemption and to peacefully pass from the Inferno of the stagnation of faith and the lost sense of relatedness to the Purgatory of communion and peace.

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Iman Morshed Hammad was born in Irbid, Jordan on May 12th, 1968. Mrs Hammad obtained her B.A from the Department of English Language and Literature at The University of Jordan, (Amman) in 1990 and ranked the third among sixty eight students. In 1991, she pursued her studies and got the master's degree in English Literature from the Faculty of Higher Studies, The University of Jordan in 1994 with a very good average. Her field of study was English drama. Her thesis entitled: "The Man in Petticoats" is a study of the female figures in the 53 plays of G. B. Shaw.

She is currently working as an Instructor in the Department of English Language and Literature at An-Najah National University, Nablus, Palestine (2001- present). Previously, she worked as a lecturer in the Department of English Language and Literature at The Hashemite University, Zarqa, Jordan.

Ms Hammad published three articles in different journals and has a good number of ongoing research projects. Her research interests are poetry, drama and the image of women in literature. Ms Hammad attended more than 30 academic conferences. Interested in Excellence in teaching and attended an eighty-hour course in TE and a two -year training program sponsored by EU for the development of university instructors at the Hashemite University. She prepared and presented TV programs on women and family affairs and wrote essays for Al-Quds newspapers.

Assessing Tertiary-level ESP Enhancement Criteria for Ameliorating Occupational Mobility: Commerce and Industry Perceptions

Shiue-mei Kuo

Department of Applied Foreign Languages, Minghsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan

Abstract—English for Specific Purposes (ESP) is designed to be learned and practiced as an essential component for employment preparation or occupational mobility. Learners aspire to utilize their ESP skills to enhance their occupational achievement and mobility. The objective of this study is to determine how to effectively enhance ESP learning to meet occupational needs with limited resources and time constraints. This study was conducted using an analytic hierarchy process to prioritize all factors of ESP enhancement plans among participants who often engage in staff acquisition, performance appraisal, and career development planning in the global business community. While aiming to enhance learners' ESP level to improve their competitiveness in the workforce, this study considers four main criteria. Each criterion has sub-criteria/alternatives; these amount to 19 in total. The results show that among the four criteria, the main concerns of participants are the employees' ESP proficiency certificate accreditation; and among the 19 sub-criteria/alternatives, the Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC) ranked the highest for achieving occupational mobility. All these factors can facilitate the determination and prioritization of the targets for ESP enhancement as well as for acquainting ESP practitioners with employers' requirements and effectively meeting them by altering the lesson plans accordingly. Moreover, learners can strengthen their employment potential by using the ESP qualification to achieve a smoother career path.

Index Terms—English for Specific Purposes, ESP, ESP enhancement, occupational mobility

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Tertiary-level ESP

The boom of international commerce and industry has played a prominent role in economic growth and prosperity in most Asian countries. With English being a major lingua franca in occupational settings, the requirements for English for Specific Purposes (ESP) have become critical and prevalent because of the substantial increase in globalization trends in workplaces in all occupational fields. ESP is a noted school of thought and curricula for tertiary English learners of vocational colleges, universities, and numerous language institutions for non-English speaking countries worldwide. Harding (2007) states that whereas "General English" is sometimes labeled English for No Obvious Purpose, in ESP, the purpose of learning the language is paramount and relates directly to what the learner needs to do with it in their vocation or job. Hutchinson and Waters (1987) give three reasons for ESP emergence: the demands of a brave new world, a revolution in linguistics, and a new focus on the learner. This theory suits Taiwan's English learning situation, as commerce and industries face global challenges, and employees' ESP demands are imperative from the perspective of commerce and industry. Tertiary-level learners also have a reciprocal demand to enhance their ESP for career promotion or occupational mobility needs. Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) mention that it is an undisputed fact that any ESP course should be needs' driven and place emphasis on practical outcomes. This research is based on such value as it aims to conduct an ESP enhancement criteria needs' assessment by gathering insights and perceptions from commerce and industry experts for job seekers and those who intend to be promoted or benefit from smooth occupational mobility.

Stevens (1988) puts forward a famous definition of absolute and variable characteristics of ESP: it consists of English language teaching that is designed to meet the specified needs of the learner, related in content to particular disciplines, occupations, and activities, etc. Gatehouse (2001) synthesizes explicit literature on key issues in ESP curriculum development. This evolution of the definition of ESP is further modified by Dudley-Evans (1998) as follows: ESP is designed for intermediate or advanced students; ESP is likely to be designed for adult learners, either at a tertiary level institutions or in a professional work situation; ESP may be defined to meet the specific needs of the learner; ESP may use a different methodology from that of General English in specific teaching situations (Dudley-Evans & St John, 1998).

Brunton (2009) states that under the umbrella term of ESP, there are a myriad of sub-divisions: for example, English for Academic Purposes (EAP), English for Business Purposes (EBP), English for Occupational Purposes (EOP), English for Medical Purposes (EMP), and numerous others. In this study, EOP and EBP are the focal areas of

assessment, for which the business perceptions of potential employees' ESP capabilities and qualifications along many dimensions are explicitly evaluated and assessed.

Lorenzo (2005) states that ESL and ESP diverge not only in the nature of the learner but also in the goal of instruction. Generally speaking, while in ESL, all four language skills—listening, reading, speaking, and writing—are stressed equally, in ESP it is a needs' analysis that determines which language skills are most needed by the students, on the basis of which a syllabus is accordingly designed. He also points out that the ESP usually delivered to adult students, frequently in a work-related setting, is for EOP; hence, the motivation is higher than in ESL contexts. ESP learning materials are typically developed for learners who have roughly an intermediate level of proficiency (McDonough, 2010). An ESP program might, for example, emphasize the development of writing skills in students who are preparing for journalism or secretarial business correspondence; or it might promote the development of spoken skills in students who are preparing to become tourist guides or to work in sales (Lorenzo, 2005).

In most non-native English speaking countries throughout the world, General English is being taught at earlier ages with increasing success. For example, in Taiwan, children begin learning English in primary school. According to Harding (2007), as this trend continues, students will leave their primary education, having already covered the traditional "General English" syllabus, not wishing to repeat the same old merry-go-round at secondary and tertiary level, regardless of how competent they have become. This is because their English studies need an application or purpose: it is a reality that college students, graduates, or tertiary-level learners are facing job-seeking and workplace challenges. They thus need to be able to use English in practical applications to improve their occupational mobility when industries or companies go global and are off-shored overseas, whether on the production line, in office correspondence, or in business negotiation and persuasion.

In addition to ESP, English as a Medium of Instruction (EMI) is also a growing global phenomenon. According to Dearden (2014), EMI refers to the use of the English language to teach academic subjects in non-English speaking countries. There is a rapid trend of EMI provision expansion, which is increasingly being adopted in university teaching. This phenomenon has very important implications in the education of the youth (Dearden, 2014). Both EMI and ESP are prevalent in international schools and colleges worldwide under the globalizing trend of countries learning specific knowledge and skills from each other with English as a lingua franca.

B. Occupational Mobility

It is increasingly common to offer employees a job in another region, particularly as a result of corporate restructuring or as part of a promotion. The term "mobility" can cover various types of job changes, either in position only, in promotion, or transition from one department or company to another.

Occupational mobility, which is sometimes imposed by the employer, may also be an employee choice. Various industries may off-shore their work overseas due to outreach programs or expanding plans. Talent may be off-shored to other countries and be called on to adapt to new living and working environments. Employees may choose to have occupational mobility, mostly due to craving lucrative compensation packages, the challenges of a new position, and a potentially more promising future. Occupational and geographic mobility provide opportunities for career development and social advancement (Hub Pages, 2011).

According to Hub Pages (2011), the patterns of job mobility can also be given by the employer, for example, in the case of promotion being conditional upon acceptance of changing workplace or due to the relocation or restructuring of the company (involving merger or consolidation activities). In some cases, it is for employee protection against loss of employment. Based on the Dictionary of Sociology (Marshall, 1998), *occupational mobility* refers to the movement of an occupational group itself, of an individual member of an occupation, or of an occupational vacancy through the stratification system of social space. "Downward" mobility refers to the loss of occupational prestige and "upward" mobility to its increase. It is assumed that employees seek higher achievement through upward mobility.

Rogoff (1953) mentions that much of the recent intergenerational shift in occupational position can be attributed to the expanding requirement for workers in mass industrial and clerical jobs, and the decline in importance of agricultural and craft work. In this globalized era, if industries and companies wish to advance or expand, the mobility of careers and jobs in countries or regions seems inevitable. In Taiwan, an island depending highly on the international market, the intention of upward mobility often requires ESP proficiency. The aim of this study is hence to explore the learners' ESP needs for upward mobility. At this point, employees' ESP abilities play a substantial role in determining whether they are capable of adapting to the new positions or career opportunities overseas. The necessary ESP proficiency certificates may be taken into account while choosing the suitable candidates to be off-shored. Numerous essential factors are evaluated for future ESP learning directions.

Thus, this study aims to conduct a needs' assessment to prioritize the related criteria and those factors that are potentially of benefit in enhancing the ESP level of job seekers or those who wish to be promoted or gain upward mobility. The main educational focus of this study is on the vocational learner, including learners in the professions, commerce, and industry.

II. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Procedure

The study is initially based on a review of the literature and consultancy with several experts on potential criteria and alternatives that can be used to construct a hierarchy. The identified critical factors are considered as relevant criteria and sub-criteria in constructing an analytical structure to select key factors that can enhance ESP proficiency for occupational mobility.

We make many decisions in our lives. Most of the decisions makings are based on individual judgments. As we try to make our decision as rational as possible we need to quantify these subjective opinions into subjective values. (Teknomo, 2006) The analytic hierarchy process (AHP) research method enables us to compare and prioritize these. While conducting this study, it is believed that there are many elements that can ameliorate ESP proficiency. However, it is not practical to include all of them, so 19 of the most relevant sub-criteria based on the literature review and Taiwan’s tertiary-level ESP education experience were selected to form the AHP model for participants to evaluate and assess all criteria and factors for ranking and prioritization. AHP is a strong research method developed by Saaty (1980) to identify a complex situation and the mixed factors affecting it. It represents a popular multi-criteria decision-making method to deal with complex problems by fragmenting them into a hierarchical structure. It is thus especially suitable for this study’s goal of achieving the optimal decision from multifaceted and multiple criteria as alternatives in ESP enhancement criteria/alternatives decision-making. Expert Choice 2000, a decision-making software based on AHP, is applied to calculate and assess all factors to obtain the precise weights of each and present the results. It can automate the AHP process, calculate the weight of each hierarchy, and measure inconsistency. Also, the outcome can be presented with diagrams.

Following this, the paper collects and organizes the factors that influence companies’ judgments of a qualified job applicant’s ESP abilities. Four criteria and 19 alternatives were considered to evaluate the most effective factors. A preliminary questionnaire was administered prior to the final version. One human resource personnel and one international marketing director were consulted before conducting the final version of the questionnaire. The procedure is outlined as steps that need to be taken by the researcher, as follows (see Fig. 1).

Define and state the objective of identifying complex factors enhancing ESP learners’ occupational mobility; conduct preliminary interview with several experts; based on their inputs, build the hierarchy structure and with the help of group decision or survey technique analyze and identify key factors; design the questionnaire with pairwise comparison for critical elements’ assessment; build a pairwise comparison matrix with judgment rankings and corresponding numerical judgments (see Fig. 2). Fig. 2 shows the AHP scale used in the pairwise comparison. Researchers can find out how much more important factor A is to factor B.

Furthermore, distribute the questionnaires for all experts to provide feedback; obtain the weight of each factor by software and rank the priority; determine whether the matrixes are consistent or not. Saaty (1980) suggests that if the value of the Consistency Ratio (C.R.) was ≤ 0.1 , inconsistency is acceptable. If C.R. is greater than 0.1, the subjective judgment needs revision. Finally, ensure all criteria and alternatives are consistent (Teknomo, 2006).

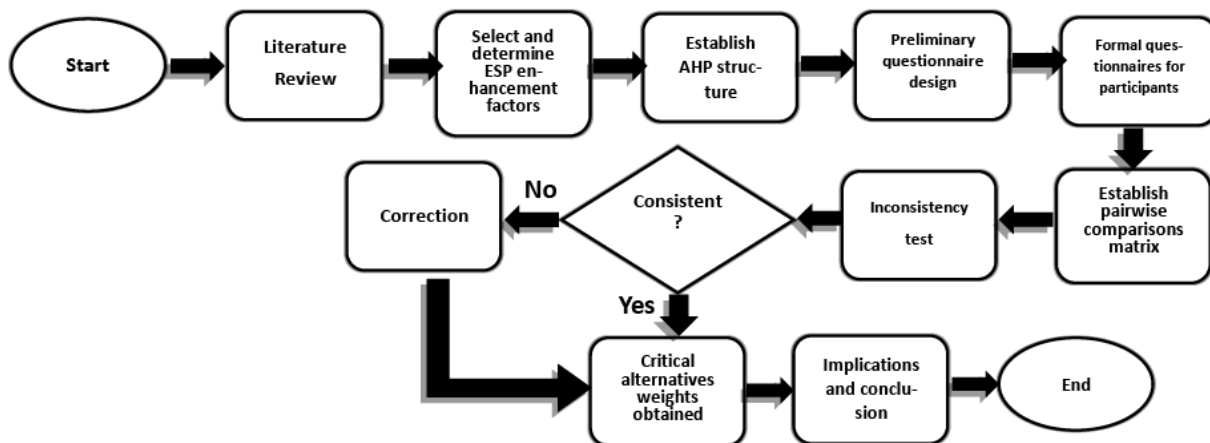


Figure 1. Research Procedure.

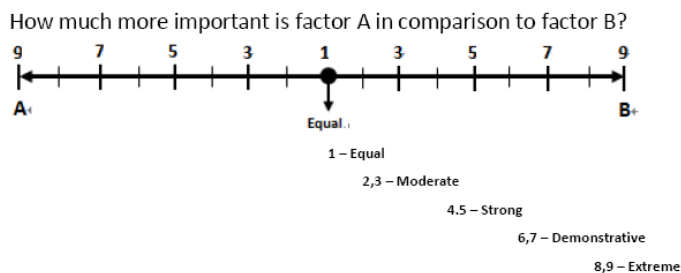


Figure 2. AHP Preference Scale for Pairwise Comparisons

B. Participants

The study participants were 38 experts including 15 human resource personnel (39.5%), 9 bank managers (23.7%), 3 headhunters (7.9%), and 11 senior managers (28.9%) from the fields of technology, manufacturing, international commerce, and industry. They were selected for the reason that, as experts, they are very often the ones accountable for employees' recruitment and job assignment rotations, domestically or internationally, and hence for occupational mobility. They were asked to assess the criteria of ESP enhancement as they know what constitutes insufficiency of ESP needs in their workplace. This study intends to gather their valued opinions as to the ESP factors that are needed in their corporations. It was explained to all participants individually how to complete this questionnaire in order to elicit their valuable assessment.

III. RESEARCH STRUCTURE

This research structure includes four criteria and 19 alternatives, as seen in Fig. 3.

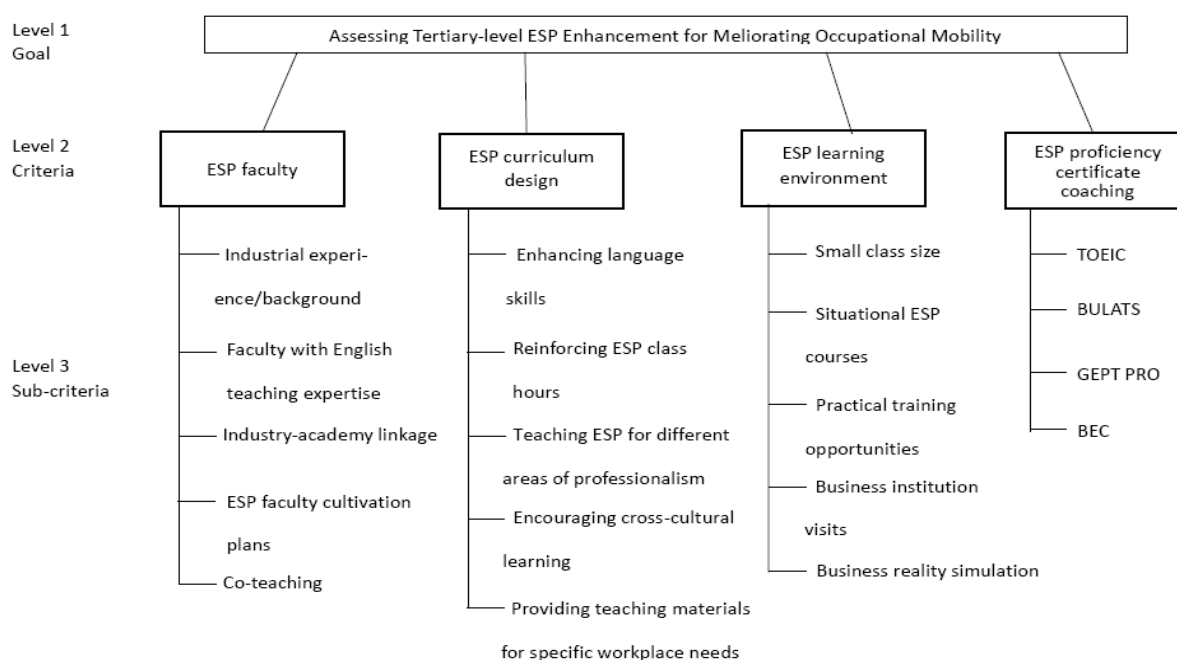


Figure 3. AHP Model for ESP Enhancement Criteria for Occupational Mobility.

A. ESP Faculty

It has been argued that an ESP practitioner has “five key roles”: (1) teacher or language consultant, (2) course designer, (3) researcher, (4) collaborator, and (5) evaluator (Harding, 2007). This study seeks to uncover some of the industries' perceptions of what qualifications an ESP faculty needs to cultivate an employee with the requisite ESP abilities. It is often a dilemma that Taiwan's English teachers are often from language or literature backgrounds with a lack of industry working experience; however, ESP learning takes ample knowledge from commerce and industry. Conversely, if instructors are experts from the field, they might not have sufficient English language skills. Faculty possessing both language skills and vocational experience might be better suited as ESP practitioners. Harding (2007) also discussed this issue, i.e., do ESP teachers need to be experts in the vocational area of that particular subject? He suggested that faculty do not, in fact, need to be experts in engineering, banking, or international trade, for example, but they do need to have some understanding of the subject area. This study also seeks to explore some alternatives and prioritize solutions to find out vocational perceptions of the best ESP faculty arrangement. Four alternatives are listed for experts to evaluate priority: faculty with industrial experience/background; faculty with English teaching expertise; co-teaching; faculty with industry-academy linkage; ESP faculty cultivation plans.

B. ESP Curriculum Design

- Enhancing language skills: including basic reading, listening, writing, and speaking.
- Reinforcing ESP class hours: for ESP level enhancement and strengthening of language skills.
- Teaching ESP for different areas of professionalism: different professions require different English usage. Practitioners need to understand the target learners' specialism and offer them a suitable ESP curriculum.

- Encouraging cross-cultural learning: in terms of international markets and business, as there are lots of cross-cultural issues that arise upon appointment. To communicate effectively through English as a lingua franca, cultural understanding can be critical for success.

- Providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs: Basturkmen (2010) mentions consideration of how specific the course should be in terms of the target learners. A distinction is drawn between courses being wide or narrow angled. Courses of Business English can be considered wide angled, encompassing many subfields including finance, marketing, or management. Nevertheless, some ESP courses are developed for certain groups of learners with particular needs. ESP courses can be developed for disciplines or occupations as broad fields or for specialties within them (Basturkmen, 2010). In order to improve occupational mobility, certain specific teaching materials need to be offered to enhance ESP levels.

C. *ESP Proficiency Certificate Coaching*

In most non-native English speaking countries, under the circumstances of not knowing a candidates' background or English proficiency levels, ESP certificates can give recruiters or managers a notion of how proficient the employee is in the language. Hence, most corporations attach high importance to these certificates. In order to assist learners with smooth occupational mobility, the coaching and preparation of these certificates matter. Four major recognized ESP certificates are listed as sub-criteria:

- Test of English for International Communication—TOEIC: an English language proficiency test for non-native English speakers hosted by Educational Testing Service (ETS). TOEIC test scores indicate how well people can communicate in English with others in the global workplace. (<http://www.toeic.com.tw/>).

- Business Language Testing Service—BULATS, by Cambridge English Language Assessment: a multilingual set of workplace language assessment, training, and benchmarking tools. It is used internationally for business and industry recruitment, for identifying and delivering training, for admission to study business-related courses, and for assessing the effectiveness of language courses and training (<http://www.bulats.org/>).

- General English Proficiency Test Professional (GEPT Pro): with the continuing globalization of business markets, the need for improved English communication among business professionals is increasing, and the demand for a test of ESP tailored to the workplace in Taiwan is growing. Therefore, GEPT Pro has been developed to assess the English ability of business professionals working in finance, management, and related business fields since 2013 (<https://www.geptpro.org.tw>).

- Business English Certificate (BEC), Cambridge English: Business Certificates: this exam is popular for job seekers, as the exam results show employers how the candidates process knowledge of English for practical use in business. There are three levels of exams—BEC Preliminary, Vantage, and Higher. Each one is targeted at a different level. The highest level achievers are able to participate and communicate effectively at the managerial and professional level (<http://www.cambridgeenglish.org/>).

D. *ESP Learning Environment*

- Practical training opportunities: this provides valuable work experience of sharpening the skills and knowledge learned at schools or institutions. Most of Taiwan's universities consolidate practical training as credits in their programs. ESP learning can be reinforced through practical training opportunities in targeted organizations.

- Situational ESP courses: the importance of this is also mentioned by Basturkmen (2010) in relation to target situation analysis, which involves the identification of tasks, activities, and skills that learners will be using English for as well as what learners should know and be able to do. Flowerdew (2013) mentions that target situation analysis is concerned with needs, the present situation analysis correspondingly addresses the learners' lacks and wants. This kind of course can compensate for the learners' insufficient industrial ESP knowledge. In Harding (2007), there is numerous advice on needs' analysis and course design ideas. One practical way is to make the classroom environment into a workplace. This means relating the language learning experience to the working experience and thinking of ways in which the classroom can replicate the culture of the specialism (Harding, 2007).

- Small class size: traditionally, Asian educational institutions have tended to have a large amount of learners in one English class. However, this can lead to deterioration in learning outcomes. In language courses, especially those of ESP, the learning effects can be substantially enhanced if the classes are of a smaller size.

- Business institution visits: in most vocational colleges or universities in Taiwan, institution visits are arranged for the senior students to understand the functions of prospective working environments and their particular specialism. By such means, learners can acquaint themselves with ESP needs. These visits could be to the production line, airports, international trade offices, or manufacturing factories, for example. Harding (2007) gives examples and illustrations of why learners need to know how things work in their particular specialisms. For instance, in finance, learners need to familiarize themselves with the procedure for preparing budgets, financial reports, and audits. Further, practitioners can design the curriculum accordingly and learners can effectively enhance their related ESP skills.

- Business reality simulation: this course design is essential as most English learners might not be aware of language use in real contexts. Harding (2007) describes his design of a pragmatic course, which involved identifying target events, outlining a detailed framework for the whole ESP course, and incorporating target events, skills areas, language work, materials, and classroom activities. The example he gave was for travel agents, which would include welcoming clients,

making them feel relaxed, and writing emails to confirm booking arrangements (Harding, 2007). This can be applied to all occupational settings, such as persuasion, negotiating with foreign counterparts, or correspondence or promotion for an international marketing campaign. All these require proficient ESP skills.

IV. RESULTS

Based on all the questionnaire surveys of paired comparison, the results of all the local/global weights of main criteria/sub-criteria are determined as shown in Table I.

TABLE I.
COMPOSITE PRIORITY WEIGHTS FOR ESP ENHANCEMENT CRITICAL FACTORS

Criteria	Local Weights	Alternatives (sub-criteria)	Local Weights	Global Weights
ESP faculty	0.178	Industrial experience/background	0.300	0.057
		Faculty with English teaching expertise	0.138	0.026
		Industry-academy linkage	0.125	0.024
		ESP faculty cultivation plans	0.327	0.062
		Co-teaching	0.110	0.021
ESP curriculum design	0.190	Enhancing language skills	0.152	0.026
		Reinforcing ESP class hours	0.082	0.014
		Teaching ESP for different areas of professionalism	0.147	0.025
		Encouraging cross-cultural learning	0.231	0.039
		Providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs	0.388	0.066
ESP learning environment	0.276	Small class size	0.105	0.032
		Situational ESP courses	0.127	0.038
		Practical training opportunities	0.321	0.096
		Business institution visits	0.149	0.045
		Business reality simulation	0.298	0.089
ESP proficiency certificate coaching	0.356	TOEIC	0.363	0.123
		BULATS	0.185	0.063
		GEPT Pro	0.239	0.081
		BEC	0.213	0.073
		Total		

From Fig. 4, we can observe that English proficiency certificate coaching (0.356) was ranked as having the utmost priority of importance from the perspective of commerce and industry. This shows the vital importance of ESP requirement for learners to gain occupational mobility and how imperative it is to enhance their ESP level through certificates of coaching/preparation. This gave practitioners the direction to organize an ESP enhanced curriculum with greater focus. This was followed by the learning environment (0.276), curriculum design (0.190), and faculty (0.178).

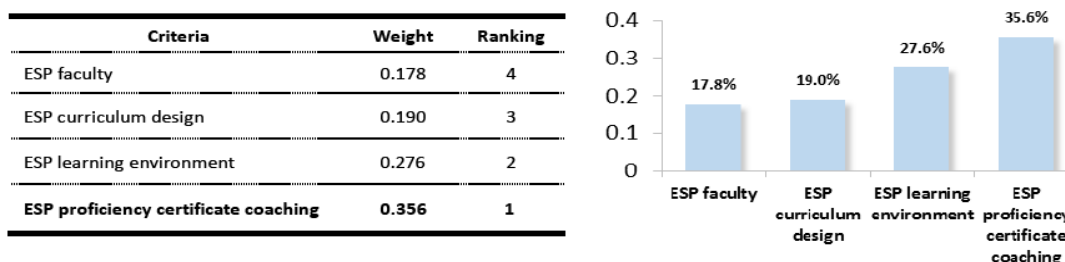


Figure 4. Four Main Criteria Ranking and Weights.

A. ESP Faculty

In Fig. 5, the results of rankings of the alternatives under ESP faculty indicate the importance of ESP faculty cultivation (0.327). ESP is a rather new domain compared to EGP. ESP practitioners, in particular, need to upgrade their understanding of the prevalent job market trends in order to offer the learners the most up-to-date materials, stimuli, and input. Therefore, this indication from the perspective of business and industry can indeed serve as useful guidance. Not only learners but also ESP faculty need to keep pace with current workplace English needs as well. ESP faculty also requires job training and professional development, i.e. faculty development and cultivation plans. Teachers' professional development can comprise ESP seminars for teaching materials or ideas exchange, workgroups to enhance teaching quality, or regular interviews with business and industries to understand the target requirements.

Alternative	Weight	Ranking
ESP faculty cultivation plans	0.327	1
Industrial experience/background	0.300	2
Faculty with English teaching expertise	0.138	3
Industry-academy linkage	0.125	4
Co-teaching	0.110	5

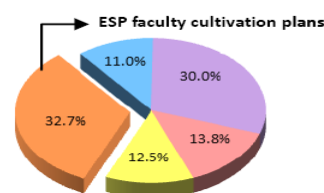


Figure 5. Alternatives Ranking and Weights under ESP Faculty.

B. ESP Learning Environment

In Fig. 6, the top concern is providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs (0.388), followed by encouraging cross-cultural learning (0.231). These two factors imply that companies might have found that incoming employees did not have sufficient ESP knowledge from suitable materials, as applicable to new workplaces or challenges. Therefore, there is an urgent and imperative need to design pragmatic materials for ESP learners. Second, due to the overwhelming tide of globalization, cross-cultural understanding to ameliorate communication with foreign customers and colleagues is also key to successful occupational mobility.

Alternative	Weight	Ranking
Providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs	0.388	1
Encouraging cross-cultural learning	0.231	2
Enhancing language skills	0.152	3
Teaching ESP for different areas of professionalism	0.147	4
Reinforcing ESP class hours	0.082	5

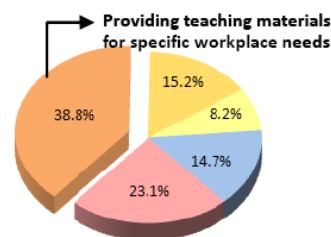


Figure 6. Alternatives Ranking and Weights under ESP Learning Environment.

C. ESP Curriculum Design

In Fig. 7, practical training opportunities ranked top (0.321). This represents the perceptions of commerce and industry's concerns. Most job applicants do not possess or accumulate sufficient practical experience to handle the upcoming working challenges. Hence, practical training opportunities can be offered to ESP learners for occupational mobility. Following is the business reality simulation (0.298) also plays a significant role in ESP enhancement to learners.

Alternative	Weight	Ranking
Practical training opportunities	0.321	1
Business reality simulation	0.298	2
Business institution visits	0.149	3
Situational ESP courses	0.127	4
Small class size	0.105	5

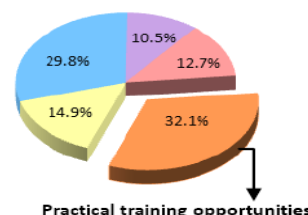


Figure 7. Alternatives Ranking and Weights under ESP Curriculum Design.

D. ESP Proficiency Certificate Coaching

Further, among all ESP certificates, TOEIC (0.364) ranked top, as acknowledged by business and industries, followed by GEPT Pro (0.238), BEC (0.213), and BULATS (0.185) as in Fig. 8. TOEIC gained recognitions by most Asian corporations, this study also proved that TOEIC is mostly adopted and recognized by most enterprises. Therefore, when employees or job applicants intend to upgrade their occupational mobility, these ESP certificates training and coaching can be taken as priority consideration.

Alternative	Weight	Ranking
TOEIC	0.363	1
GEPT Pro	0.239	2
BEC	0.213	3
BULATS	0.185	4

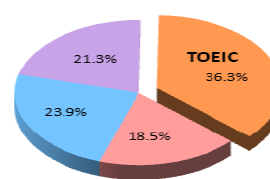


Figure 8. Alternatives' ranking and weights under ESP proficiency certificate coaching

TABLE II.
RANKING OF ESP ENHANCEMENT FACTORS

Rank	Alternatives (sub-criteria)	Global weights
1	TOEIC	0.123
2	Practical training opportunities	0.096
3	Business reality simulation	0.089
4	GEPT Pro	0.081
5	BEC	0.073
6	Providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs	0.066
7	BULATS	0.063
8	ESP faculty cultivation plans	0.062
9	Industrial experience/background	0.057
10	Business institution visits	0.045
11	Encouraging cross-cultural learning	0.039
12	Situational ESP courses	0.038
13	Small class size	0.032
14	Faculty with English teaching expertise	0.026
15	Enhancing language skills	0.026
16	Teaching ESP for different areas of professionalism	0.025
17	Industry-academy linkage	0.024
18	Co-teaching	0.021
19	Reinforcing ESP class hours	0.014
	Total	1.000

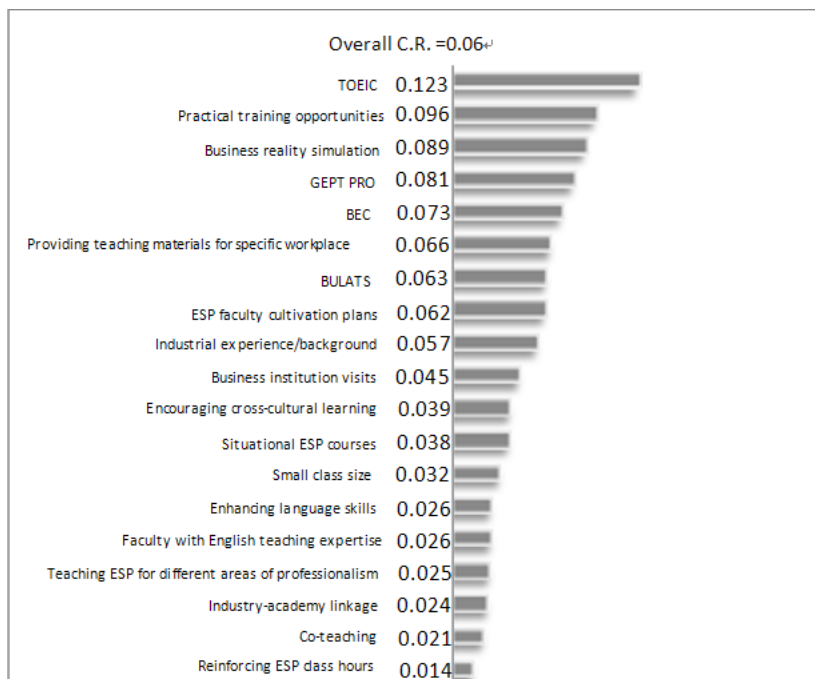


Figure 9. An Overview of All the Assessment Results and Weight Values.

V. CONCLUSION

From the overall results as in Fig. 8 and Fig. 9, we can infer the perspective of industries that ESP courses should emphasize the enhancement of proficiency test scores, as these play a key role in upward occupational mobility. That is, for a job applicant or those who are seeking to be promoted to a better opportunity or position, a gold certificate, especially that of TOEIC, is appreciated. ESP classes can reinforce preparation in such certificates to help learners.

Practical training opportunities for learners to acquaint themselves with workplace ESP needs are also important. The lack of experience can cause downward mobility or a waste of time in a competitive workforce. Commerce or industry owners also require new blood that is able to adapt to the workplace immediately after being hired. Therefore, ensuring that students or tertiary-level learners have sufficient practical training can be beneficial. Another useful form of preparation for the job market is business reality simulation. In the case that ESP learners do not have opportunities to do practical training, business reality simulation is also a good way to become more skilled in a particular field. This can provide a point of reference for practitioners to design relevant courses.

Among ESP faculty criteria, ESP faculty cultivation plans rank top (0.327), showing that there are urgent training needs for professional ESP faculty. This might be due to the lack of sufficient ESP practitioners nowadays, as language

teachers might not have special expertise or knowledge of the professions; conversely, professionals in certain fields might not be familiar with English language usage, let alone teaching. A combination of the two may be most beneficial for ESP learners. Meanwhile, providing teaching materials for specific workplace needs also ranked top (0.388) among ESP curriculum design. This indicates that ESP enhancement needs to place a high value on qualified faculty as well as determining and acquiring the teaching materials needed. Great importance needs to be attached to both of these issues. Interestingly, the amount of class hours does not appear to be a major concern. As long as the ESP courses are well designed and practical, practitioners can help ESP learners on the road to achieving satisfying career mobility.

ESP enhancement is not only beneficial to tertiary-level learners but also critical for society's upward occupational mobility. From the vantage point of a country's development, ESP enhancement provides for its advancement and globalization. ESP learning might be in the field of language or education but should never be trifled with. It has strong relevance to a person's career future, satisfaction, and achievements, as well as a country's competitiveness. It is hoped that the findings can provide teachers with ideas to prepare learners for the challenges they will face while pursuing occupational mobility, in addition, the results of ESP study contribute skills and a mindset to be able to secure competitive advantage in today's world.

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Shiue-mei Kuo currently teaches in the Department of Applied Foreign Languages at Minghsin University of Science and Technology, Taiwan. She obtained her M.A. in Linguistic Studies with a concentration in Language Teaching (TESOL) from Syracuse University, USA. Her research interests include English for Specific Purposes, Business English, and international education.

The Effect of Recast vs. Explicit Corrective Feedback on Iranian EFL Learners' Stress Patterns Learning

Lotfollah Karimi

English Department, Hamadan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Hamadan, Iran

Nahid Esfandiari

English Department, Hamadan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Hamadan, Iran

Abstract—The present study was conducted to compare the effect of recast and explicit corrective feedback on Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns learning. After administering a Nelson test, 60 intermediate female learners out of 80 were selected from intact classes at Iranian, Eram, Jouya, and Zaban Sara Language Institutes in Islam Abad Gharb, Iran. These sixty participants were randomly assigned to three groups namely, recast group (G1), explicit corrective feedback group (G2), and control group (G3), each consisting of twenty participants. After that a piloted researcher-made pretest concerning stress patterns on words and sentences was administered to the participants. Then, one of the experimental groups was treated via recast and the other one via explicit corrective feedback, and the control group via traditional method of teaching stress patterns. After the treatment, a piloted posttest administered to all groups. To analyze the data ANCOVA and One-way ANOVA were run and the results revealed that both recast and explicit corrective feedback had positive effect on the learners' stress patterns learning. However, the effect of recast was stronger than that of the explicit corrective feedback. Pedagogically, teachers, syllabus designers, and language learners may use the findings of this study in their practice.

Index Terms—recast, explicit corrective feedback, and stress pattern

I. INTRODUCTION

In 1950s and 1960s, behaviorists considered language learning as a process of habit formation and errors were to be avoided at all costs. Therefore, second language teachers tried to provide immediate and explicit error correction when their students committed errors. Contrary to the behaviorists, for nativists, error correction has no role in second language acquisition and the focus in the classroom should be on communicating meaning rather than on producing target like grammar.

Corrective Feedback (CF) plays a role in SL and in FL learning and the relative effectiveness of different types of CF continues to attract the researchers' attention in the field of language learning. When the students construct their mental grammar and pronunciation, most of the time they struggle with the grammar and pronunciation rules. In EFL classrooms, the assistance mainly comes from the teachers. Teachers are often afraid of their students making errors. Making errors is a natural and unavoidable part of the process of learning and most teachers would agree that we need to correct errors to help students learn the correct forms of the language. Feedback provided during the classroom teaching / learning process, facilitates the learning (Cardelle & Corno, 1981).

In a comprehensive study of CF in Canadian immersion classrooms (Lyster & Ranta, 1997 as cited in Darabad, 2014) distinguished six different types of CF. Only two of them are dealt with in this study:

1. **Explicit corrective feedback:** It refers to the explicit condition of the correct form. As the teacher provides the correct form, and clearly indicates that what the student said was incorrect:

S: He comes/s/ back home at 12:30. (Phonological error).

T: No, he comes/z/ back home at 12:30. (Explicit feedback).

In explicit corrective feedback as cited in Moore (2001), the teacher explicitly provides the correct form of the erroneous form generated by the student. As the teacher corrects the erroneous form, he or she clearly indicates that what the student has said is incorrect. Occasionally, the wrong form is identified along with the provision of a correct form in teacher's turn.

S: But Mary didn't go and the Mary came.

T: Mary came not the Mary.

2. **Recast:** It involves the teacher's reformulation of all or part of a student's utterance (Darabad, 2014):

S: She watches/z/ TV every day. (Phonological error)

T: Okay, watches/iz/. (Recasts)

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” (Long, 1996, p. 436). The (prevailing view in the recast literature is that recasts constitute an implicit form of negative feedback. According to Ellis (2008) “arguably recasts should not be viewed as necessarily implicit but rather depending on the linguistic signals that encode them and the discursive context, as more or less implicit/explicit” (p. 230). Corrective recasts are clearly explicit, as is evident in the following example:

L: I go to school yesterday.

T: I *goto* school yesterday?

L: (no response).

T: I *went* to school yesterday.

L: I *went* to school yesterday.

(Ansarian & Chehrazad, 2015).

As cited in Moore (2001), the role of pronunciation has varied widely in different schools of teaching from having low priority in the grammar-translation method to being the main focus in the audio-lingual method (from the 1940s to the 1960s). During this time, instruction has focused upon imitation and memorization, with frequent use of error correction. Learners spent long hours in language labs listening to and repeating sounds and phrases (Castillo, 1990; Florez, 1998). During the late 1960s and 1970s questions were raised about the role of pronunciation in EFL/ESL and particularly about whether the focus of the programmes and instructional methods were effective or not (Otlowski, 1998). Many studies of this period concluded that little relationship existed between teaching pronunciation in the classroom and attained proficiency in pronunciation (Purcell & Suter, 1980) which led to less time being given to pronunciation practice in the classroom. Since the mid 1980s: "...there has been a growing interest in revisiting the pronunciation component of the ESL curriculum for adults and young adults" (Morley, 1991, P.487).

Rodríguez and Perdomo (2002) investigated the effect of negative feedback on oral production of college students. In the study, recast was the main implicit negative feedback used by the instructor. The study was conducted with intact classes of marketing majoring students enrolled in the second semester of English as a foreign language in a western college in Venezuela. Participants’ oral performance from the previous semester was used as a covariate to investigate a possible attribute by treatment interaction (ATI). The analysis revealed that the students who were scored over 14 concerning their previous oral performance seemed to benefit more from implicit negative feedback. However, explicit negative feedback appeared to be more effective for those subjects whose scores were lower than 14 in their previous performance. Inspection of the regression lines for the treatment groups indicated that incidental error correction was superior to explicit corrective feedback (Perdomo, 2008).

Empirical evidence, against the claim that implicit feedback was effective, was provided in the studies of Ellis (2006) and Sheen (2006). They suggested that the use of implicit CF did not promote acquisition. Long (2006) further argued that explicit types of feedback (corrective feedback forms that treat language as an object) were unlikely to assist learning because they interrupted the flow of communication and thereby lack the focus on form and meaning. In contrary, Ellis (2006) and Sheen (2006) as cited in Faqeih (2012) suggested that the provision of a brief metalinguistic feedback by a teacher did not appear to interfere with the communicative flow of the activity in the classroom.

An increasing number of experimental studies on effects of different CF types on oral production have been carried out on both laboratory and classroom contexts. Doughty (1998) examined the use of corrective feedback within the context of middle school content-based ESL science class and found that students who received CF (via corrective recasts) from their teacher on specific language forms exhibited greater oral accuracy and development than students who did not receive CF (Darabad, 2014).

Lyster and Ranta (1997) presented a study of classroom interaction and classified various types of corrective feedback used by teachers in response to learner errors. The results showed that most teachers liked recast, but recasts led to the lowest rate of uptake including the lowest rate of repair. Both recasts and explicit corrective feedback could not lead to any peer or self-repair in that they already provided correct forms to learners. Opposite to that, elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification request, and the repetition of error not only made higher rates of uptake but also could be able to elicit peer- and self-repair (Chu, 2011).

Morris (2002) conducted a study in which the effect of explicit corrective feedback, recasts, and negotiation including clarification requests, confirmation checks, and repetition by peers on the learner repair, as well as the relation of these strategies with special errors have been checked. By tape recording the conversation between the learners, the researcher found that 70% of the errors by peers received corrective feedback (Siyari, 2005).

Varnosfadrani and Basturkmen (2009) compared the effects of explicit corrective feedback and implicit correction (recast) based on grammatical difficulty by coding structures as either early developmental or later developmental, regarding the former as easy, and the latter as difficult. They found that recasts were more effective than explicit feedback on difficult structures. They concluded that easy structures were learned better with explicit corrective feedback and difficult structures learned with implicit correction (recast) (Sato, 2010).

However, not all studies point to an advantage for explicit feedback. Dekeyser (1993) found no difference between the group that received extensive explicit feedback and the group that received limited explicit feedback. Nevertheless, his study indicated that when individual difference factors, such as the learners’ proficiency and language aptitude, were taken into account, the more explicit feedback was of greater benefit to the more learners (Talebi & Gholami, 2012).

Research on the role of recast in FL learning has gone beyond describing types of feedback during interaction and the effectiveness of recast compared to other kinds of feedback. It has also focused on the cognitive processes that occur during classroom interactions. In this sense, Nabeu and Swain (2002) presented a case study on a 19 year old Japanese college girl learning EFL. They examined how recasts were provided and the relationship between the student's awareness of recast feedback and her L2 learning. They concluded, based upon the results, that recasting was a complex verbal behavior influenced by the teaching environment, the interaction context, and the learners' cognitive orientation. They also highlighted that recasts were influenced not only by their linguistic elements, but also by paralinguistic elements, as well as by the learner's autonomous use of the learning opportunities provided by the feedback. These results indicated that recast remain as a controversial issue in FL and SL teaching (Perdomo, 2008).

Sheen (2007) compared the effects of recasts and a type of feedback which included correct forms and the explanation (e.g., "You should use the definite article "the" because you've already mentioned "fox") on English articles. Participants who received the latter type of feedback significantly outperformed the recast and control groups, whereas the recast group did not perform significantly better than the control group. She concluded "the more informative type of correction resulted in the acquisition of articles whereas simply providing learners with the correct form through recasts did not" (Darabad, 2014, p. 318).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

80 out of 120 female students studying in Iranian, Eram, Jouya, and Zaban Sara, language institutes, in Islam Abad Gharb, Iran were selected from six intact classes via convenience sampling. Their age ranged from 19 to 28. To have a homogeneous sample of the population under study, a multiple-choice, Nelson proficiency Test (250 A) by Fowler and Coe (1976) was administered to the participants and based on the results 60 students whose scores fell one SD above or below the mean were selected as the sample of the study. Participants were randomly assigned into three different groups, two experimental groups and one control group.

B. Materials

Stress pattern items were selected from English Pronunciation in Use by Hancock (2012), with a cassette or CD player to listen to the recorded materials that accompanied this book. In this book, there were 60 units and each unit looked at a different point of pronunciation. Each unit was of two pages, the first page of the book had explanations and examples and the second page contained exercises. The 60 units were divided into three sections of 20 units each. Section A was about how to say and spell individual sounds. Section B, which was used for the current study, was about joining sounds to make words and sentences. There also were syllables, word stress, and sentence stress in this section. Section C was about pronunciation in conversation.

C. Instruments

1. Language Proficiency Test

In order to estimate the students' homogeneity, the researchers used Nelson English Language Tests consisting of 50 items adapted from Fowler and Coe (1976). The reliability of the test had been ensured to be 0.76 in a study by Eini et al. (2013). Nelson English Language Tests (Fowler & Coe, 1976) includes three parts (elementary, intermediate, advanced) and consists of vocabulary, idiom, grammar, pronunciation, and reading comprehension sections. There are different types of content appropriate to the various levels, the levels are numbered 50, 100, 150, etc, up to 500. The contents of the tests at any level are related to what an average student can be expected to know during the corresponding number of hours of study. For example, a 250 test is designed for a student who had studied 250 hours of English. There is a systematic progression from simpler to more complex grammatical structures.

We selected intermediate level (250A). Test (250A) contains three parts. It consisted of 50 multiple-choice items. In the first part, cloze-test reading items are followed by 13 multiple-choice comprehension items. In the second part, there are 31 items on grammar. And in the last part, there are 6 questions related to pronunciation.

2. Pre-test

Before the treatment, the researchers administered a 40-item achievement test based on Interchange (3rd ed.) by Richards (2005). The test was administered to measure the participants' present knowledge concerning stress patterns. Since the pretest was a researcher-made test, it was piloted first to determine its reliability, practicality, and validity. It was administered to 15 intermediate EFL students other than but quite similar to the intended participants in this study. Practically, the test looked good to the testees; instructions were clear for them; there was a balance between the time allowed and the number of items. The test was also valid, because it contained word and sentence stress patterns, what which were supposed to be measured. Moreover, some scholars observed the test and approved it. Reliability of the achievement test was calculated through Kuder-Richardson formula (KR - 21) as 0.72.

3. Posttest

40 multiple-choice pronunciation items were made based on English Pronunciation in Use by Hancock (2012). To pilot the posttest, the same procedure was followed as used for the pretest. However, the reliability was as 0.78.

D. Procedure

After selecting the participants, as it were, they were randomly divided into three equal groups— two experimental and one control. Then the pretest was administered to the groups. To intervene, the materials selected, say, stress patterns concerning monosyllable and multisyllable words, short statements, yes/no questions, and wh-questions were taught to each group separately during 10 sessions, each taking 40 minutes. After teaching a piece of material, the participants in each group were assigned a corresponding exercise to do. To behave towards the errors the participants committed, one of the experimental groups received explicit corrective feedback, the other one was guided via recast, and the control group did not receive any type of feedback. Finally, the posttest was also administered to all the groups.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

Based on the nature of the data collected, that is, having the scores of pretest and posttest for all the groups, ANCOVA was run and parts of related results are shown below.

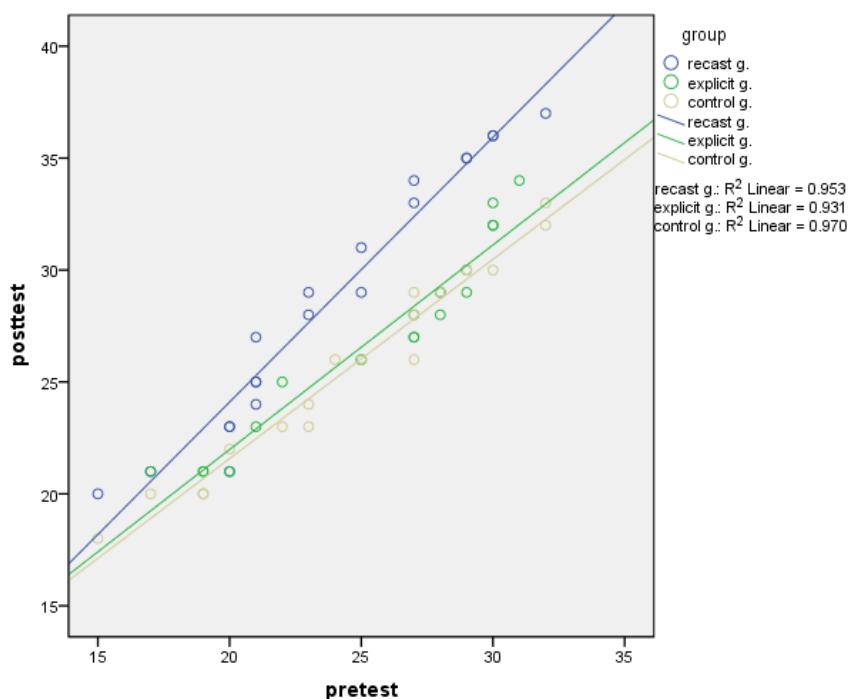


Figure 1: The Homogeneity of the Slope of Regression Lines As Produced by Scattered Dots

Although there is a linear relationship among the groups' scores on the pretest and posttest, the lines are going to cut each other if continued implying that the slope of regression lines is not homogeneous for all groups concerning both pretest and posttest. In other words, the most important requirement of ANCOVA was not fulfilled. This descriptive statistic has been verified by inferential statistics (Tests of Between-Subjects Effects) represented in Table 1.

TABLE 1: TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS SHOWING THE STATUS OF SLOPE OF REGRESSION LINES:

<i>Dependent Variable (posttest)</i>					
Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Corrected Model	1373.419 ^a	5	274.684	233.842	.000
Intercept	13.735	1	13.735	11.693	.001
group	5.049	2	2.525	2.149	.126
pretest	1237.036	1	1237.036	1053.106	.000
group * pretest	22.535	2	11.268	9.592	.000
Error	63.431	54	1.175		
Total	45339.000	60			
Corrected Total	1436.850	59			

a. R Squared = .956 (Adjusted R Squared = .952)

Table 1 shows that the slope of regression lines was not homogeneous for all groups [$F_{(2, 54)}= 9.592, p = 0.000, p < 0.01$]. Since this important requirement of ANCOVA was violated, the researchers calculated the gain or differential score for the groups by subtracting the pretest scores of each group from its posttest scores and run One-way ANOVA.

Before running One-way ANOVA, the obtained gain scores of each group were checked for their normality and the results are shown in the following tables.

TABLE 2:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TESTC SHOWING THE NORMALITY OF THE RECAST
Group's Scores on the Gain Scores

		diff
N		20
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	4.8000
	Std. Deviation	1.50787
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.237
	Positive	.163
	Negative	-.237
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.060
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.212

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. group = recast g.

Table 2 shows that the recast group's gain scores were distributed normally ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 3:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TESTC SHOWING THE NORMALITY OF THE EXPLICIT GROUP'S SCORES ON THE GAIN SCORES

		diff
N		20
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	1.5000
	Std. Deviation	1.14708
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.219
	Positive	.219
	Negative	-.131
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.977
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.295

a. Test distribution is Normal.
b. Calculated from data.
c. group = explicit g.

Table 3 shows that the explicit group's gain scores were distributed normally ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 4:
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST C SHOWING THE NORMALITY OF THE CONTROL GROUP'S SCORES ON THE GAIN SCORES

		diff
N		20
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	1.1000
	Std. Deviation	.96791
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.291
	Positive	.291
	Negative	-.259
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.302
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.067

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

Table 4 shows that the control group's gain scores were distributed normally ($p > 0.05$).

TABLE 5:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE GROUPS' GAIN OR DIFFERENTIAL SCORES

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
recast g.	20	4.8000	1.50787	.33717	4.0943	5.5057
explicit g.	20	1.5000	1.14708	.25649	.9632	2.0368
control g.	20	1.1000	.96791	.21643	.6470	1.5530
Total	60	2.4667	2.06231	.26624	1.9339	2.9994

Table 5 Indicates each group's mean score and standard deviation on its gain scores. As it is evident, the mean score of the recast group is 4.80 which is very higher than those of the other groups.

TABLE 6:
TEST OF EQUALITY OF VARIANCES

Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
3.451	2	57	.038

Table 6 shows that, based on the Leven's Test, the variances of the groups were not equal or homogeneous ($p < 0.05$). Since the number of participants has been the same or equal in all groups, 20 in each, One-way ANOVA is robust against the heterogeneity of variances (Pallant, 2007; Shevelson, 2007).

TABLE 7:
THE RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	164.933	2	82.467	54.658	.000
Within Groups	86.000	57	1.509		
Total	250.933	59			

Based on the pieces of information in Table 7, it could be reported that the effect of the teaching treatment was significant overall ($F_{(2,57)} = 54.658$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.001$).

TABLE 8:
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS (BONFERRONI ADJUSTMENT)

Dependent Variable:

(I) group	(J) group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
recast g.	explicit g.	3.300*	.388	.000	2.522	4.078
	control g.	3.700*	.388	.000	2.922	4.478
explicit g.	recast g.	-3.300*	.388	.000	-4.078	-2.522
	control g.	.400	.388	.307	-.378	1.178
control g.	recast g.	-3.700*	.388	.000	-4.478	-2.922
	explicit g.	-.400	.388	.307	-1.178	.378

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Least Significant Difference (equivalent to no adjustments).

When a Bonferroni adjustment (Table 8) was made for the number of comparisons, the significance difference, at the 0.05 level, was between the mean of recast treatment and the means of explicit treatment and placebo control. That is, the mean of recast group ($M = 4.80$) was significantly greater than that for the explicit group (1.50) and that for the control group (1.10). However, there was no significance difference between the mean of the explicit group (1.50) and that for the control group (1.10). Based on the above data analysis, now it can be reported that the research question was answered positively and its corresponding hypothesis was verified.

IV. DISCUSSION

The results of data analysis showed that the main effect of the treatment was significant ($F_{(2,57)} = 54.658$, $p = 0.000$, $p < 0.001$). When a Bonferroni adjustment (Table 11) was made for the number of comparisons, the significance difference, at the 0.05 level, was between the mean of recast treatment and the means of explicit treatment and placebo control. That is, the mean of recast group ($M = 4.80$) was significantly greater than that of the explicit group (1.50) and that of the control group (1.10). However, there was no significance difference between the mean of the explicit group (1.50) and that for the control group (1.10).

there are explanations for the mentioned finding. Recasts are the most effective way to direct attention to form without undue detraction from an overall focus on meaningful communication (Long, 1996, 2007 as cited in Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011). Recasts, perhaps, do not cause the learners to be ashamed while they are corrected. "Recasts pop up in meaningful communicative activities where interlocutors share a "joint attentional focus" (Long, 2006; p. 114). The reactive nature of recasts brings a specific feature into focus which brings with it attention and motivation on the part of the learners. The content of recasts is considered to be comprehended by the learners and hence provide the learners with additional resources available, which in turn facilitates learners' form-function mapping (Doughty, 2001). Due to the reactive nature of recasts they do not impede the flow of communication and are hence considered to be more effective and helpful than explicit corrective feedbacks. Finally, Direct Contrast Hypothesis has also accounted for the effectiveness of recasts in language development. The Direct Contrast Hypothesis states that (Saxton, 2005) "when negative evidence is supplied, the child may perceive the adult form as being in contrast with the equivalent child form" (P.28). This is what Loewen and Philp (2006) refer to as 'juxtaposition'.

The finding of the current study is consistent with that of Han (2002) who conducted a small-scale study in which the effect of eight sessions of recasts on verb tense was studied on a group of L2 learners in comparison with another group receiving no recasts. The results showed that recasts increased the L2 learners' awareness, and they caused considerable improvement in the tense consistency of the participants' oral and written performance (Siyari, 2005).

Similarly, the result of Doughty and Varela's (1998) study verifies the finding of this study. They examined the effects of corrective recasts on 34 intermediate-level learners' two grammatical structures in an L2 content-based classroom. They reported that learners who received the corrective recasts gained more on both oral and written measures in comparison to the learners in the control group who received no corrective feedback.

However, the result of this study differs from those of some others. Ammar (2003) in a form-focused instructional study investigated the differential effects of recasts and prompts. The target feature in this study was third-person possessive determiners in English (i.e. her and his). Ammar reported that the prompt group outperformed the recast group on the written and oral post-tests.

Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006) in an experimental study investigated the effects of explicit and implicit corrective feedback on the acquisition of past tense marker, '-ed', among low-intermediate learners. The implicit feedback in this study was recast and the explicit feedback was metalinguistic feedback. The results of this study indicated that explicit feedback containing metalinguistic information was more effective than implicit feedback containing recasts (Rezaei & Derakhshan, 2011).

V. LIMITATIONS

This study suffers its own limitations. The nonrandomization selection of the participants can be a threat to the generalizability of this study to larger populations. All the groups were taught by the same teacher, something which gives way to controversy among scholars concerning bias. Finally, all the participants were female. One does not know what would be the result of the study if the participants in all groups were both male and female evenly.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

The present study investigated the effect of recast vs. explicit corrective feedback on stress patterns learning. The question was "Does recast affect the Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns learning more positively than explicit corrective does?" The corresponding hypothesis was "Recast affects the Iranian EFL learners' stress patterns learning more positively than explicit corrective does. The question was answered positively and the hypothesis was verified. That is, both recast and explicit corrective feedback had positive effect on the learners' stress patterns learning. However, the effect of recast was stronger than that of the explicit corrective feedback.

VII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Teachers are suggested to eradicate their learners' errors via taking advantage of the techniques of corrective feedback, especially the implicit ones which keep the communication in language classes. The role of the teacher should not be seen as only a supplier of the feedback, but extend to educate students on how to benefit from teacher's feedback and their own errors. For instance, the teachers may raise students' awareness not to be fully concerned about their errors as learning the language is based on trial and error, and engage students in peer and group-correction techniques to encourage them to share their thoughts in a collaborative and interactive way of correcting.

Teachers and students are recommended not to ignore the importance of stress pattern learning, because this is an area of language which plays a crucial role in conveying the meaning of language and its teaching and learning is difficult on the part of nonnative teachers and students.

The curriculum and syllabus designers may also focus on the suprasegmental features to contribute to language learning by including suitable explanations and exercises concerning stress patterns.

VIII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER STUDY

As a word of recommendation, future researchers may work on other forms of corrective feedback, implicit or explicit, such as clarification, request, and comprehension check across the gender, age, and various knowledge levels of the learners.

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Lotfollah Karimi was born in 1962. He holds Ph. D in TEFL and is the faculty member at English department of Islamic Azad University of Hamadan, Iran. Since 1990 he has been teaching different courses to the students majoring in translation, TEFL, and Persian literature in BA, MA, and Ph.D levels.

His publications are ten books and some 24 articles.

Nahid Esfandyari received her MA degree from English department, Hamadan Branch, Islamic Azad University, Hamadan, Iran. Now she is teaching English in language institutes.

Metadiscourse in Persian and English Research Article Introductions

Mohammadamin Sorahi

Department of English, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Mansour Shabani

Department of English, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—This study aims to investigate the use of metadiscourse in Persian and English research article introductions in the field of linguistics. The corpus of the research consists of 40 introductions of linguistics research articles, 20 Persian and 20 English. The analytical framework for this study is Hyland's (2004) model of metadiscourse in academic text. In order to investigate the similarities and differences in the implication of metadiscourse (i.e. the interactive and interactional resources) between these texts, both qualitative and quantitative methods will be used. On the qualitative basis, this study identifies and categorizes metadiscourse markers and a comparative analysis is conducted to determine the frequency of different types of metadiscourse. The results are analyzed carefully and quantitatively which include the general distribution of metadiscourse in each category and then the density of metadiscourse in both sets of data. They are scrutinized based on the number of sentences and words in the corpora. The similarities and differences between two sets of data are looked at from a sociocultural view. The results of this study make some perspectives into the teaching and learning of writing for EFL learners.

Index Terms—metadiscourse, interactive resources, interactional resources, article

I. INTRODUCTION

It is becoming increasingly difficult to ignore the interactive role of metadiscourse in assisting writers to write better and also facilitating the reading process for readers, especially from pragmatic perspectives. In fact, as Simin and Tavangar (2009) rightly assume, metadiscourse is considered as a set of pragma-linguistic devices which are used to represent attitudes as well as to exhibit the structural properties of every text. According to different definitions of metadiscourse, it is "the second level of discourse that fulfills the textual and interpersonal functions of language in order to direct and guide the readers rather than inform them" (Simin & Tavangar, 2009, p. 230). Textual functions are used to organize a text and take cohesion and coherence of the texts into consideration. Then, interactional functions refer to the ways authors express their attitudes towards the text and evaluate the propositional content of that text.

Metadiscourse has been an object of research since the 1990s and due to its importance, a considerable amount of literature has been published on the role of metadiscourse in academic writing and research articles (e.g. Crismore, and Farnsworth, 1990; Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen, 1993; Abdi, 2002; Dafauz, 2003; Hyland, and Tse, 2004; Blagojevic, 2004; Simin and Tavangar, 2009; Noorian and Biria, 2010; Sultan, 2011; Kim and Lim, 2013; Khedri, Chan Heng, and Ebrahimi, 2013). Most of the foregoing studies conducted on metadiscourse are of comparative and contrastive nature. They have been conducted to compare and contrast the use of metadiscourse in writing of different branches of science within one language or even in different languages and cultures. The studies presented thus far provide evidence that the implication of metadiscourse is highly language- and culture specific (e.g. Crismore et. al., 1993; Mauranen, 1993).

However, far too little attention has been paid to the use of discourse markers in academic research articles of linguists themselves who are responsible for all these debates over metadiscourse! This paper seeks to remedy this shortcoming by analyzing the introduction sections of 40 Persian and English linguistics articles. In doing so, it develops a view of metadiscourse which has a great interest in the interactive character of academic writing and focuses on the study beyond the ideational dimension of the texts. The primary aim of this contrastive study is therefore to investigate the similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse in Iranian and English research article introductions from a sociocultural point of view. In other words, it seeks to address the following two questions: what similarities and differences can be found in the use of metadiscourse between English and Persian research article introductions? And what are the factors relating to the use of metadiscourse in both Persian and English data?

As for the organization of this article, it falls into five sections excluding the introduction. This paper begins by explaining the types of data and method of investigation. It will then go on to the theoretical basis of the work which is set by explaining Hyland's (2004) model of metadiscourse in academic texts. They will be followed by the results of the study, discussion, and finally, conclusion.

II. METHODOLOGY

This research is a descriptive study which aims to investigate the use of metadiscourse in 40 research article introductions-20 English and 20 Persian- in the field of linguistics both qualitatively and quantitatively based on the frequency of interactive and interactional metadiscourse elements. Articles were searched from January 2010 until December 2014. The writers of these articles were all monolingual speakers of English and Persian. The 20 English articles were selected from the *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*. The 20 Persian articles were chosen from the *Journal of Linguistic Researches* [məʃæle-ye pæzhuheš-ha-ye zæbanšenasi], *Journal of Contrastive Linguistic Researches* [næšriye-ye pæzhuheš-ha-ye zæbanšenasi-ye tæbqiqi] and *Linguistic Researches in Foreign Languages* [pæzhuheš-ha-ye zæbanšenaxtidærzæban-ha-ye xareji].

The starting point for analyzing the present study is Hyland's (2004) model of metadiscourse in academic texts. Hyland categorizes metadiscourse used in academic texts according to the interactive resources (transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials and code glosses) and interactional resources (hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mentions). According to Hyland (2004), the interactive dimension concerns "the writer's awareness of a participating audience and the ways he or she seeks to accommodate its probable knowledge, interests, rhetorical expectations and processing abilities" (p. 115). Hyland believes that the writer's main purpose is to produce a text so that it can meet the needs of particular readers. The most important thing about the interactive dimension is the extent to which the writers consider the readers' needs in mind.

The interactional dimension concerns "the ways writers conduct interaction by intruding and commenting on their message" (Hyland, 2004, p. 115). This dimension makes the writer convey their views explicitly and involve readers to respond to the unfolding text. According to Hyland (2004), "Metadiscourse here is essentially evaluative and engaging, expressing solidarity, anticipating objections and responding to an imagined dialogue with others" (p.115).

The table below (Table 1) presents the summary of Hyland's model of metadiscourse in academic texts:

TABLE 1.
A MODEL OF METADISOURSE IN ACADEMIC TEXTS

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive resources	help to guide reader through the text	
1. Transitions	express semantic relation between main clauses	In addition/ but/ thus/ and
2. Frame markers	Refer to discourse acts, sequences	Finally/ to conclude/ my purpose is
3. Endophoric	Refer to information in other parts of the text	Note above/ see Figure/ in Results section
4. Evidentials	Refer to source of information from other texts	According to X (Y, 1990)/ Z states
5. Code glosses	Help readers grasp meaning of	Namely/ e.g./ such as
Interactional resources	Involve the reader in the argument	
1. Hedges	Withhold writer's full commitment to proposition	Might/ perhaps/ possible/ about
2. Boosters	Emphasize force or writer's certainty in proposition	In fact/ definitely/ it is clear that
3. Attitude markers	Express writer's attitude proposition	Unfortunately/ I to agree
4. Engagement markers	Explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader	Consider/ note that
5. Self-mentions	Explicit reference to author(s)	I/ we/ my/ our

Source: Hyland (2004, p. 139)

As it was earlier said, this study is a qualitative- quantitative method to study the use of metadiscourse markers, i. e. aspects of a text which reflect the writers' position towards both the content in the text and the reader (Noorian and Biria, 2010, p. 64), in the corpus of English and Iranian research article introductions. On the qualitative basis, this study identifies and categorizes metadiscourse markers. On the quantitative basis, a contrastive analysis is conducted to determine the frequency of different types of interpersonal metadiscourse and to find out the similarities and differences between the two sets of data.

The results of this study will be analyzed quantitatively to include the general distribution and also the density, i.e. the number of metadiscourse per sentence, of metadiscourse in each category. In doing so, first all interactive and interactional resources will be counted and their frequencies will be illustrated in four tables. The first and second tables indicate the number of interactive and interactional metadiscourse markers used in Iranian and English research article introductions respectively. After that, they will be calculated according the number of sentences in the corpora of the study. Then, the average density of each of the resources will be calculated. Finally, the similarities and differences are investigated in a careful way. The third and fourth tables illustrate the number of interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources based on the number of words in the corpora. The data are examined according to the number of all interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources presented in the texts. In other words, the proportions of interactive and interactional resources of the total numbers of them in each corpus are assessed and are compared in two sets of data.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As noted earlier in the introduction, the first research question of the present study is to examine the similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse between English and Iranian research article introductions. In this regard, the study has compared two sets of data in three phases. In the first stage, metadiscourse markers have been examined thoroughly according to the total number of interactive and interactional resources in Iranian and English research

article introductions. The following table (Table 2) illustrates the number of interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources in Iranian research article introductions:

TABLE 2.
METADISOURSE IN PERSIAN RA INTRODUCTIONS (BASED ON THE NUMBER OF SENTENCES)

Interactive Resources					
	Transitions	Evidential	Code glosses	Frame markers	Endophorics
Counts	246	256	41	78	150
No. of sentences	465	465	465	465	465
Average density	0.52	0.55	0.13	0.16	0.32
Total for interactive = 791					
Average density = 1.7					
Interactional Resources					
	Engagement markers	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mentions
Counts	3	56	29	1	30
No. of sentences	465	465	465	465	465
Average density	0.00	0.12	0.06	0.00	0.06
Total for interactional = 119					
Average density = 0.25					

The table below (Table 3) represents the number of interactive and interactional metadiscourse resources in English research article introductions:

TABLE 3.
METADISOURSE IN ENGLISH RA INTRODUCTIONS (BASED ON THE NUMBER OF SENTENCES)

Interactive Resources					
	Transitions	Evidential	Code glosses	Frame markers	Endophorics
Counts	329	643	133	116	116
No. of sentences	635	635	635	635	635
Average density	0.51	1.01	0.20	0.13	0.18
Total for interactive = 1308					
Average density = 2					
Interactional Resources					
	Engagement markers	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mentions
Counts	40	91	52	2	34
No. of sentences	635	635	635	635	635
Average density	0.06	0.14	0.08	0.00	0.05
Total for interactional = 219					
Average density = 0.34					

As can be seen, both tables 2 and 3 illustrate average densities of all subcategories of metadiscourse resources according to the number of sentences in the corpora. The numbers of sentences in Iranian texts are 465 and in English's are 635 sentences. From the tables above one can see that both Iranian and English RA introductions are more interactive than interactional.

Interactive Resources

Evidentials

Evidentials that refer to source of information from other texts are the most frequent interactive resources. They are about 32% of all interactive uses in Iranian RA introductions. For example:

1. **Haper væTampson ?æqide darænd [Haper and Thampson believe that]**

These functions are also abundant in English RA introductions, about 49% of all interactive resources. For example:

2. **Vygotsky's (1978) sociocultural theory, in which social interactions.**

Transitions

Transitions that express semantic relation between main clauses are 31% of all interactive resources in Iranian introductions. Such as:

3. **Bænabær ?in [therefore] jomle-ye motæmmem-e eltezami be dælike [because of] naqesbudæn-e zæman. . . .**

They are represented in English RA introductions in a high scale of frequency with about 25% of all interactive uses. For instance:

4. The importance of time is **also** explicitly recognized in a number of ways.

Endophoric markers

Endophoric markers are information in other parts of the text. They are more abundant in Persian introductions than English introductions. They make up about 18% of all interactive resources in Persian texts. For example:

5. **?in nemune-ha [these examples] dær zæban-ha-ye donya kæm nistænd.**

Although they are less frequent than in Iranian introductions, endophoric markers have been indicated in English texts too. They are 8.8% of all interactive uses. Such as:

6. The gap between **these two languages** makes the acquisition process difficult for children.

Frame markers

Frame markers refer to discourse acts, sequences or text stages. The analysis of our data shows that in Persian article introductions, they are used more than English texts. They have been approximately 9.8% of all interactive resources. Such as:

7. **Bæxš-e ?axær-e** [the last part of] ?in mæghale be bæyan-e nætayej-e tæhqi? ?extesas daræd.

English texts also utilize frame markers but fewer than the Persian texts. Their percentages are like endophoric markers, about 8.8% of all interactive metadiscourse. For example:

8. **The first** difference is related to prestige. **The second** difference relates to the language acquisition process. **The third** difference is functional.

Code glosses

Code glosses assist readers grasp meaning of ideational material. According to the tables 2 and 3, they are more frequent in English RA introductions than Persian texts. The numbers of code glosses in both texts have been calculated 10% and 5.1% of all interactive resources respectively:

9. **Be ?ebaræt-e digær [in other wods]** rabete-ye kontoroli be vabæstegi-ye ?erj â?ibein-e fa?el-ebæyannæšod-e...

10. SNSs **such as** Facebook afford individuals novel means of communicating to both mass and interpersonal audiences, and **as such** represent an interesting new medium in which to extend previous research into speech acts. (Taken from Carr, Schrock & Dauterman, 2012)

Interactional resources

Hedges

Hedges withhold writer's full commitment to proposition. They are the most frequent interactional function in both sets of data. Due to the percentage of their use, Iranian RA writers deploy them more than English writers. The percentages of hedges used in both sets of data are 47% and 41.5% of all interactional resources respectively:

11. **Be næzær miresæd [it seems]** næzæriye-ye dæstur tænhæ do ?emkan-e motæfavet ra dær ?in zæmine mojaz mišomaræd.

12. These studies **tend to** conclude that children have acquired all the interrogative forms and functions of English and other European languages prior to starting school. (Taken from Li, Tse, Sin Wong, Mei Wong & Leung, 2013)

Boosters

Boosters emphasize force and writer's certainty in proposition that is revealed in both sets of data, too. Regarding the percentage of all interactional metadiscourse, Persian RA introductions are more, about 24.3%, than English introductions with about 23.7%. Examples:

13. dær kontorol-e ?ejbari **?elzam æn** [its necessity] mæqule-ye tohi, zæmir-e mostæter nist.

English RA writers have employed boosters in their researches, about 23.7% of all interactional resources. Such as:

14. Whereas Whalen, Pexman, and Gill (2009) claimed that none of these types of speech is **necessarily** ironic.

Self-mentions

Self-mentions are explicit references to the writer and are noted in both sets of data. Persian RA writers use self-mention markers approximately 25.2% of all interactional resources. They have indicated low frequencies across the two sets of introductions. This may reflect that in this genre (academic writing), writers prefer to appeal to readers in an impersonal way using the inanimate subject construction (e.g. the present study investigates...) instead of we- or I-pronoun patterns (e.g. we investigate..., we have found...) (Kim & Lim, 2013, p. 135).

According to Hyland's (2004) model, the propositions like I and we, possessive adjectives like my and our, are named in this category. Different markers of self-mentions in Persian and English are represented that is one of the discipline-specific differences. Persian writers employ some affixes at the end of the verbs to indicate their personal proposition. For instance, "am" and "im" are the affixes of first person pronouns that are attached to the end of verbs. In the present study these affixes have been counted and calculated as self-mentions markers. For example:

15. Dær bæxš-e dovvom tosi?e jame? tæri ?æz væzn-e hejjara ?era?e midæhim [1st person plural affix].

The English self-mentions cover about 15.2% of all interactional metadiscourse markers such as:

16. **Our** concern here is with elaborations that take place subsequently, during the school years.

Engagement markers

Engagement markers explicitly refer to or build relationship with reader. They have shown very low frequencies in both sets of data. English writers use 18.1% of all interactional markers. For example:

17. Some scholars suggest that irony has various subtypes (see Gibbs and Colston, 2007).

Engagement markers are just 2.5% of all interactional resources in Persian RA introductions. The low frequency of these markers may indicate that Iranian academic writers do not interact with their readers in an explicit way.

Attitude markers

Attitude markers express writer's attitude proposition and their feeling toward something. Our data shows that Persian and English writers have used very few attitude markers in their introductions.

The great diversity in the length of the sentences can be seen in RA introductions. Some sentences are too short and some are so long. For this reason, the metadiscourse markers were depicted according to the numbers of words in the corpora to gain the exact results. In second phase, the numbers of words in the corpora have been counted and the average densities have been assessed. The table 4 indicates interactive and interactional metadiscourse in Iranian RA introductions based on the numbers of words in the corpus- 14892 words. Table 5 shows metadiscourse markers of

English RA introductions based on the numbers of words in English texts-19764 words. Finally, the average densities in tables have been compared.

TABLE 4.
METADISOURSE IN PERSIAN RA INTRODUCTIONS (BASED ON THE NUMBER OF WORDS)

Interactive Resources					
	Transitions	Evidential	Code glosses	Frame markers	Endophorics
Counts	246	256	41	78	150
No. of words	14892	14892	14892	14892	14892
Average density	0.017	0.017	0.004	0.005	0.010
Total for interactive = 791					
Average density = 0.053					
Interactional Resources					
	Engagement markers	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mentions
Counts	3	56	29	1	30
No. of words	14892	14892	14892	14892	14892
Average density	0.000	0.004	0.002	0.000	0.002
Total for interactional = 119					
Average density =					

TABLE 5.
METADISOURSE IN ENGLISH RA INTRODUCTIONS (BASED ON THE NUMBER OF WORDS)

Interactive Resources					
	Transitions	Evidential	Code glosses	Frame markers	Endophorics
Counts	329	643	133	116	116
No. of words	19764	19764	19764	19764	19764
Average density	0.017	0.032	0.007	0.004	0.006
Total for interactive = 1308					
Average density = 0.066					
Interactional Resources					
	Engagement markers	Hedges	Boosters	Attitude markers	Self-mentions
Counts	40	91	52	2	34
No. of words	19764	19764	19764	19764	19764
Average density	0.002	0.005	0.003	0.000	0.002
Total for interactional = 219					
Average density = 0.11					

As tables 2 and 3 represent, the number of sentences in Persian and English corpora consist of 465 and 635 sentences. According to tables 4 and 5, the numbers of words in Persian introduction are 14892 and 19764 in English. Although the numbers are different, the conclusions are approximately the same. Evidentials and transitions are the most frequent metadiscourse used (3% and 1.7% of all interactive resources respectively) and engagement and attitude markers are used the least by English and Persian writers.

Interactive resources

Evidentials

As tables 2 and 3 represent, the average densities are 0.55 in Persian and 1.01 in English. As a result, English evidentials are about two times more than Persian evidential markers. Tables 4 and 5 represent the average density of 0.017 and 0.033. These statistics show that English RA writers use source of information from other texts around two times more than Iranian's.

Transitions

As tables 2 and 3 illustrate, the average density of transitions are 0.52 in Persian and 0.51 in English respectively. This shows that the average density of transitions in Persian articles is a little more than English's based on the numbers of sentences. As it was mentioned, tables 4 and 5 show the average density of 0.017 in both Persian and English texts. Therefore, according to the average density, the use of transitions is approximately the same. It means that both Persian and English academic writers use almost the same numbers of transitions to express semantic relation between main clauses.

Endophoric markers

The figures represented in tables 2 and 3 show densities of 0.32 and 0.18. Thus, Persian RA writers employ endophoric markers two times more than English RA writers. Tables 4 and 5 represent the average densities of 0.010 and 0.006 in both sets of data. According to these tables, Persian academic writers use endophoric markers in order to show information in other parts of the texts more than English RA writers.

Frame markers

Tables 2 and 3 represent average densities of 0.16 and 0.13. That is, according to the number of sentences, frame markers are more used in Persian RA introductions. Based on the number of words, average densities of 0.005 and 0.004 have been illustrated in tables 4 and 5. Thus, the employment of frame markers to indicate discourse acts, sequences or text stages in Persian texts is a little more than English texts.

Code glosses

The registered code glosses figures in tables 2 and 3 indicate the average density of 0.13 and 0.20 respectively. Here, English academic writers employ more code glosses to help their readers to get the message of ideational material than Persian academic writers. Tables 4 and 5 have represented the same results (i.e. 0.004 and 0.007).

Interactional resources

Hedges

The average densities of 0.12 and 0.14 in tables 2 and 3 show that hedges are more represented in English than in Persian RA introductions. Tables 4 and 5 have displayed the same outcome (i.e. 0.004 and 0.005). Therefore, English academic writers withhold their full commitment to proposition using hedges a little bit more than Persians.

Boosters

The figures of boosters in tables 2 and 3 have marked the average density of 0.06 and 0.08 respectively. This shows that English RA introductions have represented a bit more boosters than Persian RA introductions. Tables 4 and 5 have indicated the average density of 0.002 and 0.003 that is the indicative of the same results. Therefore, sometimes English academic writers emphasize force and their certainty in proposition a little more than Iranian academic writers.

Self-mentions

The registered average densities of self-mentions in both sets of data are approximately the same, 0.06 and 0.05 in tables 2 and 3. They have the same average densities of 0.002 in tables 4 and 5. Although both Iranian and English RA writers deploy the same amount of self-mentions to explicitly refer to themselves in the texts, the discipline-specific differences revealed in the form used by Iranian writers.

Engagement markers

The figures in tables 2 and 3 have indicated the average densities of 0.00 and 0.06. As it is noted in tables 4 and 5, the employment of engagement markers is not much in both sets of data (i.e. 0.000 and 0.002). The writers rarely use the engagement markers to explicitly build relationship with their readers.

Attitude markers

Tables 2 and 3 have indicated barely any employment of attitude markers in the texts (i.e. 0.002 and 0.00). The registered numbers in tables 4 and 5 have illustrated the same results (i.e. 0.000 and 0.000). Therefore, none of them has attitude markers in academic writings.

The second research question is to figure out the factors relating to the employment of metadiscourse in both sets of data. In this regard, the metadiscourse examples mentioned in the corpora have been scrutinized initially and then the related factors have been investigated. Table 6 illustrates some examples deployed in the corpora. The most frequent examples used in the corpora are mentioned in the table.

TABLE 6.
EXAMPLES OF METADISDISCOURSE USED IN THE CORPORA

Category	English	Persian
Interactive		
Transitions	and; thus; also; however; since; because; moreover; whereas; further more; whether; while; although; while; therefore; in addition to; instead; in hence; as well as; though; contrast; hence; as well. regarding; as such; of course; even; unlike; in spite	zira; chera-ke; ?albæte; væ; bænabær ?in; ?æmma; be hæmindæilil; zira; chera-ke; hæmchenin; ?æzanja-ke; be hæmin ?ellæt; be hæmindæilil; hærchænd; ?æla-ræqm-e ?in-ke
Frame markers	First; second; third; latter; eventually; then; consequently; the purpose of the study; (a) (b) (c)....; finally; the goal of the study is...	?ebteda; dærbæxš-e noxost; dovvom; sevvom; noxostin gam, dærpayan; dær ?enteha; noxostin bar; ?in tæhqiqræpey-e yaftæn-e...; dæstebændi-ye (1) (2)...
Endophoric markers	these type of attitude; the present experiment; that is; these results; similar findings; their actions and motivations; these lines of research; these three hypothesis; such populations; refer to; this phenomenon	?in ?estelah; ?in tæmayoz; yæ?ni; be ?ebaræt-e digær; ?in tæ?birat; ?az ?in qæbilvazhe-ha; næzæriye-ye ?era?ešodædær ?in mæqale;
Evidentials	(Ferguson & Charles, 1959), other studies have reported that; following previous research; Davis's (1939) analysis; Wong and Ingram (2003) conducted that; according to Vygotsky's work; for this framework; researchers have argued that; as Tomasello 1992 showed that.	?anhamo?tæqædænd; bær ?æsas-e ?in næzær; be tæ?bir-eTolorof (1382: 33); (Hapervætampson, 1980) ?æqidedarænd; ?æznæzær-e ?æsatid-e ?ædæb-e farsi; batævæjjoh be ?æslæ...; be næql ?æzVygotskey; ?æzdidgah-e besyari ?æzzæbanšenan-an; zæbanšenan-an bær ?in baværbudændke ...
Code glosses	for example; such as; for instance; like; likewise; as; such	Bæray-e mesal; ?æzjomle; mesl-e; manænd-e; be ?onvan-e nemune; æmsal-e ?an
Interactional		
Hedges		
Boosters		
Attitude markers	interestingly; disagree	
Engagement markers	see also Korat et.al. , 2007; c.f. 1995; considered; note that	yeki ?æzjalebtærinmæsadiq-e....
Self mentions	we; our	bærræsimikonim; mipærdazim; ?ešaremikonim, bæhs-e ma; mozu?-e ma; bæyanxahimkærd; qærarmidæhim

As mentioned before, the evidentials and transitions are the most interactive resources. The evidential forms used in both sets of data refer to other sources to prepare one's research to support the writers' statement. Citations and quotations are employed in most cases.

There are also an abundant number of transitions in these corpora. Coordinating conjunctions such as "and", "also", "therefore", "væ" (and), "hæmchenin" (also), "bæ nabær ?in" (therefore) are employed by writers to express the link between clauses. The links allow writers to define the key concept and provide a clarification (Kim and Lim, 2013, p. 136). "And" is the most frequent coordinating conjunctions both Iranian and English writers' introductions. Transitions are used to make interaction and to indicate cause and effect such as "because", "be dæ lil-e" (because). Transitions comprise some contrastive forms as such, "but", "however", "although", "væ li" or "?æmma" (but), "?ægær-che" (however or although).

In interactional metadiscourse, hedges are the most frequent resources in the corpora. According to Hyland (2004, p. 139), this subcategory is used to 'withhold writer's full commitment to proposition' in order to construct 'a relationship with readers to persuade them of interpretations'. Some hedges employed in the texts are "could", "may", "mitævan" (could), "momken ?æst" (may) that take the great numbers in the texts.

It can be concluded that two main factors influence the differences in the use of metadiscourse markers; (a) cultural-specific differences that in the following part it will be stated, and (b) some discipline-specific tendencies which appear to exist in academic articles regardless of the author's language and cultural background. Some examples in the texts revealed the differences, as it was noted about self-mentions.

Since the use of metadiscourse is closely related to its socio-rhetorical contexts, it is not surprising to find variations across the two degree corpora (Hyland, 2004, p. 141). Numerous studies on academic discourse report that academic writing norms vary from one cultural community to another and often reveal traditional writing habits and rhetoric preferences which exist in different writing cultures (Blagojevic, 2004, p. 60). The rhetoric habits from author's writing culture are easily transmitted to writing activities done in a foreign language, as for example, in English, which is nowadays, an "academic lingua franca" for international readership. To Blagojevic (2004, p. 60), however, these habits might become a hindrance to effective international communication, either by causing "discourse expectations" failure, or misunderstanding of the author's personal expression.

As Crismore (1993) mentioned the employment of metadiscourse is related to its socio-cultural contexts. As noted in the present study, Iranian academic writers use more interactive metadiscourse than interactional. This indicates that Iranian writers emphasize on exchanging information in the texts to make their argument explicit. 'Reader responsibility' is that the writer controls the level of personality in a text to construct a more distant relationship between writer, text and reader. It is essential for the writers to organize their texts in a way that readers are most likely to understand. As it is supposed that the academic writings should be as formal as possible the writers in both RA introductions use less interactive markers than interactional to not have intimacy and keep social distances to the readers.

IV. CONCLUSION

The present study was based on a thorough examination of Iranian and English research article introductions in the field of linguistics. The central goal of this research was to provide a description of English and Iranian RA introductions in the use of metadiscourse. Its primary objective was to explore the similarities and differences in the employment of metadiscourse in Iranian and English research article introductions. The Hyland's (2004) model of metadiscourse in academic texts was used as the main framework.

The results of this study revealed some similarities and differences in the use of metadiscourse in both sets of data. On the basis of the examined corpora and the data gained from them, it can be concluded that in spite of some differences in the way Iranian and English writers use metadiscoursal groups in their academic research article introductions, the Iranian used metadiscourse resources does not differ enormously from the metadiscourse used by English writers. The results have indicated that the similarities in the deployment of metadiscourse between two sets of data emerge from the influence of English as an international language and academic lingua franca. The factors influenced the similarities and differences were assumed to be culture-driven preferences, discipline-driven preferences, and reader-responsibility.

The results of this study are in line with Hyland (2004) who argues that metadiscourse represents how writers seek to represent themselves, their texts and their readers as they frame, scaffold, and present their arguments and research findings in ways recognized and valued by their disciplines. Metadiscoursal analysis is therefore a significant means of exploring academic writing and of comparing the rhetorical preferences of different discourse communities. For this reason, it is offered that teachers are supposed to help students to control their writing practices by using metadiscourse markers in their texts to evaluate the impact of their decisions more clearly. Therefore, assisting students to an awareness of metadiscourse can provide them with important rhetorical knowledge and equip them with ways of making discourse decisions which are socially grounded in the inquiry patterns and knowledge structures of their disciplines.

As noted above, EFL Iranian students are supposed to be aware of this change. The awareness of metadiscourse assists teachers and instructors to have a useful teaching approach by introducing students to both interactive and interactional resources of metadiscourse. It is recommended that before teaching metadiscourse resources, the students

need to be asked to engage in a metadiscourse analysis in research article in a selected discipline. This will assist students understand how metadiscourse can guide the reader through the text and involve the reader in argument- as Hyland (2010) best put it, 'metadiscourse,...reveals how writers seek to represent themselves, their texts, and their readers as they frame, scaffold, and present their arguments and research findings in ways recognized and valued by their disciplines'(p. 144). Therefore, the response to the second research question of this study is undoubtedly YES, the knowledge and understanding of metadiscourse markers are essential for Iranian EFL students.

This study stresses the need for including metadiscourse markers in EFL/ESL courses since they are an indispensable feature of various types of texts such as newspaper discourse, research articles, textbooks, and student writing.

And finally, the findings of the study might have been influenced by two important limitations: the first problem was the multifunctionality of many metadiscourse categories and the fact that they can serve several functions simultaneously in a given context; and the second was the small-scale nature of the research, i.e. the limited number of selected articles, was the other limitation of the study. Although the corpus of 20 Iranian and 20 English RA introductions is not small considering the qualitative and quantitative nature of the study, it provides in sufficient findings to allow generalization about the rhetorical structures of all Iranian and English RA introductions in the field of linguistics. The verification of the results is one way to undertake investigations using larger sample sizes from various journals.

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Mohammadamin Sorahi is currently assistant professor of linguistics teaching at Guilan University, Rasht, Iran. His main interests are Cognitive Linguistics, Semantics, Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis. He has published many articles in Iranian and English journals.

Mansour Shabani is currently assistant professor of General Linguistics at Guilan University in Iran. He specializes in Syntax, Pragmatics, and Dialectology. He has published a variety of articles on these topics in Iranian and foreign journals of linguistics.

A New Scenario of Machine Translation: Dynamic Contextual Effects with Diverse Paratextual Application

Chung-ling Shih

Department of English, and MA Program for Translation & Interpreting, National Kaohsiung First University of
Science and Technology, Taiwan

Abstract—Not many people want to read an incomprehensible machine-created translation (MT) even when it is accessed for free on the web. Thus, pre-editing is done to improve the readability of the MT output. However, syntactic and lexical simplification of pre-editing does not explicate the implicit meanings of culture-specific words and messages. To compensate for the simplification-resulted flaw, this paper proposes the use of some paratexts such as notes and pictures to create a better contextual effect in the MT text. The pragmatic function of paratexts can be justified by framing it within the framework of Gutt's relevance-theoretic concepts. Breaking free from the unified contextual effect, this paper supports dynamic contextual effect and illustrates how weak, fair and strong contextual effects are created by comparing two sets of three English MT texts that consist of an MT without paratexts, an MT with added notes and an MT with added notes and pictures. The pragmatic significance of this research shows that paratexts play a useful role in MT-enabled communication and that the application of paratextual aids enhances MT audience's comprehension based on the dynamic contextual effect created in the new MT scenario.

Index Terms—paratexts, machine translation, dynamic contextual effect, relevance-theoretic perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

No one likes to read a book without clear comprehension and no web audience wants to read an incomprehensible machine-created translation (MT) even when it is accessed for free. Thus, effective communication of messages is a key to grabbing the audience's attention and this holds true with MT application. Some scholars have agreed that the tailoring of source text may improve the comprehensibility of the MT output by simplifying the syntactic structure of sentences and using clear-meaning words (Aikawa, Schwarzl, King, Corsten-Oliver & Lozano, 2007; Cardey, Greenfield & Wu, 2004; Garcia, 2010; O'Brien, 2003; O'Brien & Roturier, 2007; Pym, 1990; Roturier, 2004). However, this remedial pre-editing method is only effective for the MT of technical documents, not for a text that contains many cultural items or presents some cultural information. The reason is that the simplified MT text does not explicate the meanings implicit in the socio-cultural messages and therefore the audience cannot relate them to their cognitive assumptions and cannot clearly make sense of them. The MT output cannot, if not faithfully, adequately represent "cultural otherness." Lack of adequate information to share with the source audience hinders the MT audience from clearly understanding the MT messages. To compensate for this inadequacy, in addition to the strategy of pre-editing, this paper proposes the use of some paratexts to supplement background information of the source culture. Thus, optimal contextual effects can be created and facilitate the international audience's easier understanding. Of today, research on MT-enabled communication has been focusing on pre-editing or post-editing, not on the paratextual application. This paper tries to justify the effectiveness of creating contextual effect by supplementing various types of paratexts in the MT text. The MT outputs of Taiwanese folktales will be used as the supportive examples.

This paper would explore why, what and how the paratexts of added notes and pictures that accompany the MT text help create effective contextual effect and therefore help the target audience easily understand the MT messages. Gutt's (1991, 1992, 2000) relevance-theoretic concepts and Genette's (1997) paratext theory will be used as the theoretical framework to frame the discussions. However, breaking free from the unified contextual effect, this paper supports dynamic contextual effect and illustrates how it would shift from the weak to fair and strong ones based on a change from the absence of paratexts to the incorporation of a paratext and two paratexts into the MT text. The twofold objectives of the present research include 1) the justification of paratextual use to boost the contextual effect for the audience's easier interpretation, and 2) the identification of varied levels of contextual effects resulting from the use of different types of paratexts. To achieve the purpose, two research questions (RQ) are raised to guide the investigation as follows.

RQ1: How can paratexts in the MT outputs of folktales boost the audience's interpretation by creating the optimal contextual effect?

RQ2: How can the MT audience have varied levels of MT comprehension in line with varied types of contextual effects generated by different paratextual aids?

It is hoped that the answer to the first question helps illustrate how paratextual aids may compensate for source cultural inadequacy due to the lack of explicit connotations of some culture-relevant information. The answer to the second question may distinguish the weak contextual effect from fair and strong ones by probing how the presence or absence of some paratexts make a difference in the contextual effect creation from Gutt's relevance-theoretic perspective.

II. RELEVANCE THEORY AND CONTEXTUAL EFFECT

The relevance theory needs to be introduced because it will be used to support how paratexts help boost the communication effectiveness of MT. In their early proposal of the relevance theory, Sperber and Wilson (1986) employed a new way to define the term "context"; it refers to an individual's assumptions about the world in the pragmatic studies, not the preceding or following content in a text as described in the traditional linguistic studies. Later on, Ernest-August Gutt (1991, 1992) transports Sperber and Wilson's concept of "context" into translation studies, and proposes the notions of contextual effect and optimal relevance. From Gutt's (1991) point of view, a translation creates the contextual effect when the explicit and implicit meanings of words or expressions are shared by the translator and the target audience. The more information in a translation is shared by the audience, the stronger contextual effect is created and the more easily the audience can decipher and interpret the translation. In this sense, if the MT output provides more information shared by the global audience, it creates the better contextual effect and is more easily understood. To achieve the purpose, paratexts may be used to explicate the implicit meanings of some messages that are specific to source culture, and therefore creates an optimal contextual effect, engaging the MT audience in an easier referential and interpreting process for an easier understanding of MT messages.

However, in his discussion of contextual effect, Gutt does not mention the classification of varied types of contextual effects. In the real communication situation, a speaker or addressor often uses some types of communicative scaffolding to create different levels of contextual effects, and so the audience has varied degrees of comprehension. For example, when color and sound with words are presented to children learners, they will be more motivated and learn more things than when they are presented only words without sound and color. Similarly, when more paratextual aids are activated, the MT audience is surely able to collect more relevant background information and share more knowledge with the source culture audience. Contrary to this, if no or fewer paratextual aids are used, fewer communicative cues are provided and the audience cannot have a clear understanding. The input of various types of supplementary information will produce varied degrees of contextual effect and then causes the audience to have varied levels of interpreting and inference. That is to say, various paths of information import are assumed to send the audience to various zones of shared assumptions in their cognitive schema, thus creating varied degrees of contextual effect for the audience's varied degrees of comprehension.

With the hypothesis above, the present research explores the dynamic contextual effect that takes place through the application of various paratextual aids. For the easier identification, the contextual effect is roughly classified into three types, including weak contextual effect due to the absence of any paratexts, fair contextual effect resulting from the use of a single paratext and strong contextual effect based on the use of two paratexts. The three-scale contextual effect can be investigated by comparing three versions of English MTs of Taiwanese folktales with and without paratextual aids.

III. PARATEXTS AND THEIR PRAGMATIC FUNCTION

Since this paper discusses the paratextual application, Genette's (1977) theory of paratexts can be used to support the pragmatic benefits of paratextual application. In his book entitled *Paratexts: Thresholds of Interpretation*, Genette (1977) proposed the use of paratexts to make a translated book more complete, more favorable and more approachable. For Genette, paratexts can be used to help the audience understand better the content of a translation by introducing various types of additional information. Genette (1997) maintains that paratexts play a role of threshold that offers "a possibility of either stepping inside or turning back" (p. 2). The paratexts lead the audience to step into the main text for a clear understanding and simultaneously guide them to step out of a translation for the acquisition of external information and therefore allow them to have a better understanding when they return to read the translation again. When applied to the MT context, paratexts fulfill the similar function, making the MT output more pragmatically communicative, more readable, more acceptable and more comprehensible. However, the use of paratexts to serve as the pragmatic aids to MT has been overlooked in contemporary MT research although its pragmatic function of maximizing the communication effectiveness of translation has been discussed in a lot of papers and theses (Kloppenborg 2013; Huang, 2013; Lin 2014; Lin 2015). This paper is therefore the first attempt to incorporate paratexts into the MT and explores how the paratextual aids help create varied degrees of cultural effect that change with their differ types of number.

According to Genette, all the paratextual materials may be divided into two types, "epitext and peritext" (Genette, 1997, p. xviii). The former located within the translated book refers to preface, notes, illustration and others, and the latter, outside the translated book, means authorial correspondence, diaries, interviews, critics and relevant others. The present research restricts paratextual aids to epitexts and chooses added notes and pictures, namely tow easiest-to-apply paratexts, as the target of investigation, not including comments or review on the MTs that are not found in the existing

literature.

The concept of paratexts also keeps in line with the concepts of communicative contextual effect and optimal relevance because all of them present a crucial pre-condition that facilitates the audience's maxim understanding of the translation. The paratext of added notes makes the audience able to know additional information about special culture-bound terms, and pictures provide iconic, visual codes to help create the real scene and sight of a verbal description. The paratexts, be they in visual or verbal forms, provide supplementary information to increase the target audience's source-culture knowledge and allow them to interpret easily the MT messages. In this sense, the paratexts bring additional information to the MT audience and relate the information to the audience's cognitive assumptions so they help the audience make clear sense of the MT message with effective communicative cues. The pragmatic benefits of paratexts are justified from the relevance-theoretic perspective because aids create the shared ground between source and target cultures, relate all the verbal presentations to the audience's assumptions and therefore optimize the audience's understanding.

IV. A DYNAMIC MODE OF ANALYSIS

The present research tries to illustrate the shared cultural ground and contextual relevance by using the paratextual aids to MT as examples. However, unlike the traditional unified mode of contextual effect analysis, this paper conducts a dynamic mode of analysis by analyzing three sets of MTs with and without using paratexts. Moving beyond the concept of unified, generalized contextual effect, dynamic contextual effect is examined in response to different paratexts that are added to the MT output. It is assumed that the audience's cognitive processing efforts will be progressively reduced when they receive an increasing amount of background information from more paratexts that are included in the MT text. Thus, the present paper explores how weak, fair and strong contextual effects are created by comparing two sets of three English MT texts that consist of an MT without paratexts, an MT with added notes and an MT with added notes and pictures.

The analytical source texts are three Taiwanese folktales, i.e., "The Kitchen God," "Banpingshen" and "Sister Lakes," which are retrieved from my project of controlled culture writing for MT application (Shih 2013). They are translated by Google Translate, a statistics-based MT system, into English. In order for the texts to produce the easy-to-understand MT outputs, they were adapted using controlled Chinese that modulates the original syntactic structures, cultural expressions and shortens the source sentences. Like the main text, added notes and the titles of pictures also need to be pre-edited in controlled Chinese by simplifying their syntactic structures and verbal presentations, so their MT outputs in English or other foreign languages can be equally readable and comprehensible; otherwise they cannot successfully achieve their pragmatic function.

V. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Optimal Contextual Effect and Paratexts

In reply to RQ1 regarding how paratexts can optimize the contextual effect of the MT text and boost its audience's comprehension, the findings show that the paratexts of added notes and pictures serve as cultural scaffolding because they supplement cultural information about foods, historic figures, places, tools, objects, attire, folk practices, cultural concepts, socio-cultural norms and the like. Specifically, added notes explain special cultural concepts and norms, and pictures present the attire, tools, people, places and special deed. Table 1 shows how added notes are used as the paratext to explain some traditional cultural norms and typical cultural practices in early Taiwan. The English MTs are created by Google Translate in 2015.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLE OF ADDED NOTES AND THEIR ENGLISH MTs

Added notes in controlled Chinese	English MTs of added notes
註 1：在中國古代社會，除了她的丈夫，已婚婦女不能見其他的男人獨自地。這意味著，她是不忠於她的丈夫。	Note 1: In ancient Chinese society, in addition to her husband, a married woman can not see the other man alone. This means that she is not faithful to her husband.
註 2：根據中國道教人們必須祭拜死者以表現出很尊敬死者。	Note 2: According to Chinese Taoism, one must worship the dead to show a lot of respect for the dead.
註 3：Banpingshan 意味著“該山丘有一個平坦的一面”。該 Banoinshan 故事被創建，根據它的形狀。	Note 3: Banpingshan means "The hill has a flat side." The Banoinsan story is created, according to its shape.
註 4：在中國古代社會，人們喜歡吃湯圓，尤其是上重要的節日。	Note 4: In ancient Chinese society, people like to eat glutinous rice balls, especially on important festivals.
註 5：在古代，為了取悅神靈，死者的頭是用來祭祀神靈。這是台灣原住民的習俗。	Note 5: In ancient times, in order to please the gods, the head of the deceased is used to worship the gods. This is Taiwan's aboriginal customs.




Note. Produced and compiled by the author

As shown above, the first note explains a cultural taboo for women in early Taiwan. This note allows the Western audience to easily infer the reason for Mr. Chang's self-sacrifice. Without the note, the Western audience might have assumed that Mr. Chang was a foolish man by burning himself alive. In the Western culture, no man would sacrifice his

life merely because of his guilty feeling arising from meeting his ex-wife alone. The cultural gap prevents the Western audience from understanding the genuine meaning of the message because no effective contextual effect is created. The second note indicates the Taoist ritual of honoring the dead people in early Taiwan. Such paratextual information enables the Western audience to easily understand the reason why Mr. Chang's ex-wife worshipped the stove where Mr. Chang killed himself. Without the added note, the audience might have inferred that Mr. Chang's ex-wife felt guilty about his ex-husband's death and thus she worshipped him every day. The third note illustrates how the hill is named and the Western audience can associate the name with the disguised God's deed in the story. The notes help create the contextual effect by relating the cultural practices and the name to the plot of the stories and make the audience easily understand the MT messages without much cognitive effort. The fourth note increases the audience's knowledge about the food, namely glutinous rice balls, and thus they can infer why the disguised God chose to sell the food, not others, to attract the passerby's interest. The final note illuminates Taiwan's aboriginal custom and helps the Western audience to know why the villagers were scared when hearing Mogulu's warning that God was angry and asked them to provide 50 heads to worship the God. Without the notes, no effective contextual effect can be produced because the cultural implications implicit in the messages cannot be clearly revealed and therefore the audience cannot have the right interpretation of them.

In addition to added notes, the paratext of pictures is recommended to create optimal contextual effect since they can make the audience clearly know the outlook of something. A visual aid is worth thousands of words. Table 2 shows how some pictures are used as the paratext to clearly present the physical properties of rice dumpling, the stove and the worshipping rite. Figures 2 and 3 are taken from my book, co-authored with Gu (2014), so their copyright has no problem. Figure 1 is retrieved from Google Graphics and is accessible to the public without copyright.

TABLE 2
EXAMPLES OF PICTURES AND THEIR ENGLISH MTs
Pictures and the English MTs of their titles

		
Fig.1: Rice Dumpling	Fig.2: Mr. Chang was in the stove. Fig.3: Mr. Chang's ex-wife worshipped him.	

Note. Compiled by the author from <http://www2.nkfust.edu.tw/~clshih/plan/>

When the Western audience reads the MT message that *One day, he went out to see his ex-wife, begging some food. His wife gave him some rice dumplings*, they might feel curious about what the food looks like. Additionally, when they read the MT message that *At that time, the woodcutter returned home. Mr. Zhang, hid himself in the stove inside*, they might be confused about the situation. The Western audience in the contemporary times does not know the difference between the ordinary stove and the old-style stove in early Taiwan, so they cannot understand why a person can hide himself in the stove. At this moment, when they see the pictures, they can immediately understand the situation. Additionally, the audience can be brought into the picturesque setting and acquire relevant information. When they come back to read the MT message again, they would have a clear understanding of the implicit meanings. This is the contextual effect of paratexts, supported by Genette's view that paratexts play a role of threshold leading the reader to step outside and then turn back for a better understanding. A picture justifies the old saying that "To see is to believe" allowing for the immediate semantic clarification of some messages.

Above all, we arrive at a finding that paratexts help create the contextual effect and facilitate the communication by demystifying cultural implications and explicating the hidden meanings of MT messages. Added notes introduce some socio-cultural background information and pictures provide materialistic structures and components of something to increase the audience's impression. Both of them can be treated as the useful scaffolding to boost the audience's easier interpretation of MT messages.

B. Dynamic Contextual Effect Due to the Use of Different Paratexts

In response to RQ2 regarding how varied degrees of contextual effect are created due to the use of different types of paratexts, the findings show that no use of surrounding texts makes the MT output unable to reveal the implicit meanings of some information and creates the weak contextual effect. In contrast, the use of either added notes or pictures as the co-texts of the MT output helps explicate the implications of some messages and creates the fair contextual effect. When both types of paratexts are simultaneously used, all the information implicit in the MT messages are completely recovered, and therefore the strong contextual effect is produced. The weak contextual effect enables the MT audience to understand only the general idea of the MT output without getting further insights, but fair contextual effect helps the audience easily decode the MT message with some understanding of source culture. Moving beyond the level, strong contextual effect expands the scope of the audience's cultural assumptions and facilitates their culture awareness, leading to their easier and clearer understanding of the MT messages. The three levels of contextual effects suggest varied degrees of contextual relevance to the audience's cognitive *schema* and therefore make the MT

audience have varied levels of comprehension. Table 3 shows varied degrees of contextual effects with a set of three English MTs (generated by Google Translate in 2015) of “The Kitchen God” with and without paratexts. The source text has been adapted by the author and can be accessed on Shih’s (2013) teaching website.

TABLE 3
MTs OF “THE KITCHEN GOD” WITH AND WITHOUT PARATEXTS

English MTs with and without paratexts	
MT1 Weak CE (no paratexts)	Mr. Zhang was addicted to gambling. He lost all the money. He sold his wife to a woodcutter. One day, he went out to see his ex-wife, begging some food. His wife gave him some rice dumplings (dumplings). Some coins were put into the rice dumplings. At that time, the woodcutter returned home. Mr. Zhang, hid himself in the stove inside. For a hot bath, the woodcutter use a stove to heat water. Mr. Zhang did not come out. His worry is that his ex-wife would be beaten to death. So, he was being burned to death. After this incident, his wife went to worship the stove every morning, at noon and in the evening. She told the people that is, the stove can help her cooking. So, she worshiped the stove, to express her gratitude. Many people began to imitate her. Jade Emperor learned of the matter. He gave Mr. Zhang, the "stove Lord" title.
MT 2 Fair CE (added footnotes) At that time, His worry is that his ex-wife would be beaten to death <u>(Note1)</u> . So, he was burned to death. After this incident, his wife went to worship the stove... <u>(Note 2)</u> . <u>Note 1: In ancient Chinese society, in addition to her husband, a married woman can not see the other man alone. This means that she is not faithful to her husband.</u> <u>Note 2: According to Chinese Taoism, people must worship the dead to show a lot of respect for the dead.</u>
MT 3 Strong CE (added footnotes & pictures)	Mr. Zhang was addicted to gambling. He lost all the money. He sold his wife to a woodcutter. One day, he went out to see his ex-wife, begging some food. His wife gave him some rice dumplings (dumplings). <u>[Figure 1]</u> Some coins were put into the rice dumplings <u>[Figure 2]</u> . At that time, the woodcutter returned home. Mr. Zhang, hid himself in the stove inside <u>[Figure 3]</u> . For a hot bath, the woodcutter use a stove to heat water. Mr. Zhang did not come out. His worry is that his ex-wife would be beaten to death <u>(Note 1)</u> . So, he was being burned to death. After this incident, his wife went to worship the stove.... <u>(Note 2)</u> <u>[Figure 4]</u> <u>Note 1: In ancient Chinese society, in addition to her husband, a married woman can not see the other man alone. This means that she is not faithful to her husband.</u> <u>Note 2: According to Chinese Taoism, people must worship the dead to show a lot of respect for the dead.</u>



Fig. 1 Mr. Chang’s ex-wife gave him rice dumplings.



Fig.2: Rice dumplings



Fig. 3: Mr. Chang was in the stove.



Fig. 4: Mr. Chang’s ex-wife worshipped him.

Note. Compiled by the author from <http://www2.nkfust.edu.tw/~clshih/plan/>

As presented above, MT1 is adequate for gisting although it has some grammatical errors. Since it has no supplementary information, the audience can only comprehend the surface meanings of the messages. However, after added notes are supplemented in MT2, the Western audience can learn some cultural concepts such as the importance of married women’s reputation and worshipping to show respect for dead people in ancient Chinese society. The two added notes explicate the implicit cultural meanings, create the weak contextual effect and strengthen the audience’s cross-cultural awareness. In addition to the added notes, some pictures are supplemented in MT3, and therefore the audience can know what rice dumpling is like, how Mr. Chang hides himself in the kitchen stove and how his ex-wife worships him after he dies. Thus, strong contextual effect is created when more shared contextual information and more communicative cues are provided to the audience. At this point, the audience can not only get the gist of the story but also get deeper insights into the source culture. A combination of added notes and pictures allows MT3 to be most easily understood without extra efforts, concurring with Gutt’s notion of optimal relevance.

One more example retrieved from the folktale of “Banpingshan” and its English MT output equally illuminates how varied levels of MT audience’s comprehension are attributed to various contextual effects that are created by incorporating various types of paratexts into the MT output. Table 4 presents a set of three English MTs of “Banpingshan” with and without paratexts.

TABLE 4
MTS OF “BANPINGSHAN” WITH AND WITHOUT PARATEXTS

English MTs (created by Google Translate in 2015) and paratexts	
MT1 Weak CE (without Paratexts)	Banpingshan is located in Zuoying Kaohsiung. In Chinese mythology, Zhongli Quan was one of the Eight Immortals. One day, Zhongli, played the role of a hawker. He sold the glutinous rice balls. He wants to use this opportunity to look for 1 apprentice. He waved his fan toward the mountain, gently. Soil and stones fell. They were transformed into many glutinous rice balls. He set up a booth to sell glutinous rice balls. He told the people that it took a coin to buy 1 glutinous rice ball. It took 2 coins to buy 2 glutinous rice balls. It took no money to buy three glutinous rice balls. People heard the news. Many people eat 3 glutinous rice balls. At that time some people are greedy. They even continued to eat, until they can no longer eat any more. One day, a young man just bought a glutinous rice ball. Zhongli was very curious. He asked the man why he did not buy three for free. The man said that Zhongli should earn some money for his efforts. Zhongli knew that he was the right person. Later, Zhongli led him to God's world. The greedy people have a stomach ache.
MT 2 Fair CE (with footnotes)	Banpingshan (note 1) is located in Zuoying Kaohsiung. One day, Zhongli, played the role of a hawker. He sold the glutinous rice balls (Note 2)... <u>Note 1: Banpingshan means that “the hill has a flat side”. The Banoinshan story is created, according to its shape.</u> <u>Note 2: In ancient Chinese society, people like to eat glutinous rice balls, especially on important festivals.</u>
MT 3 Strong CE (added footnotes & pictures)	Banpingshan (Note 1) [Figure1] is located in Zuoying Kaohsiung. In Chinese mythology, Zhongli Quan [Figure 2] was one of the Eight Immortals. One day, Zhongli.... He sold the glutinous rice balls (Note 2)[Figure 3].They even continued to eat, until they can no longer eat any more. ...Later, Zhongli led him to God's world. The greedy people have a stomach ache. <u>Note 1: the same as above. Note 2: the same as above.</u>



Fig. 1 Banpingshan



Fig. 2 Zhongli Quan



Fig. 3 Glutinous rice balls

Note. Compiled by the author from <http://www2.nkfust.edu.tw/~clshih/plan/>

As seen above, without added notes, the audience gets the gist but cannot obtain adequate information, so MT 1 creates the weak contextual effect. However, by adding notes, MT 2 allows the audience to get some cultural information about glutinous rice balls and the origin of the name of the hill. Added notes establish the optimal contextual relevance to the audience's cognitive schema, creating the fair contextual effect. A better way to enhance the communication effectiveness is to create strong contextual effect by adding notes and pictures together in the MT text. The pictures in MT3 allow the audience to clearly know the outlook of glutinous rice balls and the God, and how Banpingshan is named based on its flat side. The iconic, pictorial elements explicitly present the source cultural attributes and the materialistic components of the story setting, so the story is more impressive to the audience. Since a blend of pictorial signs and added notes expand the scope of the audience's cultural knowledge, the audience has a deeper comprehension of the MT text.

As indicated above, due to an increasing amount of information provided by more paratexts, the contextual effect generated in the MT text shifts from the weak, fair to strong degrees, and the audience's comprehension also moves from rough, fair to the optimal levels. Without additional co-texts, the audience can merely infer the meaning based on the simplified linguistic codes of the MT text. Viewed from Gutt's relevance-theoretic perspective, when the messages are contextually relevant to the audience's cognitive knowledge, the effective communication of messages is achieved. Better than this is a combination of added notes and pictures that provides more shared cultural knowledge and more communicative clues, so the strong contextual effect is created and the MT can be understood more easily and more clearly.

VI. RESEARCH SIGNIFICANCE

This research has shed light on some pragmatic significance of paratextual application by using the English MTs of Taiwanese folktales as analytical samples. We can discuss two specific significances from the aspects of a useful role of paratexts in MT and the dynamic contextual effect as follows.

A. A Useful Role of Paratexts in MT

Like their function in human translations, paratexts similarly play a useful role in the MT text because they boost the target audience's understanding of the MT text. Over the past several decades, the issue of effective communication of MT has been discussed from the linguistic perspective, not from the pragmatic functional perspective of paratexts. The pragmatic function of paratexts has been overlooked in the research on MT communication. Indeed, supplementary information of paratexts can help the MT audience acquire new cultural knowledge such as the names of foods, people, places, tools, and cultural practices, norms and traditions in the source culture. When the MT audience reconstructs their cognitive schema with new contextual knowledge, they can process MT information with less cognitive effort and increase their understanding, concurring with the concept of Gutt's optimal relevance. However, we should notice that

paratextual occurrence should not be too much or too little; only the right amount of added notes and pictures can optimize the contextual effect, and would not bother the audience's reading and interpreting process. In short, the paratexts compensate for cultural inadequacy and help improve the international audience's understanding of MT, supported by Gutt's relevance theoretical concepts.

B. *Dynamic, Flexible Contextual Effect*

A probe into three sets of MTs has identified three types of contextual effects, suggesting the dynamic, changeable nature of contextual effect. Without being reduced to the unified, fixed cultural effect, this research shows that varied degrees of contextual effect can be created in answer to various types of paratexts supplemented to the MT text. When no paratexts are used, the contextual effect is weak. After a single paratext of added notes is used, the fair contextual effect is created, and when two paratexts are utilized, strong contextual effect is generated. A single paratextual aid allows the MT audience to retrieve some interpretative clues for the easier understanding of some cultural presentations, but it remains inadequate. Two paratexts double the load of culture-specific information input, so it doubles the audience's shared cultural knowledge with the source audience, and optimizes their understanding of MT messages. The use of two paratexts accords with Gutt's concept of optimal relevance that is successfully attained as the result of offering the audience adequate contextual knowledge in a translation.

In conclusion, this research has shown the significant co-relation among paratextual aids, dynamic contextual effects and the audience's varied levels of comprehension. Different types of paratexts in the MT text allow for the building-up of different amounts of contextual knowledge in the audience's mind, and provide different types of interpretative clues. With the help of various clues, the audience enters into different levels of information processing, and reaches different levels of MT comprehension. In reality, even human translation needs to use paratexts to improve the audience's understanding of difficult-to-render cultural messages, so the MT output that falls short in its readability and understandability more needs paratextual aids to effectively communicate all the MT messages to the international audience. Overall, the present research reveals its pragmatic significance that paratexts play a useful role in MT-enabled communication and that the application of various paratexts enhances MT audience's comprehension based on the dynamic contextual effect created in the new MT scenario.

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Chung-ling Shih is now a professor teaching translation at the Department of English at National Kaohsiung University of Science and Technology in Taiwan. She has published some books addressing computer-aided translation, and one book is entitled *Helpful Assistance to Translators: MT & TM* (Bookman, 2006). Her papers have been published in the peer-reviewed journals such as *Perspectives*, *Cultus*, *Journal of Language and Translation*, *Translation Journal* and others. Also, one of her papers on the tracks and trends of technology in Taiwan is collected in *Routledge Encyclopedia of Translation Technology*. She can be reached at clshih@nkfust.edu.tw

The Effects of Using Instructional Conversation Method on Oral Autonomy of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

Sahar Ghaffari

English Department, Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbate Heydarieh, Iran

Mohammad Ali Fatemi

English Department, Torbat-e Heydarieh Branch, Islamic Azad University, Torbate Heydarieh, Iran

Abstract—This study was conducted with the aim of investigating the impact of instructional conversations on oral autonomy of Iranian English as Foreign Language (EFL) learners. Forty-nine Iranian intermediate EFL learners from three language institutes in Sarakhs were selected as the participants of the study based on their scores in Nelson Proficiency Test. Administering Nelson General Proficiency Test, participants were measured to make sure they are homogeneous. These participants were randomly assigned into to control and experimental groups. Participants in both groups sat for Learner Oral Autonomy Questionnaire with some modifications from Kashefian's learner autonomy questionnaire (2002). Results of independent samples t-test lack of any significant difference between the two groups in oral autonomy at the outset of the study. Throughout the study which lasted for 12 sessions participants in experimental group received the treatment, instructional conversations, as a tool for teaching speaking materials. Participants in the control group were taught the same materials as those practiced in the former group through such techniques as role playing, peer dialogues, and oral presentations. Finally, the posttest being the same as the pretest was administered. Results of independent samples t-test showed that the experimental group significantly outperformed the control one in Oral Autonomy Questionnaire. The present findings provide pedagogical implications for employing instructional conversation in EFL speaking classrooms.

Index Terms—instructional conversations, oral autonomy, speaking ability

I. INTRODUCTION

The ability to speak English as foreign language (EFL) appears to be the primary purpose of EFL students. Speaking can be improved through a variety of techniques introduced by EFL teachers to their students. According to Brown and Yule (1983) many language learners view speaking as the criteria for knowing a language and one's progress is assessed in terms of his/her achievement in spoken communication.

Celce-Murcia (2001) states that for most people the ability to speak a language means to know that language because human communication requires the speech. Many language learners worldwide study English with the aim of improving their speaking (Marzban & Hashemi, 2012). Speaking a foreign language seems to differ from speaking a native one due to different structures, vocabularies, cultural factors, and so on. The process of learning to speak a foreign language is, therefore, complex. Richards and Renandya (2002) view the ability to speak a second language well as a very complex task. Speaking a language is particularly difficult for foreign language learners because the occurrence of an effective oral communication the ability to use the language appropriately in social interactions in necessary (Marzban & Hashemi, 2012). Overall, it can be concluded that speaking skill is worthy to bring up the newly developed issue, instructional conversation method, which might significantly affect the development of speaking ability. Before dealing with the issue it is worth presenting a background of it.

Communicative competence, according to Boyd and Miller (2000), involves the ability to interpret and enact suitable social behaviors and requires the learner to actively participate in producing the target language. Thus the learner needs to do more than one-word answers in the target language or memorize separated sentences (Pinkevičienė, 2011). The learner needs to be actively engaged in building and clarifying meaning. EFL teachers, on the other hand, need to provide opportunities in the classroom to engage students in talking.

Wells and Haneda (2005) view learners as active agents who, along with their teachers, participate in a form of conversational discourse aims at improving understanding rather than the one-way transmission of teacher-directed instructional talk. In this case the target language becomes the vehicle for communicating ideas rather than an instructional tool (Pinkevičienė, 2011).

Thrap and Galimore (1988) minted the term "Instructional Conversation" (IC: Talk about text). Instructional Conversation: contains a paradox: 'Instruction' and 'Conversation' appear contrary, the one implying authority and planning, the other equality and responsiveness (Thrap & Gallimore, 1988 as cited in Wells & Haneda, 2005, p.151).

Curenton and Zucker (2013) view ICs as planned discussions with small groups of children where teachers improve students' collaborative reasoning by using challenging questions which necessitate students to use complex language to talk about their experiences, knowledge, and opinions. IC appears to result in autonomous EFL learners since autonomy is dependent upon learners' ability to self-direct for practice, critical reflection, and independent action (Andrade, 2012). Bocanegra and Haidl (1999) believe that learner autonomy, as a new field of study, has gradually come into existence since the 1970s as a consequence of a new shift in interest in research on language learning: learners have gradually been viewed as producers of language and less as learners of a system imposed on them by society. Kulsirisawad (2012), regards emphasis upon the students' role rather than the teacher's as a key principle of learner autonomy. Little (1991) points out that "autonomy in language depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action" (p. 4). The present study focuses on oral autonomy which can be defined as EFL learner's ability of taking charge of his/her speaking and listening English. From this point of view, instructional conversation can provide an opportunity in which EFL learners need to self-direct for practice. In this view students are viewed as active agents who actively engage in the process of speaking. However, the present study aims at investigating the effects of using instructional conversation as a means of enhancement of speaking ability as well as oral autonomy among Iranian intermediate EFL learners.

A. *Research Questions*

The following research question was posed by the researcher:

Q1: Does the use of Instructional Conversation have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' oral autonomy?

B. *Research Null-hypotheses*

Accordingly the following null-hypothesis was formulated:

H01: Use of Instructional Conversation does not have any significant effect on Iranian intermediate EFL learners' oral autonomy.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

Speaking seems to be the primary purpose of EFL learners. The recent EFL classrooms tend to create autonomous learners who try to learn independently. Learner autonomy is achieved when such conditions as motivation and attitudes and learning strategies on the part of the learner, and materials are available. To achieve autonomy there has to be a teacher on whom it will be incumbent to show the way to autonomous learning (Hadi, 2012).

The social disciplines of the last half century have made it probable to describe another sort of instruction, and how to aid teachers do it. Investigation on instruction has been roused in the past few years by some influential ideas from recently interpreted works of a Russian psychologist who passed away more than 50 years ago. L. S. Vygotsky's thoughts are deeply touching our understanding of teaching, learning, and cognitive growth through the work of numerous neo-Vygotsky an socio-historical philosophers and investigators in several nations who now elaborate, correct, and develop this body of work (e.g., Cazden, 1981; Rogoff & Wertsch, 1984; Tharp & Gallimore, 1989; Wertsch & Stone, 1985).

Amid the most auspicious methods in modern educational theory is the sociocultural viewpoint, in which the opinion that information is socially created is further advanced and prolonged. The goal of this study is to discover the potential of socio-culturally based teaching, mainly the Instructional Conversation (IC), to raise the contribution in teaching and learning actions of both instructors and their language minority students. This approach seems to have important prospective to advance, simultaneously, the learning of academic content ideas and growth in the language of instruction per se. This is because instructional practices founded on socio-cultural theory highlight activity and the simultaneous message of the sense of the action through language. Language's basic purpose is socio-cultural: to replicate speaker identity and attitudes. Timing and tone of delivery, in spoken language, are important for endorsing or obstructing teaching and learning irrespective of the overall quality of teaching (Cazden, 1986).

Reveles (2004) describes IC as a teaching strategy in which conversation takes place among small groups of students. These conversations are not random rather they are academically goal-oriented. In such classrooms, Reveles (2004) explains, the students speak more than the teacher; the teacher therefore becomes a listener and facilitator. "IC protocol is a way to transform a classroom into a more productive learning community through dialogic teaching" (Reveles, 2004, p.1).

IC is most often enacted in a small group through employment of familiar forms of conversation to improve learners' language production and understanding. Teachers who employ IC take the advantage of ordinary conversation about an interesting stimulus or activity to tempt their students to employ social and academic language and to share prior knowledge (Dalton & Sison, 1995). In the interaction, teachers determine levels of students' independence and necessary assistance (Gallimore, Dalton, & Tharp, 1986, as cited in Dalton & Sison, 1995). In IC, teachers investigate to gather information about students' Zones of Proximal Development (ZPD). Therefore, the format of an IC, from the beginning, is neither exactly prescribed nor pre-scripted; however, it mirrors a plan composed of anticipated options and some unanticipated ones to gain selected outcomes. Outcomes are proximal in collecting information of students' prior

knowledge and their ZPDs, and distal for facilitating students' understanding and knowledge construction (Dalton & Sison, 1995).

Based on IC learners have to play a key role in learning new materials and becoming aware of the world. Therefore, the teacher plays the role of facilitator rather than transmitter. Accordingly, rather than providing step-by-step instructions designed to produce right answer to correct performance, the teacher in IC encourages students' ideas and generally guides students to sophisticated levels of comprehension (Aidinlou, & Tabeei, 2012). Dalton and Sison (1995) described four ICs taught by a novice teacher. The ICs aimed at fostering interaction about math concepts in small groups of seventh grade students who were ordinarily excluded from classroom participation by their regular teacher. Results indicated that all the students participated comfortably in academic conversation using math lexicon with increasing appropriacy and focus. Intersubjectivity emerged in the conversations and was apparently built on the students' and teacher's similar and shared experience in constructive social interaction about math. Students' participation in IC increased dramatically and stabilized across the four ICs which indicated the effectiveness of this pedagogy to include often excluded language minority students in classroom interaction (Dalton & Sison 1995).

Concerning the effects of IC in EFL contexts several studies have been already conducted. For example Aidinlou and Tabeei (2012) in their study on the effects of using instructional conversation method on reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners indicated advantages of instructional conversation in English students' reading comprehension. It was found that the participants in the IC groups performed better than those in control group in reading comprehension post-test. Moreover, significant differences were found between performances of two experimental groups. These findings showed that a combination of instructional conversation method and traditional method was more effective than instructional conversation alone (Aidinlou, & Tabeei, 2012). Dincer, Yesilyurt and Takkac (2012) in an article "The Effects of Autonomy-Supportive Climates on EFL Learners' engagement, achievement in English speaking classrooms" found that creating an autonomous environment could result in high levels of perceived competence in speaking. Moreover, autonomy-supportive teacher behaviors had positive correlations with perceived competence and these behaviors were engagement in English speaking lessons and achievements (Dincer et al., 2012). Khaki (2013) investigated the relationship between learner autonomy and Willingness to Communicate (WTC) in Iranian EFL learners. The results indicated a meaningful and strong relationship between learner autonomy and trait-like WTC in Iranian EFL learners and a significant but weak correlation between learner autonomy and situational WTC in Iranian EFL learners. Therefore, Khaki (2013) concludes that a meaningful relationship between learner autonomy and WTC can be seen in Iranian EFL learners supported by the regression analysis.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants and Setting

Participants included 49 Iranian intermediate EFL learners studying English as their foreign language in three language institutes in Sarakhs. These participants were selected through administering Nelson Test developed by Fowler and Coe (1976). All of them were female and their age ranged from 18 to 24.

B. Instrumentations

The following instrumentations were employed by the author.

Nelson Proficiency Test

In order to select homogeneous participants, Nelson proficiency test (series 200A), developed by Fowler and Coe, 1976, and was administered to 110 Iranian EFL learners in Sarakhs, Iran. The test contained 50 multiple-choice items and participants were allowed to respond in 40 minutes. The test mainly assessed the participants' vocabulary knowledge and grammar. After analyzing the results of this test, 49 participants who could obtain at least 70% of the total score were selected as the participants of this study (Appendix A).

Learner Oral Autonomy Questionnaire

In order to measure the participants' oral autonomy, Kashefian's learner autonomy questionnaire (2002) was modified in such a manner to assess the participants' autonomy in oral ability. The questionnaire included 20 multiple-choice items based on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree'. The modified questionnaire was piloted to make sure of its reliability. Results of Cronbach's Alpha supported that the questionnaire was relatively reliable ($\alpha=.79$). (Appendix B). The following Table shows the results.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF CHRONBACH'S ALPHA

Questionnaire	N. of Items	Chronbach's Alpha
Oral Autonomy	20	.79

The content validity of the questionnaire was confirmed by three EFL professors at Islamic Azad University in Torbat-e Heydarieh.

C. Procedure

Forty-nine Iranian intermediate EFL learners from language institutes in Sarakhs were selected as the participants. Nelson Test was administered as a homogenizing tool. The qualified participants (N=49) were randomly assigned to control (n=24) and experimental (n=25) groups. Oral autonomy questionnaire was administered at the beginning of the study as the pretest. During the course which lasted for 12 sessions, participants in the experimental class received the treatment, Instructional Conversations (ICs). Every session they were provided with copies of a reading text. These students were allowed to practice the reading materials as a whole class, in small groups, or even in pairs. These participants were provided with a time (25 minutes) to analyze and discuss their own ideas on the text. The teacher managed the process of discussion to correct the mistakes committed by the students. Oral discussions were made by these participants after completing the task. Sometimes the teacher, explained more about the issue and clarified the complex parts with which the students had problems. Since the focus of the present study was on enhancing the students' oral autonomy, the teacher provided the class with opportunities to discuss about the passage in groups and pairs. Creating a question-answer environment, the teacher engaged the students in an oral discussion activity.

Participants in the control group were taught the same materials as those practiced in the experimental group through role playing and peer dialogues. Finally participants in both groups sat for the posttest, e.g. Learner Oral Autonomy Questionnaire.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

After obtaining required data from the instrument, data were analyzed by employing SPSS (19.0).

A. Results of Reliability

First it was necessary to make sure of the reliability of oral autonomy; therefore Chronbach's Alpha was calculated by using SPSS (19.0). Results are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF CHRONBACH'S ALPHA

Questionnaire	N. of Items	Chronbach's Alpha
Oral Autonomy	20	.79

As Table 1 shows, the observed value confirmed the reliability of the instrument ($\alpha=.79$).

B. Results of Normality of Data

To make sure that the data are normal, a normalizing test, Smirnov-Kolmogorov Test, was conducted. Results are shown in Table 2.

TABLE 3
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST

		Nelson	Autonomypre	Autonomypost
N		49	49	49
Normal	Mean	37.7347	62.4490	66.7959
Parametersa	Std. Deviation	2.12892	6.87102	6.78841
Most Extreme	Absolute	.160	.074	.089
Differences	Positive	.160	.074	.089
	Negative	-.112	-.073	-.076
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.118	.520	.624
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.164	.950	.831
a. Test distribution is Normal.				

Table 2 summarizes the data related to normalizing test. Null-hypothesis of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test indicates that the data are normal. Since P-values obtained in the test for the instruments administered are greater than .05, (p-value for Nelson=.164>.05; p-value for autonomypre=.95>.05; p-value for autonomypost=.831>.05) the null-hypothesis is supported.

C. Results of Independent Samples T-test for Nelson

Table 3 shows results obtained from independent samples t-test for Nelson proficiency test.

TABLE 4
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR NELSON

Group	N	M	SD	Df	T	sig(2-tailed)
Control	24	37.66	2.21	47	.21	.82
experimental	25	37.80	2.08			

As Table 3 shows there is not any significant difference [$df=47$, $t=.21$, $sig(2-tailed)=.82>.05$] between control (N=24, M=37.66, SD=2.21) and experimental (N=25, M=37.80, SD=2.08) groups in Nelson. Therefore, the homogeneity of the participants was confirmed at the outset of the study.

D. Results of Independent Samples T-test for Oral Autonomy (Pretest)

- A) No, are five B) No, there are three C) No, there's one D) No, there are any
8. Tom often sings, but
- A) Sings Sarah? B) Sarah sings? C) Sarah does? D) does Sarah?
9. Tony is looking at
- A) She B) he C) her D) here
10. Who's that boy?
- A) Is Bill B) It's Tom C) It's a boy D) Peter's that
11. Where's the book?
- A) There's it B) He's under the chair C) It's he D) There's on a chair
12. Are you happy?
- A) Yes, I'm B) No, I aren't C) Yes, I am D) No, I not
13. What's his name?
- A) It's name Jack B) It's a Jack C) It's Jack's name D) It's Jack
14. Do you dance or draw?
- A) I'm dance but I'm not draw B) I dance but I don't draw
C) I'm dancing but I not drawing D) I dance but I'm not drawing
15. Is that a book?
- A) Yes, there is B) Yes, it is C) Yes, that's D) Yes, is a book
16. Is that horse big?
- A) No, that's a little B) No, that's little horse
C) No, It's little horse D) No, It isn't
17. What's her brother doing?
- A) Playing football B) Is playing football
C) He playing football D) She's playing football
18. How many chairs are there in the room?
- A) Are four B) Are five chairs there C) There's one D) there's a chair
19. A) Is that table big brown? B) Is that big brown table?
C) Is that big table brown? D) Is brown that big table?
20. A) Mary can dance tomorrow B) Mary cans dance tomorrow
C) Mary she can dance tomorrow D) Mary can tomorrow dance
21. The lamp is the television.
- A) at B) next to C) near of D) between
22. The tree is the door.
- A) between B) in front C) beside D) next
23. What's that girl?
- A) It's a student B) She's student C) She's a student D) She's a student girl
24. Do the girls know Tom?
- A) Yes, they knows her B) No, they isn't
C) Yes, they know D) No, they don't
25. A) John's looking at I and you B) Your looking at John and
C) I'm looking at you and John D) John and I am looking at you
26. A) That girl is some of my friends B) This girl is one of my friends
C) That girl is me friend D) This girl's are friends
27. A) This is Mr. Smith there B) That is the Mr. Smith there
C) This is the Mr. Smith here D) That is Mr. Smith there
28. My brother is writing
- A) by a pencil B) with pen C) in a paper D) in a book
29. A) Who now in London lives? B) Who in London now live?
C) Who lives in London now? D) Who live now in London?
30. Monday is the first day.
- A) Tuesday is the second. B) The second is Thursday.
C) Tuesday is the fourth. D) The fourth is Thursday.
31. Jane is in front of Tom. Tom is Jane.
- A) beside B) behind C) before D) between
32. Tom is Mrs. Smith's son.
- A) She is his son. B) She is her son. C) He is her son. D) He is his son.
33. A) Come here to us! B) Go here to we!
C) Go there to us! D) Come here to my
34. A) Don't look at us! B) Don't looking at us!
C) No looking at we! D) Not look at us

35. A) Some girl are listening to the old men B) An old man is listening to the girl
C) An old men are listening the girl D) The old man are listening to a girl
36. A) Listen to he and he's brother! B) Listen to he and his brother!
C) Listen to him and his brother! D) Listen to him and he's brother!
37. Whose hats are those? They are Hats.
A) he's B) Mr. Black's C) Mrs. Black's D) she's
38. A) Where are you going to put the cups? B) Where are you going put the cups?
C) Where you're going put the cups? D) Where you are going to put the cups?
39. Jane's tall and
A) John's, too B) Tom is, too C) Tom is to D) Tom are two
40. Does Brain play football?
A) Yes, and Sam doesn't, too B) No, but Sam doesn't
C) Yes, but Sam doesn't D) No, and Sam does, too
41. James is talking to
A) they B) them C) she D) your
42. These pens are
A) Pats B) of Pat C) Pat's D) to Pat
43. Sarah cat.
A) haves a B) haves some C) has some D) has a
44. This is
A) second lesson B) the lesson two C) lesson the second D) lesson two
45. A) Lena cans have Mikes' radio B) Lena can has Mikes' radio
C) Lena can have Mikes' radio D) Lena can has Mikes' radio
46. It's 21.00.
A) Yes, it's nine in the evening B) Yes, it's nine clocks
C) Yes, it's nine in the afternoon D) yes, it's nine hours
47. 164 is
A) hundred sixty four B) a hundred sixty four
C) hundred sixty and four D) a hundred and sixty four
48. A) The girls don't do the homework B) The girls don't the homework
C) The girls doesn't do the homework D) The girls don't does the homework
49. Do Mr. and Mrs. Smith speak English?
A) He does but she doesn't B) He speak but she doesn't
C) He do but she don't D) He speak but she don't
50. Who are those boys? One is my brother and
A) the big boy is Peter B) a big boy is Peter
C) the big boy is a Peter D) a big boy is a Peter

APPENDIX B

Oral Autonomy Questionnaire

With some adoptions from Hashemian & Fadaei (2013)

Sex: Major: Marital Status: Grade: Age:

Average:

Directions: Please show how much you agree or disagree with the following statements by circling the numbers that match your answers.

- 1 The teacher should offer help to me.
Strongly agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 2 The teacher should tell me what my difficulties are.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 3 The teacher should tell me how long I should spend on oral activities.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 4 The role of the teacher is to help me to speak effectively.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 5 The teacher knows best how well I am in oral ability.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 6 The role of the teacher is to create opportunities for me to speak.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 7 The role of the teacher is to set my learning goals with respect to oral ability.
Strongly agree Agree No idea Disagree Strongly disagree
- 8 The teacher should be an expert at showing learners how to speak in English.

Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
9	I need the teacher to tell me how my oral ability is progressing.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
10	I know how to check my oral ability for mistakes.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
11	Having my speaking evaluated by others is helpful.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
12	My speaking success depends on what I do in classroom.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
13	My own efforts play an important role in successful oral ability.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
14	I myself can find the best way to improve my oral ability.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
15	I know how to ask for help when I need it.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
16	I have the ability to develop my oral ability.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
17	I have the ability to get the score I try for in my next speaking test.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
18	I am above average at language learning, especially in oral ability.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
19.	I have my own ways of testing my oral ability.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree
20	I myself can determine the time spent on oral development.			
Strongly agree	Agree	No idea	Disagree	Strongly disagree

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Sahar Ghaffari was born in Khorasan Razavi, Iran. She did MA in TEFL (Teaching English as a Foreign Language) at Azad University of Torbate Heydarieh, Khorasan Razavi, Iran, Fall, 2015.

She is a Secondary school English TEACHER in education office. She has been teaching English for more than 10 years in different secondary schools of Sarakhs, Khorasan Razavi, Iran. She has published a paper entitled: The Relationship between EFL Teachers' Emotional Intelligence and Their Autonomy, Intelligence and Job Burnout, and Autonomy and Their Job Burnout in *IJLLALW* 7(4), 307-314.

Mohammad Ali Fatemi is an associate professor in TEFL at Islamic Azad University of Torbat-e-heydarieh Branch, Iran. He has been teaching English language skills at different levels (high school, pre-university and university) for more than 3 decades. He has participated and presented in many international conferences. Also, he has published many articles and translated two English books into Persian. His fields of interest are teaching writing, research methodology, and psycholinguistics.

“Ontological and Epistemological” Discourse of Cultural Identity: Making an Orientalist in V. S. Naipaul's *Half a Life*

Fazel Asadi Amjad
University of Kharazmi, Tehran, Iran

Ghameraddin Badirdast
University of Tehran, International Kish Campus, Kish, Iran

Abstract—The impact of colonial educational system or colonial cultural discourse on the cultural identity of the colonized is a prominent theme of postcolonial studies. According to Said Orientalism as a discourse recognizes an "ontological and epistemological" distinction between the East and the West. Consequently, for Said anyone who thinks, works and acts based on the existence of such a distinction is an orientalist. This paper argues that V. S. Naipaul's *Half a life* illustrates the workings of this imaginary distinction that European cultural discourse finds between the Orient and the Occident on the formation of the cultural identity of the colonized people as they become subject to colonial cultural discourse. In *Half a Life* we observe Willie, the anti-hero of the novel, gradually losing his faith in the ingredients of his own cultural identity replacing them with the material served in the menu of colonial educational system to adopt himself with the requirements of being a colonial individual living on scholarship in the metropolitan London.

Index Terms—identity, culture, colonial, ontological, epistemological, Naipaul, cultural discourse, orient, education

I. INTRODUCTION

Colonial cultural discourse initiates itself into colonies mainly through their civil institutions like schools and colleges. In fact, such educational spaces are among the most powerful cultural institutions that have the capacity to inculcate elements of colonial cultural discourse into and onto the minds of the colonized people, especially children who are the main subjects of such places at primary level. They initiate a change into the cultural identity of the students or colonized subjects by cutting their ties with their traditional historical, social, religious and, in short cultural roots. One of the starting points for the orientalist approach to the Orient, according to Said, is to lay a philosophical distinction between the East and the West, ontologically and epistemologically (Said, 2006, pp. 2-3). As a result, anyone or any institutional or disciplinary entity thinking, working and acting based on the acknowledgement of this contradistinction between the Orient and its corollary, the Occident is orientalist. *Half a Life* 2001 by V. S. Naipaul is the story of Willie Somerset Chandran's life from early childhood as he enters into a missionary school till his youth and as he goes on a scholarship to follow his studies in England. Here we will examine the impact of colonial cultural discourse to initiate a wholehearted change into the traditional identity of his as an Indian child born to a family of Brahmin priest ancestry making him an Orientalist who thinks of his people and his past in terms defined and determined by the western cultural discourse he has been fed in the course of his falling into the hand of colonial educational machinery from his early childhood till late in his life.

Since its publication in 2001, *Half a Life* has attracted much attention from those who are interested in postcolonial theory and criticism. Almost all studies find strong thematic similarities in Naipaul's earlier works with that of *Half a Life*. For instance, according to Edward Baugh, the central theme of *Half a Life* is what has already been worked out in *A House for Mr. Biswas* that is "restlessness and rootlessness" (2007, p. 5); or, in his discussion of Naipaul's career in "Late Naipaul" Bruce King finds *Half a Life* and *Magic Seeds* as the works of his final phase. He observes these two works as the "recapitulation" of Naipaul's earlier themes with the added flavor of mastery in techniques and keener sense of vision that comes with "age and experience". Also, according to King *Half a Life* depicts a personality in sharp contrast with Naipaul himself. Since Willie misses all opportunities for success (2006, p. 223). Haldar perceives a constant concern with India and Indian people in Naipaulean works including *Half a Life*. Jain finds a Naipaulean pattern in the novel that has been continued in his next fictional work *Magic Seeds*. For him these two novels are the fictional illustrations of India as a country of failed revolutionary attempts (Jain, 208, p. 10). Sing sees the story as the illustration of permanent exile. For him the text depicts Naipaul's still existent feelings of being an outsider despite his long stay in England. He finds *Half a Life* the story of Willie's "self-development and self-knowledge" (2006, p. 20). But as we will see in this study *Half a Life* represents rather the self-loss or self-destruction of Willie Somerset Chandran, as he stalks within the colonial cultural spaces from his early childhood. Diaspora or diasporic consciousness

is another major area of interest in *Half a Life* (See Dooley 2003, Mishra 2002 and Galvan Alvarez 2012). Naipaul's treatment of women in his fiction has been a problem for G. Dooley in "Alien and Adrift" and "What Trouble I Have with Jane Austen!". For Dooley treatment of women is cold and insincere since none of the female characters do not fulfill their hopes.

II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

Thinking in terms of Foucauldian discursive notions, Said considers the whole mass of western knowledge about the orient as a discourse, especially those amassed from the beginnings of European colonial expedition or "during the post-Enlightenment period" (Said, 2006, p. 3). To illustrate and document the distance of this discourse with the existing realities of the geographical entity called orient, he refers to the writings of a French journalist during the time of civil war in 1975-1976 Beirut who speaks nostalgically and "regretfully" about the loss of what he calls "once seemed to belong to ... the Orient of Chateaubriand and Nerval". Said commenting on the writings of this journalist states that the reporter is "right about the place, of course, especially so far as a European" is "concerned" (emphasis is mine). In other words, Said believes that the newspaperman's statements about the orient is *true* or "right" since he is checking what he witnesses with his knowledge base about the orient not coming from his direct encounter and experience of the orient in an earlier time in his life but formed by the textual writing of the likes of "Chateaubriand and Nerval" he had read and studied about in the course of his formal education at schools and universities. Then, Said states that "Orientals themselves" living the place do not feel the same sense of loss and "suffering" that the French newspaperman talks about (Said, 2006, p. 1). To put it other way round, the journalist finds an incongruity or inconsistency between the textual representations of the orient in Nervals and Chateaubriands with what he witnesses. But thinking and writing based on the presumption that the accuracy, precision and authority of his prior knowledge is default he misreads and misinterprets the present condition of affairs and as a result misrepresents the present conditions to his European audience. Thus, the European representations of the east is completely under the shadow of orientalist discourse or to use Saidean wordings "not with a correspondence" with the "real" Orient (Said, 2006, pp. 2-3).

One of the starting points for the orientalist approach to the Orient, according to Said, is to lay a philosophical distinction between East and West, ontologically and epistemologically. As a result, anyone or any institutional or disciplinary entity thinking, working and acting based on the acknowledgement of this contradistinction between the Orient and its corollary, the Occident is orientalist. Therefore, substantial mass of theoretical, literary, social, representations and civil renditions of nations, traditions, beliefs, and fates centering on the Orient and the thinkers, men of letters, sociologists, politicians, anthropologists, philologists, to name but a few, who have rendered them whether creatively, imaginatively, methodologically and/or academically are Orientalists. The scope of this Orientalism has the potential to accommodate and gather the whole sway of writers and thinkers from the beginnings of European history to the present, like Herodotus, Sophocles, Hegel and Dickens, to mention but a few, under one roof (Said, 2006, pp. 2-3).

All the above mentioned names are European writers and/or thinkers working in the context of their own cultural tradition and not many but almost all of them have not seen or been in the East, or, even if they have been and seen the East in person (especially those who come in the later part of the nineteenth and earlier part of the twentieth century) like Joseph Conrad, Rudyard Kipling, (to name just two of the well-known examples) are the agents of their own soil. Thus, if they think, work or act to further the cause of their own cultural tradition and proliferate what they have absorbed from that soil is not (if will not be) surprising; because their identity has been cultured, rooted and irrigated in their native soil. The signs of confusion or puzzlement may be read on the face of an impartial observer who spies a person from the Orient who walks in the same direction that his Occidental rivals have walked, that is to think, work and act as the agent of European culture, a cultural tradition which is, at least, foreign (if not alien) to the cultural bed he/she was born to.

Willie Somerset Chandran, the son to Mr. Chandran the ascetic who is the grandson of Great Chandran the Brahmin Priest arrives at England to follow his studies at a college in London and falls in the ways of and walks in the ways of Rudyard Kipling and his likes. In other words, he becomes an agent of European cultural tradition furthering their aims and ends and helping them to further the mass of knowledge about the Orient, that which Said calls Orientalist discourse:

...deals principally, not with a correspondence between Orientalism and Orient, but with the internal consistency of Orientalism and its ideas about the Orient (the East as career) despite or beyond any correspondence, or lack thereof, with a "real" Orient. (Said, 2006, p. 5)

According to Said, the matter at stake here is not the consistency of the discourse about the Orient with the geographical entity called the Orient but the unity and cohesion of the "ideas" and propositions within the discourse, regardless of the congruity or incongruity, convergence or divergence of such notions and beliefs with the existing reality outside in some part of the world. This is the fault that Said finds with the mass of knowledge gathered and created by European scholars, thinkers, writers and politicians about the orient in his *Orientalism* 1978. When there is a lack of "correspondence" between the knowledge and the existing reality, there is no doubt that some questions as to the veracity of such knowledge and the honesty of the man or men who have assembled them may come into the fore.

Finding the answer to the question as to the veracity of the western cultural discourse about the orient, Said calls this discourse "Orientalism" and states that only if one does not examine:

Orientalism as a discourse one cannot possibly understand the *erroneously systematic discipline* (emphasis mine) by which European culture was able to manage-and even produce-the Orient politically, sociologically, militarily, ideologically, scientifically, and imaginatively during the post-Enlightenment period. (Said, 2006, p. 3)

Therefore, for Said, "Orientalism" is a falsely organized and methodological discipline which empowers and capacitates its creators to not only manage and control but also to fabricate and "produce" a false representation of the Orient across many fields and territories of knowledge. Elaborating on the extent of the predominance of this discourse on the western conceptions and understandings of the world, Said states that:

so authoritative a position did Orientalism have that I believe no one writing, thinking, or acting on the Orient could do so without taking account of the limitations on thought and action imposed by Orientalism. (Said, 2006, p. 3)

Exactly, this is the trap that Willie Chandran of Naipaul's *Half a Life* 2001 falls into during his stay as a student in London. He starts to think of his past, his family history and even the history of his country in terms and conditions imposed upon his frame of thought by the Orientalist milieu of London as he comes across with very many emblems of this discourse in various occasions: in classroom, in newspapers, in library books, in his meeting with a London journalist, in his dealings with his instructors and in his interactions with other students.

III. DISCUSSION

The leitmotif of a young unmarried man from England's colonies arriving at London as a stranger who knows nothing of the ways of the world and the life in metropolitan city is what V. S. Naipaul develops in the second chapter of *Half a Life*. Here the reader explores London together with Willie as he roams about in the city spaces: metro stations, clubs, buses, taxis, restaurants, streets, college rooms and radio studios. First impressions are usually of great importance and leave indelible marks on the minds of people. Willie's first impression of London was not consistent with what he had imagined of the place as a dazzling glamorous city of fantastic beauty. Naipaul's narrator says "He felt let down". He found out that he "knew little more of London than the name" (Naipaul, 2001, p. 35). Buckingham Palace dejected him. Maharaja's palace at home was more stupendous, more like a kingly place. The sharp contrast between what he had imagined of and what he was observing at made him think of English kings and queens as "imposters, and the county a little bit of a sham" (Naipaul, 2001, p. 35). He felt deceived and was ashamed of his naivety and ignorance. In mission school classes they had read and discussed about Speakers Corner and he had written quite knowingly of Speakers Corner in his exam papers. He had expected to see big shouting crowds of people quite like his revolutionary uncle who protested for the cause of backwards. But, instead he saw a few indolent people gathering around few talkers while buses, cars, pedestrians were passing by paying no attention to the speech of the talkers. Even he did not like their ideas, some of which were completely aberrant.

This incongruity between reality and its (con) textual representations evident in the physical brute reality of London provokes some true feelings in Willie's heart. That English royal personalities are "imposters, and the county a little bit of a sham" (Naipaul, 2001, p. 35). English kings and queens maybe or may not be fake to their people (that is another question) but to the eyes of a colonial subject who had been introduced to their presence and majesty through the medium of missionary schools and teachers, through the medium of textbooks they are contrived to be the kings or the queen of British colonies. Because, in the presence of kings and queens he has felt the presence of more magisterial and royal presence. Because the relations between the two is not an accepted, agreed upon non hegemonic one but an imposed and hegemonic one of power, domination and repression, in all aspects that one can think of economically, politically, socially, psychologically, and culturally, for instance. Willie compares Buckingham Palace and Maharaja's Palace in his town, for instance. Though, his hometown is a small one located in an unknown part of India Maharaja's Palace inspires more awe and respect than its English counterpart in the eyes of Willie, the place where is the lodging of the people who assume themselves as the rulers of the world. In other words, Maharaja's palace can claim for its own aesthetic standards of beauty and splendor with regard to the Buckingham Palace. But what had built these palaces. They are the signs of and the embodiments of the tradition that has built them, the tradition which has defined and given their respective architectural identity; and the cultural edifice that has nursed and grown these aesthetic and architectural edifices. Therefore, there must be something different at stake which has given English kings and queens and their culture authority and superiority over the superior culture of the east which can claim its own authority over, (if not all) at least its own people when the two are witnessed by the same person.

A.

To launch a counter attack strategy requires the knowledge of the interior lines of the enemy. Willie lacks this knowledge. Being in London, in the interior lines of enemy; he has conceived the enemy strategy of deception or false representation and the fault with his own, "gullibility" (Naipaul, 2001, p. 35). Besides, he finds out the source of his simplicity and unworldliness in knowing nothing about the world, "Willie knew nothing about" the world. He finds out the fault with his own approach to the world. At home he had little interest about the matters that did not affect "him or his family or his town. He had no idea of the history of the" world; he had heard some great names like Colonel Nasser or Mahatma Gandhi or Krishna Menon or Churchill; he just knew that they are great but he had no knowledge of what they did, what they are great for. At home he used to look at newspapers but "he had learned to *shut out* the main stories," about the endless wars somewhere in the world, about election campaigns that appeared for weeks in the

papers repetitively till ended, “very often quite *lamely*” he had given little or no time and energy to them; like poor books or movies he paid no attention to them. “He knew the big names; very occasionally he looked at the main headline; but that was all” he did at home (Naipaul, 2001, p. 35). So, at the present he watched at things without being able to see, he heard things without being able to listen to like a mindless body; he had no perception of the world. This was the source of his simplicity, his unworldliness.

Hence, he starts to read but he does not understand; he does not know what to read; he reads about the Suez Canal, he reads about the Egyptian conflict but they are of no use. Newspaper stories were written based on the assumption that the reader knows about the places, the names or history of them. He was cut off from the world. Like the one living in the sea of ignorance without an understanding of the “time”. Now, he realized that he had lived without a knowledge of “time”. And thought with himself that ““This *blankness* (emphasis is mine) is one of the things I have got from my mother's side” (Naipaul, 2001, p. 36). Disappointedly, he turns to a book about the history of the world and begins to build a conception of “time”, of history and the space and the temporality he lives in and the past to fill in the “blankness” of the slate of his mind and to get rid of “the habit of non-seeing” and to get an idea of the significance of the events. At college he has to “re-learn everything” anew. He learns the rules of the conduct; how to salute, how to enter a room, how to talk, how to dress, how to eat. He learns “quaint rules of his college”, the rules that were copied from Oxford and Cambridge, the rules that the staff were proud of; the rules that when he asked about from the teachers they knew nothing of the philosophy behind, just a cursory knowledge of it they had. For instance, when he questions for the history of college gowns, the teachers just say that it comes from Roman toga; when he searches toga in college library he finds that nobody is certain about the form or the style of toga and its drawings were quite unlike the one’s they wear at college. In short he learns to suspend his disbelief and to pretend like the kings and queens of England who were pretending “imposters”.

A new dimension is added to his identity; Willie learns how to pretend and be an imposter. In other words, he succumbs to the over empowering, overwhelming, over determined rules of the time and the place he is lodging; or in other words, he surrenders to the politics of his present spatial and temporal conditions and compromises his identity traits accordingly. He acquires the culture of the time and the place to the very details of culinary, raiment, salutary, etc. He fashions his self anew, according to the fashion of the day. He becomes a pretender, an impostor, a copy of the cultural traits propagated in the college. The teachers seeing the sea of change in him complimenting and commenting on the shift in his personality state that “You seem to be settling in” (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39).

Willie is “settling in” because he is yielding to the cultural discourse imposed by the college, “a semi-charitable Victorian foundation” (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39), an institution like missionary school at home in the service of enlightening people and minds, but lacking the religious aspect of the school at home. The same degree of control over the curriculum and subject matter is held and exercised here with no interference from the institution of family exerting its power over or inscribing its identarian features over the cultural identity of innocent pupils and, by so doing guarding them in varying degrees against the designs of missionary school passively and unconsciously through providing the cultural ambience and environment. Here, students live in dormitory, a place dominated by the ghost of metropolitan life style. Hence, if we want to compare its working to have a better understanding of its mechanisms of enforcing and inscribing its cultural demands on the minds of the students, we can state that college is a cultural institution established based on the English politics of personal conduct that requires the person “to ask for something without being peremptory” (Naipaul, 2001, p. 38); here the college is asking for Willie’s cultural identity without being peremptory. And as Naipaul’s narrative of Willie’s life story in the work at hand, *Half a Life*, vouchsafes, the Victorian semi-charitable institution is triumphant at its project of inculcating the sense of superiority and ascendancy of western cultural discourse over Willie’s domestic one. As Said has brilliantly sketched the boundaries of the discourse of Orientalism, the college acts as the colonizers axis in introducing its “supporting institutions, vocabulary, scholarship, imagery, doctrines, even colonial bureaucracies and colonial styles” (Said, 2006, p. 2), getting Willie out of his implicating and debilitating local cultural identity, and making him an Englishman at heart and a native Indian at the surface, the amalgamation which Frantz Fanon ingeniously describes and interprets about African people in the metaphorical title of his book on colonial psychology as *Black Skin, White Masks* (*Peau noire, masques blancs*, 1952) can be applied to him as brown skin, white masks. Or to use Naipaul’s own interpretation of Willie’s situation implied in the title of the Novel, he is half Indian half British; his body, the first half is Indian and his cultural identity, his psyche, his subjectivity, the second half is British.

One who accepts the existence of a philosophical distinction between East and West, both ontologically and epistemologically, Said argues, is an Orientalist. By submitting to the Faustian pact of the Victorian college he is studying at, Willie accedes to the presence of such a distinction between his domestic eastern identity and the college’s western discourse of identity. Henceforth, Willie’s mind consciously and/or unconsciously starts to think, work and act based on the recognition of this distinction, what Naipaul’s omniscient narrator does not fail to relate to us:

Yet something strange was happening. Gradually, learning the quaint rules of his college, with the churchy Victorian buildings pretending to be older than they were, Willie began to see in a new way the rules he had left behind at home. He began to see—and it was upsetting, at first—that the old rules were themselves a kind of make-believe, self-imposed. And one day, towards the end of his second term, he saw with great clarity that the old rules no longer bound him. (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39)

The scene depicts a climatic point in the formation of Willie's cultural identity. This shift in vision, in the way "he began to see" is a new filter added to his consciousness. Not only anything he sees but also everything he has seen is sifted through this filter. He begins to conceive and reconceive his perceptions of the present and the past, his interpretations of spatialities and temporalities past or present, his conceptions of his immediate environment that is "the churchy Victorian buildings" which wear the façade of dating back to an earlier historical time than they are or his understandings of "the old rules", the traditions, customs far off at home. He begins to build his subjectivity anew, to reshape his psyche, to reform and re-mold his experiences of the world, to redefine his relations to the world past and present both; He works to repaint his mental picture of the world in a different color; he acts to redraw and remap the cartography of his mind by the new visionary tool fabricated and made available to him by college education. In short, Willie subjugates his cultural identity to the recipe of western cultural discourse of identity served at the college.

This shift in vision, also, takes its toll on Willie's emotional world, the fact that searching eyes of Naipaul's omniscient narrator remarks on his relation of Willie's mental status at the time of change. It is disconcerting, "upsetting", to depart with the endearing old beliefs that form the structure, the framework that held them together in his mind; that they are imaginary, pretended "make-believe"; that they are "self-imposed" fictitious fabrications. But, as any other feeling that is eroded by the passage of time, the sensation does not plague his mind for long; it does only harass his mind "at first" till the end of the term two. Later the pleasures of freedom from the burden of living under the weight of "rules" that now have become "old rule" shoves the tide of unsettling sensations away and he becomes fully engrossed in present spatially and temporally "no longer bound[ed]" identity of his.

But the pleasures of untying oneself from the anchor of "old rules", traditions and beliefs does not take long; for one can surf the waves for a time and when the favoring waves behind and bellowing winds fall, the surfer has to come ashore; otherwise he will sink deep in the chaotic sea of non-identity. Willie unfettered from the old ties delivers his cultural identity to be checked by the new vision that has dwelled on his body and spirit: that rules are pretended "make-believe[s]" and "self-imposed" fabrications. Thus, he begins to retie his identity to his past and present by pretention and imposition of fictitious fabrications of his own based on the spatial and temporal politics of identity that he finds more in line with the spatial and temporal prerequisites of living in the metropolitan center of British colonial world. And, as it is as clear as a day, the dominant discourse of cultural identity in London will be in accordance with colonial Eurocentric discourse which believes in the ontological and epistemological disparity between the two poles of the binary oppositions of east and west, what Said believes it to be the foundations of European Eurocentric Orientalism, calling anyone who believes in it as Orientalist.

B.

Willie's new identity shell will use the ingredients of his past cultural identity together with the recipe provide to him by his London life and education to cook a food that can be served in the spatial and temporal constrictions of the English metropolis. In other words, the identarian characteristics of his new identity will be more identical, commensurate and convergent with the narratives of identity narrated by colonial discourse of the period current in the metropolitan spaces that he walks in and out of such as college, dormitory, street, radio studios or publishing houses, for instance. We believe that his new shell will be more commensurate with European side of the binary opposition between east and west because it is the western side of the binary logic which has made the subject to reconsider his identity, to recognize the essential distinction between the two, and to impose itself and the recipe provided by it to be employed as the basis for structuring, ordering and forming and/or restructuring, reordering, reforming his identity. Below we will see the rage of the terrains that this shake of identity will cover on Willie's identity domain.

Willie succumbed to the discourse of identity enforced by his college at London gets to a new perception of what "the rules" of the culture are; that they are fictitious and invented rules by the subject himself. Therefore, he came to the understanding that he has the liberty "to present himself as he wished"; he thought of it in terms of writing "his own revolution" in which the prospect of "possibilities" were inebriating; he had the power to refabricate his identity and "his past and his ancestry" from the very beginning; the "revolution" came slowly. He took hints from here and there; he read newspaper stories about trade unions and began to wear the garb of trade union leader, "a pioneer of workers' rights" for his maternal uncle who was a radical revolutionary for the cause of the caste of backwards (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39). Also, his college was a supporter of missionaries at South Africa, he read in the magazines about it and adopted some facts from those magazines to remold his mother's mission school background:

It occurred to him at another time that his mother, with her mission-school education, was probably half a Christian. He began to speak of her as a full Christian... he spoke of his mother as belonging to an ancient Christian community of the subcontinent, a community almost as old as Christianity itself. He kept his father as a Brahmin. He made his father's father a "courtier." So, playing with words, he began to re-make himself. It excited him, and began to give him a feeling of power. (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39)

Power has something in it that inebriates its possessor. To exercise one's power over the world is a privilege reserved only for the kings and queens. Feeling to possess the absolute degree of power over the world of his identity, Willie fabricates fables about his past, his parentage and his ancestry; especially, his mother from the caste of backwards who have no religion becomes almost a Christian belonging to a line of "ancient Christian community of the subcontinent" (Naipaul, 2001, p. 39). If we pay attention to the vocabulary of his newly written identity, we can easily perceive that

part which has been borrowed from the socio-religious discourse of missionary magazines, “ancient Christian community”, “half-Christian”, “as old as Christianity”, for instance. The word “subcontinent”, an expression from geography books takes the extend of Willie’s fictitious stories far beyond the family history to that of the whole India, a point that one of the B.B.C producers he meets in a party fails not to grasp while Willie was relating the new version of his family history to him: “Over here we don’t know much about your kind of Christian community. So old, so early. So isolated from the rest of India, from what you say. It would be fascinating to hear about it” (Naipaul, 2001, p. 47). Hence, he asks Willie to write a five-minute script of six hundred and fifty words for a radio program about colonies. He starts to write the family history he was developing for some time, dropping parts and bits of it here and there, occasionally. So, he starts to script a complete history of his fake cultural background for a radio program broadcasted all over the world:

The beginnings of the faith in the subcontinent rendered as family stories (he would have to check things up in the encyclopedia); the feeling of separateness from the rest of India; no true knowledge of the other religions of India; ... people of Christian conscience, champions of workers’ rights (a story or two about the rebrand relation who wore a red scarf when he addressed public meetings); the writer’s education at a mission school, and his discovery there of the tension between the old Christian community and the new Christians.... (Naipaul, 2001, p. 48)

What is interesting here is the degree of consistency between his false family stories with the main lines of the colonial narratives of identity proscribed by and worked for by the colonial institutions. In other words, as we have discussed above, according to Said what is essential for the European Orientalist discourse is not the divergence between Orientalist ideas and the Orient, “but with the *internal consistency* of Orientalism” as a discourse “despite or beyond any correspondence, or lack thereof, with a “real” Orient” (Said, 2006, p. 5). What is essential for Willie in his distorted narratives of identity is the consistency of these narratives with the Orientalist discourse running at his immediate place of lodging that is London. The story of the “Christian conscience” of his mother and her people hijacked from missionary magazines, the story of union leader uncle made out of newspaper stories on current trade union debates in London, Willie’s missionary school background and his recognition and realization of the conflict between his mother’s Christian conscience with that of mission fathers at school are all copied narratives with the flavor of local color and his personal creativity add to them. They are totally convergent with the main lines present within colonial discourse for they are taken from contemporary sources.

The work and the effect of Orientalist institutions are heavily felt in what Willie contrives about his family history. The “vocabulary, scholarship, imagery, doctrines” of his stories are heavily indebted to teachings and the knowledge imparted by these institutions (Said, 2006, p. 2). The religious, political and commercial doctrines, and imagery expressed in the terminology of the stories such as “Conscience”, “faith”, “new Christians”, “old Christian community”, “champions”, “public meetings” and “workers’ rights” for instance, are provided by mission magazines and daily papers. Willie goes to college library to investigate and examine the “scholarship” available on the subject. It is very interesting that in order to write about his own family history he refers to a foreign encyclopedia written by writers from the other side of not the country but the world.

It is not surprising that B.B.C producer is interested in Willie’s story since every line, even every word of his stories are consistent with the internal ideas of Orientalist discourse of cultural identity promoted by media as another institutional axis of colonial cultural discourse. Therefore, the radio does not look for the veracity of the knowledge provide by Willie that is the story of the life of Indian people of Christian conscience with the reality that existed outside far off in India, the reality that Willie himself is completely conscious and aware of its fictitious nature. In other words, even if the radio people wish to check the information provided by Willie, the result will not change since they will refer to those sources of scholarship that he has referred to in his writing of the script for them. Therefore, since the information is commensurate with the existing knowledge or scholarship, there is not only no point for Willie to worry about falseness of his story being revealed but also he can continue his work in the same line, as he does in his later scripts for the radio. Another point that makes the radio producer interested in Willie’s stories, again is related to the source of his stories, that is Orientalist discourse or the discourse and ideas provided by “the supporting institutions” of Orientalism (Said, 2006, p. 2). The terminology, ideas, images all sound familiar to the English ear. Therefore, its veracity is the default assumption. And the last point is that the stories, as mentioned above, are founded on the basis of the existence of the binary oppositions between “the Orient and the Occident” and the acknowledgement of this ontological and epistemological contradistinction between the Orient and its corollary, the Occident (Said, 2006, p. 2).

IV. CONCLUSION

Therefore, according to Said’s second definition of Orientalist as one who thinks, works and acts based on the recognition of the contradistinction between the Orient and Occident is Orientalist, Willie is Orientalist. As we have seen above, Willie re-writes his cultural identity based on this binary logic provided by the colonial discourse of cultural identity in the spatial and temporal conditions or politics enforced by the institutions of colonial discourse. The weightiest or influential institution on the reformation of Willie’s identity is formal colonial education within the spaces administered by the colonizers based on the colonial Orientalist cultural discourse, spaces such as missionary school at home and the Victorian college in London.

Here, we learned about the subjectification of colonized people to the colonial cultural discourse in the context of Naipaul's *Half a Life*. We discovered that western cultural discourse is essentially built upon the existence of epistemological distinction along with the ontological one between the East and the West. What made this disastrous for the colonized people and their identity was that this imaginary distinction formed the basis on which western educational system and its proprietors thought, worked and acted. As a result, those colonized subjects like Willie who enter into such a system gradually lose their ties with their traditional cultural identity and began to think, work and act based on what was imposed on them by western educational institutions. What are the ramifications of such a mentality on the life conditions of personalities like Willie is a topic yet to be explored.

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Fazel Asadi Amjad holds a Ph. D. in English from Glasgow University. He is currently as associate professor of English at Kharazmi University in Tehran. He has taught many courses in English such as Romantic Literature, Metaphysical Poetry and Postcolonial Theory and Criticism.



Ghammereddin Badirdast holds a B. A and M. A in English from Kerman and Tehran Universities, respectively. He is currently a Ph.D. candidate in English Literature at the University of Tehran, International Kish Campus.

A Comparison of the Chinese and American Graduate Syllabi in Regard to Their Content and Style

Zhencong Liu

School of English Education, Beijing International Studies University, China

Wei Wang

School of English Education, Beijing International Studies University, China

Abstract—This paper aims to compare the Chinese and American syllabi for graduates in regard to their content and style. 36 syllabi of various majors in different universities were collected and compared. It was found that in both Chinese and American syllabi there are 12 common components, including, the heading, overview, course objectives, target students, prerequisites, textbook and reading list, course requirements, homework, course grading, lecture schedule, teaching method and evaluation. The special components for American syllabi are academic integrity and office hour. As for style, American syllabi are more demanding in reading than their counterparts. Their teaching methods are more flexible and interactive. Their homework is assigned in higher quantity and quality. Their assessments are various and are evenly distributed through the whole semester while Chinese syllabi depend more on the final exams.

Index Terms—syllabus component, syllabus style, graduate syllabus

I. INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

First of all, it is highly necessary to figure out what a syllabus is. Till now there is no common or unified definition of this term. From my viewpoint, a syllabus is a statement or outline about the teaching material, goal, requirement and assessment of a particular course.

As a necessary part of school teaching, a syllabus is undoubtedly important. The significance of a syllabus lies in two aspects. For one thing, as a stimulus, the syllabus motivates students to inspire their potential, have a strong sense of competition and cultivate their self-study abilities. For another, as a guideline, the syllabus leads instructors to work conscientiously, diligently and enthusiastically, and cultivate top talents for the country and human beings.

Till now, there have been a lot of studies in syllabus field, which can be summarized as follows.

First, research has been done in the field of syllabus's nature and function. Some scholars defined a syllabus at class level instead of at national, provincial and school levels. Zhang and Huang (2014) perceived a syllabus as a programmatic document to guide and direct course teaching. Rahimpour (2010) saw a syllabus as something localized and based on accounts and records of what actually happened at the classroom level as teachers and learners applied a given curriculum to their own situation (Rahimpour, 2010). And a syllabus served as a plan, contract, bridge, map, academic record, and teaching evaluation for instructors and students (Zhang, 2011).

Second, research has been done in the field of syllabus's creation and formation. Syllabus-makers should think why this course is important, what is to be taught, and how the course is to be taught and presented to learners. Brown (1994) examined curriculum development systematically. He gave a comprehensive but practical overview of the different phases and activities involved in developing and implementing a sound rational and effective language program for syllabus development (Brown, 1994). Diamond (1998) reflected the knowledge and practice in course and curriculum design. According to him, syllabus design included the following process: making the decision to do ahead; getting started; linking goals, courses, and curricula; gathering and analyzing essential data; thinking in the ideal; adjusting from the ideal to the possible; clarifying instructional goals and learning outcomes; designing and implementing your assessment plan (Diamond, 1998). A syllabus is based on national and school rules, and is made according to learners' and teachers' needs (Fang, 2011). It commonly takes three steps to create a syllabus. First, a teacher should think about who to teach, what their needs and expectation are, what to teach, how to teach, and how to evaluate. Second, the teacher should ascertain teaching objectives, teaching materials, teaching methods, etc. Third, taking all the points into consideration, the teacher begins his or her syllabus design. Li (2002) put forward five basic principles for syllabus design. First, it should be in accordance with teaching plan and educational objectives. Second, it should be scientific, profound, and practical. Third, it should have a well-arranged system. Forth, it should meet students' needs. Fifth, it should be clear and specific.

Third, research has been done in the field of syllabus's approval. This is the latest research field concerning syllabus

and little work has been done till now. Ye and Lin (2014) focused on American university syllabus, and summarized its approval process, characteristics of its approval and evaluation, function of approval system, and weakness of approval system. A set of strict approval process was followed at American universities, including creating, modifying and removing courses. The course approval process of American universities had the features of approval process programming, approval standard integration and diversity of reviewers, leading to outstanding excellence as well as shortcomings.

Fourth, research has been done in the field of syllabus's execution and implementation. In the United States, teaching practice adheres to course syllabus rigidly because syllabus itself is quite comprehensive, detailed, operable and practical. Zhao (2010) summed up that American syllabus was strictly implemented. The instructor trains his or her students in accordance with their aptitude, and focuses on individual's progress. He or she gets students actively involved in teaching. Besides, the instructor lays special stress on students' socialization. What the instructor teaches in class is checked and evaluated by the authority concerned.

Fifth, research has been done in the field of syllabus development and reform. Since the reform and opening up in 1978, education in China has developed rapidly. But educational problems, including syllabus or curriculum, do exist in this big oriental country. So it is high time that syllabus or curriculum was to be improved and perfected. Liu (2002) and Dai (2009) summarized foreign language syllabus development in China since the reform and opening up. They categorized the gains and losses of syllabus design in China, and offered direction for future reform. They believed that the syllabus should focus more on the range of knowledge and cross-cultural communication than on grammar of Chinese students. Zhang and Zhang (2011) gave their opinions on syllabus development in China. They thought national syllabus should coexist with school syllabus. The syllabus should respect the peculiarity of instructors' teaching methods. It should perfect itself in order to better service teaching work. And instructors' salary should be included and stated in the syllabus.

Sixth, research has been done in the field of syllabus's classification and characteristics. Just as approaches and methods in teaching diverse, different syllabi emerge in modern times. Yalden (1983) introduced the communicative syllabus, including how this kind of syllabus was created, designed and implemented. Richards (1984) described and compared three curriculum approaches in language teaching program development and implementation, including forward, central and backward curriculum design. Nunan (1988) introduced the learner-centered curriculum for second language teaching. Rahimpoura (2010) classified syllabus into six categories: structural syllabus, notional or functional syllabus, situational syllabus, skill-based syllabus, content-based syllabus, and task-based syllabus. American syllabus which leads the world sets a decent example for others to follow. Ji (2014) summarized four features of American university syllabus: 1. it is not just designed for teachers. More importantly, it is for students; 2. It is both normative and to the point; 3. It is strictly carried out; 4. It is implemented according to general requirements instead of varying from teacher to teacher. Zhao (2010) summarized three features of American university syllabus: 1. it is concrete and specific; 2. it is operable and workable; 3. it focuses more on process than result.

Seventh, research has been done in the field of syllabus comparison. Ji (2014), Zhang and Huang (2014), Fan (2011) and Fan (2011) compared American university syllabi with Chinese counterparts, and summed up the merits that China could learn from the United States. American syllabus is more comprehensive, concrete, operable, interactive and learner-centered. Li (2005) did some similar studies by comparing Canada with China.

To sum up, the studies that have been done concerning syllabus are either limited to one specific country like Zhao (2010), or limited to certain subjects like Zhu (2002) on English and Zheng and Chen (2003) on Physics. The comparison of Chinese and American syllabi is either limited to two schools like Fang (2011), or limited to certain subjects like Zhu (2002) and Zheng and Chen (2003), or limited to undergraduate students (Gaff and Ratcliff, 1996), or focuses on students of all levels. So far cross-boundary, cross-school, and cross-subject comparison of Chinese and American graduate syllabi have not been done. Besides, the previous studies may not be representative and persuasive because the research method of case study has been employed. For that reason, by adopting the research method of empirical study, this article compares Chinese and American graduate syllabi and intends to answer the following two questions: 1. what are the differences in components between Chinese and American graduate syllabi? 2. What are the differences in style between Chinese and American graduate syllabi, including teaching objectives, reference books, homework, examination, course grading, etc?

II. METHODS

A. Data Collection

Syllabi for 2011 and 2012 were collected, and most of them were for 2012. The collected syllabi covered most liberal arts and science disciplines. They included 18 Chinese graduate syllabi and 18 American ones. Among them, 3 syllabi were about law and politics, 3 syllabi were about history and geography, 3 syllabi were about foreign language and literature, 3 syllabi were about mathematics and physics, 3 syllabi were about biology and chemistry, and rest 3 syllabi were about electronic communication. The author collected these Chinese graduate syllabi with the help of other teachers, colleagues, students and the Internet. Different university syllabi were collected. These universities were representative not only in geography, including Beijing, Shanghai, Guangzhou and Shenzhen, but also in level, including both key and average ones. In addition, these universities were typical in nature, including both regional and

national ones. And the author collected these American graduate syllabi through the Internet. Many syllabi belonged to open courses of American universities. These syllabi were labeled with some basic information, including course name, discipline, instructor, year, university, downloading website, and downloading time.

B. Data Analysis

The collected data are processed with the aid of computer. The components of course syllabi are put into computer. Each component is expressed in “1” and “0”. “1” is used as the symbol to show that the component is included in the syllabus and “0” is used as the symbol to show that the component is excluded in the syllabus. Some components are not listed separately in the syllabus and are affiliated to other components. However, these components are still seen as something that is included in the syllabi and “1” is marked to these components. For example, course objective sometimes belongs to course overview. In this case, course objective is still viewed as a part of the syllabus.

The following calculation methods are applied to judge whether the textbook listed in syllabi is new or old. If only one textbook is listed in the syllabus, the publishing year of the textbook is subtracted from the beginning year of the course, and the result is used to show whether this textbook is new or not. If several textbooks are listed in the syllabus, first the previous calculation method is used one textbook by one textbook, then all the results are added together, then the new result is divided by the number of the textbook, and the average value is the number that is wanted. For instance, one course that begins in 2011 offers 2 textbooks. And one textbook is published in 2009, and the other is published in 2003. Then the following formula is employed to show whether these two textbooks of this course are new or old: $[(2011-2009) + (2011-2003)] / 2 = 5$.

The following calculation methods are applied to judge the volume of reading. First, add the chapters for reading, the journals, newspapers, or the pages for reading together, and the result is the total volume of reading. Then the times for reading in the semester are subtracted from the total volume of reading, and the result is the average volume of reading for each lecture. When the total volume of reading is being calculated, at times the reading tasks of some courses, including the handouts given by instructors, are overlooked because they are hard to search and calculate. Usually no reading task is assigned in the first lecture of the semester and is overlooked during the calculation. Sometimes no reading task is assigned in the final lecture of the semester because the class is for students' final paper presentation and defense, and the reading task is overlooked during the calculation. Sometimes the reading tasks belong to some chapters of the textbook or journals. In order to simplify calculation, one journal article or network connection is regarded as one chapter of the textbook. Suppose only the pages are given in reading tasks, then the page span is used to calculate the volume of reading. See the formula below: reading pages = ending page - starting page + 1. For instance, if the reading task of one lecture is from Page 12 to Page 63, the reading pages = $63 - 12 + 1 = 52$ pages. Then the times of reading tasks are subtracted from the total reading pages, and the result is the average reading pages for each lecture. The reading task of some syllabi is made up of reading pages and a few chapters or papers, so it is hard to convert reading pages into chapters or papers. In this case, the specific chapters or papers are figured out. The pages of chapters or papers are recorded, added together with other reading pages, and the result is the total volume of reading. Then the times of reading tasks are subtracted from the total reading pages, and the result is the average reading pages for each lecture.

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

A. Main Content

Concerning the major content or the make-up of a syllabus, till now there is no unified or agreed standard. In general, however, a common and complete syllabus is made up of the following sections: the heading, overview, course objectives, target students, prerequisites, textbook and reading list, course requirements, homework, course grading, academic integrity, lecture schedule, teaching method and evaluation. These 13 basic components are presented and discussed in detail below.

1. Heading

Generally speaking, the heading of graduate syllabus consists of the year, semester, day, time, location, faculty, and the name, contact information (telephone and E-mail), office hour of an instructor. The heading is included in both American and Chinese syllabi. See Table 1.

TABLE 1.
HEADING

	Headings (total)
American graduate syllabi	15
Chinese graduate syllabi	18

The heading of American graduate syllabus is more inclusive. Here is an example of Math of University of Washington for 2012:

Math 544/545/546 2011-2012

SYLLABUS

Lectures: MWF 1:30-2:20, C-36 Padelford

Instructor: Tom Duchamp, Padelford C-505, 543-1724

Office Hours: Mon. & Wed. 2:30-3:30 or by appointment

Teaching Assistant: Graham Clenaghan, Padelford C-113

Office Hour: Thurs. 1:30-3:30

Required texts: For 544: *Introduction to Topological Manifolds* [ITM], 2nd ed. by John M. Lee, Graduate Texts in Mathematics 202, 2010. For 545&546: *Introduction to Smooth Manifolds* [ISM] by John M. Lee.

The heading of History of Chinese Society of Shanghai Jiao Tong University for 2011 is as follows:

History of Chinese Society

Course Code: X090611

Credits: 3.0 / **Hours:** 54

Course name: History of Chinese Society

Department: School of Humanities

Instructor: Li Yuchang

Concerning the heading, American graduate syllabi differ from Chinese counterparts mainly in office hour. American syllabi offer clearly instructor's office hour while Chinese counterparts do not. Sometimes office hour is done by appointment. That is to say, students make the reservation and confer with instructor before the final office hour is reached. Office hour is set for instructor to solve students' academic problems and life issues for the ultimate purpose of enhancing teacher-student communication and affection.

2. Overview

The alternatives of overview are general description, course description, catalogue description, bulletin description and so on. Overview usually consists of the significance, major content, objective, and target students of a certain course. It is generally regarded as a necessary part of a syllabus. See Table 2.

TABLE 2.
OVERVIEW

	Overviews (total)
American graduate syllabi	14
Chinese graduate syllabi	18

The overview of the graduate syllabus of Spoken English for Non-Native Speaker of Northwestern University for 2011 is as follows:

Course Description: The goal of this class is to improve your ability to communicate in spoken American English by developing greater fluency and intelligibility. The course will focus on the sounds, rhythms and phrasing of spoken English through various elements of American culture.

The overview of Theory of politics of Shanghai Jiao Tong University for 2011 is similar to the previous one.

Description: This course focuses on the major conceptions and theories of political science in the context of academic studies and political reality of China and the world. The main topics include political power and legitimacy, the formation of modern state and sovereignty, regime type and political typology, the structure and function of government, political parties and party systems, political culture and ideologies, and political development and change.

3. Course objectives

Sometimes course objectives belong to part of overview. However, they are stated separately at times. In general, course objectives, sometimes called course goals, objectives and aims, include relevant knowledge and understanding, application of knowledge through problem solving, experimental skills, positive attitudes, etc. Chinese graduate syllabi usually pay more attention to course objectives than American counterpart. See Table 3.

TABLE 3.
COURSE OBJECTIVES

	Course objectives (total)
American graduate syllabi	7
Chinese graduate syllabi	17

The course objectives of the graduate syllabus of Math of University of Washington for 2012 are as follows:

Course goals. The primary purpose of this course is to prepare you to work toward a Ph.D. In pure mathematics, so there is a strong emphasis on mastering the use of technical tools and methods of proof. But we will also look at lots of concrete examples and do nitty-gritty computations. Only in this way, will you develop an appreciation of the power of the modern approach to geometry.

If you take all three quarters of this course, and do all of the required work satisfactorily, you should have mastered the basic concepts and tools of manifold theory sufficiently well to use them when they arise in other fields of study; you should have the background necessary for the Manifolds preliminary exam; and you should be well prepared to continue your study by taking any second-year course that deals with manifolds, such as Geometric Structures, Algebraic Topology, or Lie Groups and Lie Algebras.

However, we can't cover everything and some important topics are left out. We will not cover in any detail the geometry of curves and surfaces, Riemannian geometry (curvature, the Gauss-Bonnet Theorem), or piecewise linear

topology.

The course objectives of Advanced Organic Chemistry of Guangxi Normal University are as follows:

Course objectives. This course gives a comprehensive introduction to every aspect of organic chemistry. By going over literature and attending academic lectures, the class focuses on the relations between the structure and function of organic molecular for the purpose of gaining the latest development of organic chemistry research. By taking the course, you are expected to have a deeper understanding of the theory related to organic chemistry, improve your ability of applying the theory to solving practical problems, and gain the capacity to acquire organic chemistry knowledge by yourselves.

4. Target students

Students who can attend a class are stated more clearly in American graduate syllabi though only some of them pay special attention to who to teach. See Table 4.

TABLE 4.
TARGET STUDENTS

	Target students (total)
American graduate syllabi	3
Chinese graduate syllabi	1

Some courses for graduates are very inclusive and compatible, and students with different backgrounds are accepted. For example, the target audiences of Mathematics 116/E-216 of Harvard University for 2011 include: undergraduates meeting the analysis requirement for Applied Math concentration; graduate students in Economics taking Economics 2010; students doing a secondary field in Mathematical Sciences; economics concentrators who are planning to go on to PhD programs or to work for firms that do sophisticated research; math concentrators; extension students who are considering graduate school in mathematics, applied mathematics, or mathematical economics; professionals in engineering and finance.

Another example is the syllabus of Theory of politics of Shanghai Jiao Tong University for 2011. It is mentioned that Theory of politics is an elementary course for graduates majoring in politics and public administration, including students specializing in politics theory, Chinese and foreign political institution, international politics, international relation, administrative management, and social security. Other graduates who major in social science and doctoral students who need to retake the course of political theory are also welcomed.

But not all students can attend all classes, and the target audiences of some courses are limited and restricted. For instance, it is clearly stated in the graduate syllabus of Biological Databases and Database Tools of Johns Hopkins University for 2011 that at the graduate level, understanding and being able to discuss presented material is generally considered to be "B"-level. "A"-level requires some effort beyond the ordinary--additional investigation of a topic, a more complete development of ideas, or relating material to other areas, for example (Hobbs, 2012).

5. Prerequisites

Prerequisites, sometimes called pre-assignments, mean the elementary courses and must-have skills that have already been mastered previously for the course. If students lack the essential bases, some solutions and requirements are listed in this part. About half of American and Chinese graduate syllabi include prerequisites though American ones are more in-depth. See Table 5.

TABLE 5.
PREREQUISITES

	Prerequisites (total)
American graduate syllabi	8
Chinese graduate syllabi	11

The prerequisites of the graduate syllabus of Mathematics 116/E-216 of Harvard University for 2011 are as follows:

Prerequisites for Math 116: You need to know linear algebra and multivariable calculus and be comfortable with proofs.

Math 23, 25, or 55 is fine. Sophomores have done very well.

If you took Math 21, you should also have taken another course where you did proofs. Obvious candidates are Math 101, Math 110, Math 112, Math 121, Math 152, and Math 154. The intersection of the content of these six courses is approximately the empty set, but any of them should have got you to the point where you can read and understand a textbook at the level of the one we are using.

Other courses that might provide useful background include Physics 16, Economics 1011a, and Computer Science 121.

Extension school students should, at a minimum, have taken Math E-21b or the equivalent, but that course alone does not provide enough background in doing proofs. An undergraduate major in a field like math or physics is probably the right background.

Extension students who plan to take both Math E-23a and Math E-216 are strongly discouraged from trying to do both in the same year, but an exception can be made if this year is your only opportunity to take either course.

For the Chinese example, in the graduate syllabus of Combinatorics of Harbin Engineering University for 2011, it is

stated the preliminary knowledge or prerequisite is higher mathematics and elementary number theory.

6. Textbook and reading list

Roughly speaking, there are three types of textbooks: required textbooks, further readings / suggested textbooks, and journals / newspapers. Sometimes movie, drama, class notes, and handouts are suggested. Chinese syllabi require more reading while American ones are more various in reading types. And further reading is not embraced in Chinese syllabi. See Table 6.

TABLE 6.
TEXTBOOK AND READING LIST

	Textbooks (average)	Required reading (average)	Further reading (total)
American syllabi	1.69	2.33 Chapters	2
Chinese syllabi	5.5	3.32 Chapters	0

According to the graduate syllabus of Spoken English for Non-Native Speaker of Northwestern University for 2011, sharing and photocopying of the textbook is not allowed. There is no required textbook in the graduate syllabus of Electric Energy Markets of University of Arizona for 2011. However, two useful references and additional references are listed, and many class notes, papers, and journals are suggested. Thus, the reading task of this course is rather demanding. There are 2 required textbooks and 4 recommended references in the graduate syllabus of Analog Integrated System Design of Georgia Institute of Technology for 2012. And daily reading assignments include sections of the textbooks, supplementary notes that instructor gives out, literature search, and online articles that are relevant to the course topics.

The reading requirements for Syllabus Design and Development of Beijing International Studies University include 3 textbooks, 4 reference materials and other selected readings.

7. Course requirements

Course requirements are made up of class arrangements, teaching mode, preparation requirements and so on. Almost all American graduate syllabi embrace course requirements while only half of Chinese counterparts do so. See Table 7.

TABLE 7.
COURSE REQUIREMENTS

	Course requirements (total)
American graduate syllabi	17
Chinese graduate syllabi	9

The course requirements of the graduate syllabus of Public Health Law of Northwestern University for 2012 are as follows:

COURSE REQUIREMENTS

1. **Class attendance:** Attendance at all classes is highly encouraged—absences will be permitted on a limited basis, and students will be expected to write a 1-2 page paper summarizing the content of the class they missed.

2. **Participation:** Students are expected to have read and studied all their assignments prior to class, and to participate actively in the discussions.

3. **Mid-term examination:** Students will be given a take-home examination at the conclusion of the 6th weekly session (February 16).

4. **Final paper and Presentation:** Students are required to write a 7-10 page paper (including references, but excluding tables, figures, and charts) on a public health issue affecting children and youth. Please use 12 point Times New Roman font and double space. During sessions 10-11, students will present a 20 minute summary of their paper; please use Power Point slides. The grade will be based on both the quality of the paper and the presentation. The content should demonstrate the student's ability to synthesize clinical epidemiology, rulings from court cases, and federal and/or state legislation to address the specified issue. Students should submit a hard copy and email copy of their paper prior to their presentation (Elster, 2012).

In order to avoid conflict of interest between teachers and students, and better protect teacher-student benefit, paid private teaching is strictly prohibited, which is clearly stated in the graduate syllabus of Poetry and Prose into Drama of University of Southern California for 2012. See below.

Private Teaching Policy

A faculty member holding a full-time appointment may not accept for private instruction where a fee is charged any student who is currently enrolled in any USC School of Theatre course. This policy is established for your own protection as well as for that of the student, since the appearance of a conflict of interest is immediately established if the student studies privately with your for a fee at the same time that you will be called upon to give that student a grade in a course taught within the School or cast that student in a School production. It is in the best interests of all concerned to not even suggest the possibility of a conflict of interest. This policy is in keeping with the University's Code of Ethics, established March 2004, which states that we "recognize that the fundamental relationships upon which our university is based are those between individual students and individual, professors; thus, such relationships are especially sacred and deserve special care that they not be... exploited for... personal gain." (Houston, 2012)

The Course requirements of Theory of politics of Shanghai Jiao Tong University are as follow:

Requirements: (1) through class discussion and after-class reading, every student must finish the required reading and submit reading notes; (2) through teacher's instruction and peer discussion, every student must get well-prepared to share his or her opinion in class and participate in class discussion.

8. Homework

Homework includes personal homework and group homework. Group homework involves in work distribution, cooperation, group statement, discussion, and so on. American graduate syllabi attach much greater importance to homework than Chinese ones do. And they are rich in homework type and demanding in homework quantity and quality. See Table 8.

TABLE 8.
HOMEWORK

	Homework (total)
American graduate syllabi	15
Chinese graduate syllabi	3

For instance, according to the graduate syllabus of Introduction to Public Policy of New York University for 2011, homework is explained concretely and minutely, including topic selecting, requirement, procedure, word length, guideline, bibliography, submission, and deadline. See below.

#2 – Evaluation of an official piece of policy analysis – due October 19

Students will select a written document intended as a piece of policy analysis and evaluate how well the document meets the professional standards of policy analysis. The evaluation should cover each of the steps described in the Bardach book, indicating strengths and weaknesses for each component. The evaluation should be about 1,500 words. More detailed guidelines for preparing this assignment will be distributed in class.

Students will be provided a list of recommended documents for evaluation, but you may select a document on your own. The name and full citation of document you are evaluating should be submitted via e-mail to the instructor no later than October 12, and preferably by October 5. The workshop portion of the classes four through six will be devoted to assisting students in preparing the evaluation (Brecher, 2012).

Essay writing or book reporting is also a common way to train and cultivate graduates. For example, according to the syllabus of Math of University of Washington for 2012, students are required to write reading reports regularly. See below.

Reading reports: Each week, you're required to submit a short reading report. Your report must include at least two paragraphs:

- Briefly describe the most important idea(s) in this week's reading assignment, in your judgment.
- List one or two questions that the reading raised in your mind. Your questions might address such issues as why something is defined the way it is, how a given concept might be of use, something you'd like to learn more about, or something that made you feel "stuck." Your report may also include any other comments or questions you'd like to raise concerning the course, including the lectures, class work, reading, homework, or exams. If you wish to write about specific homework problems, please confine your comments to general questions and suggestions about how to get started (Duchamp, 2012).

The graduate syllabus of Theory of digital optical fiber communication of Shanghai Jiao Tong University for 2012 states rather briefly that homework is self-reading.

9. Course grading

Course grading is made up of grading method and the proportion that each grading item takes. Commonly there are three types of grading methods: centesimal marking system, letter grading (for instance, A.B.C.D.E.F), and 5-grade marking system. American colleges lay great emphasis on students' daily performance, and the grade students get is evenly distributed through the whole semester. On the contrary, Chinese colleges think much of final exam and think little of students' in-class and after-class endeavors. See Table 9.

TABLE 9.
COURSE GRADING

	Course grading (total)
American graduate syllabi	16
Chinese graduate syllabi	15

The course grading of Analog Integrated System Design of Georgia Institute of Technology for 2012 is a perfect example to show that the grade that learners are awarded is evenly distributed through the entire semester. See below.

Grading Policy:

Midterm-1	20%	A: 90 – 100 B: 70 – 89
Midterm-2	30%	C: 50 – 69 D: 40 – 49
Project	50%	F: 0 – 39

Project Grading	Draft-1	5%
	Draft-2	10%
	Layout quality/techniques	10%
	Simulation results	10%
	Circuit performance	10%
	Presentation	20%
	Final Paper	30%
	Group cooperation	5%

Specific grading criteria, letter grading and the 5-grade marking system are well-defined in the graduate syllabus of Introduction to Public Policy of New York University for 2011. See below.

Grading Policy

Students will receive grades according to the following scale:

A = 4.0 points

A- = 3.7 points

B+ = 3.3 points

B = 3.0 points

B- = 2.7 points

C+ = 2.3 points

C = 2.0 points

C- = 1.7 points

F (fail) = 0.0 points

Student grades will be assigned according to the following criteria:

(A) Excellent: Exceptional work for a graduate student. Work at this level is unusually thorough, well reasoned, creative, methodologically sophisticated, and well written. Work is of exceptional, professional quality.

(A-) Very good: Very strong work for a graduate student. Work at this level shows signs of creativity, is thorough and well-reasoned, indicates strong understanding of appropriate methodological or analytical approaches, and meets professional standards.

(B+) Good: Sound work for a graduate student; well-reasoned and thorough, methodologically sound. This is the graduate student grade that indicates the student has fully accomplished the basic objectives of the course.

(B) Adequate: Competent work for a graduate student even though some weaknesses are evident. Demonstrates competency in the key course objectives but shows some indication that understanding of some important issues is less than complete. Methodological or analytical approaches used are adequate but student has not been thorough or has shown other weaknesses or limitations.

(B-) Borderline: Weak work for a graduate student; meets the minimal expectations for a graduate student in the course. Understanding of salient issues is somewhat incomplete. Methodological or analytical work performed in the course is minimally adequate. Overall performance, if consistent in graduate courses, would not suffice to sustain graduate status in "good standing."

(C/-/+) Deficient: Inadequate work for a graduate student; does not meet the minimal expectations for a graduate student in the course. Work is inadequately developed or flawed by numerous errors and misunderstanding of important issues. Methodological or analytical work performed is weak and fails to demonstrate knowledge or technical competence expected of graduate students.

(F) Fail: Work fails to meet even minimal expectations for course credit for a graduate student. Performance has been consistently weak in methodology and understanding, with serious limits in many areas. Weaknesses or limits are pervasive (Brecher, 2012).

The grading policy of Intellectual property law of University of Science and Technology Beijing for 2011 is as follows:

Grading: daily performance (30%) and final exam (70%). That is to say, daily performance accounts for 30% while final exam accounts for 70% of the total grade.

10. Academic integrity

Academic integrity is the prerequisite and standard for graduates' academic endeavors. The alternatives of academic integrity are honor code, honor policy and so on. According to academic integrity, all students' endeavors should be done originally and by themselves. If violating academic integrity, students are to be punished mercilessly. Academic supervisory organizations are set to monitor learners' behavior and handle the punishable actions of certain students. Academic integrity is one unique component that makes the United States differ from China. Policy of academic integrity almost can not be found in Chinese graduate syllabi. See Table 10.

TABLE 10.
ACADEMIC INTEGRITY

	Academic integrity (total)
American graduate syllabi	7
Chinese graduate syllabi	0

The academic integrity of Public Health Law of Northwestern University for 2012 is as follows:

Academic Integrity

Academic integrity at Northwestern University is based on a respect for individual achievement that lies at the heart of academic culture. Every faculty member and student, both graduate and undergraduate, belongs to a community of scholars where academic integrity is a fundamental commitment. The Programs in Public Health abides by the standards of academic conduct, procedures, and sanctions as set forth by The Graduate School at Northwestern University. Students are responsible for knowledge of the information provided by The Graduate School on their Web page at <http://www.tgs.northwestern.edu/studentsvcs/ethics/>.

Additionally, faculty reserve the right to use the “Safe Assignment: Plagiarism Detection Tool” that is part of the Course Management System. Info about this tool is found at <http://course-management.northwestern.edu/tipsheets.html> (Elster, 2012).

3.1.11 Lecture schedule

Lecture schedule, sometimes called syllabus, course outline, and schedule, is the arrangement of teaching plans throughout the whole semester, including organizational structure of the course, teaching content, lecture date, and reading requirements. Most of American graduate syllabi give clear lecture schedule while only half of Chinese counterparts do so.

TABLE 11.
LECTURE SCHEDULE

	Lecture schedule (total)
American graduate syllabi	15
Chinese graduate syllabi	9

For example, the lecture schedule of Public Health Law of Northwestern University for 2012 is as follows:

January 4: Development of public health law: Part I

Readings

- Gostin LG. PH law in a new century: Part I. *JAMA* 2000;283:2837-2841.
- Gostin LG. PH law in a new century: Part II. *JAMA* 2000;283:2979-2984.
- Hodge JG. Implementing modern public health goals through government. *JContemp Health L & Policy*. Read Parts 1-3, pg 93-106 (Elster, 2012).

The lecture schedule of Intellectual property law of National Chengchi University for 2011 is as follows:

Week 1 Intellectual Property Right & Its Legal Framework

- Basic Introduction
- Intellectual Properties Legal Framework
- Assignment:

Reading materials: WIPO website IP introduction materials <http://www.wipo.int>.

Taiwan Intellectual Property Office, <http://www.tipo.gov.tw>,

USPTO, <http://www.uspto.gov>

Chinese Intellectual Property Office, <http://www.sipo.gov.cn>

12. Teaching method

A teaching method, as a guideline for instructor class presentation, is a general plan concerning how knowledge is to be taught and learned. Teaching methods for American students are varied and flexible. And the methods mentioned in syllabi include lecture, reading, discussion, online communication, video, project, seminar, workshop, fieldwork, portfolio, and so on. On the other hand, Chinese counterparts are simple. All American graduate syllabi embrace teaching method while only a few Chinese ones do so. See Table 12.

TABLE 12.
TEACHING METHOD

	Teaching method (total)
American graduate syllabi	18
Chinese graduate syllabi	6

For example, case study is adopted in the Public Health Law of Northwestern University. It is calculated that 11 cases are to be discussed in the semester and averagely 1.22 case is to be dealt with per lecture. The course of College Teaching and Visual Communication of Duke University is rich and colorful. See below.

Activities:

In this course, you will participate in a range of activities including hands-on tool use, small group projects, individual projects, synchronous and asynchronous online communication, lectures, class discussions, readings and other activities determined by class interest. You can expect to average about two and a half hours a week on out of class activities (Crumley, 2011).

In the syllabus of Traditional Chinese geographical environment and political division evolution of Sun Yat-sen University for 2011, it is only stated briefly that the method is just teaching and discussion.

13. Evaluation

Evaluation, including course evaluation and faculty evaluation, is usually done through the Internet. Students submit their evaluations anonymously. Only by completing evaluations, can students get their final grades. Evaluation is not regarded as something that vital. From Table 13, it is found that only one American syllabus includes evaluation while none of Chinese counterparts does so. See below.

TABLE 13.
EVALUATION

	Evaluation (total)
American graduate syllabi	1
Chinese graduate syllabi	0

The only example is Public Health Law of Northwestern University for 2012. See below.

The Programs in Public Health administer web-based course evaluations to students for each course near the end of the quarter. Your completion of both the Unit (course) and Faculty evaluations is required; failure to complete the evaluations will result in an incomplete grade until the evaluations are submitted. You will be sent the web link and instructions via e-mail later in the quarter. You will have about 2 weeks time to complete the evaluations before grades are submitted (Elster, 2012).

B. Stylistic Features

American graduate syllabi are distinct from Chinese ones not only in make-up, but also in style. They enjoy plenty of distinctive features in comparison. The stylistic characteristics they possess can be summarized as follows.

Firstly, American graduate syllabi attach great importance to academic integrity that Chinese counterparts lack. The respect for academic morality is the basis for making and implementing rules of academic honesty. Good academic integrity is highly appreciated in the United States. The purpose of academic integrity is to promote credibility and pursue fairness and justice. Self-discipline and academic integrity are the bottom line for both students and teaching staff. To ensure the pervasiveness of academic honesty, some agencies are set up for the formulation and investigation of academic integrity policy. A clear definition of the behaviors seen as breaking honor code is presented to faculty members and students. When honor code is violated, a scientific and canonical implementation procedure is followed to sanction people involved. The lack of academic integrity among Chinese graduates and teachers is nowadays prevalent. Teachers pay too much attention to knowledge instruction, leading to the neglect of academic discipline. It is high time that Chinese universities and institutions took actions to enforce and strengthen academic credibility. See the example of Poetry and Prose into Drama of University of Southern California for 2012.

Academic Integrity

Dishonesty in any form harms the individual, other students, and the School of Theatre. Therefore, USC policies on academic integrity will be enforced in this course. Papers suspected of containing plagiarized material (the unacknowledged or inappropriate use of another's ideas, wording, or images) will be verified for authenticity by the School of Theatre through internet services. I expect you to familiarize yourself with the academic integrity guidelines found in the current SCampus (Houston, 2012).

Secondly, office hour which is peculiar to American graduate syllabi serves as a bridge connecting students and instructors. As discussed before, through face-to-face talking and interaction, office hour provides a platform for learners and teachers to communicate with each other and tackle issues. Students are encouraged to make use of office hour to the full. See the instance of Database Systems of University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign for 2012.

In any case, for more thorough discussion, come to our **office hours** if you can! The TAs and the instructor will have office hours for all weekdays. Don't be shy. Use our office hours to their fullest extent to help your study (Yershova, 2012).

Thirdly, assessment of American syllabus is various and is evenly allocated through the whole semester. American instructors pay more attention to students' daily performance. As a result, students can never be lazy and shirk their tasks. However, Chinese counterparts emphasize final examinations. So students who perform well in final exams are likely to get a high score. Here is an example of Biological Databases and Database Tools of Johns Hopkins University for 2011. Student assessment is made up of four parts and none of the four parts takes the predominance. Every week students are required to finish homework, quiz, and discussion posting, which is really challenging and stressful. Exam only accounts for 20% while project and paper take up nearly a half. See below.

STUDENT ASSESSMENT CRITERIA	
Weekly homework or quizzes	20%
Weekly discussion postings	20%
Course exam	20%
Database project and paper	40%

Fourthly, homework of American syllabus is high in quantity and quality. Learners are expected to do much homework and this homework should be done conscientiously and seriously. However, Chinese counterparts do not lay much stress on the quantity and quality of homework. Below is an example of Aquatic Geochemistry of Duke University for 2012. Students must do 4-5 sets of homework for the purpose of solving practical problems. After that,

they must present their homework to the whole class. The following is the detail.

Homework Assignments:

Approximately 4-5 homework sets will be assigned during the semester. These assignments will incorporate lecture materials into quantitative problems related to soil composition and chemical speciation. One assignment will entail SMIF-based exploration and short presentation of your results in class (Hsu-Kim, 2012).

Fifthly, American graduate course is rather demanding in time. It is very time-consuming for American graduates to get credit hours. They should be highly diligent because the courses they take are stressful and challenging. Here is an instance of Physics 598SE of California Institute of Technology for 2011. The final grade learners get consists of 4 sections. They have to do homework, participate in class and club activity, offer presentation and write grant. In a word, they need to work hard not only in class, but also after class. See below.

THE FINAL GRADE WILL BE CALCULATED AS FOLLOWS:

Item	%
Homework	30
Participation in-class and at DMBGC	30
In-class presentation of outreach work	20
Final lesson packaged for dissemination via the web	20
Total	100

Sixthly, American graduate syllabi are practical and pragmatic. Pragmatism is a philosophical tradition in the United States, which can be observed through university syllabi. Instructors do not only empower learners to gain necessary theoretical knowledge, but also cultivate their practical ability, including the ability to do experiment and survey. American graduates, especially those of science and engineering, are given the opportunity to link theory with practice, such as internship and field investigation. In the syllabus of College Teaching and Visual Communication of Duke University, it is figured out that the course is very useful in job-hunting. See below especially the last sentence.

Course description

This course is offered by the Graduate School and the Center for Instructional Technology to support professional development for graduate instructors and/or future faculty. It covers visual communication for teaching and other professional activities in print, in face-to-face situations and online. This includes introductions to web design, graphic design, effective presentations, development of an electronic teaching portfolio, and exploration of other instructional technology for college teaching. Completion of this course includes development of an electronic teaching portfolio; numerous students from previous semesters have found this to be extremely helpful in their job searches (Crumley, 2011).

Seventhly, American graduate syllabus is inclusive and comprehensive. As discussed in the previous part, plenty of items are included in it, making it all-round. The average American syllabus covers more than 4 pages, displaying its comprehensiveness. See Table 14.

TABLE 14.
PAGES

	Pages (average)
American graduate syllabi	4.39
Chinese graduate syllabi	3.16

Lastly, American graduate courses sometimes function as moral education. In some graduate syllabi it is mentioned that courses should arise learners' interest and help them build a correct and positive view of life. For instance, in the graduate syllabus of Biological Databases and Database Tools of Johns Hopkins University for 2011, mutual understanding, cooperation, teamwork and mutual benefit are highly appreciated. See below.

Final Words from the Instructor

This is an interdisciplinary class with students from both computer science and life science backgrounds participating, which gives each class a chance to learn from the other. And this course is set up to give students the opportunity to explore their own ideas in this field through the database project, which can be tailored to meet individual student's interests (Hobbs, 2012).

IV. CONCLUSION

American graduate syllabi differ greatly from Chinese ones though similarities do exist. In regard to major components, the heading, overview, course objectives, target students, prerequisites, textbook and reading list, course requirements, homework, course grading, lecture schedule, teaching method and evaluation are included in both Chinese and American graduate syllabi. Office hour and academic integrity are unique to American graduate syllabi. In regard to style, American graduate syllabi have a number of distinguishing characteristics. Compared with Chinese graduate syllabi, American ones highlight academic integrity and office hour. American course assessment is various and is spread out equally through the entire semester. Homework is highly demanding in both quantity and quality. Teaching methods are more flexible and interactive. American graduate syllabi are rather comprehensive, specific, practical and pragmatic.

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Zhencong Liu was born in Hezhou, China in 1968. He received his Ph. D. degree in linguistics from Beijing Foreign Studies University, China in 2007.

He is currently an associate professor in School of English Education, Beijing International Studies University, China. His research interests include cognitive linguistics and second language acquisition.

Wei Wang was born in Tongling, China in 1989. He received his bachelor degree in English from Anhui University, China in 2012.

He is currently a master degree candidate in School of English Education, Beijing International Studies University, China. His main research interest is English education.

Perceptual Learning Styles and Critical Thinking: Inspecting the Association among EFL Learners

Mania Nosratinia

Department of Foreign Languages, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Aram Soleimannejad

Department of Foreign Languages, Central Tehran Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—Influenced by the acknowledged role of critical thinking and learning styles in the process of second language learning, this study attempted to systematically inspect the association between English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' critical thinking, on one hand, and their total score of perceptual learning styles, different perceptual learning styles, and number of major perceptual learning styles, on the other hand. To do so, 595 male and female undergraduate EFL learners, between the ages of 18 and 25 ($M_{\text{age}} = 22$) participated in this study. These participants completed two instruments: a) the questionnaire of critical thinking by Honey (2000), and b) the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Survey developed by Reid (1984). Due to the violation of the assumptions of normality of distribution, the non-parametric Spearman rank order coefficient of correlation was employed in order to answer the initial 3 research questions. The obtained results indicated that there were significant and positive relationships between participants' critical thinking and total score of perceptual learning styles, $\rho = .33$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$; critical thinking and the number of major perceptual learning styles, $\rho = .28$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$; and critical thinking and group, visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic perceptual learning styles. Furthermore, a multiple regression analysis was run which revealed that tactile learning style preference is the best predictor of EFL learners' critical thinking ($\beta = 0.285$, $t = 6.107$, $p = 0.0005$). The study concludes with a discussion on the findings and stating a number of recommendations for further research.

Index Terms—critical thinking, learning style categories, perceptual learning styles, second language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

The process of learning, including second language learning, is believed to be deeply influenced by learners' internal factors (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014, 2015; O' Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012). Based on the multifaceted nature of human behaviors and capacities, these internal factors are comprised of a myriad of factors, each one dealing with one specific feature (O' Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012; Zaker, 2015). Among these life-and-learning-affecting factors, those dealing with higher-order thinking, e.g. critical thinking, have been under the spotlight for quite a long time (Gardiner, 1995; Moore, 1995; Stapleton, 2001).

The history of critical thinking can be traced back to the instructions of Socrates who introduced this approach of thinking about two thousand years ago (Fisher, 2001). Paul and Elder (2008, p. 58) have defined critical thinking as "The intellectually disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action."

Critical thinking is believed to be a fundamental factor in education (Ennis, 1996; Giancarlo & Facione, 2001), in general, and in English language teaching/learning, in particular (Modiano, 2001; Stapleton, 2001), enabling learners to be active agents in the process of learning (Pennycook, 1994). Based on this premise, many attempts have been made in order to reveal its nature and inspect how it is associated with other mental and personality factors (Connolly, 2000; Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Kabilan, 2000; Sarsani, 2006).

According to Larsen-Freeman (1991), learning styles and metacognitive abilities, including critical thinking, both have a facilitative role in promoting second language learning. It is now believed that each learner has a unique way of learning, reflected in learning style, that can have a fundamental role in success or failure in learning (Fewell, 2010; Too, 2007; Zare & Noordin, 2011). Moreover, it has been stated that learning outcome is higher for learners who are able to use multiple learning styles (Mulalic, Mohdshad, & Ahmad, 2009; Reid, 1987). However the way critical thinking and learning styles are associated is an area which has not been thoroughly explored.

Cornett (as cited in Bidabadi & Yamat, 2010) argued that learning styles are the overall patterns that give learning behavior a general direction. Reid (as cited in Vaseghi, Barjesteh, & Shakib, 2013) believes that learning styles are individual, natural, habitual, and preferred way(s) of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills. According to Reid (1995), learning styles can be divided into three major categories: cognitive learning styles, sensory learning styles, and personality learning styles.

Sensory learning styles can also be categorized into three main classifications: Perceptual, Environmental, and Personality learning styles (Reid, 1995). These three learning styles also have subcategories of learning style preferences depending on characteristics and learners' learning. Based on this premise, Perceptual learning styles refer to (Reid, 1995):

- a) Visual learning: Learning more effectively through the eyes (reading and studying charts);
- b) Auditory learning: Learning more effectively through the ears (listening to lectures);
- c) Kinesthetic learning: Learning more effectively through body experience (physical responses);
- d) Tactile learning: Learning more effectively through touch (as in building models);
- e) Individual learning: Learning more effectively through working alone; &
- f) Group learning: Learning more effectively through working with others.

The classification offered by Reid (1995) seems to be comprehensive enough for studying the learning styles from different perspectives. However, in order to narrow down the scope of the present study and enhance the validity and generalizability of the findings (Best & Kahn, 2006), perceptual learning styles are chosen as the focus of the study. As a result, and motivated by the abovementioned premises, this study attempted to systematically study the way critical thinking and perceptual learning style preferences are associated among Iranian EFL learners. To do so, the following research questions were phrased:

Q₁: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and total perceptual learning style preferences?

Q₂: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and number of major perceptual learning styles?

Q₃: Is there any significant relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and different perceptual learning styles?

Q₄: Among EFL learners' group, visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic perceptual learning styles, which one is a better predictor of their critical thinking?

II. METHOD

Participants

The participants of the present study were 595 male and female EFL learners who were undergraduate students of English Literature, English Translation, French Literature, German Literature, Chemistry, Civil Engineering, Electrical Engineering, and Management at Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran. Their ages ranged from 18 to 25 ($M_{age} = 22$). The process of participants' selection was done conveniently, i.e. the participants were chosen on the basis of their availability at the time of data collection (if they were willing to participate). The preliminary number of participants was 687, but 92 participants were excluded from the data for providing careless and incomplete answers. As a result, the final number of participants was 595.

Instrumentation

Critical Thinking Questionnaire

In order to estimate participants' critical thinking capacity, the critical thinking questionnaire developed by Honey (2004) was chosen. However, in order to avoid any misinterpretation and misunderstanding, the Persian version of this questionnaire which has been translated and validated by Naeini (2005) was administered to the participants. Both original and translated versions of this questionnaire contain 30 Likert-type items to investigate the ability in note-taking, summarizing, questioning, paraphrasing, researching, inferencing, discussing, classifying, outlining, comparing and contrasting, distinguishing, synthesizing, as well as inductive and deductive reasoning.

The participants were asked to rate the frequency of each category they use on a 5-point Likert-type scale, ranging from *never* (1 point), *seldom* (2 points), *sometimes* (3 points), *often* (4 points), to *always* (5 points). The ultimate scores could be within the range of 30 to 150. The allocated time for completing this questionnaire was 20 minutes. In a study conducted by Nosratinia and Zaker (2013) on Iranian EFL learners, the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated to be 0.81 using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. In this study, the reliability of this questionnaire was estimated to be .82 using Cronbach's alpha.

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Survey

In order to estimate the capacity of participants in the components of perceptual learning style (see introduction) and calculate the total score of perceptual learning styles, the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Survey was chosen. Developed by Joy Reid in 1984, this instrument is the first perceptual learning style questionnaire widely known in our field. However, in order to remove the probable language barriers, the researchers used the Persian translated version of this instrument, by Riazi and Mansoorian (2008).

This instrument consists of 30 randomly ordered statements and participants respond on the basis of a five point Likert-scale, ranging from *Strongly Agree* (1 point), *Agree* (2 points), *Undecided* (3 points), *Disagree* (4 points) to *Strongly Disagree* (5 points). The six components of perceptual learning style are measured through questions 6, 10, 12, 24, and 29 (Visual); questions 1, 7, 9, 17, and 20 (Auditory); questions 2, 8, 15, 19, and 26 (Kinesthetic); questions 11, 14, 16, 22, and 25 (Tactile); questions 3, 4, 5, 21, and 23 (Group Learning); and questions 13, 18, 27, 28, and 30 (Individual Learning). As stated by Reid (1995), the scores on each test item should be multiplied by 2. If the total score

for each component (e.g. Visual), which includes 5 items, ranges from 38 to 50, that component is recognized as a major perceptual learning style.

The allocated time for answering this questionnaire was 20 minutes, and the total score could range from 60 to 300. Riazi and Mansoorian (2008) reported a reliability index of 0.79 for the instrument, using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, and in this study, the reliability index was estimated to be .80 using Crpnbach's alpha.

Procedure

Initially, the conveniently selected participants (n = 687) received a package, including the two questionnaires. The researchers provided a brief explanation about the nature of the study and the purpose of data collection. Moreover, participants were assured of the confidentiality of the information they provide. Also, they were informed that the collected data would be used for research purposes only. Furthermore, in order to motivate them, they were given the chance to receive their results on the instruments via email.

After collecting the 595 sets of usable questionnaires, they were scored, and for every single participant, 9 scores were entered into the data set. These scores were:

1. total critical thinking score
2. total perceptual learning style score
3. the number of major perceptual learning styles
4. visual learning style score
5. auditory learning style score
6. kinesthetic learning style score
7. tactile learning style score
8. individual learning style score
9. group learning style score

III. RESULTS

This descriptive study attempted to answer four research questions. Answering the first, second and third research questions required employing a correlational analysis. Observing a statistically significant relationship between critical thinking and different perceptual learning styles was the prerequisite for dealing with the fourth research question, answered through running a multiple regression. The following provide information on the analyses and the assumptions which were checked in advance.

Preliminary Analyses

Before answering the research questions of this study, it was needed to check a number of assumptions and perform some preliminary analyses. To begin with, the assumptions of interval data and independence of participants (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007) were already met as the present data were measured on an interval scale and the participants were independent of one another. In addition, it was needed to check some other significant assumptions through inspecting the features of the data. These assumptions, according to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), are:

- a) Linear relation between each pair of variables,
- b) Homoscedasticity, and
- c) Normality of the distribution of variables.

To check the linearity of relations pertinent to the three initial research questions, the researchers visually inspected the data through two scatterplots and one multiple scatterplot. The inspection revealed that the linearity of relations among the variables could not be confirmed. Moreover, in many cases, the distribution of scores was funnel shape; so, the assumption of homoscedasticity was not met for these variables.

In order to check the normality of the distributions, two procedures were followed. First, the descriptive statistics of the data were obtained and kurtosis and skewness ratios were calculated; this was followed by inspecting the distribution histograms and Normal Q-Q Plots. Second, the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run as a further attempt to inspect the normality of the distributions.

The distribution for the scores (except for individual learning style preference) was not normal as almost all of the skewness ratios and the kurtosis ratios did not fall within the range of -1.96 and +1.96. Following this, the actual shapes of the distribution of the scores and the normal probability plots were checked whose inspection, influenced by the large number of participants, supported the normality of distributions.

Following this, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was run, results of which are presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1:
TESTS OF NORMALITY OF THE SCORES

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Critical Thinking	.061	595	.000
Total Perceptual Learning Styles	.059	595	.000
Visual	.102	595	.000
Auditory	.097	595	.000
Kinesthetic	.102	595	.000
Tactile	.091	595	.000
Individual	.073	595	.000
Group	.078	595	.000
Number of Major Perceptual Learning Styles	.163	595	.000

As presented in Table 1, the Sig. values are less than .05. This point suggests that the assumption of normality is violated. Although this violation is quite common in large samples (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), considering the results obtained in the previous sections, it was systematically suggested that the assumption of normality is violated. Therefore, the pertinent research questions were answered through employing non-parametric tests.

The First Research Question

Regarding the relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and total perceptual learning style preferences, the data were analyzed using the Spearman rank order coefficient of correlation. Table 2 shows the result of this analysis.

TABLE 2:
SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING AND TOTAL PERCEPTUAL LEARNING STYLE PREFERENCES

		Critical Thinking	Total Perceptual Learning Styles
Spearman's rho	Critical Thinking	1.000	.335**
	Correlation Coefficient		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	595	595

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

According to Table 2, it was concluded that there was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and total perceptual learning style preferences, $\rho = .33$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$. This signified a medium effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.262 – 0.404).

The Second Research Question

Regarding the relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and number of major perceptual learning styles, the data were analyzed using the Spearman rank order coefficient of correlation. Table 3 shows the result of this analysis.

TABLE 3:
SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING AND THE NUMBER OF MAJOR PERCEPTUAL LEARNING STYLES

		Critical Thinking	Number of Major Learning Styles
Spearman's rho	Critical Thinking	1.000	.278**
	Correlation Coefficient		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.000
	N	595	595

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

According to Table 3, it was concluded that there was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and the number of major perceptual learning styles, $\rho = .28$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$. This signified a small effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.203 – 0.35).

The Third Research Question

Regarding the relationship between EFL learners' critical thinking and different perceptual learning styles, the data were analyzed using the Spearman rank order coefficient of correlation. Table 4 shows the result of this analysis.

TABLE 4:
SPEARMAN'S CORRELATION BETWEEN CRITICAL THINKING AND DIFFERENT PERCEPTUAL LEARNING STYLES

		Critical Thinking	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Individual	Group
Spearman's rho	Critical Thinking	1.000	.090*	.125**	.282**	.340**	.016	.093*
	Correlation Coefficient							
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.	.029	.002	.000	.000	.692	.024
	N	595	595	595	595	595	595	595

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

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

Based on the obtained results reported in Table 4, it was concluded that:

a) There was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and visual learning style preference, $\rho = .09$, $n = 595$, $p < .05$. This signified a very small effect size supplemented by a small confidence interval (0.01 – 0.169).

b) There was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and auditory learning style preference, $\rho = .12$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$. This signified a small effect size supplemented by a small confidence interval (0.041 – 0.198).

c) There was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and kinesthetic learning style preference, $\rho = .28$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$. This signified a small effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.205 – 0.352).

d) There was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and tactile learning style preference, $\rho = .34$, $n = 595$, $p < .01$. This signified a medium effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.267 – 0.409).

e) There was not a significant correlation between critical thinking and individual learning style preference.

f) There was a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and group learning style preference, $\rho = .09$, $n = 595$, $p < .05$. This signified a very small effect size supplemented by a very small confidence interval (0.013 – 0.172).

Based on the abovementioned findings, all of the perceptual learning styles, except individual learning style preference, were significantly related to critical thinking. As a result, the researchers could consider answering the fourth research question, considering these 5 variables as the predictor variables of the analysis.

Preliminary Analyses Pertinent to the Fourth Research Question

The fourth research question of this study was answered through running a multiple regression analysis. However, there are a number of assumptions which had to be checked before performing the analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Regarding sample size, using the criterion proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m = number of independent variables), the sample pool seemed to be large enough to meet this assumption.

Regarding the assumption of Multicollinearity, the relationship among the 5 variables was checked using the Spearman rank order coefficient. Results indicated that the 5 perceptual learning styles did not show high levels of correlation. In addition, checking the Tolerance values and VIF values indicated that all the Tolerance values were higher than .1. Moreover, all the VIF values were lower than 10. Therefore, it was concluded that multicollinearity did not exist in this sample.

For checking normality in the regression analysis, the Normal Probability Plot (P-P) was checked (Figure 1) whose inspection suggested no major deviation from normality.

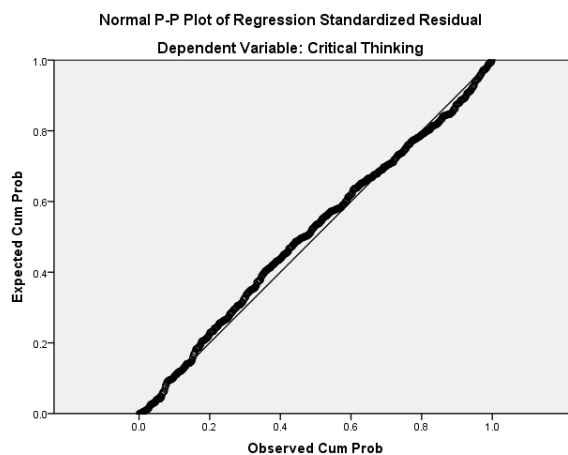


Figure 1: The normal P-P plot of regression standardized residual

Finally, in order to inspect the existence of outliers, the researchers inspected the Mahalanobis distance, indicating that only 2 cases had Mahalanobis values above the critical value. According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2007), in large samples, the existence of a number of outliers would not cause a problem. Based on the results of the preliminary analyses reported above, it was then legitimate to run a multiple regression in order to answer the fourth research question.

The Fourth Research Question

As reported earlier, the correlations between critical thinking and 5, out of 6, perceptual learning styles turned out to be significant. These 5 perceptual learning styles were: group, visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic learning styles. In order to realize which one of these factors can predict critical thinking better, a standard multiple regression was run. Table 5 presents the regression model summary including the R and R^2 .

TABLE 5:
MODEL SUMMARY – R AND R SQUARE

Model	R	R ²	Adjusted R ²	S E of the Estimate
1	.377 ^a	.142	.135	15.355

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group, Visual, Auditory, Tactile, Kinesthetic
b. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking

As reported in Table 5, *R* came out to be 0.377 and *R*² came out to be 0.142. This means that the model explains 14.2 percent of the variance in critical thinking (Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003). Moreover, *f*² = 0.16 indicated a small effect size for the regression. Table 6 reports the results of ANOVA (*F* (5, 589) = 19.5, *p* = 0.0005), the results of which were considered significant. This means that the model can significantly predict EFL learners' critical thinking.

TABLE 6:
REGRESSION OUTPUT: ANOVA
ANOVA^b

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	23051.102	5	4610.220	19.552	.000 ^a
	Residual	138880.283	589	235.790		
	Total	161931.385	594			

a. Predictors: (Constant), Group, Visual, Auditory, Tactile, Kinesthetic
b. Dependent Variable: Critical Thinking

Table 7 demonstrates the Standardized Beta Coefficients. The inspection of the Sig. values shows that among the 5 predictor variables, only kinesthetic and tactile learning styles make statistically significant unique contributions to the equation as their Sig. values were less than .05.

TABLE 7:
REGRESSION OUTPUT: COEFFICIENTS

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	T	Significance
		B	SE	β		
1	(Constant)	53.267	6.670		7.986	.000
	Visual	.174	.120	.057	1.457	.146
	Auditory	.132	.111	.047	1.186	.236
	Kinesthetic	.287	.127	.107	2.249	.025
	Tactile	.715	.117	.285	6.107	.000
	Group	-.035	.079	-.018	-.436	.663

The comparison of β values revealed that tactile learning style has the largest β coefficient (β = 0.285, *t* = 6.107, *p* = 0.0005). This means that tactile learning style makes the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to explaining critical thinking. Therefore, it was concluded that tactile learning style could predict more significantly the critical thinking scores of the candidates. Moreover, kinesthetic learning style was ranked as the second predictor of critical thinking.

IV. DISCUSSION

It is now believed that second language learning is deeply influenced by learners' internal factors (Lightbown & Spada, 2013; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014). Among these internal factors, those dealing with higher-order thinking, e.g. critical thinking, have attracted special attention. As a result, many attempts have been made in order to reveal its nature and inspect how it is associated with other mental and personality factors (Connolly, 2000; Kabilan, 2000; Sarsani, 2006). According to Larsen-Freeman (1991), learning styles and metacognitive abilities, including critical thinking, both have a facilitative role in promoting second language learning. Moreover, it has been stated that learning outcome is higher for learners who are able to use multiple learning styles (Mulalic, Mohdshad & Ahmad, 2009; Reid, 1987).

Motivated by the abovementioned premises, this study attempted to systematically study the way critical thinking and perceptual learning styles are associated among Iranian EFL learners. To do so, four research questions were formulated which questioned: a) the relationship between critical thinking and the total score of perceptual learning styles; b) the relationship between the number of major perceptual learning styles in a learner and their critical thinking; c) the relationship between critical thinking and different perceptual learning styles; and d) the predictive power of different perceptual learning styles about critical thinking.

The first research question attempted to systematically explore the way EFL learners' critical thinking and perceptual learning styles are associated. Larsen-Freeman (1991) favors the significant role of both learning styles and metacognitive factors, e.g. critical thinking, in language learning. However, there are not many studies in which the bilateral relationship between these two variables has been studied in a systematic fashion. In fact, Torres and Cano's

(1995) study was the only one that the researchers could come up with, and there seemed to be no attempt to explore this bilateral relationship in the Iranian EFL context.

This study could not reject the existence of a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and total perceptual learning style preferences. This significant relationship seems to confirm the findings of Torres and Cano (1995). However, it cannot be ignored that the magnitude of the relationship between the two variables raises doubts about the meaningfulness of the relationship (Henning, 1987; Springer, 2010). Perhaps other studies would reduce this uncertainty through replicating this study in similar and different contexts.

This study, as stated in the second research question, inspected the relationship between critical thinking and the number of major perceptual learning styles. The rationale behind posing this question was the possibility of having a high comparative number of major perceptual learning styles and, at the same time, having a low total score of perceptual learning style preferences, and vice versa. The results indicated the existence of a significant and positive correlation between critical thinking and the number of major perceptual learning styles. However, regarding the magnitude of the relationship and its meaningfulness, this result should be interpreted with caution (Henning, 1987; Springer, 2010). Based on these concerns, it seems reasonable to argue that the number of major perceptual learning styles by itself cannot determine one's critical thinking, and the total score is a more valid representative of learning style preferences.

Through answering the third research question, it was intended to provide a more vivid understanding about the relationship between critical thinking and perceptual learning styles. Out of the 6 perceptual learning styles, 5 of them were significantly associated with critical thinking. The relationship between critical thinking and tactile learning style preference had the largest comparative effect size among the other four significant relationships. This seems to confirm the findings of Riazi and Mansoorian (2008) in which tactile learning style preference is among the highly influential perceptual learning styles. Moreover, the low effectiveness of individual learning style preference was also reported by Riazi and Mansoorian (2008). Therefore, based on the content of the pertinent to this learning style (in the instrument) and the definitions, it can be argued that EFL learners' tendency to work individually would not be conducive to the promotion of critical thinking and, as a result, language learning (Connolly, 2000; Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Kabilan, 2000; Sarsani, 2006; Stapleton, 2001). This is also in line with the constructivist theory of learning which favors active construction of language competence through social and experiential process (Ashton-Hay, 2006; Sprenger & Wadt, 2008).

The final research question attempted to compare these 5 perceptual learning styles in predicting critical thinking. Running a multiple regression analysis revealed that tactile learning style preference makes the strongest statistically significant unique contribution to explaining critical thinking, followed by kinesthetic learning style preference. This finding is supported by the findings of Naserieh and Anani Sarab (2013) in which kinesthetic and tactile perceptual learning styles had the highest degree of influence. Therefore, based on the features of these learning styles, it seems reasonable to argue that in order to promote critical thinking among language learners, hands-on activities, in-class projects, carrying out practical tasks, and other similar activities should be incorporated in the body of language instruction (Dill, 2012; O' Donnell, Reeve, & Smith, 2012).

Mulalic, Mohdshad, and Ahmad (2009) and Reid (1987) rightly argue that learners should be encouraged to employ multiple learning styles. This, they argue, will promote the language learning process. This point seems to be in line with the obtained answer to the second research question of this study. Through answering the second research question, it was concluded that all the perceptual learning styles together can predict critical thinking better. This is to say that EFL teachers should encourage all the perceptual learning styles by introducing a wide range of activities to the classroom practice.

One of the findings of this study was that individual learning style preference does not make a contribution to critical thinking and, as a result, language learning. It provides support for the notions of the constructivist theory of learning, favoring the role of interaction and collaboration in learning (Ashton-Hay, 2006; Sprenger & Wadt, 2008). As a result, EFL teachers should plan the classroom instruction in a way that interaction and collaboration are favored. For instance, different collaborative tasks, as introduced by Ellis (2008), should be employed in the classroom. Moreover, group presentation, and problem sets can be employed to promote group activities and critical thinking itself (Whittington, Lopez, Schley, & Fisher, 2000).

There is a unanimous consensus among language educators that learners play a crucial role in the process of learning (Mitchell & Myles, 2004; Richards & Rodgers, 2001). The findings of the present study can assist learners in developing critical thinking indirectly. More specifically, the findings of this study highlight the importance of developing different perceptual learning styles. Therefore, EFL learners should have flexible learning beliefs and attempt to diversify their learning techniques.

Based on the findings of the present study, EFL syllabus designers are encouraged to prepare tasks and activities in which employing different strategies (categorized as perceptual learning styles) are required. In fact, the results of the present study confirm the idea that EFL learners should be exposed to a wide range of activities, requiring them to employ different techniques (Mulalic, Mohdshad, & Ahmad, 2009).

Based on the principles of descriptive research, the focus of this study, its peculiarities, and the characteristics of the learners, there are a number of areas which were not touched in this study. Furthermore, other studies are required to

inspect relevant concepts and confirm the results of this study. Accordingly, a limited number of recommendations are presented here. First, it is suggested to compare the variables of this study in predicting different language skills. Second, the same study could be conducted among other age groups. Third, it is suggested to replicate this study in a way that the numbers of male and female participants are equal. Finally, this study can be replicated employing some qualitative instruments to increase the validity and reliability of the results and interpretations.

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Mania Nosratinia is Assistant Professor in TEFL at Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran. She has been teaching at undergraduate and graduate levels in the areas of English language teaching methodology, language testing, and research methodology in language studies. She has published in national and international academic journals and presented in several national and international seminars.

Aram Soleimannejad holds an MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran and is an English teacher at a number of language schools. Her main areas of research interest include critical thinking, learning styles, and personality types.

An Investigation of the Interdependence between Writing in Persian as L1 and English as L2 on Female Intermediate Students: Language Problem or Writing Problem

Mona Mirzaee

Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Sari Branch, Sari, Iran

Amir Marzban

Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran

Abstract—English is the leading foreign language enjoying a prestigious position in many countries, including Iran. Many Iranian learners start learning English from first grade of junior high school; some other people send their children to English institutes as early as primary school or even pre-school, yet the problem is that most of them have problems in obtaining the satisfactory level of proficiency either in receptive skills (Listening and Reading) or productive skills (Speaking and Writing) or in both. Among the four skills, writing is of great importance. Hence, the current study examined the interdependence between writing in Persian (L1) and English (L2). For this purpose, 30 Iranian EFL learners majoring in English Translation at Islamic Azad University of Qaemshahr were selected. First of all, a TOEFL test was used to homogenize the learners. Then, the participants were asked to write English and Persian compositions on the same topic in narrative, descriptive and expository genres in two separate sessions, first L2 compositions then L1 composition after a two-week delay. These writings were scored according to the ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al. 1981) by two scorers for each language. Using Pearson product-moment correlation, the correlation between L2 proficiency and L1 writing to L2 writing was examined. The outcomes displayed large correlations between L2 proficiency and L2 writing but no correlation between L1 writing and L2 writing. The findings entail some pedagogical implications for improving EFL learners' L2 writing ability through getting more knowledge in English rather than focusing on Persian writing.

Index Terms—interdependence, EFL learners, L1 writing, L2 writing, L2 proficiency

I. INTRODUCTION

There are four skills in learning a language which consist of listening, reading, writing and speaking. Of the four skills in any languages, writing seems to be of great significance either in the first or second language. Chastain (1988) defines writing as: "Writing is a basic communication skill and a unique asset in the process of learning a second language." Halliday (1975) refers to writing as learning how to mean. Ahangari (2007) refers to writing "as an instrument through which people communicate with one another in time and space, transmitting their accumulated culture from one generation to another". Writing is vitally related not only to the life of individuals but to the life of the community. Acquiring proficiency in this skill paves the way for better communication since anyone needs to write as well as to speak in order to transfer what they are already thinking about. The importance of writing skill and its prominent role in demonstrating students' learning magnitude is undeniable be it writing in the first or the second language (as cited in Javadi-Sfa, Vahdany, & Sabet, 2013). Although writing is a necessity, many people are faced with some problems in techniques of writing in first or second language. Writing in second language can be as easy or difficult as writing in first language. The Persian language is no exception in this regard as many students even at university levels have difficulty in their English writings. According to Birjandi & Marzban (2004) and Javadi-Sfa, Vahdany, & Sabet, (2013), "the role of first language and its influence in second language acquisition, as an important issue in the field of language, has occupied researchers for the last few decades."

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

There are an increasing number of researchers who observed remarkable differences between first and second language writing with the most marked one being that second language writers have two languages in their repositories as opposed to many L1 writers (Liu, 2004). A couple of theories and hypotheses have contributed to shaping the knowledge on the interdependence between learners' languages.

A. Linguistic Interdependence Hypothesis

"This hypothesis posits that language operations such as reading and writing are transferable and intertwined; that is, second language skills are only superficially distinct and that at some basic core they are interdependent or is in actuality the same. Further, once a set of language operations has been acquired, they will also be available within second language context. According to this hypothesis, when a language operation such as reading and writing has been acquired in a language, the same operation is not 'reacquired' in another language but is simply applied in the second language. The operation is simply available upon need"(as cited in Bernhardt & Kamil, 1995).

B. Common Underlying Proficiency

Common Underlying Proficiency says that proficiencies involving more cognitively demanding tasks such as abstract thinking, problem-solving, content learning and literacy are common among languages. Common underlying proficiency refers to the interdependence of skills, concepts and linguistic knowledge found in a central processing system. If a child comprehends the concepts of some words in his mother tongue, it will be easier to acquire the labels of the terms in the second language, e.g. understanding the concept of 'beauty' in the first language paves the way for doing the same in the second language.

C. Threshold Hypothesis

Threshold Hypothesis as stated by Cummins (2000) explains that "a minimum threshold in language proficiency must be passed before a second-language speaker can reap any benefits from first language". It means that if a second language learner is going to benefits from his first language, he must have passed a certain level of competence in his second language. In other words, this hypothesis, in its most rudimentary form states that in order to write in a second language, a level of second language linguistic ability must first be achieved (as cited in Cummins 2000).

Arefi (1997) analyzed "the role of the first language literacy in second language acquisition where languages are different. It was designed to investigate the relationship between first language (Persian) writing skills and second language (English) writing performance". Results of the study indicated that Persian writing skills were transferred to the English language.

Based on the investigations of Wolfersberger (2003) about "the composing process and writing strategies of Japanese subjects in their L1 and L2, it was found out that while some L1 strategies may transfer to the L2 writing processes, lower proficiency writers struggle in utilizing all strategies that could help their writing process in the L2".

Ahangari (2007) explored "the ways in which the transfer of assumptions from L1 writing can sometimes help the process of writing in L2". The study was done to investigate the possible impact of first language literacy skills on writing ability in second language. According to the results, the teachers must consider both inter-lingual transfer and intra-lingual input in their analysis of second language literacy development (as cited in Ahangari 2007).

The focus of the study by Zare'ee (2009) was "on the linguistic and rhetorical patterns of L1 and L2 writing samples of Iranian EFL learners and the aim was to determine possible quantitative differences". The participants were obliged to write compositions both in English and Persian on the same topic two separate sittings. These tasks were then scored according to the ESL Composition Profile by two expert scorers. "The results of the study showed that: a) there was a moderate positive correlation between L1 and L2 writing total scores, b) texts written in L1 were significantly longer than those written in L2, c) L1 writing texts were more complex than L2 writing ones in terms of T-units, d) T-units in texts written in L1 were more than those written in L2, and e) the number of spelling errors in L2 writing samples were higher than those of L1 writing samples. These results were compared to those of similar studies comparing L1 and L2 writing"(as cited in Zare'ee 2009).

III. METHODOLOGY

This study was intended to investigate whether Iranian female learners' weaknesses in English writing are due to their lack of proficiency in second language vocabulary and grammar or to their weaknesses in writing in general. The novelty value of this study is in investigating the L2 writing problems through analyzing the contribution of L1 writing and L2 proficiency to L2 writing. For this study, three main questions were addressed.

1. Does English proficiency contribute to English writing?
2. Does Persian writing contribute to English writing?
3. Is there any significant difference between the amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of L1 writing ability and L2 proficiency to L2 writing ability?

A. Participants

In this study thirty participants were chosen from Islamic Azad University of Qaemshahr in which they studied English Translation. All of them were female who were between twenty and thirty years old. An availability sampling (Convenience Sampling) technique was used to choose 30 samples for this study. They had passed the courses of paragraph writing and advanced writing at the university and it was supposed that they had gained the required ability to take part in this study which had one group of learners in two different sittings.

B. The Instruments

TOEFL test: In order to come up with homogeneous groups of participants with respect to their English proficiency, a sample of a TOEFL actual test was administered. This test included 90 items in multiple-choice format. The structure and written section included 40 items and 50 items in the reading comprehension section. Since listening had no role in this study, this section was omitted.

Essay writing: The participants were supposed to write essays one in English and the other in Persian with three topics in three different genres as narrative, descriptive and expository. The topics are as follows:

1. Narrative: Narrate your first day at a new school or college.
2. Descriptive: Describe your best friend.
3. Expository: What are the causes and effects of divorce on families?

ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al., 1981, p. 91): This checklist was used as the writing rating scale. It was then translated into Persian in order for Persian essays to be corrected. The rationale behind using this scale is that it is a valid rubric for assessing writing since its validity related issues, including face validity, content validity, concurrent validity, and construct validity have already been reported by Jacobs et al. (1981) (as cited in Javadi-Sfa, Vahdany, & Sabet, 2013). Moreover, the efficacy of Jacobs et al.'s (1981) framework has been investigated by Brown and Baily (1984), and it is found to be a sound practice in assessing writing performance.

C. Procedures

The actual TOEFL test which was done for the sake of homogenizing students was the first to be administered. It was distributed among 75 junior and senior English Translation students of Islamic Azad University of Qaemshahr who had recently passed the simple writing and advanced writing courses. Students were given 90 minutes to answer the test and the rating scale was a score out of 100. After calculating the mean and standard deviation, extreme scores were excluded from the sample and so the sample decreased to thirty standing between one standard deviation below and one above the mean.

In the next step, three English essay topics were given to students and were asked to write about three to four paragraphs using at least 100 to 150 words within 90 minutes. For the Persian writing, the topics were translated into Persian in order to keep both tests the same. After a period of two weeks, they did the same about the Persian test. The reason for the two-week gap and taking the English one first was to eliminate the possible threat of translation from L1 to L2 and also to reduce the risk of remembering English test. It was thought that if the subjects had to write the second writing immediately after the first one, the subjects might have remembered what they wrote in the English essay and would translate them into Persian to make their job easier. The intention of the researcher for choosing these topics were that the participants did not need to have strong general knowledge since it is a crucial factor in writing. If the topics were more difficult or needed a lot of general knowledge, the participants had to spend most of their time on finding necessary information rather than focusing on structure. The topics were in a way that almost everyone had the required knowledge to write about. Then, the compositions were evaluated based on ESL Composition Profile (Jacobs et al., 1981, p. 91) for analytical scoring. The rating was used to score the collected samples in five different categories as content, organization, vocabulary, language use and mechanics.

Both L1 and L2 compositions were scored by two different scorers. They all scored the writings with the same rating scale. By using correlation analysis, the consistency of the two raters' judgments was tested and the outcome revealed a high level of inter-rater reliability and turned out to be significant, so the average score given by the two raters was considered as the participants' final score on writing.

In order to investigate the interdependence between L1 writing or L2 writing, descriptive and correlation analysis were conducted on the composition scores written in the two languages. The descriptive statistics were related to calculating mean, standard deviation and table format. It should be mentioned that analysis of data is done by SPSS software. Inter-rater reliability was measured through Pearson Correlation Coefficient for ascertaining the reliability of the scores on the writing tests.

In order to test the null hypotheses, a scatter plot and correlation analysis was conducted. Then, Pearson Product Moment analysis was used to examine the correlation between the overall scores of L1 and L2 writings. In addition to Coefficient of correlation (r), coefficient of determination (r^2) was used in order to calculate the contribution of L1 writing to L2 writing and also the contribution of L2 proficiency to L2 writing.

IV. RESULTS

Before doing data analysis, in order to see whether we were able to use Pearson-product moment or Spearman as a means of calculating correlation, the researcher had to firstly run Normality test. Therefore the TOEFL scores, the Persian and English writing scores were put in Kolmogorov-Smirnov method to determine the normality of data in terms of distribution. The result of normality test shows that Sig value of the all scores is higher than significance level (0.05). So, they did meet the assumption of normality and we used Pearson-product moment correlation (see Table 1). As it was explained before, a TOEFL test was used to homogenize the participants which resulted in the mean score of 40 and standard deviation of 11 (Table 2).

TABLE I.
TEST OF NORMALITY

		TOEFL	English writing	Persian writing
N		30	30	30
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	37.4667	74.0056	56.1322
	Std. Deviation	6.20196	8.21030	7.43732
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.160	.115	.103
	Positive	.160	.115	.103
	Negative	-.115	-.081	-.091
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.877	.632	.562
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		0.425	0.819	0.910

TABLE II.
RESULT OF TOEFL TEST

N	Mean	SD	Upper(+1SD)	Lower(-1SD)
75	40	11	51	29

Then, each of English and Persian writings was scored by two raters using ESL composition profile of Jacobs. et al. 1981. Once the writings were scored, the inter-rater reliability was calculated by using Pearson Correlation Coefficient formula using SPSS. The inter-rater reliability indexes were high for both Persian raters ($r = .832$) and English raters ($r = .875$) which indicate a strong correlation and is therefore acceptable for a reliable writing assessment.

As shown in Table 3, the descriptive statistics of TOEFL score and L2 writing was done. The mean score of TOEFL test was 38.33 with the standard deviation of 5.73 and the mean of L2 writing scores was 74 with the standard deviation of 8.21. The correlation between participants' total score on the TOEFL test and L2 compositions was 0.82(p -value=0.00 < 0.05) with the correlation of determination of 0.67 which means %67 of students' L2 proficiency contributes to L2 writing; in other words, %67 of English writing was due to the participants' proficiency in English. (see Table 4).

According to table 4, sig (.000) is less than ($\alpha=0/05$); therefore, English proficiency contributes to English writing. It can also be inferred that more proficiency in L2 can predict better performance in L2 writing. In other words, there is a relatively high positive relationship between the TOEFL scores of participants and L2 writing. Through statistical analysis, a positive linear association between L2 proficiency and L2 writing total scores was confirmed. This is illustrated in figure 1 below.

TABLE III.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF TOEFL SCORE AND L2 WRITING SCORE

	Mean	SD	N
TOEFL score	38.33	5.73	30
L2 writing score	74	8.21	30

TABLE IV.
RESULTS OF CORRELATIONAL ANALYSIS AND CORREALATION OF DETERMINATION BETWEEN TOEFL SCORE AND L2 WRITING SCORE

TOEFL score	L2 writing score
Pearson Correlation	0.823
Sig. (2 tailed)	0.00
N	30
Correlation of determination	0.67

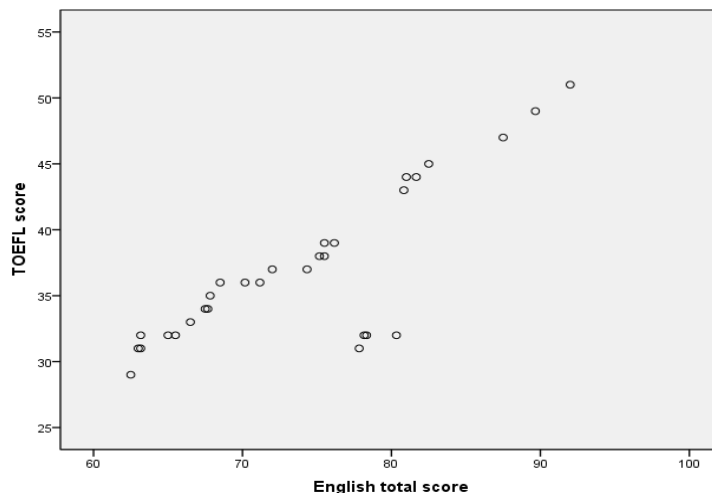


Figure 1: scatter plot of TOEFL score and English total score

The second descriptive statistics of L1 and L2 writing was done the same as the previous step. The mean score of L1 writing was 56.13 and the standard deviation was 7.43. The mean score of L2 writing was 74 and the standard deviation was 8.21 which are all demonstrated in the table 5.

According to the results, the correlation between English writing and Persian writing was -0.04 (p-value=0.826 > 0.05) which means there's no relationship between these two variables. The correlation of determination was 0.0016 which is also meaningless showing that there is no influence of Persian writing on English writing.

In correlational analysis it was shown that sig (.826) is more than $\alpha=0.05$ so it is assumed that Persian writing does not contribute to English writing as figure 2 expresses no significant relationship.

TABLE V.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF L1 AND L2 WRITING

	Mean	SD	N
L1 writing	56.13	7.43	30
L2 writing	74	8.21	30

TABLE VI.
RESULTS OF CORREALTIONAL ANALYSIS AND CORREALTION OF DETERMINATION BETWEEN L1 AND L2 WRITING

L1 writing	L2 writing score
Pearson Correlation	-0.042
Sig. (2 tailed)	0.826
N	30
Correlation of determination	0.0016

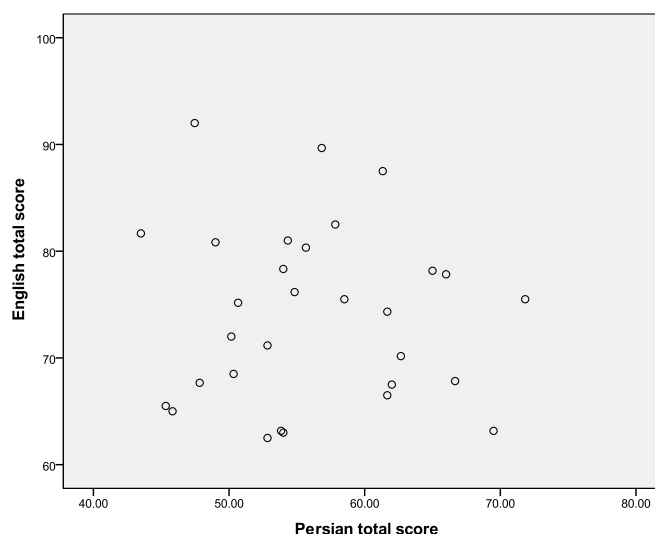


Figure 2: scatter plot of L1 and L2 writing

Variance is an indicator of the average distance of scores from the mean. They are high if the sample is heterogeneous and contains extreme scores, whereas they are low in a homogeneous sample with all the scores clustered around the mean (Dornyei, 2007, p.214). Regarding the last research question that if there was any significant difference between the amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of L1 writing ability and L2 proficiency to L2 writing ability, the variance of English proficiency and Persian writing was evaluated. The amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of English proficiency was 32.83 and the amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of Persian writing to English writing was 55.20.

The amount of variance of Persian writing is higher than the one of English proficiency. As it was mentioned before, the higher the variance, the more heterogeneous students are. Thus, students were more homogenous in their English proficiency.

TABLE VIII.
RESULTS OF VARIANCES OF ENGLISH PROFICIENCY AND PERSIAN WRITING

	SD	Variance
English proficiency	5.73	32.83
Persian writing	7.43	55.20

Homogeneity of variances does not literally mean that they do not differ by an amount that is statistically significant. "To determine whether the samples meet the criterion of equality of variances, an *Fmax* test is used. The largest variance is always divided by the smallest variance. Unless the calculated *F* equals or exceeds the appropriate *F* critical value, it may be assumed that the variances are homogeneous and the difference is not significant"(as cited in W. Best, 2006). The 0.05 level of significance for 29 degrees of freedom had been used and the *t* critical value necessary for

rejection would be 2.045. Because the calculated t critical ratio of 1.68 did not exceed the 2.045 t table values, it was proved that there was no significant difference between the amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of L1 writing ability and L2 language proficiency to L2 writing ability.

TABLE IX.
F RATIO OF TWO VARIANCES

Degree of Freedom	29
F ratio	1.68

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

After gathering the data from intermediate language learners by using TOEFL test as a homogenizing instrument, English writing and Persian writing, their mean scores, standard deviation, reliability and correlation of determination were analyzed.

According to the first hypothesis, English proficiency contributes to English writing. As learners' knowledge in English increases, their ability will be improved as well. If learners desire to be proficient in their L2 writing, they have to enhance their vocabulary domain and grammatical knowledge. If not, their L2 writing will remain poor. Moreover, as it was proved in this study, Persian writing does not contribute to English writing. Having a certain level of proficiency in L1 writing does not lead to high ability in L2 writing. According to the results found in this study, higher ability in first language does not lead to higher ability in second language. It is possible for students who have some weaknesses in their L1 writing to have a good capability in their L2 writing. On the other hand, there were a couple of participants whose writings in Persian were really good but their L2 writings were not as good as their L1 writing. The last negotiable factor in this research was analyzing the amount of variance accounted for by the contribution of L1 writing ability and L2 proficiency to L2 writing ability the amount of variance of L1 writing was higher than the amount of variance in L2 writing. Therefore, participants' scores were more heterogeneous in their Persian writing and more homogeneous in their English writing.

This study aimed to investigate whether it is language problem or writing problem that makes this skill problematic for most of Iranian learners. Due to the outcome, it can be claimed that it is the learners L2 proficiency not L1 writing ability that causes the L2 learners to have weaknesses in writing.

Like other studies, this research had some limitations. One of them was that the results of the study came from only female EFL learners and no male took part in this research which could lead to a different result. Another point which is considered as the limitation of the present study was that the sample size was small and this could limit the generalizability of the results; thus, the findings should have been submitted with a larger sample of participants. Furthermore, this study was conducted only on university students studying English Translation and did not investigate the situation on other levels and it could be conducted on English institute students which might yield other results.

This study investigated interdependence between writing skill of two languages. Working on other skills like speaking as another productive skill could be a subject for further studies. It would be interesting to see that whether or not fluency in L1 speaking contributes to L2 speaking. Other researches could compare the impact of L1 translation on L2 writing as one of the researcher's objects in this study was to eliminate the risk of translation

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Mona Mirzaee attained her M.A in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, Sari Branch, Sari, Iran. She is teaching English in language teaching institutes for teenagers and adults. Her research interests are teaching and Second Language writing.

Amir Marzban is an assistant professor of TESOL at Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch. His research interests include conversion analysis, L2 reading & writing, CALL, and teacher education. He has published in both Iranian and International journals and also has presented in many international conferences.

An Integrated Mode Study on College English Teaching of Listening and Speaking: Based on Output-driven, Input-enabled Hypothesis

Pingping Yang

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China

Abstract—This paper discusses how college English teaching of listening and speaking can be carried out based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis. The author probes into an integrated teaching mode from the following four aspects, including the change of teacher's role, the applicability of teaching activity, the cultivation of student's comprehensive ability to apply language and the objective and effective combination of summative assessment and process assessment. In teaching process, the teacher should be aware of the close interaction between listening and speaking, the stimulation of critical thinking and the importance of culture teaching.

Index Terms—output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, college English teaching of listening and speaking, teacher's role, teaching activity, assessment

I. INTRODUCTION

The importance of English learning has already been widely recognized by most Chinese students, and at the same time they have shown the urgent need to improve their English listening and speaking ability, which is also emphasized by *The Teaching Requirements of College English Course* issued by Higher Education Department of Education Ministry in China (2007), in which there are some specific regulations about the comprehensive ability to apply language. Students can not only communicate in English in different ways in their work and social interactions, but also develop their self-learning ability and improve their overall cultural quality in order to adjust to our social development and international communication. However, in current college English teaching, input and output cannot keep the balance. Research shows that college students spend 80% of their time on the input information, that is to say, they spend little time on output. So does the listening and speaking course. The teaching content is outdated and fossilized, and the teaching pattern is comparatively fixed, so the whole class is boring, which is harmful to cultivate student's interest in English learning and communicative ability. The reform of English teaching is emergent.

Wen Qiufang, a famous scholar in China, put forward the output-driven hypothesis, and modified it into the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis after putting it into teaching practice, which implanted a whole-new idea in our English teaching reform and provided advanced theoretical support. This thesis aims to probe into a creative classroom pattern of listening and speaking course of college English based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, which is beneficial to improve college student's overall quality of English application, and is instructive and valuable to cultivate application-patterned English personnel to satisfy the development of economic globalization. This paper consists of six parts. The first part is the introduction to the paper. The second part briefly introduces the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis. The third part exposes the current problems lurking in the college English teaching to be solved. The fourth part specifically discusses the characteristics of the new teaching method. The fifth part is one example to illustrate this method. The last part is the conclusion.

II. OUTPUT-DRIVEN, INPUT-ENABLED HYPOTHESIS

There is a long history of research about the input hypothesis and the output hypothesis all over the world.

Stephen Krashen puts forward the Monitor Theory in 1980s, with the input hypothesis as its focus. The input hypothesis concludes that learners can master the target language only when they have access to sufficient "comprehensible input". According to Krashen (1985), the comprehensible input refers to the language information that is a little bit difficult to understand than learner's current level of competence. The input hypothesis gives light to the research about foreign language learning, but it focuses only on the language input and exaggerates its function and ignores the central position of learners. The large amount of comprehensible input cannot ensure the input being comprehensible unless learners are provided the quantities of opportunities for meaningful interactions.

The comprehensible output hypothesis, developed by Merrill Swain, is very famous in the field of second language acquisition. Swain indicates that the comprehensible input cannot make second language learners employ it correctly and fluently. According to Swain (1985), successful second language learners not only have access to a large amount of comprehensible input, but also produce the comprehensible output. In the process from effective input to output,

learners practice the input information stored in their brain over and over again, and finally apply it fluently. This is also the process of learner's potential language acquisition externalized. Producing a second language including speaking and writing is a part of the process of second language acquisition. The comprehensible output hypothesis proposes that output can enhance fluency and act as a means of reflecting on what is said or written, but it seems to exaggerate the function of output and separate the alternate process of input and output.

In the reform of the current curriculum and teaching methods for English majors, Wen Qiufang has made great contributions. She proposes the "output-driven hypothesis" aiming at the middle and advanced levels of English learners. According to Wen Qiufang (2008), it consists of three sub-hypotheses. Firstly, from the perspective of psychological linguistics, the output-driven hypothesis indicates output can promote second language acquisition more than input. Without being driven by output, high-quality input cannot ensure the efficiency of acquisition. Secondly, the output hypothesis proposes that cultivating learner's expressive skills—speaking, writing and translating has more social function than receptive skills—listening and reading. Thirdly, from the perspective of English teaching, the integrated approach with output oriented is more effective than the single skill training and lives up to the future employment.

After the output-driven hypothesis is put into the practical teaching, Wen Qiufang (2004) detects that there is no specific explanation about the relationship between input and output, so she modifies it into "the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis", which indicates that output acts as both the driving force and the target of language acquisition, while input is the approach to enable learners to finish the current output task, but does not only serve to cultivate learner's comprehension ability. Students need to concentrate on searching for the required language form and the concerned knowledge from the input information if they are determined to finish the output task assigned by their teacher.

III. PROBLEMS OF COLLEGE ENGLISH TEACHING

English teaching has been developed in the past thirty years and satisfied the great demand of social and economic development of our country. On the other hand, many problems lurking in the traditional English teaching method emerge gradually. Dumb English has been the target of public criticism. Although the listening and speaking ability has gained a lot of attention these years, there are still many problems to be solved because of the long-term traditional teaching method.

Firstly, the class atmosphere and the teaching method are not adequate to the development of listening and speaking abilities. Classroom atmosphere is an important factor and proof to assess teaching effect, and also a reflection of mental expression of teachers and students. Studies show that students have high learning spirits and prompt reactions so that they can internalize the learning material quickly while students may have psychological confrontation and breed passive feelings towards study if they are under the boring, rigid, tense and repressive atmosphere. A major problem of listening and speaking class of college English is that the class atmosphere is not active where teacher works as a machine to input listening material while students have little even no time or courage to express. Over time students are not willing to speak English in class.

Secondly, student's anxiety is a very important emotional factor to affect English listening and speaking. According to linguist Horwitz, language anxiety refers that learners feel anxious because of the insufficient communicative ability when learning second language or foreign language. Under the test-oriented English learning system students focus on their ability of gaining high scores and at the same time neglect their listening and speaking. They cannot understand what they have heard or speak up their ideas in the mind, which is the situation that frustrates most students, and therefore, a big anxiety is formed. This kind of anxiety makes them unwilling, embarrassed and ashamed to communicate in English, their interest in English disappearing gradually.

Thirdly, the topics in listening and speaking course are a little outdated and incommunicative and cannot arouse student's interest to communicate. English language atmosphere is in a great demand. In current colleges, English class is usually big, and almost 60 students sit in one classroom. It is very difficult to allow every student to speak out freely and organize various oral activities.

Fourthly, learners have little understanding about the background and culture of the English-speaking countries. Without the recognition of their background knowledge and culture, sometimes it is very difficult to understand what native speakers say. Without understanding what they say, learners cannot output their reply. That is to say, understanding the background knowledge and culture of English-speaking countries is vital to real communication with native speakers.

All in all, those problems lurking the current English teaching and learning system are harmful to English learners. This system needs to be reformed immediately. The output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis modified by Wen Qiufang provides a direction and guideline to college English teaching reform.

IV. CHARACTERISTICS OF NEW TEACHING METHOD

After applying the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis in the past school term, the author tries to summarize four characteristics from teaching practice over and over again as follows.

Firstly, there is a role change of teachers and students in class. The listening and speaking course of college English based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis promotes the teaching idea of teachers as the guide and students as the subject in order to motivate student's potential and desire to express and finish the output task. That is to say, all of the teaching activities need teacher's elaborate guide and student's active participation, which is very important to determine the teaching efficiency. In the last century, a teacher-centered system is dominant, where teachers have the pure authority to instill the teaching material while students have little time to participate in class teaching. In this kind of system, students only accept passively the instilled knowledge. Over time, the boring class cannot appeal to half of the students. Since the 21st century, a student-centered teaching idea, to some degree, has weakened teacher's role in the classroom teaching. Although classroom teaching is doomed to serve students, it does not mean that teachers are not important in class. Teachers are trained professionally and have a comprehensive understanding of the language system, and have a clear idea of the teaching focus and difficult points. Therefore, teachers should control the progress of the classroom teaching, adjust the teaching strategy consciously and provide help to students in time, finally reaching the best teaching and learning performance. All in all, in the class based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, teachers should be the teaching designer and manager, student's cooperater and assistant, and evaluator of learning and teaching efficiency. Teachers input language knowledge selectively and skillfully, and assign corresponding and interesting output tasks, and at the same time students search for the concerned knowledge according to the output task, and accomplish the output task with the assistance of teachers. The harmonious cooperation of teachers and students make the learning process successful and effective.

Secondly, the teaching activity should be designed practically and interestingly. When designing the class, teachers should think about student's structure of knowledge, learning aims, learning style and learning environment, and then decide the ideal teaching content, strategy of recognition, teaching procedures in order to realize the student-subjected teaching objective of improving their comprehensive ability to apply English language. On the other hand, teachers should teach students in accordance with their aptitude. When designing the teaching method, teachers should think about the different major background of learners, their individual difference and their different language performance in order to assign the output tasks, with clear intention, approximately real situation and rich language context, which are neither too easy to make learners lose their interest nor too difficult to frustrate learners at the first sight. All of these requirements are great challenges to teachers, which mean that teachers must be familiar with all the teaching material and students and know how to arouse student's enthusiasm to take part in the class activities and finish the output task wonderfully. Teachers need to search for a number of heated social topics to design appropriate output tasks. The better and more interesting the output task is, the more creativity and enthusiasm may be aroused. Internet provides great convenience and resources to teachers. Take Unit One of *New College English Listening and Speaking Course 3* as an example. The topic of that unit is about parents, a very common topic. However, if the teacher can play such video as *A Touching Interview* and *There is Nothing My Father Cannot Do*, which are very popular and clicked thousands of times, students must sympathize with the characters in the video and be encouraged to finish the output task the teacher has assigned. Thus, the successful designation of teaching activity is the first important thing in the teaching process.

Thirdly, the ability of applying language comprehensively should be cultivated. That is to say, listening, speaking, reading, writing and interpreting should be practiced at the same time. In the listening and speaking course, students need to note down the key words or the main points while they are listening. Students need to speak out what they have heard, even retell the listening material. Students need to interpret the listening material they have heard. Students need to write down the missing words in the passage while listening. Students need to summarize the main idea that they have heard. After they have understood all of the listening material, they are divided into several study groups to speak out their reflection and make oral comments on what they have heard. This kind of teaching design starts from the easier to the more difficult step by step. Teachers assign the output task first before inputting information and knowledge, which may arouse learner's thirst for knowledge. In this way, students can be motivated to study actively to the maximum and finish the assigned oral and writing tasks. The effective interaction between input and output makes all of the learning material linked perfectly.

Fourthly, the assessment system must be objective and effective. The summative assessment is not suitable to assess learner's level of language application. The process assessment is a good supplementary approach. Learner's comprehensive ability to apply English can be shown only through the combination between the summative assessment and the process assessment. In the listening and speaking class, the output of language is the main objective. What needs to be assessed is the ability to apply the English language, that is to say, to accomplish something in English, instead of the knowledge of English language. Therefore, the summative assessment at the end of term is not sufficient, and the process assessment in the daily learning is more valuable and important. Every student can also see clearly his or her own progress on English learning through this kind of progressive assessment, which will increase their interest and courage to learn English. The more they speak, the better they speak. The positive cycle make them more enthusiastic to learn English. Students pay more attention to class participation and are more active to accomplish the output task. All of these make class atmosphere more active and harmonious. The combination of these two kinds of assessment approaches can also show learner's performance more objectively. In addition, the feasibility of assessment should be ensured. Teachers should make students know the clear standard of assessment and establish a diversified assessment system including learner's self-assessment, mutual assessment and teacher's test and assessment. Teachers

can divide students into several groups. When one group is presenting their oral task, other groups can be judges and make their comments. In this way, all learners participate effectively, and their output of listening and speaking ability is reflected objectively. The combination of these two approaches of assessment can truthfully show learner's progress and their current expressive ability.

V. ONE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLE

In this part, the author tries to illustrate how to design a teaching activity and implement the whole teaching process based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis. Take Unit 4 from *New College English Listening and Speaking Course 3* as an example. The topic is about marriage, a topic easily arousing student's enthusiasm. The whole class (including two periods of class) is divided into 5 steps. The first step is a lead-in introduction to the topic. The second step is to assign the output task. The third step is to input the concerned information. The fourth step is student's preparation of the output task. The last step is the presentation and assessment.

A. *Lead-in Introduction*

When leading into the topic, the teacher can use some beautiful pictures or videos of love and marriage or quote some classical words to arouse student's interest in the topic, giving a vivid description of marriage. Meanwhile the teacher also mentions there are a lot of challenges and troubles in the daily marriage life, including many trifles not worth mentioning. The teacher can ask their students some questions like this: what's your attitude towards love and marriage? What is your standard of choosing a future spouse? What is crucial for a happy marriage? How should husband and wife deal with these challenges and troubles in their real life? Have you heard of marriage agreements? Do you think a couple should sign an agreement before getting married? After the teacher asks these questions, students may have some time to hold a discussion. Through these questions step by step, students are led to the focus of the unit—marriage agreement.

B. *The Assignment*

After the warm-up introduction and discussion, the teacher begins to assign the output task. The teacher can divide the class into several groups, each group including four or five persons. According to the above discussion, the teacher can assign two output tasks. The oral task is to present your idea on the marriage agreement. Students may give their answers based on questions like: Do you think a marriage agreement is necessary to a happy marriage? Is marriage agreement harmful to romantic love? Is marriage like a business if the marriage agreement is signed? The written task is to decide a marriage agreement based on the discussion of group members.

C. *The Input Information*

Before playing the listening task, the teacher should briefly explain the new words first. When students are listening first, they should try to finish Exercise 1, choosing the right answers to the questions. When they are listening again, they should try to write down some important information to complete the missing answers. When they are listening the third time, the teacher should ask students to summarize the main idea of the conversation and repeat some mentioned articles in their marriage agreement. These three tasks get from the easiest to a little difficult. The teacher should choose some students to share their answers according to their language ability.

D. *The Preparation for Output Task*

When students are preparing their output task, the teacher should offer proper help in time according to student's individual ability of applying language. Study group should be divided reasonably. There should be at least one student good at speaking English. Therefore, others group members can be encouraged to take part in the discussion. In this process, students are encouraged to search for more information. For example, they are allowed to search for the concerned information online. At last, every group should select one representative to present a speech as their group opinion. Besides, they should turn on a written task of marriage agreement that all of the group members discuss altogether.

E. *The Presentation Assessment*

The assessment is a very important part of the output. When one group is presenting their idea on marriage agreement, other groups should be concentrated on the speaker. This is also a very good chance to practice their listening and test if they can understand their classmate's speaking. In this process, they may get a lot of benefits. They can learn from those students who are better than themselves in oral presentation. They can also find the mistakes their classmates have made in their speech so as to avoid similar mistakes happening. After the presentation is finished, the teacher should make a pointed comment according to the speaker's performance. Keep in mind that the teacher's assessment should be specific and focus on the highlight of the presentation. The teacher's pointed and effective assessment will encourage students more because students will be more enthusiastic when they get teacher's recognition. At the same time, students need to offer their comments and assessment. A further interaction, even a debate is easier to arouse student's interest. At last, the speaker himself gives his own assessment. After the teacher and classmates offer their comments, the speaker may be motivated and produce more creative ideas, and at the same time it is a process of reflection.

VI. CONCLUSION

Based on the output-driven, input-enabled hypothesis, this paper probes into an integrated mode of college English teaching of listening and speaking. After a teaching practice for a whole term, the feasibility of this integrated teaching mode can be ensured. When the integrated teaching mode is implemented, there are the following three points that can never be neglected. Firstly, in the listening and speaking course, speaking, as a form of output, is both the drive and aim, while listening is an approach to input information, enabling learners to complete the output task. Therefore, listening and speaking are interactive and closely connected. The applicableness of the input information is very important. The more relevant the input information and the output task are, the more enthusiasm learners can invest. In this way, the learning efficiency can be ensured. Secondly, when inputting information, the teacher should pay attention to learner's critical thinking and self-study ability. Critical thinking and self-study ability are very necessary for high-quality personnel and in a great demand in the future career. To cultivate these two kinds of ability is beneficial for students to adjust to the development of the future society and career. Finally, language teaching and culture teaching should be integrated. As students have improved their ability of applying English language, teachers should pay more attention to the culture teaching and improve their intercultural communication ability. These two are also interactive.

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Pingping Yang was born in Zhucheng, China in 1980. She received her Master Degree in English Language and Literature from Wuhan University, China in 2006.

She is currently a lecturer in the School of Foreign Languages, Qingdao University of Science and Technology, Qingdao, China. Her research interests include English and American literature.

On the Relationship between Critical Thinking Ability, Language Learning Strategies, and Reading Comprehension of Male and Female Intermediate EFL University Students

Amir Marzban

Department of English Language, Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr Branch, Qaemshahr, Iran

Zahra Barati

Allameh Mohaddes Nouri University, Mazandaran, Iran

Abstract—This study was going to investigate the relationship between critical thinking ability, language learning strategies, and reading comprehension of male and female Iranian intermediate EFL university students majoring in English translation and English teaching at Tehran Azad University, South Branch. The participants chosen were 100 EFL learners that after homogenizing 79 remained. This study was a correlational one. For the purpose of this study, California Critical Thinking Skill Test (CCTST), Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL), and reading section of the TOEFL test were administered. Data were analyzed based on the questionnaires and they were submitted to the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 22.0 for analysis. The Pearson- product moment correlation proved that there was a significant positive relationship between critical thinking ability and reading comprehension, as well as a positive relationship between language learning strategies and reading comprehension was found. Reading comprehension was considered as dependent variable. Finally, in order to find whether there was any difference between males and females in terms of critical thinking ability and their language learning strategy use an independent sample t-test was run. The findings revealed that there was not any significant difference between the performances of male and female participants in terms of critical thinking and their language learning strategy use. The findings of this study will be helpful for material developers, syllabus designers and EFL teachers.

Index Terms—critical thinking, language learning strategies, and reading comprehension

I. INTRODUCTION

Thinking is an exceptional process in people lives which helps them solve the problems they are faced with, make appropriate decisions, and obtain the purposes that gives their life satisfaction (Chaffee, 2010). In the modern society, the ability to think critically and to question the validity of the claims when weighing evidence before decision making is very important. John Dewey (1993) was the first person who spoke about the importance of reflective thinking about 70 years ago (Richardson, Morgan, & Fleener 2009). An essential element of learning is fostering students' potentiality and teaching them critical thinking skills. Language learners may read different types of texts. Reading will be useful when the learners can apply critical thinking skills and language learning strategies. Both critical thinking skills and language learning strategies are essential factors in the development of reading skill. As Chaffee (2010) states "critical thinking is an activity that is crucial for living in a meaningful way. College provides students with a unique opportunity to develop their mind in the fullest sense. As they are introduced to various disciplines, they learn new ways to understand the world, and they elevate their consciousness as a result" (p. 4). Critical thinking is one's mental power that expresses complicated opinions, whereby, one can predict evidence and make logical judgment, and then give suitable attention to context (Moon, 2008). Critical thinking skills help students to be skeptical and enable them to analyze and interpret opinions. These skills help them to make more instructed decisions about the accuracy and effectiveness of propositions. Those students who develop critical thinking skills can go beyond the surface of the subjects they are studying and engage in critical statements and arguments (Cottrell, 2005).

For a learning process be effective, students should be able to apply both critical thinking skills and language learning strategies in an appropriate way. Different definitions of language learning strategies are proposed by many researchers but Oxford presented a more comprehensive strategy system. Language learning strategies are definite actions which are used by the learner to facilitate learning and to make it more pleasing, more self-directed, more effective, and later can be conveyed to new contexts (Oxford, 1990).

One of the most important skills which has been taken into account in recent years is the ability to read in a foreign language. As Chastain (1988) says "reading is the skill in which the students will have the greatest ability at the end of a

course emphasizing the four language skills. It is the skill that students will have the most opportunities to use and that they can use most comfortably” (p. 219). Grellet (1981) says that “reading is an active skill....it constantly involves guessing, predicting, checking, and asking oneself questions” (as cited in Chastain, 1988, p. 223). Some believe that many facets of reading express useful problem-solving strategies in order to solve various difficulties in reading. In 1917, Thorndike described reading as a process of drawing conclusions. Many of the strategies which are applied by readers to realize meanings approach to logical processes as deduction and inference, and also skilled readers are those who are able to think obviously. Thinking critically about what is being read is an important way of stressing reflection. By fortifying the reading experience through critical thinking, teachers can make students to think about the materials in new ways (Alderson, 2000). Effective readers are capable of analyzing, evaluating, synthesizing, and interpreting what is being read with regard to the content of the materials. They can use background knowledge in order to make inferences from texts and use different strategies during reading. They are also able to think about the materials and to evaluate them while they are reading the texts. One of the requirements of the modern world is the existence of skillful readers and high-level thinkers. A reader is capable of processing a text at higher levels of thinking process during deep comprehension. The reader can make the meaning by using Benjamin Bloom’s taxonomy of critical thinking (1956) which composed of evaluation, synthesis, analysis, and interpretation. Good readers can check own comprehension, interpret and summarize materials as they read, and process text at complicated levels of thinking. Finally, skilled readers can discuss what is being read deeply (Tankersley, 2003).

In second language learning, reading critically is important and leads to lifelong learning, especially in academic settings and one of the requirements for language learners has been making use of critical thinking skills in an appropriate way. Critical reading needs some skills and attitudes which are built around a group of related critical questions. While students learn these skills, their goal will be the application of these skills together to find the most appropriate decisions. Thinking carefully is always an unfinished project. Critical questions act as stimulus for critical thinking; they help students make better decisions and judgments (Browne and Keeley, 2007). Because of the importance and the influential effects of critical thinking ability and language learning strategies in the process of learning the four language skills especially reading skill, more research is needed to evaluate its efficacy.

Regarding the issues mentioned so far, the present study has been investigated the relationship between critical thinking ability, language learning strategies, and reading comprehension of Iranian intermediate EFL male and female students. For this purpose language learning strategies and the critical thinking skills has been taken into account while giving the reading section of TOEFL test.

The present study has answered the following questions:

- 1) Is there any relationship between critical thinking ability, language learning strategies, and reading comprehension?
- 2) Is there any statistically significant difference between critical thinking ability of males and females?
- 3) Is there any statistically significant difference between males and females in their language learning strategy use?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Benjamin Bloom’s Taxonomy of Critical Thinking

Human thinking skills have been classified by Benjamin Bloom (1956) into six important classes of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation which composed his cognitive domain. ‘Knowledge’ is the lowest level in the cognitive domain and is the ability to remember the previously learned materials either by recall or recognition. Knowledge is classified from the specific and concrete materials to the intricate and abstract ones. ‘Comprehension’ is the lowest level of understanding which comes after knowledge. It is the ability to understand the meaning of the materials and use them without necessarily relating them to other materials. ‘Application’ is the ability to use abstract materials in concrete situations, in other words, the ability to apply the previously learned materials to appropriate situations in life. ‘Analysis’ is the ability to breakdown materials into its separate parts in order to make ideas clear. It enables one to distinguish between facts and inferences. ‘Synthesis’ refers to the ability to put parts together in order to make a new whole. It contains the process of working with parts and then arranging and combining them in order to make a clear pattern. This category stresses creative behaviors on the part of the learner. ‘Evaluation’ is the last level of the taxonomy and the most complex one because it involves the combination of all the other levels of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, and synthesis. Evaluation is the ability to judge the value of the materials and ideas for a given purpose based on some criteria and standards to make sure about the accuracy and effectiveness of the materials (Bloom, 1956).

Here is a concise summary of some researches that show the importance of teaching critical thinking skills in educational settings and also in various contexts;

Several studies confirmed the relationship between critical thinking and reading comprehension.

A study was conducted by Fahim, Bagherkazemi, & Alemi (2010) to explore the relationship between test takers’ critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading test of TOEFL. To this end, 83 EFL learners were asked to complete Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (WGCTA), and a test of reading. The findings showed that those with high level of critical thinking skills were performed better than low level critical thinkers. Moreover, a positive correlation was reported between critical thinking ability and their performance on the reading test.

A study was conducted by Dehghani, Jafari Sani, Pakmehr, and Malekzadeh (2011) to investigate the relationship between students' self-efficacy and critical thinking among university students. General Self-efficacy Scale and the CCTST were completed by 216 students. The result of this study showed that there was a significant positive relationship between students' self-efficacy and critical thinking. Hence, to develop students' critical thinking skills, self-efficacy should be taken into account. Furthermore, the researchers did not find any significant difference between students' critical thinking by gender.

B. Taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies

Language learning strategies have been classified by many scholars but Oxford (1990) presented a more conclusive and detailed framework. Language Learning strategies are steps which are used by students to increase their own learning. These steps can help learners to acquire, store, retrieve, and apply the material. Language learning strategies are classified into direct and indirect classes. Also, these two classes are composed of the subclasses of memory, cognitive, and compensation under the direct class; and metacognitive, affective, and social under the indirect class. These two classes support each other, and that each strategy group is capable of making connection to every other strategy group (Oxford, 1990).

Several studies confirmed the relationship between language learning strategies and reading comprehension.

A study was conducted by Onur Cesur (2011) to investigate the relationship between Turkish university students' language learning strategies and their achievement in reading comprehension skill. The participants were 368 university prep class students who completed Oxford's (1990) SILL and the English Language Placement Test. The results of this study showed a significant correlation between language learning strategies such as cognitive, memory, and compensation and students' achievement in reading comprehension in foreign language.

A study was conducted by Kaur and Embi (2011) to identify and compare the language learning strategies used by male and female primary school students. For the purpose of this study a background information questionnaire and a bilingual Language Strategy Use Questionnaire were applied. According to the results, a significant difference was found in the overall use of strategies between both male and female students. Furthermore, female students showed higher tendency of using overall language learning strategies than that of their male counterparts.

A study was conducted by F. Salahshour, Sharif, and N. Salahshour (2013) to investigate the relationship between choice of learning strategies and their frequency among male and female Iranian high school students by considering their level of proficiency. The results of this study revealed that learning strategies were used with medium frequency; metacognitive strategies had the most frequency of usage, while cognitive strategies had the least frequency of usage. Furthermore, the use of learning strategies regarding the students' proficiency level and gender was investigated. Those students with a high level of proficiency used more strategies, as well as more use of metacognitive and social strategies. According to results, female students used learning strategies more than male students.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants contributed to this study were 100 EFL students, majoring in English translation and English teaching at Azad university of Tehran, South Branch. They consisted of both male and female students, ranging in age from 20 to 32 years old. They were selected based on convenient sampling. There were 60 female and 40 male students that after homogenizing 31 male and 48 female remained. Also in this study the participants' gender as an essential variable has been taken into account.

B. Instrumentation

Nelson proficiency test was administered for the purpose of measuring the participants' level of proficiency. For the purpose of the current study, the researcher piloted it on a group of 20 EFL students in the context of Iran and the Cronbach's alpha turned out to be .76.

The Persian version of the California Critical Thinking Skill Test (CCTST), Form B was employed to determine participants' critical thinking ability. It has been designed to measure students' critical thinking ability at university level.

The Persian Version of California Critical Thinking Skill Test consists of 34 multiple-choice questions each followed by 4 or 5 alternatives. The reliability of CCTST was .62 (Khalili & Hosseinzadeh, 2003).

Oxford's SILL version of 7.0 was administered to measure the language learning strategies of participants. This questionnaire includes 50 items and consists of five major parts, and designed to gather information about how students of a second or foreign language learn English. According to Oxford (1990) mean scores that occur between 1 and 2.4 can be classified as low, mean scores that occur between 2.5 and 3.4 can be classified as medium, and mean scores that occur between 3.5 and 5 can be classified as high strategy use. For this purpose it was piloted on a group of 20 EFL students and the reliability estimate of the test using Cronbach's alpha turned out to be .89.

The reading section of the TOEFL test was applied in order to realize the participants reading comprehension ability. The test was composed of 25 items. The test is a standard test and its reliability and validity is approved. However, for

the purpose of this study, the researcher piloted it on a group of 20 EFL students in the context of Iran and the Cronbach's alpha turned out to be .65.

C. Procedure

First, to homogenize the participants Nelson test of language proficiency was administered. It consisted of 50 multiple choice items and it took around 45 minutes for the participants to complete the test. Nelson proficiency test measure the participants' general knowledge on grammar and vocabulary. Those who scored between one standard deviation above and below the mean score were selected to take part in this study. Second, to determine the participants' critical thinking ability, the Persian version of California Critical Thinking Skill Test (CCTST) Form B with 34 items was administered to measure their critical thinking skills in each of the five skills of critical thinking. It took around 45 minutes for the participants to complete the test. Third, the questionnaire of Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) version 7.0 with 50 items was used to reveal the extent to which the Iranian EFL students use language learning strategies. It took around 30 minutes for the participants to complete the questionnaire. And finally, the reading section of the TOEFL test was administered to find out the reading comprehension ability of the participants. The test included 3 passages, followed by 25 items. Therefore, the time allotted to take this test was 25 minutes.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

In order to answer research question one, the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to ensure the relationship between critical thinking and reading comprehension. By calculating the correlation (table 1), the researcher found that there is positive correlation between these two variables.

TABLE 1.
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN CALIFORNIA CRITICAL THINKING SKILL TEST AND READING COMPREHENSION

		Critical Thinking	Reading Comprehension
Critical Thinking	Pearson Correlation	1	.307**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.006
	N	79	79
Reading Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	.307**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.006	
	N	79	79

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

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was found to be .307 which is high and significant (P-value= .006<0.01). Also the Pearson correlation (.307) is higher than the Critical value of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (.301) with degree freedom of (N-2=77). This shows that there exists a positive relationship between the participants' critical thinking ability and their reading comprehension scores. The result is in accordance with the findings of Fahim et al. (2010) came to the conclusion that test takers with higher critical thinking abilities showed better performance on reading comprehension section of TOEFL.

The other part of the research question one is that whether there is a relationship between language learning strategies and reading comprehension. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to ensure the relationship between language learning strategies and reading comprehension. By calculating the correlation (table 2), the researcher found that there is positive correlation between these two variables.

TABLE 2.
THE CORRELATION BETWEEN LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES AND READING COMPREHENSION

		Language Learning Strategies	Reading Comprehension
Language Learning Strategies	Pearson Correlation	1	.586**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	79	79
Reading Comprehension	Pearson Correlation	.586**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	
	N	79	79

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

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was found to be .586 which is high and significant (P-value= .000<0.05). Also the Pearson correlation (.586) is higher than the Critical value of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient (.231) with degree freedom of (N-2=77). This shows that there exists a positive relationship between the participants' language learning strategy use and their reading comprehension scores. The results of this study support the findings of Onur Cesur (2012), in which he found that language learning strategies have direct influence on the achievement in reading comprehension in foreign language significantly.

Table 3 shows the mean scores of male and female participants on their critical thinking ability.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CRITICAL THINKING ABILITY

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Critical Thinking	male	31	12.16	2.684	.482
	female	48	11.69	2.815	.406

As table 3 shows, the mean score of male participants at critical thinking is 12.16 and the mean score of female participants at critical thinking is 11.69. This shows that there is not a significant difference between male and female participants' critical thinking. The concrete realization of the results has been shown in bar graph (Fig. 1).

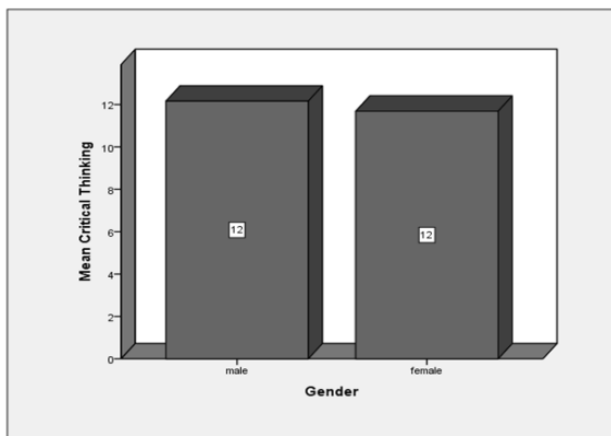


Figure 1. Group Mean Scores For The Comparison Between Males And Females Critical Thinking

“Fig. 1” indicates that the difference between critical thinking of both males and females is non-significant. An independent sample t-test was used to explore whether the difference between male and female participants in terms of their critical thinking ability (table 4) is significant.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF CRITICAL THINKING

		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
Critical Thinking	Equal variances assumed	.000	.984	.744	77	.459	.474	.637	-.795	1.742
	Equal variances not assumed			.751	66.365	.455	.474	.630	-.785	1.732

As table 4 shows, the sig. of Levene's test is (.984) that is higher than .05. This indicates that the difference between males' and females' critical thinking is non-significant and the sig. of the t-test is (.459) which is higher than .05, so there is not any difference between male and female participants' critical thinking ability and it can be concluded that gender is not an effective element in the ways of thinking. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. The results of this study support the findings of Myers and Dyer (2006); Dehghani et al. (2011). In these two studies, it was found that there were no differences between the critical thinking skills of male and female students.

Table 5 shows the mean scores of male and female participants on their language learning strategies.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Language Learning Strategies	male	31	3.097	.4644	.0834
	female	48	3.188	.4893	.0706

As table 5 shows, the mean score of male participants' language learning strategies is 3.097 and the mean score of female participants' language learning strategies is 3.188. This shows that there is not a significant difference between male and female participants' language learning strategy use. The concrete realization of the results has been shown in bar graph (Fig 2).

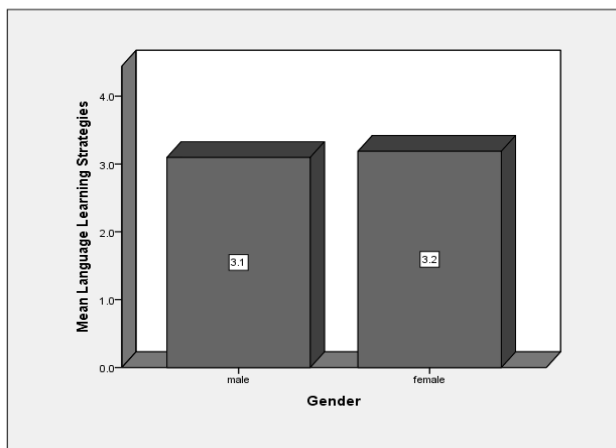


Figure 2. Group Mean Scores For The Comparison Between Males And Females Language Learning Strategies

“Fig. 2” indicates that the difference between language learning strategies of both males and females is non-significant. An independent sample t-test was used to explore whether the difference between male and female participants in terms of their language learning strategy use (table 5) is significant.

TABLE. 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES

		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
Language Learning Strategies	Equal variances assumed	.070	.792	-.821	77	.414	-.0907	.1105	-.3108	.1294
	Equal variances not assumed			-.830	66.591	.409	-.0907	.1093	-.3089	.1274

As the table 6 shows, the sig. of Levene’s test is (.792) that is higher than .05. This indicates that the difference between males’ and females’ language learning strategy use is non-significant and also the sig. of the t-test is (.414) which is higher than .05, so there is no difference between male and female participants in terms of their language learning strategy use and it can be concluded that gender is not an effective factor in the ways of using language learning strategies. Therefore the null hypothesis is accepted. This result does not support the findings of Salahshour et al. (2012); Kaur and Embi (2011) in which they reported that females used language learning strategies more frequently than males.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Critical thinking ability is one of the most important skills that should be acquired by students while reading a text along with the usage of appropriate language learning strategies. To sum up, this study indicated that there was a positive relationship between critical thinking ability and reading comprehension ability of Iranian EFL learners in general. Moreover, a positive relationship was observed between Iranian EFL learners’ between their language learning strategies and reading comprehension. It means that improvements in critical thinking and their language learning strategies are paralleled by improvements in reading comprehension. In order to act impressively in the modern society, solve various problems, and encourage autonomic learning, everyone must have the capability of thinking critically and reasoning efficiently. Since a significant relationship was found between the critical thinking ability and reading comprehension, it can be concluded that utilization of critical thinking skills can help students to enhance their understanding in reading. Since the participants in this study did not get acceptable grades in critical thinking test, therefore, applicable course books and materials that invoke critical thinking must be compiled for higher educational purposes and also for those who are studying English academically. Moreover, the difference between critical thinking and strategy use of males and females was also investigated. The results showed that there is no difference between these two groups in the use of their critical thinking ability and language learning strategies. So it can be concluded that gender is not an influential factor in students’ ways of thinking and language learning strategy use.

This study will be useful to the university students, since there is not much attention given to the way they read. Actually, the process of their leaning is largely ignored.

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Amir Marzban is an assistant professor of TESOL at Islamic Azad University, Qaemshahr branch. His research interests include conversation analysis, L2 reading & writing, CALL, and teacher education. He has published in both Iranian and International journals and also has presented in many international conferences.

Zahra Barati was born in Tehran, Iran in 1987. She received her MA degree in TEFL from Allameh Mohaddes Nouri University, Iran in 2015.

She is teaching English in language institutes in Tehran. Her research interests are reading comprehension and psychological studies regarding foreign language learning.

The Impact of Task-type Based Vocabulary Instruction on Incidental Word Retention

Elaheh Touti

University of Applied Science and Technology (UAST), Tehran, Iran

Roohollah Maleki

Department of English Language, Shahid Sattari Aeronautical University of Science and Technology, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—Having a good knowledge of vocabulary is a passport to helpful communication. Both theoretical and empirical investigations in the area of L2 incidental vocabulary were taken into account through executing a study comparing the impacts of two types of lexically-oriented tasks at text level (i.e. gap-fill & writing) on the extent of EFL learners' recollection of newly-encountered words. Pursuing this purpose, 64 Iranian EFL learners at intermediate level were selected and then assigned into two experimental groups labelled fill-in group and writing group. This study includes a research question addressing "do lexically-oriented tasks at text level provide better incidental vocabulary recall than gap-fill tasks do? This study, due to the absence of any control group, applied a quasi-experimental design. Statistically speaking, both quantitative and qualitative data were provided. This study used a t-test to compare the mean scores of the two groups. The writing group finally benefited from the outcomes of the study due to the innate mental investment aroused by being engaged in the writing task. The contingency of task engagement rests on the three contributive components (need, search, and evaluation) which could yield the conducive involvement.

Index Terms—task-type, incidental words, word-focused tasks, retention rate

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary occupies the broadest zone of linguistic knowledge in SLA, and thus highly prone to attrition, both in individuals and in language communities (Stringer, D., & Bardovi-Harling, K., 2010, Gass, 2004). Nowadays, the significance of vocabulary manipulation both in the acquisition of one's native language and domineering a foreign language is universally favoured (Morra & Comba, 2009). Vocabulary learning has been taken as an indispensable component in acquiring a second language (L2), since learners should hold vast lexical knowledge to speak, to read, to write, and to gain rich knowledge in L2 (Schmitt, 2008). Hulstijn et al. (2005) believe that unfamiliarity with the meaning of the words appearing in a text seriously paralyze comprehension. Moreover, lexicon constitutes the backbone of language absorption and language utilization (Hunt & Beglar, 2005) In a word, the importance of vocabulary to the English learner is second to none.

Almost every language teaching deals with inviting its learners to grab the knowledge necessary to guarantee productive and communicative use of target language. This purpose could at least seem to be unattainable by only resorting to direct teaching which requires applying the most traditional way of vocabulary instruction. Excessive dependence on direct mode of teaching lexicon, nevertheless, has been impugned due to investing ample time and yielding limited lexical rewards. Direct instruction also, due to a great demand of time and attention to be focused on multiple aspects of language skills, may not solely result in expected uptake and learners' need to such instruction is not assured.

In view of the crucial participatory role of lexicon, it is astonishing that naturally scant class time has been allocated to lexical instruction in general and incidental vocabulary in particular or in case of much time allocation, teaching vocabulary is prone to employing less appropriate useful vocabulary tasks. Vocabulary deficiencies are a primary cause of academic failure, which would impede students' ability to succeed and master a thorough comprehension to overcome communicative obstacles. Furthermore, learners' lexical repertory could be escalated through employing effective tasks inducing sufficient mental efforts conducive to the expected vocabulary retention. The lack of such purposeful tasks in fact prevents students from being involved in mental efforts and making lexical associations that guarantee solid storage and efficient retrieval.

In the realm of vocabulary acquisition, researchers concern with two principles: intentional and incidental absorption of lexical items pursuing direct teaching of vocabulary and dealing with content respectively (Hulstijn, 2001; Nation, 2001). Nonetheless, instructing lexical items through utilizing an intentional module of teaching addresses proceeding with tasks primarily seeking lexical growth. However, learning vocabulary predominantly through extensive reading is labeled incidental learning of vocabulary (Huckin & Coady, 1999; Robinson, 2005; Nakata, 2008). Vocabulary learning tasks contribute greatly to boosting, fortifying, and improving the learners' knowledge of new words.

Two of the most commonly used types of written vocabulary tasks in ESL and EFL classrooms are blank fill-in (i.e. cloze) and writing tasks. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) and Folse's (2000) studies aligned with limited number of investigations embarked on examining the two tasks of gap-fill and writing. The tasks they tried to examine included a) dealing with comprehension inquiries, b) gap-fill and c) writing. The outcomes verified the superiority of writing, due to inducing higher mental efforts as its inborn feature, over the other two tasks in promoting learning and retention of incidental words. In fact, Hulstijn and Laufer compared the two types of tasks at the text level, while Folse conducted his study aiming at comparing the two types of activities at the sentence level. Different outcomes were attained from both studies with regard to the effectiveness of the two types of treatment (i.e. fill-in-the-blank and writing) (San Mateo Valdehita, 2003; 2004, p.32). Laufer (2001) indicated that better results could be obtained if reading were accompanied by word-focused tasks. Rott, Williams and Cameron (2002) asserted that embedding vocabulary items in tasks using dictionary or getting benefit from glossed provisions of the words could culminate in better lexical absorption than those presented in reading-alone exercises. Therefore, language learners and language teaching professionals are looking for purpose-built tasks to widen learners' lexical repository efficiently.

The focus of this study is captured on discovering the effects the two types of lexically-oriented tasks at text level (i.e. gap-fill and writing) have on the EFL learners' recall of unknown words and consequently looking for the most influential task in terms of representing better memory traces in the learners' recall of newly-encountered lexical items. Moreover, the findings of this study targets a specific type of audience, namely teachers, textbook writers, materials designers, and curriculum leaders who should attempt to take the advantage of the results addressing the goal of any language teaching program, in improving their lessons and syllabuses in order to empower learners acquire new words more quickly and efficiently. The study, also contributes increasingly to a comprehensive writing theory which puts lots of emphasis on the miraculous role of the task of writing in enhancing the retention of the incidental vocabulary.

With respect to the effect of employing vocabulary-based tasks on learners' retention rate of unknown words, previous studies (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001) conducted a study aiming at investigating the effect of three tasks of reading comprehension with marginal glosses, reading-based gap-fill in questions, and composition writing on learners' recall of unknown words. However, no research has so far been conducted comparing specifically the effect of the two tasks of fill-in and writing at text-level on learners' retention rate of incidental words. The need for conducting such a research in literature in fact captures the focus of this study to address this concern meticulously in the hope for to coming up with findings conducive to second language instruction and learners' progress in incidental vocabulary recall.

II. THE INVOLVEMENT LOAD HYPOTHESIS

Schmidt (2008) maintained that the more immense learners engross in novel lexically-oriented tasks, the higher their chance will be in word absorption. In their search for an operationalizable definition of the depth of processing theory (Craik & Lockhart, 1972), Laufer and Hulstijn introduced the Involvement Load Hypothesis consisting of three principal constituents: need, search and evaluation. The first constituent stimulates motivation addressing a mentally-free facet of involvement. There exist two levels of prominence for need, including moderate and strong distinguished regarding external-internal demarcation. For instance, the moderate level of need arises by an external trigger (e.g. the need to diagnose the meaning of a lexical item in a sentence as has been asked by the teacher). The strong level of need arises as learners proceed with a self-oriented attempt in dealing with a task. (e.g. the need to check the word from a dictionary while composing a piece of writing).

Two levels of prominence belong to the evaluation constituent. The employment of a novel lexical item within an intended sentence is required for the moderate level to be aroused. However, generating authentic sentences addresses the strong level of evaluation, since it allows learners to recognize the way in which words can be assembled coherently. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) asserted that all of the three constituents may not gather together concurrently while dealing with a reading activity, and what includes the involvement load supports the synthetic presence of these constituents with their levels of prominence. Involvement Load Hypothesis holds that learners display various responses through being engaged in different tasks. Nevertheless, comparing various tasks and deciding on their level of involvement unrealistically is beyond our ability. Consequently, researchers tried to shift the theoretical concept of involvement load into a quantifiable notion of task-induced engagement. Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) declared that the primary tenet concerning involvement load entails the contingency of the recollection of unfamiliar words on the level of task engagement in deciphering these words. In their attempt to operationalize depth of processing, Hulstijn and Laufer proposed an index for different levels of task engagement, in which 0 belongs to the nonattendance of a constituent, 1 belongs to a moderate attendance of a constituent and 2 belongs to a strong attendance of a constituent. The concept of involvement can be measured empirically by designing tasks accompanied by different levels of need, search and evaluation seeking to calibrate learners' extent of recall of the novel words. For instance, to witness any relationship between the degree of task engagement and word recall, tasks enjoying various indexes of involvement can be undertaken by learners and the outcomes can be ultimately examined. Below discusses the previous empirical studies conducted on involvement load hypothesis.

III. EMPIRICAL STUDIES ON INVOLVEMENT LOAD HYPOTHESIS

The emergence of the concept of Involvement Load Hypothesis encouraged Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) to conduct a study pursuing the aim of investigating the impact of the degree of task engagement on immediate and delayed recall of 10 unfamiliar lexical items by advanced EFL learners in two different experiments. Three tasks accompanied by diverse levels of involvement were compared in their study. The employed tasks were a reading comprehension equipped with marginal descriptions, reading comprehension aligned with gap-fill, and composing a piece of writing utilizing the candidate words to which 1, 2, and 3 indexes of task engagement were allocated respectively.

Regarding the degree of task engagement, the first task induced moderate need. However, it came up with the nonattendance of search or evaluation constituent. Therefore, the index of task engagement equaled 1 (1+0+0). The second task came with the moderate attendance of need constituent and an absence of search constituent and the presence of moderate evaluation, since the lexical words were expected to be inserted in a set context. Thus, the index of task engagement belonged to this task equaled 2 (1+0+1). Students in the third task were asked to compose a piece of writing employing the ten target lexical items the meanings of which were provided marginally aligned with example sentences. The third task came up with moderate need, an absence of search and the presence of strong evaluation, since students made attempts to embed the target words in their piece of writing, therefore, the index of task engagement equaled 3 (1+0+2). Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) with respect to the involvement load hypothesis documented that task 3 (i.e. lexically-accompanied composition writing) was reported to trigger the highest degree of recall of the candidate words. The other two tasks (i.e. reading comprehension aligned with gap-fill and reading comprehension) were reported to yield less and least degree of recall respectively.

Productive use of vocabulary (e.g., through writing sentences), as proposed by Hulstijn and Laufer endorses the high involvement load induced and thus facilitates lexical learning. In this sense, the results are also in harmony with previous literature in concluding that deeper involvement with vocabulary-based tasks contributes measurably to the lexical acquisition (Hill & Laufer, 2003; San Mateo Valdehita, 2003, 2004; Laufer, 2004; Rosa & Leow, 2004; Sanchez, 2004).

Kim (2008) conducted an experiment with 40 young adult English as L2 learners, from nine countries, who spoke 18 different L1s. The purpose of the study addressed the investigation of whether the effect of the two activities (e.g. writing original sentences or a composition employing the target words in both cases) enjoying equal theoretical mental effort or involvement load (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001), is the same on the concurrent association of novel words with the mental lexicon and also on their recall. Kim (2008) taking the involvement load hypothesis into account believed that the same degree of engagement in two lexical-oriented tasks should engender identical outcomes of lexical absorption. An adaptation of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS) (Paribakht & Wesche, 1993) was used in the post-tests to gauge vocabulary knowledge; the first one was administered immediately after the learning task and the delayed post-test two weeks later. The analysis of results revealed the difference between the two tasks (i.e. composition and sentence writing), involving “a moderate *need*, no *search*, and strong *evaluation*”, (Kim, 2008, p. 310) was not significant; thus these activities both yielded equal effect in enhancing vocabulary in L2.

By stating the deficiencies of Hulstijn and Laufer’s (2001) study, Keating (2008) in a study examined the impact of higher mentally-induced tasks on less competent learners’ same lexical absorption on passive and active tests. Three tasks with various degrees of involvement were the target of Keating’s study with one of which Spanish learners were required to deal with. The treatment tasks consisted of reading comprehension equipped with marginal descriptions, reading comprehension aligned with gap-fill, and sentence generation accompanied by the candidate words. Meeting the purpose of Keating’s study, the participants underwent the third task due to possessing higher mental efforts. Having completed the task, learners were administered two passive and active tests after two weeks and their recall of the candidate words was gauged accordingly. The outcomes obtained from both immediate and delayed passive tests though not absolutely supported the involvement load hypothesis demonstrated the most immense recall and the highest score in terms of reading comprehension accompanied by gap-fill and sentence generation accompanied by the target words learner were expected to employ, compared to reading comprehension with marginal descriptions. Nonetheless, the task of sentence generation accompanied by candidate words did not exhibit higher efficacy than reading comprehension accompanied by gap-fill. Contrarily, the results reported elevating lexical recall for the task of sentence generation equipped with candidate words and the task of reading comprehension plus gap-fill compared to the task of reading comprehension with marginal descriptions. Nevertheless, learners in the task of sentence generation accompanied by the candidate words did not display considerable progress than the participants dealing with the task of reading comprehension with marginal descriptions and the task of reading comprehension accompanied by gap-fill.

In a nut shell, the findings of the study performed by Keating (2008) manifested that the involvement load hypothesis may be applied universally to target less competent learners and may likewise leave an impact on the learners’ passive and active word recall. Following Keating (2008), Kim (2011) examined the Involvement Load Hypothesis in an ESL setting, across various exercise types and proficiency levels with a controlled time on task. In his first experiment, he investigated the efficacy of three tasks with different involvement loads within two different proficiency levels. In each proficiency level, learners randomly completed one of three tasks: reading, gap-fill and composition. In order to assess L2 learners’ initial learning and recall of target words, two immediate and delayed post-tests were executed. The results of both post-tests manifested the highest involvement index of 3 for the Composition group, the index of 2 for the Fill-

in group and the index of 1 for the Reading group. Nevertheless, the Fill-in participants on the delayed post-test obtained considerably elevating scores compared to the Reading participants.

Concisely, Involvement Load Hypothesis was reported to be completely practical in terms of the post-test administered after quite a short time and partially practically in terms of the post-test administered later. In his second experiment, Kim (2011) examined whether two tasks enjoying the same involvement loads affected similarly learning of target words. The author, therefore, compared the writing composition (index = 3) with the writing sentence task (index = 3). The results of both post-tests displayed that these two tasks with equal involvement loads affected similarly the initial learning and retention of target words across two different proficiency levels, a claim which was supported by the Involvement Load Hypothesis.

The impact of written tasks on second language word recall was examined by Folse (2006). 154 ESL participants comprised the sampling population of his study. They were selected from four universities in the U.S. They underwent 18 unfamiliar lexical items in three diverse conditions. The tasks employed in Folse's study consisted of one gap-fill task, three gap-fill tasks, and one sentence generation task. The two former tasks were recognition-based and the latter was production-based. The unrehearsed post-test was administered to gauge the extent of recall in the various circumstances. Through running a repeated ANOVA measurement, it was manifest that the participants undertaking the three tasks of gap-fill gained the highest score and consequently their word recall encountered an escalation. The significance of dealing with excessive retrievals of target lexical items in a task is worthy of attention in the zone of L2 lexical absorption.

IV. INCIDENTAL VOCABULARY LEARNING AND TEXT-BASED WORD-FOCUSED TASKS

Many scholars (Fraser, 1999; Huckin & Coady, 1999) argued that a sizeable amount of vocabulary learning finds its birth in reading tasks. It has been manifested that incidental vocabulary learning through employing reading tasks only brings about an inconsiderable rate of retention. This notion is supported by some experts such as, Pressley, Levin & McDaniel (1987), who claimed that learners are able to capture vocabulary meanings by the help of context, but this mainly doesn't lead to a substantial amount of retention of meanings. Due to the insufficient vocabulary gain through an absolute reliance on reading, a need for effective tasks to fortify the students' existing knowledge is seriously urgent. This inadequacy emanated from the sole reliance on reading-only tasks is evident in empirical studies (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Zimmerman, 1997), displaying the fact that L2 vocabulary recall escalates in case of being engaged in written vocabulary tasks. As Stoller and Grabe (1993) declared, the effects of incidental learning can be increased by means of employing reading plus word-focused tasks.

A number of studies has demonstrated that remarkable vocabulary gains were expected from subjects' dealing with cognitively demanding tasks that render deeper levels of processing and greater mental effort of encoding the vocabulary items necessary (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001; Webb, 2000; Mateo Valdehita, 2004). This provokes a principal inquiry regarding characteristics of the most influential written vocabulary tasks which are described below.

V. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants who were selected from different language institutes in Tehran were composed of 90 young intermediate EFL learners (females) among whom, due to meeting homogeneity, 64 were targeted. The participants were from sixteen to thirty years of age. Then, they were randomly assigned to two 32 homogeneous experimental groups. The participants' mother tongue was Persian.

B. Materials

The whole participants selected for the study (i.e. 90 participants) received the 2010 version of PET, with its speaking part eliminated due to time constraint. To meet homogeneous language proficiency levels, the whole participants underwent a preliminary English test (i.e. PET). The reliability of PET was computed as .90 (see discussion section for detailed statistical analysis). From the whole population, 64 participants were recognized as being homogenous and consequently selected as the main participants of the study. The involved participants were then randomly fallen into two 32 experimental groups. Next, they were administered the piloted pre-test. After that, they underwent the treatment, and the piloted post-test.

1. Teacher-made Diagnostic Vocabulary Test as the Pre-test

The pre-test was composed of eighty two multiple choice teacher-made incidental (i.e. unknown) vocabulary items on *Transportation and City Services*. It was, prior to be administered to the main participants, piloted with another group of participants enjoying the same characteristics (i.e. the same age and proficiency level) as the main participants of the study. The candidate words were accompanied by a small number of familiar words to mitigate the students' frustration and consequently heighten their confidence. In this phase, each target word was embedded in a multiple choice sentence so that for each item the participants were to mark the best option in their answer sheet.

During the piloting procedure, twelve vocabulary items, enjoying the highest number of correct answers, were excluded from the original list of the target words (i.e. eighty two words). The modified list of the target words

consisting of seventy multiple choice vocabulary items were then administered to the main participants of the study, comprising the two thirty two homogeneous experimental groups, to recognize their least known words. Having checked the participants' pre-test sheets, the teacher-researcher recognized twenty eight vocabulary items as their unknown lexical items. The final list of incidental words (i.e. the participants' diagnosed least known words consisting of twenty eight words), was considered to be employed as the post-test in the multiple choice format. The reliability of the test was then estimated (see discussion section for statistical analysis). Each paper sheet was equipped with a PIN number asked to be remembered by the participants. This in fact made the participants' post-test record tracking easier for the teacher-researcher.

2. *Teacher-made Achievement Test as the Post-test*

The post-test of the study consisted of twenty eight unknown words which were recognized as the participants' least known words in the pre-test. The post-test, was piloted with another group of participants enjoying the same characteristics (i.e. the same age and proficiency level) as the main participants of the study. In fact, it was piloted for the reliability estimation prior to be administered to the main participants. The intended words employed in the fill-in and writing tasks were utilized as the post-test in the multiple choice format. These twenty eight words were divided into seven words that were distributed across the four tasks assigned for each experimental group in four treatment sessions (i.e. together eight treatment sessions). The post-test designed in multiple choice format was derived from the same seven words utilized in each assigned task practiced by the participants of the two experimental groups in the treatment sessions. It was administered to each group immediately after the task completion and was, following the same format as that of the pre-test, aligned with an answer sheet.

VI. PROCEDURE

The study was conducted in three different language institutes in Tehran: *Kiyan*, *Farzanegan*, and *Safir* in the fall semester in 2011. This study consisted of administering the 2010 version of PET to the two experimental groups (i.e. Fill-in and Writing) to confirm homogeneity. The reliability of PET was computed as .90 (see discussion section for detailed statistical analysis). The speaking section of the language proficiency test due to the time constraint was excluded. The rest of the study comprised eighty two multiple choice teacher-made diagnostic vocabulary items, that seventy of which after being piloted were adopted to be administered as the pre-test with its reliability computed by Cronbach's Alpha method as .87. Also, the post-test included twenty eight vocabulary items which were selected and recognized as the participants' least known words in the pre-test. Each post-test comprised of seven of the target words designed in the form of multiple-choice format which was administered separately and immediately after task completion in each treatment session. The reliability of the post-test as calculated by Cronbach's Alpha method was .80. The target incidental vocabulary items were on the topic of *Transportation and City Services* and included non-textbook-bound intermediate lexical items adopted from a variety of sources, such as Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English and the website www.enchantedlearning.com, as well as several sources, including Kelly Wingate Publications on comprehension skills and Wikipedia, from which the treatment task sheets were selected. Sixty four participants, adhering to the principle of standard deviation: one SD above and below the obtained mean, took part in the study. They were selected and identified as homogeneous out of a large population (i.e. ninety participants) after taking PET. The assumed participants were then equally divided into two thirty two experimental groups of the Fill-in and Writing. Respecting the research moral principles, the participants of the study were kept informed of the aim of the study and invited to acknowledge their consent in advance. The treatment sessions conducted for both tasks were teacher-researcher-oriented.

Regarding the treatment to which eight two-hour sessions (i.e. four two-hour sessions for each group) were allocated, seven of the participants' twenty eight vocabulary items specified as their least known words in the pre-test and also considered to be utilized in the post-test, were employed in the form of four thematically different reading passages, adopted from Kelly Wingate Publications on Comprehension Skills, Wikipedia and some teacher-made reading passages. The passages were accompanied by a word study sheet, including the English definitions of the target words utilized in the tasks with two extra lexical items for the FT group to lower the chance of guesswork and the same seven words for the WT group. The topics and contents of the reading passages were the same for both groups. Also, the target words utilized in the treatment tasks for the two groups were the same. The only difference was that the blanks in the FT task were filled in with the same seven candidate words utilized in the reading-based WT task. Furthermore, learners' attention was grasped by the case words in both tasks. The extraction of the intended words in the FT task and their being bold-printed in the reading-based WT task in fact arose the learners' attention. The two experimental groups underwent completion-type and reading-accompanied writing tasks respectively. Each group experienced a four-week treatment session (i.e. altogether eight sessions) based on the so-called task-type based instruction prior to the post-test.

Each session, immediately after the completion of the tasks, the task sheets along with their answer sheets were collected and the two treatment groups underwent altogether eight post-tests each consisting of seven vocabulary items, derived from the same seven words used in each treatment tasks practiced by the two groups, in multiple choice format that was each administered separately in each treatment session. The participants were assumed to practice the tasks on their own and the teacher-researcher explained the process of dealing with the tasks prior to practicing them. To meet the incidental nature of the vocabulary learning, all treatment sessions, including sessions in which the participants

would undergo practicing the tasks and post-task vocabulary recall tests (i.e. post-tests) administered separately each session immediately after tasks completion to measure the participants' retention of the target incidental words, were held unexpected and without the participants' advance notice.

As for the FT (i.e. fill-in at the text level) treatment group, the participants were expected to read a reading passage from which some words were extracted. The participants were to find out the sought omitted words and settle them in the target blank spaces in the text. Having tackled both the task and the accompanied test administered immediately after the task completion, the teacher-researcher in case of any coming ambiguities regarding the meaning of the words or any other questions asked by the participants, provided lucid explanations of the sought concerns through mutual negotiations. The teacher-researcher in encountering the participants' willingness towards further elaborations encouraged the participants to manifest variety in their output. The rest of the explications were dedicated to practicing the parts of speech and the loud repetition of the target words.

In the WT (i.e. writing at the text level) treatment group to which four sessions were allocated, the participants were, making use of the same seven target words utilized in the FT task, assigned the similar reading passages as those presented to the FT treatment group. Each reading passage was attached with a writing sample sheet on which the participants were expected to write their compositions after they grasped sufficient comprehension of the reading passage. The reading passages were followed by word-focused comprehension questions addressing the target words in the text. After reading the passage, the participants were asked to go through a writing task in which they were presumed to compose a piece of text using the same seven target words which were bolded in the reading passages practiced in the treatment sessions. The participants were expected to create the writing topic themselves. Having finished this step, the participants were then administered a post-test similar as the one administered to the FT treatment group. The test consisted of the same seven words utilized in the WT task following the multiple choice format plus an answer sheet which was administered separately after each task completion in each treatment session. After the completion of both steps (i.e. task and test completion), the teacher-researcher, via peer negotiations, removed any meaning-based obstacles regarding the respective words and all the related concerns through clarification.

Entering the realm of the post-test, the participants of the both experimental groups were administered a piloted post-test each session after the task completion. Generally speaking, the post-test consisted of twenty eight vocabulary items in multiple choice format that the participants went through seven of which in each treatment session assigned for each group. The reason behind separate and immediate administration of multiple post-task tests (i.e. post-tests), after the task completion in eight separate treatment sessions, supported the view that the more the participants were exposed to practicing their own task sheet, the more accurate results could be obtained from their performance.

VII. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The research question of this study aimed at finding out whether lexically-oriented tasks at text level provide better incidental vocabulary recall than gap-fill tasks do. In order to answer this research question, independent sample *t*-test was performed.

A group of 90 intermediate EFL learners took PET to select homogeneous participants. The descriptive statistics for PET, as set forth in Table 1, reflects that the mean, median and mode of the PET scores are 44.32, 45.50, and 48 respectively. These central parameters are close to one another other implying that the scores are normally distributed around the mean. Based on the results of PET (Table 1), those 64 students whose scores were one standard deviation (12.64) plus and minus the mean of 44.32 were selected as homogeneous intermediate participants for the main research.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PET

N	Range	Min	Max	Mean	Median	Mode	SD
94	54	14	68	44.32	45.50	48	12.641

We used parametric test since four assumptions (i.e., interval data, independence of subjects, normality and homogeneity of variances) were met (Field, 2009). In fact one-sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (Table 2) showed that all sets of vocabulary scores for the fill-in and writing groups on both pre-test and post-test have normal distribution (Sig. > .05).

TABLE 2.
ONE-SAMPLE KOLMOGOROV-SMIRNOV TEST OF NORMALITY

Test	Group	N	Mean	Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre-test	FT	32	18.31	1.139	.167
	WT	32	17.41	1.272	.102
Post-test	FT	32	19.53	.567	.905
	WT	32	23.50	.690	.728

Before discussing the results of *t*-test, the descriptive statistics for the fill-in and writing groups were computed (Table 3). A quick look at the table reveals that the mean and standard deviation for the fill-in ($\bar{x} = 18.31, SD = 8.37$) and writing ($\bar{x} = 17.41, SD = 7.20$) groups do not differ highly on pre-test of incidental vocabulary recall.

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TWO GROUPS ON THE PRE-TEST

Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
FT	32	37	8	45	18.31	8.372
WT	32	34	8	42	17.41	7.202

Table 4 contains the result of independent *t*-test that was applied to compare the fill-in and writing groups' vocabulary scores on the pre-test. The table shows that the significance level for Levene's Test (.58) is greater than the selected significance level (.05), so the assumption of equal of variances is not violated. Also, Table 4 indicates that *t* value and significance level ($t(62) = .46, p = .64, p > .05$) are indicative of no significant difference in vocabulary scores for fill-in ($\bar{x} = 18.31$) and writing ($\bar{x} = 17.41$) groups, in which the *t*-observed is below than the *t*-critical of 2.00; hence we conclude that the students in the two groups have the same vocabulary knowledge at the beginning of the study.

TABLE 4.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR VOCABULARY SCORES ON THE PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.303	.584	.464	62	.644	.906	1.952	-2.996	4.809
Equal variances not assumed			.464	60.645	.644	.906	1.952	-2.998	4.810

Before presenting the results of *t*-test for the post-test, the related descriptive statistics are laid out in Table 5. According to Table 5, the students in the writing group ($\bar{x} = 23.50, SD = 3.34$) outperformed those in the fill-in group ($\bar{x} = 19.53, SD = 3.76$) on post-test of incidental vocabulary.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE TWO GROUPS ON THE POST-

Group	N	Range	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
FT	32	15	11	26	19.53	3.767
WT	32	13	15	28	23.50	3.341

Further, another independent *t*-test was run to compare fill-in and writing groups' incidental vocabulary scores on the post-test (Table 6). As can be seen in Table 6, the assumption of equal of variances is met (*Sig.* > .05).

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST FOR VOCABULARY SCORES ON THE POST-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	<i>F</i>	Sig.	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff.	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.35	.55	-4.45	62	.000*	-3.96	.89	-5.74	-2.18
Equal variances not assumed			-4.45	61.12	.000*	-3.96	.89	-5.74	-2.18

**p* < .05 = It shows significant difference

In addition, Table 6 reflects that independent *t*-test detected a statistically significant difference ($t(62) = 4.45, p = .000, p < .05$) in incidental vocabulary recall scores for fill-in ($\bar{x} = 19.53$) and writing ($\bar{x} = 23.50$) groups, in which the *t*-observed is above than the *t*-critical of 2.00. Consequently, we strongly reject the null hypothesis of the current study that states, "Lexically-oriented tasks at text level do not provide better incidental vocabulary recall than gap-fill tasks do" and therefore claim that lexically-oriented tasks at text level provide better incidental vocabulary recall than gap-fill tasks do.

We made a bar graph (Figure 1) to graphically show the results on both pre-test and post-test. As the figure illustrates, the students in the fill-in group have performed significantly better than those in the writing group regarding incidental vocabulary recall in the condition that they had the same vocabulary knowledge on the pre-test.

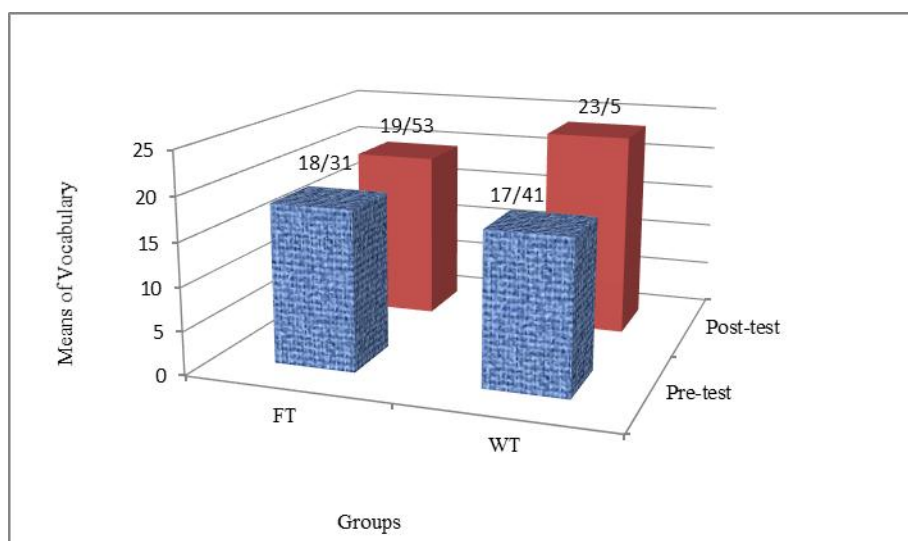


Figure 1. Two Groups' Means on Vocabulary Pre-test and Post-test

The findings of this study strongly support those of other studies conducted by Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), Webb (2005), and Mateo Valdehita (2004) sharing the common view of valuing the benefit of writing tasks and admiring the role of writing at the text level (i.e. WT). Moreover, the findings of this study endorse those of the previous research conducted by Hulstijn and Laufer (2001) in that text-level tasks (i.e. the task of writing) compared to sentence-level tasks (i.e. the task of fill-in) due to inducing higher involvement load, leading to deeper engagement in tasks, and requiring athletic mental efforts to be invested by learners resulted in more robust incidental vocabulary retention.

The study also magnifies the validity of Hulstijn and Laufer's Involvement Load Hypothesis along with its three components of task induced involvement (i.e. need, search, and evaluation) which represents the practicality of general cognitive notions of depth of processing and elaboration in L2 vocabulary tasks. The findings of the study favor Laufer and Hulstijn's claim (2001) that any specific task type—be it input or output—doesn't yield escalation or growth, and the primary feature of a quality task addresses the degree of task engagement.

The chief goal sought by this study dealt with introducing the most purposeful task in terms of learners' lexical absorption. The findings of the study were in line with those of Hulstijn and Laufer (2001), Folse (2006), Keating (2008), and Kim (2011) in supporting the efficacy of the involvement load hypothesis with respect to employing highly cognitive-demanding tasks enjoying higher amount of the involvement load and absorbing enormous mental efforts. The verified effect of the involvement load hypothesis, through recruiting tasks enjoying higher involvement load, on the learners' escalation of incidental word gains was transparent in the findings of this study that endorsed the superiority of WT group due to yielding higher scores in incidental vocabulary retention.

VIII. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The focus of the study is captured upon validating the Hulstijn and Laufer's Involvement Load Hypothesis with its three constituents of need, search and evaluation displaying the degree of task engagement which manifests the operationalization of depth of processing and elaboration circumscribed by L2 vocabulary tasks. Tasks that take various language facets into consideration deserve close attention. Advocated by Hulstijn and Laufer's Involvement Load Hypothesis and demonstrated statistically, tasks with higher involvement load, namely tasks requiring writing, led to a sure-fire breakthrough in this experiment. Furthermore, the incidental acquisition of the target word in a task yielding greater involvement load culminates to a more solid retention of those words.

Besides, the contribution of certain word-focused tasks to vocabulary knowledge and the successive escalation in the retention of that knowledge compassed the focus of this study. In this regard, the context as well as the attention and depth of input retrieval induced by word-focused tasks contribute interactively. This accords with what Laufer and Hill (2000) believed to guarantee a productive teaching highlighting the significance of learners' attention to the instructionally-oriented candidate words while being engrossed in tasks arising lexical enhancement. Comparing the mental processes congenital to the two tasks of writing and fill-in, the conclusion displayed that the former significantly induced deeper processing of the target words than just assembling the patchwork of ideas in an existing context in the latter task (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001).

To sum up, word-focused tasks were undoubtedly corroborated to result in a substantial vocabulary retention rate overall in assisting second language learners to master an enduring reservoir of newly-met words. The findings of this

study verified those of other relevant (Newton, 1995; Joe, 1995, Pribakht & Wesche, 1999; Zimmerman, 1997) studies which were conducted in the area of vocabulary learning. These tasks basically draw learners' attention to specific vocabulary items to become involved in reflective planning, catenizing thoughts (i.e. chaining words together), and thus creating plausible versatilities to self-generate sequenced discourse.

Pedagogically speaking, the findings of the study espouse employing written word-focused tasks inducing higher mental involvement conducive to better retention of incidental words (Hulstijn & Laufer, 2001). Concerning the obtained results, embedding new words in meaningful contexts represented in a piece of writing in fact nourish learners' mentality in a way to improve their efficacies to utilize words in the future. Moreover, writing activities give the instructional mentor (i.e. the teacher) the opportunity to monitor the students' progress and remove any linguistic obstacles, including lexical hurdles they might confront. Furthermore, the Involvement Load Hypothesis allows teachers and task designers to manipulate task features and predict what task will best deserve academic and curriculum manipulation in terms of fostering incidental vocabulary retention. However, both theoretical and empirical research in the realm of L2 vocabulary learning should be manipulated in an attempt to explore more the nature of the construct of task-induced involvement, with three motivational and cognitive dimensions: need, search and evaluation.

APPENDIX A

Preliminary English Test (PET)

Test 3 Reading Part 1

Test 3

Paper 1 Reading and Writing (1 hour 30 minutes)

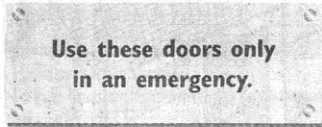
**Reading
Part 1**

Questions 1-5

Look at the text in each question.
What does it say?
Mark the correct letter A, B or C on your answer sheet.

Example:

0

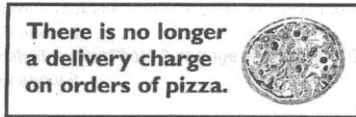


- A You must never leave by these doors.
- B The doors can be used if necessary.
- C Only some people can use these doors.

Answer: 0 A B C

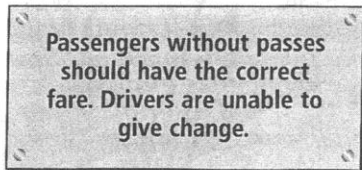
Tip
Don't choose the first option you think is right. Look carefully at the meaning of each option before you decide.

1



- A This restaurant gives a free pizza with every order.
- B You don't have to pay for a pizza delivery.
- C Some orders of pizza cannot be delivered.

2



- A Passengers must have a pass or the exact money.
- B Some fares on this bus route have changed.
- C You can only travel on this bus if you have a pass.

APPENDIX B

Pre-test**Direction:**

Select the best option and mark it in your answer sheet. Write your PIN number in the circle located at the right hand corner of your answer sheet.

1. The Plane was carrying a full.....of fuel.
 - a) Rate
 - b) Scale
 - c) Load
 - d) Balance
2. The city of Boerne was..... by German settlers in the 1840s.
 - a) Established
 - b) Shifted
 - c) Excavated
 - d) Removed
3. Due to a strong storm, the ship was..... and most of the crews were drowned.
 - a) Repaired
 - b) Shacked
 - c) Floated
 - d) Keeled over
4. There wasn't enough water to..... the ship.
 - a) Move
 - b) Float
 - c) Push
 - d) Draw
5. Last week a tragic accident took place in San Diego.....
 - a) Freeway
 - b) Subway
 - c) Flyover
 - d) Escalator
6. He braked suddenly, causing the front..... skid on the ice.
 - a) Taillights
 - b) Hubcaps
 - c) Headlights
 - d) Wheels
7. The survivors of the were found miles away from the Island.
 - a) Accident
 - b) Earthquake
 - c) Shipwreck
 - d) Drought
8. Emergency food suppliers were brought in by.....
 - a) Lorry
 - b) Camper
 - c) Tram
 - d) Submarine
9. Steward was injured in a..... with another player.
 - a) Collision
 - b) match
 - c) Kick
 - d) Game
10. The ship..... to the bottom of the sea.
 - a) Travelled
 - b) Sank
 - c) Reached
 - d) Fell
11. The bridge is reinforced with huge..... pillars.
 - a) Steel
 - b) Iron
 - c) Wooden
 - d) Metal
12. He..... the boat into the harbor.
 - a) Guided
 - b) Steered
 - c) Helped
 - d) Rode
13. The government decides to..... a new road bridge across the river.
 - a) Damage
 - b) Repair
 - c) Construct
 - d) Change
14. A: What are the children doing?
 B: They are having a..... down the river.
 - a) Raft
 - b) Kayak
 - c) Canoe
 - d) Punt

APPENDIX C

Post-test**Direction:**

Select the best option and mark it in your answer sheet. Write your PIN number in the circle located at the right hand corner of your answer sheet.

1. The sailors use..... to control the direction of a boat.
 - a) Flag
 - b) Receiver
 - c) Rudder
 - d) Transmitter
2. The..... parking on both sides of the streets make the appearance of the city ugly.
 - a) Clunkers
 - b) Architectures
 - c) Garbage
 - d) Ruins
3. London's roads and city streets are too..... to drive smoothly.
 - a) Congested
 - b) Deserted
 - c) Polluted
 - d) Dirty
4. A: Who do you think would win in the.....
 B: I guess Martin would be placed first. What about you?
 A: I don't think so. His boat is old and needs repairs.
 - a) Archery
 - b) Bowling
 - c) Regatta
 - d) Fencing
5. The ship's captain didn't manage to steer it forward, because of holes in its fuselage which should be.....
 - a) Decreased
 - b) Filled
 - c) Disappeared
 - d) Caulked
6. The company decides to..... all its latest computers due to a CPU problem.
 - a) Recall
 - b) Brand
 - c) Equip
 - d) Produce
7. A boat is..... by a small motor.
 - a) Controlled
 - b) Outrun
 - c) Tracked
 - d) Propelled
8. In the past people used to travel by..... carts, pulled by horses.
 - a) Diesel
 - b) Buggy
 - c) Locomotive
 - d) Stroller

9. The vessel was attacked by warship and.....
 a) Returned b) Keeled c) Bounced d) Threw
10. The..... of fish stocks is expected to happen in an increase in the amount of poisonous substances.
 a) Preparation b) Gathering c) Extraction d) Depletion
11. In the ship's workshop, ways of designing..... boats and ships which are use for hunting and fighting are going to be discussed.
 a) Fowling b) Cruise c) Cargo d) House
12. This traffic jam annoys me. It's best to travel by.....
 a) Spaceship b) Tour c) Carriage d) Tube
13. The school bus was involved in a..... with a truck.

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Elaheh Touti received her M.A. in TEFL from the faculty of Persian Literature and Foreign Languages, Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch, Iran in 2012. She has taught English at different levels to Iranian EFL Learners for more than 10 years in several English institutes and she, currently, is teaching general and academic English courses at the university of Applied Science and Technology in Tehran, Iran. She has also translated two of the Mc Grow Hill books, including 101 American English Idioms and 101 American English Riddles into L1 published by Sokhanvaran Publications, Tehran: Iran, 2016. Her research interests are second language vocabulary instruction and effective methods of lexical enhancement, EFL writing, task-based language instruction and psycholinguistics.



Roohollah Maleki was born in Nahavand, Iran in 1980. He holds MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch. He teaches in the English Center at Shahid Sattari Aeronautical University of Technology and Science, Tehran, Iran. His research interests are second and third language acquisition, contrastive analysis, discourse analysis, testing and material development. He has published several articles in language learning acquisitions e.g., A Comparative Study of the Attribution for Failure of English Majors Students versus that of their Instructors published by International Journal of Language Learning and Applied Linguistics World in April 2014.

Comparison of the RC Model and the WR Model Based on CHILDES*

Liang Zhao

School of Foreign Studies, USTB, Beijing, China

Abstract—The acquisition of the verb past tense has often been used to help to figure out children’s real process of language acquisition. This paper aims to make a comparison between Charles Yang’s Rules and Competition Model (the RC model) and Steven Pinker’s Words and Rules Model (the WR model) based on real language acquisition data selected from CHILDES (Child Language Data Exchange System). Chomsky’s Universal grammar is the foundation of both models. The comparison has been done from three aspects: the role of input frequency, overregularization errors, and the origin of irregular past tense. The finding of the study indicates that the RC model can well explain the role of input frequency in verb classes and the similarity between verb and the past tense while the WR model’s explanation is vague in this point. Overregularization errors are more like an inevitable learning phenomenon that sheds light on phonological rules in the RC model instead of simple memory failures in the WR model. The WR model well explains the origin of irregular past tense while the RC model does not mention this point.

Index Terms—verb past tense acquisition, Rules and Competition Model, Words and Rules Model, CHILDES

I. INTRODUCTION

Children’s unique ability to acquire grammar remains at the heart of linguistic inquiry. Their errors like “goed” and “doed” have been treated as evidence that human beings are a pattern-loving species. Acquisition of past tense verb has drawn much attention because it has two characteristics: the regular form is very productive; there are also about 180 verbs that have irregular past tense forms (Berko, 1958; Marcus, 1992). It represents the regular and irregular forms that exist in English and many other languages. Research into this issue can illustrate acquisition and cognitive mechanisms of language rules.

There are three systematic patterns in children’s verb past tense acquisition that should be mentioned. First, in general, children inflect novel verbs with the “-ed” suffix. Second, young children sometimes over-regularize the “-ed” suffix. On average, over-regularization occurs in “about 10% of all instances of irregular verbs” (Marcus, 1992). Third, errors that children “misapply and overapply irregular past tense forms, are exceeding rare, accounting for 0.2% of all instances of irregular verb uses” (Xu & Pinker, 1995).

In this field, there are two prominent theoretical schools: the innate model and the connectionist ones. The former consists of the Chomsky-Halle model (Chomsky & Halle, 1968) and their followers (Halle & Mohanan, 1985; Halle & Marantz, 1993; Yang, 2002, 2006, 2010). Yang’s Rules and Competition Model (the RC model) is a branch in this school. They propose that past tense forms are generated by affixing a morpheme to the stem and applying rules that change the stem’s phonological structure. The latter, Rumelhart-McClelland model (Rumelhart & McClelland, 1986) and other connectionist models (Plunket & Marchman, 1993; Elman et al., 1996), explain the past tense form by associating the phonological features of the stem with the phonological features of the past-tense form. Later the Words and Rules Model (the WR model) is put forward to combine the previous two schools together (Pinker, 1984; 1994; 1999; 2007; Pinker & Prince, 1988; 1994; Pinker & Ullman, 2002).

This paper tries to use a qualitative approach to find out which theory, Yang’s RC model or Pinker’s WR model, is much closer to the real process of verb past tense acquisition. Based on Chomsky’s Universal Grammar (UG), Yang (2002) proposes to model language acquisition as a population of competing grammars competing to match the external linguistic evidence presented to the learner, much in the manner of natural selection. Meanwhile, Pinker (1999) stands on the side of UG partially, saying regular past-tense forms can be inflected by making use of a default phonological rule whereas irregular forms are stored in the lexicon memory. This paper aims to make a contrastive analysis of these two models in the acquisition of past tense of English verbs to further the study of language acquisition.

The comparison is based on authentic data from CHILDES, which is the biggest international corpus of children’s language collection launched by MacWhinney and Snow (1985). This paper has chosen a set of authentic records of children’s language development collected by Fletcher in 2004. In order to find out the impact of age on language acquisition, this set of data has been collected from speeches of 74 children in three different age groups: children aged 3, 5, and 7. The data are appropriate for explaining how English-speaking children acquire past tense of verbs.

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II. REVIEW OF YANG'S RULES AND COMPETITION MODEL

On the basis of Chomsky's Universal Grammar and Darwin's variational approach to evolution, Yang (2002) puts forward the Variational Model which believes: Universal Grammar is the innate mechanism which consists of all the possible grammars; these grammars compete with each other in language environment; only the proper grammar, i.e. the grammar of native language, retains eventually. Thus, language acquisition can be modeled as:

$$L: (S_0, E) \longrightarrow S_T$$

In this learning function, L maps the initial state of the learner, S_0 , to the terminal state S_T , on the basis of experience E in the environment. To explain the gradualness of child language acquisition, Yang (2002) introduces statistic notions into the learning model. Each grammar G_i is paired with a weight P_i , which can be viewed as the measure of prominence of G_i in learner's language faculty. In a linguistic environment E, the weight $P_i(E, t)$ is determined by the learning function L, the linguistic evidence in E, and the time variable t, the time since the outset of language acquisition. Learning stops when the weights of all grammars are stabilized. Upon the presentation of an input datum s, the child:

- a. selects a grammar G_i with the probability P_i .
- b. analyzes s with G_i .
- c. if successful, rewards G_i by increasing P_i ;
or otherwise, punishes G_i by increasing P_i .

Therefore, grammars that succeed in analyzing a sentence are rewarded and those that fail are punished. As the learning proceeds, grammars that have overall more successes will be more prominent represented in the learner's hypothesis space (Yang, 2002).

The Rules and Competition Model (the RC model) derives from the previously mentioned Variational Model. It holds that systematic errors in child language acquisition are reflections of coexisting hypotheses in competition and the weights, or the distribution of the grammars, change along with learning process (Yang, 2002). The RC model treats both irregular and regular verbs within one single component of the cognitive system: generative phonology. In the model, irregular past tense is also formed by phonological rules and overgeneralization errors result from failure to apply appropriate irregular phonological rules over the default one.

Yang (2002) also compares acquisition of irregular verbs to the number pair learning task. The RC model, based on a system of generative phonological rules, employs the strategy that irregular verbs are organized by rules that apply to a class of individuals:

- a. {feed, shoot, ...} \rightarrow $R_{\text{Vowel Shortening}}$
- b. {bring, think, ...} \rightarrow $R_{\text{t suffixation \& Rime}}$ \rightarrow a
- c. ...

In an information-theoretic sense, the rule-based strategy, which allows a more compact description of the data, is the more efficient one. Yang's RC model serves the purpose of saving storage space in mental lexicon.

III. REVIEW OF WORDS AND RULES MODEL

Pinker (1994) partially believes in innateness theory and proposes that there is a linguistic organ inside human mind and the computation of human mind is under the control of UG. At the same time, Pinker (ibid.) is against the hypothesis that language is evolved by mechanisms. He (1994) further assumes that language has its own independent nerve system used for language communication. Language evolves from generation to generation through the grammar gene, and UG exists in grammar gene and is passed down and inherited as a kind of human feature in the process of human evolution. The human language faculty is a complex biological adaptation that evolved by natural selection for communication in a knowledge-using, socially interdependent lifestyle (Pinker & Bloom, 1990). Pinker (2007) insists that "natural selection is the most plausible explanation of the evolution of language".

The Words and Rules model originates from the lexicalist theories of Jackendoff (1975), Aronoff (1976), Lieber (1980), and etc. In Pinker's WR model, the computational system for past tense consist of two parts: the "word" component and the "rule" component, the former being a stretch of sound that has to be memorized because it cannot be generated by rules and the latter the rules of morphology that build complex words. In the "word" component, irregular verbs are stored in the lexicon, a division of declarative memory which works like a connectionist network, by direct association/memorization of the pairing between a stem and its past tense. In the "rule" component that follows the tradition of generative linguistics, regular verbs are computed by making use of a default morphological rule, which adds "-d/ed" to the root. The premise of this model is that two tricks – words and rules – function with different principles. They are learned and used in different ways and may even reside over different parts of the brain.

Thus, irregulars have the psychological, linguistic and neuropsychological signatures of lexical memory, whereas regulars often have the signatures of grammatical processing. The strength of association is conditioned upon the frequencies of irregular verbs that children hear. It takes time and experience to perfect memorization of irregulars.

IV. DISCUSSION ON SELECTED VERB ACQUISITION DATA AND COMPARISON OF THE RC MODEL AND THE WR MODEL

A. Verb Acquisition Data Collected by Fletcher

Out of curiosity about language learning, linguists have kept records of children's speech, which has enabled the generalizability of the nature of child language acquisition. Children's acquisition of language is a gradual process. The child begins to use verb past tense since 2 years old. With the development of language ability, the child becomes to use verb past tense correctly when they are 6 to 7 years old. We need to focus on samples that begin before the onset of overregularization and continue long enough to the performance marking to approach adult levels, so data of the study have been selected from speeches uttered by children aged 2 to 7 years old. This paper has chosen a set of records collected by Fletcher during a mutual communication process between him and the target children in 2004: speeches of 74 children at the age of 3, 5, and 7. According to the different ages, the whole samples have been divided into 3 groups: 25 language samples from children aged 3, 25 from children aged 5, and 24 from children aged 7.

Every occurrence of verb regular and irregular past tense has been manually counted and the statistics have been made into tables, including the correct usage rate (CUR) and the overregularization rate as following.

$$\text{The correct usage rate (CUR)} = \frac{\text{total number of correct past tense of } x}{\text{total number of past tense of } x}$$

$$\text{The overregularization rate} = \frac{\text{number of overregularization past tense}}{\text{number of overregularization past tense} + \text{number of correct irregular past tense}}$$

The CUR and the overregularization rate of the three groups of children will be calculated separately. The study of CUR in different ages can help us get the detailed features of the whole process of children language acquisition. The overregularization rate has been used to calculate children's opportunities to make such errors at certain stages. These errors reveal important clues on how phonology is structured and learned.

The CURs and overregularization rates of all irregular verbs, averaged over all 74 children in three age groups, are given in Table 1:

TABLE 1
CUR AND OVERREGULARIZATION RATE OF IRREGULAR PAST TENSE VERBS

Age	Correct past tense	Past tense	CUR	Overregularization rate
3	412	424	97.2%	3.8%
5	346	387	89.4%	6.5%
7	462	473	97.7%	2.1%

Table 1 shows that children can use the irregular past tense almost correctly. At the same time, we can catch another feature of these statistics that is the CUR of children aged 5 is a little below that of children aged 3 and 7. Berko (2005) defines past tense acquisition as a sequence of three stages: in Stage 1, children use only a small number of verbs in the past tense; in Stage 2, evidence of implicit knowledge of a linguistic rule emerges; in Stage 3, the regular and irregular forms coexist. It may mislead us to believe that the performance in each stage is sharply distinguished from ones in other stages. But in fact, from the analysis of the data, we can get that the acquisition process is quite gradual and there are no such clear-cut stages.

B. Interpretation from the Perspective of the RC Model

In the RC model, the irregular verb past tense is formed by phonological rules. Errors such as overregularization are not memory lapses. Instead, they result from failure to apply appropriate irregular phonological rules over the default one. The RC model derives from the variational approach to language acquisition, which holds that systematic errors in child language are reflections of coexisting hypothesis in competition.

Yang (2002) divides verbs into different classes and proposes that verbs in the same class groups enjoy the same CUR performance. According to Yang's classification, we have analyzed the CUR of verbs grouped by classes in the data collected by Fletcher in 2004 and all the results have been put in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

TABLE 2
DATA ANALYSIS OF CHILDREN AGED 3

Phonological rules	CUR of verbs grouped by classes	Input frequency
[-t & Vowel Shortening]	lose (3/5)=60%	lost (63)
	leave (22/23)=95.6%	left (53)
[-t & Rime → a]	catch (2/2=100%)	caught (36)
	think (0)	thought (363)
	bring (2/2=100%)	brought (77)
	buy (3/3=100%)	bought (70)
[-∅ & No Change]	put (40/42=95.2%)	put (2,248)
	hit (0)	hit (66)
	hurt (0)	hurt (25)
	cut (1/1=100%)	cut (21)
[-∅ & Vowel Shortening]	shoot (3/4=75%)	shot (14)
	bite (2/2=100%)	bit (13)
[-∅ & Backing Ablaut]	get (170/171=99.4%)	got (1511)
	take (21/22=95.5%)	took (154)
	write (0)	wrote (28)
	win (0)	win (36)
[-∅ & Rime → u] ▼	know (0)	knew (49)
	throw (0)	threw (28)

TABLE 3
DATA ANALYSIS OF CHILDREN AGED 5

Phonological rules	CUR of verbs grouped by classes	Input frequency
[-t & Vowel Shortening]	lose (4/5)=80%	lost (63)
	leave (5/6)=83.3%	left (53)
[-t & Rime → a]	catch (1/1=100%)	caught (36)
	hink (9/10=90%)	thought (363)
	bring (1/1=100%)	brought (77)
	buy (2/4=50%)	bought (70)
[-∅ & No Change]	put (22/23=95.6%)	put (2,248)
	hit (0)	hit (66)
	hurt (0)	hurt (25)
	cut (1/1=100%)	cut (21)
[-∅ & Vowel Shortening]	shoot (0)	shot (14)
	bite (0)	bit (13)
[-∅ & Backing Ablaut]	get (76/77=98.7%)	got (1511)
	take (0)	took (154)
	write (1/1=100%)	wrote (28)
	win (1/1=100%)	win (36)
[-∅ & Rime → u] ▼	know (3/4=75%)	knew (49)
	throw (1/1=100%)	threw (28)

TABLE 4
DATA ANALYSIS OF CHILDREN AGED 7

Phonological rules	CUR of verbs grouped by classes	Input frequency
[-t & Vowel Shortening]	lose (1/1)=100%	lost (63)
	leave (4/5)=80%	left (53)
[-t & Rime → a]	catch (2/2=100%)	caught (36)
	think (2/2=100%)	thought (363)
	bring (0)	brought (77)
	buy (11/13=84.6%)	bought (70)
[-∅ & No Change]	put (32/33=97%)	put (2,248)
	hit (3/3=100%)	hit (66)
	hurt (0)	hurt (25)
	cut (2/3=66.7%)	cut (21)
[-∅ & Vowel Shortening]	shoot (1/1=100%)	shot (14)
	bite (2/2=100%)	bit (13)
[-∅ & Backing ablaut]	get (68/70=97%)	got (1511)
	take (9/10=90%)	took (154)
	write (1/1=100%)	wrote (28)
	win (1/1=100%)	win (36)
[-∅ & Rime → u] ▼	know (2/2=100%)	knew (49)
	throw (2/2=100%)	threw (28)

The RC model emphasizes the importance of the input frequency: the high input frequency improves child's language performance. From the above tables, we can find that the whole trend of the irregular verb past tense supports the prediction that the input frequency plays a role in CUR.

From the above tables, we can also find some past tense verbs share the free-rider effect. Despite the comparable different input frequencies and different age groups, the verbs in the same classes show the same feature in CUR. For example, two words “get” and “take”, the latter having considerably lower input frequencies than the former, enjoy the similar CUR. The same situation happens between “go” and “come”.

C. Interpretation from the Perspective of the WR Model

Different from phonological rules that Yang (2002) uses to explain irregular verb past tense, Pinker (1999) proposes that the irregular forms are fossils of rules that died long ago and they could be only memorized by today’s generation without any help from phonological rules. In the WR model (Pinker, 1999, 2002), irregular verbs are learned in the “word” component, which works like a connectionist network, by direct association/memorization of the pairing between a stem and its past tense. The strength of association is conditioned upon the frequencies of irregular verbs that children hear, thus it takes time to perfect the memorization of irregular verbs. When the child’s memory of an irregular form fails, the default “-d” form is used. This accounts for overregularization errors in child language.

Pinker (2002) proposes that the rating of irregular past tense forms depends highly on the ratings of the stems. He (ibid. p.59) believes that “half of the irregular past tense end in “t” or “d” because they originally took some version of the regular “-ed” suffix but then fell off the regular rule for one reason or another “. To check the correctness of the this proposal, this paper has four groups of verbs that have shared stems and analyzed the CUR of their past tense.

TABLE 5
CUR OF WORDS THAT SHARE STEMS

Shared stems	Verbs and past tense	CUR		
		aged 3	aged 5	aged 7
ow-ew	blow - blew	66.7%	71.4%	80%
	grow - grew	100%	100%	100%
	know - knew	--	75%	100%
	throw - threw	--	100%	100%
ink-ank	drink - drank	66.7%	100%	100%
	shrink - shrank	100%	100%	100%
end-ent	send - sent	100%	--	100%
	spend - spent	--	--	100%
ing-a/ung	sing - sang	100%	66.7%	100%
	string- strung	100%	100%	100%

From the above table, we can find words with the same stem enjoyed similar overregularization rate.

D. Comparison of the RC Model and the WR Model

Although both the RC model and the WR model are built on Chomsky’s universal grammar and the idea of rule-forming mechanism in children’s mind, they disagree with each other upon the details of the mechanism.

First, both the RC model and the WR model pay attention to the role of input frequency. From tables 2-4, we can find out that some past tense verbs that have very low input frequency enjoy a high level CUR. Yang (2002) tries to explain this phenomenon by the free-rider effect: he classifies verbs into classes according to phonological rules and proposes; the high input frequency of one verb will improve the CUR performance of verbs in the whole class. All the data in above analysis goes with this hypothesis. Inspired by associative theory of connectionism, Pinker puts forward that verbs that share the same stem will be associated and they will increase each other’s CUR. Since irregular verbs are learned by associative pairing in the WR model, it is crucial to have a precise statement of how such associative pairing is established. However, we can find WR model is still vague. In this point, the RC model is more concrete, convincing, and much easier to test than the WR model.

Second, from tables 2-5, we can see that children’s overregularization errors reveal more important clues on phonological rules, which the RC model views as a learning stage, and should not be regarded as simple memory retrieval failures in Pinker’s WR model.

Third, the WR model well attributes the origin of irregular verb past tense to the past regular forms while the RC model does not mention this point.

V. SUMMARY

Based on the data from CHILDES, this paper has compared the RC model and the WR model through analyzing three distinctive features in children’s verb past tense acquisition: the role of input frequency, overregularization errors, and the origin of irregular past tense. The finding of the study indicates that the RC model can well explain the role of input frequency in verb classes and the similarity between verb and the past tense with WR model’s explanation being vague. Overregularization errors are more like an inevitable learning phenomenon that sheds light on phonological rules in the RC model instead of simple memory failures in the WR model. The WR model well accounts for the origin of irregular past tense while the RC model does not mention this aspect.

This article has analyzed fundamental principles and language mechanisms of these two models and compared the similarities and differences of them in the hope of better elaborating the language rules and the language knowledge processing mechanism in this field.

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Liang Zhao was born in Jiangsu, China in 1981. She received her PH.D. degree in linguistics from Beijing Normal University, China in 2009.

She is currently an associate professor in the School of Foreign Studies, University of Science and Technology Beijing, Beijing, China. Her research interests include cognitive linguistics and child language acquisition.

Translation of English Causative Verbs into Persian: A Comparative Study of Professional Translators and Translation Trainees

Naghmeh Ghasdian

Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch, Tehran, Iran

Ahmad Sedighi

Allameh Tabataba'i and Islamic Azad University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—According to books of grammar, a causative form is an expression of an agent causing or forcing a person to perform an action. Translation of English causatives into Persian seems to be one of the biggest problems that Translation students and novice translators usually come across. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the translation strategies applied by the professional translator and translation trainees while translating English causatives into Persian. In this descriptive corpus-based study, the present researcher examined sixty causative constructions of novel *Lord of The Flies* by Gerald (1991) and their Persian translation by Mansouri (2003). In addition, twenty causative constructions from the novel were given to the twenty Translation students in order to analyze their Persian translations of causative constructions. Based on the finding, the professional translator has used Non-causative and Positive Implication strategies most frequently, whereas the students have used Auxiliary and Noncausative strategies most frequently. It can be concluded that there is a strategy behind every choice, and a reason behind every strategy, and translators should try their best to transfer all the components of a causative verb as well as possible, because each word or verb has its own value. The translator's mastery over the causative construction in the language pair explores throughout this study reminds us of a point of paramount significance. The main implication of this research may make the translators, at any level, better understand the English causative sentences and avoid producing translations that hinder communication between the translator and the readers.

Index Terms—English causative verbs, Persian causative verbs, translators, translation trainees

I. INTRODUCTION

Causality refers to the relation between two successive events in which the second event (a caused event) is understood as the consequence of the first event (a causing event). If the causing event does not occur, the caused event will not occur, either. (Wolff & Song, 2003; Maat & Sanders, 2001). According to books of grammar, a causative form is an expression of an agent causing or forcing a patient to perform an action (or to be in a certain condition). All languages have ways to express causation, but they differ in the means. In some languages, there are morphological devices (such as Inflection) that change verbs in their causative forms, or adjectives into verbs of “becoming”. Other languages employ periphrasis, with idiomatic expression or auxiliary verbs. All languages also have lexical causative forms (such as in English, Rise → Raise). (“Causative”, 2014)

Causative sentences show that somebody or something is indirectly responsible for an action. The subject does not itself, but causes someone or something else to do it instead. When we look back and remember translating classes, we notice that not only us, but also many of our classmates, we can recall, had problems with the understanding, and production of causative sentences, situations and as a result in mastering till later. When we got into higher translation courses again, we witnessed that, students came across many problems, while translating causative sentences. This was due to carelessness and ignoring the importance of this issue or because of language differences, which most of the time traps or misleads the translation trainees.

One of the most problematic and challenging areas for all those engaged in translating from English into Persian is translating causative sentences. Since this concept and representations for the English Causative sentences may be in different forms in Persian, little place has been given to it in Persian Grammar books. The translators have adopted different ways to convey the meaning of the English causative sentences into Persian, but still the absence of comprehensive research on the approaches adopted in this regard is utterly felt, something that the present study purports to offer.

It seems that when translating from English or some other languages into Persian, there may be some problems, because of differences in grammar, for example, the translation of English passive tenses into Persian sometimes may cause problems. Hence, the present study would investigate the strategies adopted by the professional translators and the translation trainees in handling these ever-present problems.

Since causative sentences do not have a fixed and specific form in both languages (i.e., Persian and English), some verbs by way of example in English, “have” serves as a causative verb in some situations, while serving as a non-causative verb in some other situations, the present researcher studied and analyzed sixty causative constructions of a novel entitled “Lord of The Flies” written by Gerald (1991) and its Persian translation. Therefore, the delimitations of this study were the selection of only sixty causative constructions of the novel entitled "Lord of Files" by Gerald (1991) to trace causative sentences or forms and causative situations. In addition, Mansouri's (2003) Persian translation was considered as the case by a professional translator in order to examine the rendering of English causatives into Persian by the professionals. Moreover, twenty causative constructions from the novel were given to the twenty students in order to study and analyze their Persian translations of causative constructions, too. The number of participants was delimited to twenty under-graduate students who are studying Translation at Islamic Azad University South Tehran Branch. It is noteworthy that their gender and age were not considered for sampling in this study.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the translation strategies applied by professional translators and translation trainees while translating causative sentences from English into Persian. Investigation in this area would lead to the better understanding of the efficient translation of causative sentences and other grammatical points that are usually problematic in translation classes. Therefore, the translation classes would be beneficial for students by providing them efficient exercises.

Since causative sentences or forms are unique to each one of the languages in existence and are presented in different modes in different languages, understanding of them and finding a proper way to render them in the target language is of great significance in this study. Therefore, results of the present research may make the translators, at any level, better understand the English causative sentences and avoid producing translations that hinders communication between the translator and the readers.

To achieve the objectives of the present study, the following two questions were posed:

RQ1. What strategies does the professional translator use in translating causative sentences from English into Persian?

RQ2: What strategies do the novice translators or translation trainees' use in translating causative sentences from English into Persian?

Because of the descriptive nature of the present study, no hypothesis was formulated to achieve the objectives of the study.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this section, we will have a look at the participants and their characteristics as well as instruments utilized in this research, thereafter, we will review procedure and the criteria based on which categorization of different types of causative verbs in English and Persian was carried out as the theoretical framework. Finally, we will review design and method of data analysis as well as ethical considerations applied in this research.

A. Participants

Participants of this descriptive design and corpus-based study were twenty undergraduate students of English Translation at Islamic Azad University, South Tehran Branch, where their gender and age were not considered for sampling in this study.

B. Instrumentation

The corpus consisted of sixty causative sentences and their Persian translation found in the novel “Lord of The Flies” written by William Gerald (1991). Mojgan Mansouri in Iran (2003) translated this novel into Persian. The twenty sentences containing causative verbs were chosen from this book in order to compare the translation of professional translator and translation trainees or novice translators in terms of Persian grammatical rules.

C. Procedure

Since different words are representing causative verbs in English and Persian, it was impossible to make use of the software tools to spot such verbs. Consequently, the examination of the texts was conducted manually and without use of automated running texts. In doing this research at the first step, sixty sentences contain causative constructions were selected from the novel entitled *Lord of the Flies*. Then, the English causative sentences and their Persian translation were tabulated to show the strategies applied in the Persian translation of "Lord of Flies" by Mansouri (2003) as the professional translator. Then, the twenty English sentences were given to the twenty Translation students without Persian translation. They were asked to translate them into Persian. Through close consideration of their translations, the translation strategies were identified based on the chosen framework of the study.

D. The Theoretical Framework

By a rather comprehensive review of the literature on English and Persian causative constructions (e.g., Shibatani, 1976; Dabir-Moghaddam, 2006), a hybrid framework was proposed to analyze the collected data. This hybrid

framework is based on a set of following twelve translation strategies. It is necessary to mention that translation strategy means that the types of translation of causative construction or ways of translating causative sentences or forms (Shibatani, 1976).

1. Positive Implicative Causative
2. Negative Implicative Causative
3. Nonimplicative Causative
4. Syntactic Causative
5. Morphological Causative
6. Lexical Causative
7. Auxiliary Causative
8. Mediated Causation
9. Permissive Causative
10. Coercive Causative
11. Specific
12. Not Translated

It is noteworthy that, Shibatani's (1976) classification was considered as the benchmark to determine the types of English causative. In his classification, there are following eight types of causatives:

1. Directive Causation
2. Manipulative Causation
3. Lexical Causative
4. Single Causation
5. Double Causation
6. Permissive Causatives
7. Coercive Causatives
8. Reflexive Causative

E. Design of the Study

This is a descriptive corpus-based study that gathered data through comparison of English causative sentences and their translations by two groups of professional and novice translators.

F. Data Analysis

The data collected through comparison of the original causative sentences and their corresponding translations of the two groups were directly related to translation strategies in the framework to decide on the type of strategies.

G. Ethical Considerations

The participants were informed about the purposes of the study and their consent was obtained, before starting the data collection procedure. The participants were informed that their responses on the translation of causative sentences would be kept confidential.

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In the previous section, the procedure for data collection was explained step-by-step. In this section, the reported data collected through analysis of parallel samples leads the research to stage of analysis and findings have been shown through tables, and figures.

According to the information provided in figure 2, the professional translator has used Non-causative and Positive Implication strategies most frequently. She used Noncausative strategy 13 times (i.e., 21 percent) and Positive Implication, 12 times (i.e., 19 percent) in her translation. Whereas, strategies such as Negative Implication and Non-translated were never used by the professional translator. It is noteworthy that the professional translator has applied strategies such as Auxiliary (11 times or 18.3%), Lexical (8 times or 13.3 %), Morphological (4 times or 6.6%), Specific (3 times or 5%), Syntactic (3 times or 5%), Mediated (twice or 3.3%), Nonimplicative (twice or 3.3%), Permissive (once or 1.6%), and Coercive (once or 1.6%), while translating the novel from English into Persian.

TABLE 1
APPLIED STRATEGIES BY ALL 20 STUDENTS IN RENDERING CAUSATIVE SENTENCES

Translation Strategy	Frequency	Percentage
Nonimplicative	53	13.25%
Auxiliary	134	33.5%
Mediated	34	8.5%
Coercive	1	0.25%
Positive Implication	57	14.25%
Syntactic	17	4.25%
Morphological	4	1%
Negative Implication	3	0.75%
Permissive	1	0.25%
Specific	0	0%
Lexical	3	0.75%
Noncausative	84	21%
Not Translated	9	2.25%

According to the information provided in table 1, as shown in figure 1, all students have used Auxiliary and Noncausative strategies most frequently. Accordingly, they used strategy Auxiliary 134 times (i.e., 33.5 percent) and Noncausative 84 times (i.e., 21 percent) in their translations. Whereas, strategy named Specific was never used by the students. It is noteworthy that the twenty students have applied strategies such as Positive Implication (57 times or 14.25%), NonImplicative (53 or 13.25%), Mediated (34 times or 8.5%), Syntactic (18 times or 4.25%), Not translated (10 times or 2.25%), Morphological (4 times or 1%), Lexical (3 times or 0.75%), Negative Implication, Permissive and Coercive (once or 0.25%), while translating the novel from English into Persian.

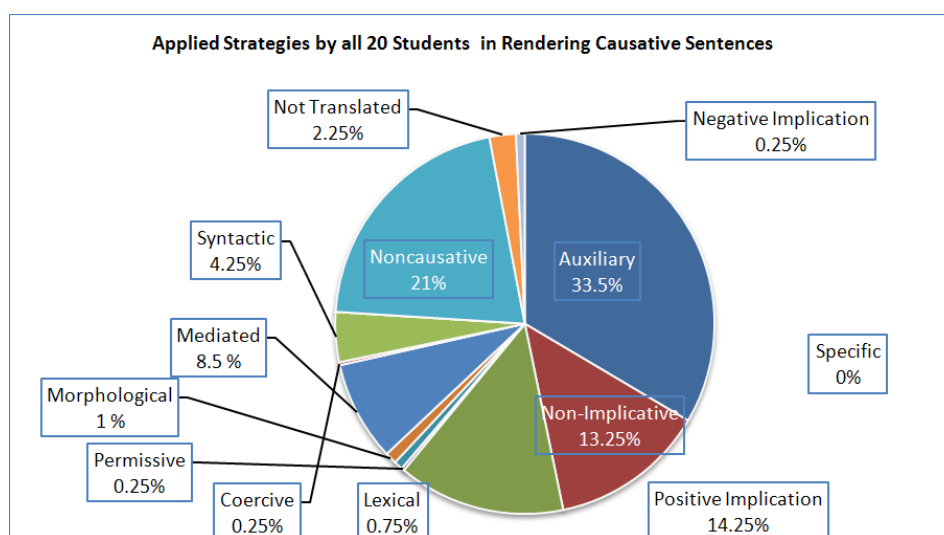


Figure 1. Strategies by all 20 Students in Rendering Causative Sentences

TABLE 2
STRATEGIES APPLIED BY 20 STUDENTS VS. STRATEGIES BY PROFESSIONAL TRANSLATOR

Translation Strategy	Students	The Professional Translator
Nonimplicative	53	2
Auxiliary	134	11
Mediated	34	2
Coercive	1	1
Positive Implication	57	12
Permissive	1	1
Syntactic	17	3
Morphological	4	4
Negative Implication	3	0
Lexical	3	8
Noncausative	84	13
Specific	0	3
Not Translated	9	0

On the one hand, the professional translator (See Table 2 and Figure 2) has used Non-causative and Positive Implication strategies most frequently. She has used Noncausative strategy 13 times (i.e., 21 percent) and Positive Implication, 12 times (i.e., 19 percent) in her translation. Whereas, strategies such as Negative Implication and Non-translated were never used by the professional translator. It is noteworthy that the professional translator has utilized translation strategies such as Auxiliary (11 times or 18.3%), Lexical (8 times or 13.3 %), Morphological (4 times or

6.6%), Specific (3 times or 5%), Syntactic (3 times or 5%), Mediated (twice or 3.3%), Nonimplicative (twice or 3.3%), Permissive (once or 1.6%), and Coercive (once or 1.6%), while translating the novel from English into Persian. On the other hand, the twenty students (See Table 2 and Figure 2) have used Auxiliary and Noncausative strategies most frequently. Accordingly, they used strategy Auxiliary 134 times (i.e.,33.5 percent) and Noncausative 78 times (i.e, 21 percent) in their translations. Whereas, strategy named Specific was never used by the students . It is noteworthy that the twenty students have applied strategies such as Positive Implication (57 times or 14.25%), NonImplicative (53 or 13.25%), Mediated (34 times or 8.5%), Syntactic (18 times or 4.25%), Not translated (10 times or 2.25%), Morphological (4 times or 1%), Lexical (3 times or 0.75%), Negative Implicaton, Permissive, and Coercive (once or 0.25%), while translating the novel from English into Persian.

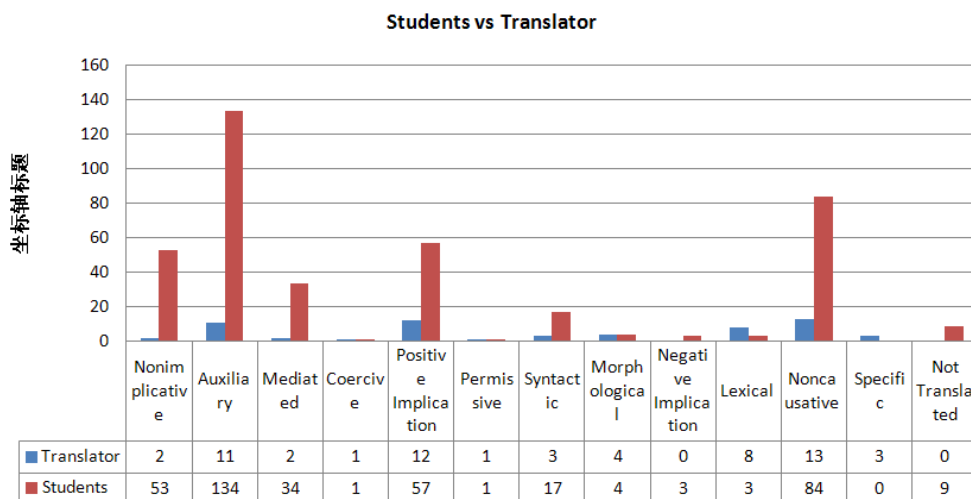


Figure 2. Strategies by 20 Students versus Strategies by Professional Translator

V. DISCUSSION

Analysis of the translation provided and the strategies utilized by the translator are indicative of the fact that usually the causative construction that appears in the source language has the disposition to be retained in the target language, when failing in translating. According to Williams (2005), there are some forms and constructions in English language in which the causative may appear, the same does hold true with regard to Persian language. As proven and evidenced by the findings and outcomes of the present study, to the extent reasonably possible, any translator is bound to make its utmost efforts to present the causative forms and constructions which are given in the source text (ST) with the same form and same meaning construction in the target text (TT). Otherwise, particular intention of the causatives may be distorted. (Randall, 1982)

Statistics in this research indicate that most strategies used by the twenty students are Auxiliary, Non-causative, and Positive Implication. On the other hand, the statistics from professional translator was same as students, whereas the twenty students in some cases acted like the professional translator. In some cases, the translator and twenty students put non-causative forms for the causatives that are provided in the English text. Therefore, it can be ventured that the translator and participants whose translations were investigated through the present study had a satisfactory understanding of the causative construction in both Persian and English. Such a satisfactory understanding accompanied with the capability to use the acceptable form of causative in its right place that has given the professional translator the advantage to present as appropriate as possible the causative construction in the intended language, preserving fidelity to the source text to the extent permitted by the context.

Having a deep look at the strategies adopted by the professional translator let us come to this conclusion that being acquainted with the subject matter, in this case causative forms and construction, is bound to contribute to the betterment of understanding and translation of the text with which we are dealing. The students conversely did not have access to original text that had effects on their translation. In addition, most of the causative types are used by the professional translator at different given situations. It shows the fact that Persian and English enjoy some forms and constructions that presentation of the same is feasible in the same and similar way and manner.

In some cases, the students deviated from the principle of preserving fidelity to the causative form and construction used in the English text and used a different form and construction to represent the English causative forms used in the Persian target text. Of course, the cases in which such deviations happen are proven to ignore fidelity; therefore, there was no option open to the students but to use a non-causative form to show the causative form and construction used in the source text. Such deviations also made it known that in some cases the causative forms are language-specific and every language has its unique form of presentation of the causative construction.

It is on the given translator to make her reasonable efforts to keep the causative form in the target text in cases where it is possible to present the causative construction of the source text in the same form and manner in the target text, but most of the students did not care about the instruction of the test. Additionally, the given students have the responsibility to find the cases, where preserving the same causative construction used in the target text renders the translation nonsense and distorted. In such cases, the students were given the option to have recourse to non-causative form in the target text in order to keep the function of the source text in the target text, providing a translation that enjoys the highly possible proper and appropriate particulars.

VI. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

In this section, the conclusion of the research is dealt with. Firstly, we have a glance at the strategies adopted by the translator and twenty students. Secondly, the pedagogical implications of the research for both translator training and translation evaluation will be explained. Finally, some recommendations and suggestions are provided for further Research.

A. Conclusions

All kinds of causative verbs enumerated in this research were found in our corpus. In some cases, the professional translator has used some strategies together which are not mentioned in the references existing on causative verbs in Persian. We have labeled and styled them as "Specific" causative provided by the translator. In some other cases, the causative structures of the original English text were rendered into non-causative structure in the target Persian Text.

As previously mentioned, at the first step of this research, sixty sentences containing causatives of the novel entitled *Lord of the Flies* were highlighted. Then, the English causative sentences and their Persian translation were tabulated to show the applied strategies in the Persian translation of the book by Mansouri (2003) as the professional translator. Then, the twenty English sentences were given to the twenty translation trainees without Persian translation and they were asked to translate them into Persian.

Through close consideration of their translations, the translation strategies were identified based on the chosen framework of the study. The finding related to the strategies used by translation trainees were illustrated in the form of figures and tables. The tables showed the disposition to use the causative construction in the target text that is more than moving toward non-causative forms. The results also showed that there are some kinds of causative forms and constructions in the provided translation, such as Auxiliary, Non-causative and Positive implication that were used more frequently than the other forms. It reveals the fact that these forms and constructions are most apt to Persian causative construction and are used with a wider range of frequency in this language. In addition, there is no fixed form of TL construction in source language. It indicates the complexity of the role played by the professional translator in finding the sort of causative construction in the target language that stands more suitable to a given causative construction used in the source language.

As for research question 1, the professional translator (See Table 2 and Figure 2) has used Non-causative and Positive Implication strategies most frequently. She has used Noncausative strategy 13 times (i.e., 21 percent) and Positive Implication, 12 times (i.e., 19 percent) in her translation. As for research question 2, all translation trainees (See Table 2 and Figure 2) have used Auxiliary and Noncausative strategies most frequently. They have used strategy Auxiliary 134 times (i.e., 34 percent) and, Noncausative 78 times (i.e., 20 percent) in their translations.

Insufficient ability of twenty students in translation of causatives could be due to lack of knowledge of recognizing causative situation in their English comprehension, let alone performing correct translation. Another reason might be interference of native language (Persian) and the foreign language (English). In other words, the students unconsciously think in Persian, while rendering English causatives into Persian. Another problem is that when they did not have complete text for translation of extracted sentences, it might put them in problem when they are translating. Moreover, there is a strategy behind every choice, and a reason behind every strategy, and translators should try their best to transfer all the components of a causative construction as well as possible, because each word or verb has its own value.

The translator's mastery over the causative construction in the language pair throughout this study reminds us of a point of paramount significance, that is, the better your understanding of the causative construction used in Persian and English, the better your translation.

B. Implications of Study

The results of this research have some pedagogical implication both for teaching translating and for translation evaluation.

The results of this research could be used in translator training courses particularly in translation from English into Persian. Since the parallel corpus used in this research is of literary genre, the results of this research could be of much more help, if used teaching translation of literary materials.

Teachers and translation evaluators could use the results of this research in evaluating the translation of translators and Translation students. They can also use corpora in various genres and analyze the same in order to have more reliable results for evaluation of various text types.

C. Suggestions for Further Research

The type used in this research was literary. Other researchers can use other text types or increase the size of the parallel corpus in order to find other types of causative or other types of verbs and the strategies applied in their translation into Persian. For example, scientific texts can be examined, because causative situations may be found more frequent in scientific texts.

This research was carried out based on a semantic approach; other researchers can adopt a syntactic approach and carry out the same research based on this approach, for example, the cases of passive voice and active voice and their translation into Persian.

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Naghmeh Ghasdian holds an M.A. in Translation Studies at Islamic Azad University South Tehran Branch. She is interested in translation of English causatives into Persian.

Ahmad Sedighi is assistant Professor of TEFL at Allameh Tabataba'i University and Islamic Azad University where he teaches translation courses for MA and BA students.

On the Relationship between Willingness to Communicate and Deculturation

Mahdi Nasiri
University of Zanjan, Iran

Mojde Suzani
University of Zanjan, Iran

Parvin Babamoradi
University of Zanjan, Iran

Nasrin Mohammadi
University of Zanjan, Iran

Abstract—Language learning issues coupled with cultural concerns have been the focus of language researchers within the last decades. This study makes an innovative attempt to scrutinize a new concept in cultural issues, i.e. deculturation. Hence, the relationship between willingness to communicate (WTC), one of the most controversial issues in language learning circles, and deculturation was the matter of research in this study. As far as the sample of current study was concerned, 50 upper- intermediate female English students were selected from among 80 participants from Radmehr English Language Centre in Shariar, Iran. The data was collected by means of two kinds of questionnaires, a Home Culture Attachment Scale (HCAS) and Willingness to Communicate (WTC) questionnaire. The results of the study revealed that there were meaningful relationships between the underlying constructs of the deculturation questionnaire (consisting constructs such as Religious, Iranian, Cultural, Artistic and Western Attachments) and WTC. One of the correlations demonstrated that Deculturation applied mostly for those who were willing to communicate inside the classroom. The implications of this study will best suit language practitioners and language policy makers.

Index Terms—language learning, willingness to communicate, deculturation, language practitioners

I. INTRODUCTION

Recently, communicative approach in English language is highly emphasized in oral and written tasks. Pishghadam (2012) stated that due to the globalization of English language, as an international language, proficiency in English language is considered as an important priority for progress. Globalization and proficiency in English language have a close connection to the target norms of English culture. According to Monkman and Stromquist (2000), globalization and English learning have a propensity for homogeneity of cultural norms and values of English. This phenomenon is specific for those countries in which English is regarded as a foreign language. Similarly, Giddens (2000) claimed that westernization is equal to the term globalization, and especially Americanization. Pishghadam (2010) stated that Americanization and deculturation in EFL context like Iran have brought about some problems. He also believes that deculturation may put the cultural identities of Iranian learners of English in Jeopardy.

A large number of studies have been carried out to find out the factors affecting deculturation in this area (See for example, Alatas, 1977; Pennycook, 1994; Philipson, 1986). Philipson (1992) examined the economic linguistic and cultural motives of the ELT profession. Porter (1994) also investigated how learners' thought affect deculturation. Samuelowicz (2008) proved that Asian learners find English language and English culture superior to their own culture in an EFL context; as a consequence, they have willingness to communicate in English.

According to Long (1996) and Swain (2000) theories of second language acquisition can develop learners' competence in L2. Therefore, using L2 actively in the class triggers the emergence of Willingness to communicate (WTC). Xie (2011) believes that WTC leads to authentic communication in L2. WTC refers to a learner's stable personalities or enduring influences that represent no fluctuations across different contexts (Baer & McCroskey, 1985). The fact is that Learner's WTC influences how frequently they actively engage in communicating in L2 (Baker, Cle ment, & MacIntyre, 2003). As Xie (2011) clearly stated that WTC enables language learners to start their communicative task in a specific context. The mentioned studies indicated that willingness to communicate in one way or another is linked to deculturation.

The primary reason for language learning is to be able to use language to communicate. McIntyre and Charos (1996) argued that communication is a key factor in language learning for internal and external purposes. According to what was mentioned about the importance of communication, a limited number of studies has been conducted on the

relationship between deculturation and willingness to communicate. This paper aims to investigate the relationship between different types of willingness to communicate and deculturation.

The following research questions are reformulated for the purpose of this study:

1. Is there any relationships between WTC and Deculturation?

The following null hypothesis was formulated on the basis of the research questions:

H0: there is no significant relationship between willingness to communicate and deculturation.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As Pishghadam (2013) claimed, deculturation is a new concept in language learning and teaching. Deculturation takes place when some elements of learners' own culture are missed during the learning process. As Berry (2002) states deculturation is the product of a group of people in a non-dominant culture, who are not accustomed to dominant culture. Risager (2006) believes that due to imperialistic dominance of English and strong desire of EFL learners toward English culture, threats may happen during the learning process. Deculturation that relates to the behavior and thought (identification) of learners, is mostly observable in learners' speech and communication. It can be concluded that communication in target language is one of the most important objectives of teachers and learners.

One of the objectives of each language instruction is communication. Being fluent in a second language is the final goal of L2 learners. So, they can achieve their goal by being willing to communicate. Kuhl (1994) has a theory of action control, which is a conceptual framework for the study of willingness to communicate. There are three key concepts of preoccupation, volatility, and hesitation, from which WTC in the second language is built (Kuhl, 1994). Lack of WTC inside and outside language classroom is related to tendencies for disruption in action control (McIntyre, 2009). McCroskey and Richmond (1985) claimed that factors like introversion, self-esteem, communicative competence, communication apprehension, and cultural diversity directly or indirectly influence L2 WTC. WTC is one of the most affective factors which can influence the genuine communication in L2 and it seems that it can be a good predictor of frequency of communication (Yashima, 2002). WTC, in fact, is interpreted as a learner's readiness to inter into discourse at a particular time with a specific person or persons, using L2 (Clement, Do ʔnyei, McIntyre, and Noels, 1998).

WTC is perceived as a stable individual characteristic and according to McCroskey, (1992) WCT is a predisposition to initiate or avoid communication with others when given a choice. (p.17)

Do ʔnyei (2003) asserts that many L2 learners prefer to keep away from second language communication. Based on this idea Kang (2005) claims that many L2 learners may not utilize the chances of learning language through authentic communication. MacIntyre et al. (1998) conclude that producing WTC is a paramount component of modern language instruction. They believe that the common view about communicative competence may just produce learners to communicate inside the classroom, but these learners may not be tractable to do so outside the classroom.

According to Barbarian (2014), 'the majority of the cultural studies have, to date, concentrated on western cultures' (p.543); therefore, few studies are accessible about deculturation.

According to Hornberger and McKay (1996), now days there is a need to do research in culture, acculturation and deculturation and their importance in foreign language, but unfortunately, few research have been done in these field especially in Iran.

In the study by Abdi and Firoozjahantigh (2015) the impact of Home Culture Alienation (Deculturation) on proficiency level in English as a foreign language in Iran was investigated.

The result of this study which was entitled "proficiency level in English and self-identity alienation (deculturation): the case of Iranian EFL learners" showed that there is a positive correlation between the proficiency level of Iranian learner as EFL and cultural dependency (deculturation).

The study also showed that deculturation can be a fair estimator of Iranian EFL learners' proficiency level.

The other study was carried out by Pishghadam and Zahibi (2012), which focused on linguistic imperialism and deculturation during the process of learning language for learners in Islamic countries especially in Iran. The authors argue that in Iran the more learners try to achieve the mastery of English, the more they get far away from their own culture. They also mention that in Iran learners still consider English standard as prestige and superior to other varieties of English. In another study by Kamyabi and Pishghadam (2009) the relationship between and native accent and deculturation among Iranian EFL learners has been investigated. The study revealed that the more learners approach the native accent the more deculturation happens. Other studies by Porter (1990) Penny cook (1994) revealed that because the people of Asian countries that English is their foreign countries consider themselves as narrow minded, usually prefer to communicate in English to avoid from their culture, and this is the result of deculturation in these studies. From all these studies it can be concluded that there is a positive correlation between the proficiency level of learners of EFL countries and deculturation. In the other word the more they get proficient in English the more deculturation happens.

Group interaction has an important role in being successful in second language communication. Prior research has shown that a shared common group identity plays a critical positive role in interpersonal and intergroup relations (Eller & Abrams, 2004; Gaertner et al., 1994; Nier et al., 2001).

Previous studies have examined the motivation (see Dörnyei, 2005; Gardner, 2001) and language anxiety (see Young's 1999 volume) for language learning. These studies show that in second language acquisition as motivation and willingness to communicate increase, the language anxiety decrease.

In the study by Macintyre (2007) factors that affect willingness to communicate was examined. The researcher identified that individual factors like anxiety, motivation, attitudes, interpersonal as well as social contextual factors like ethno linguistic vitality, language contact, etc., affect WTC.

In the other study by Eller and Abrams (2004) it's found that in a Mexican-American context, individuals who shared a group identity with their contact counterparts demonstrated lower levels of anxiety with these counterparts.

This study and the other ones like Nier et al.'s (2001) demonstrated that friendship and common group identity (CIM) has an importance role in enhancing intergroup relations. And this intergroup interaction leads to social attractiveness and. Social attractiveness further relates to willingness to communicate in a way that those who perceive similarity and liking toward each other are more likely to willingly engage in communication (Kim, 1991; Rogers & Bhowmik, 1970).

As it is mentioned, CIM leads to the learners willing to communicate and according to Dovidio, et al (2001) in recent years; scholars have paid great attention to the integration of the acculturation theory and CIM as the guiding theoretical frameworks in research on host-home cultural relations

As Berry, (1997); Wang & Mallinckrodt, (2006); Ward & Kennedy, (1999) stated acculturation is the processes of psychological adjustment (e.g., sense of well-being and self-esteem) and sociocultural adaptation (e.g., communication competence and social networks) in the new environment.

As it is mentioned studies like Porter (1990) Penny cook (1994) showed that the process of language learning in EFL countries is accompanied by deculturation happens and the people in these countries believe that English norms and English culture are superior to their own culture, and they usually give up their culture as they become more proficient in English. On the other hand studies like Doucette and Macintyre (2010) showed that communication is the ultimate goal of L2 learners.

The studies conducted by Yashima (2002), Yashima et al. (2004) and Peng (2014) examined WTC in English in the Asian context which, contacts with native speakers are rare.

Yashima et al. (2004) and Yashima (2009) established that high levels of IP (international posture) like (interest in international affairs, willingness to work or study abroad and readiness to interact with people from other countries) lead to increased WTC.

As Lu & Hsu (2008) states most of the research on willingness to communicate focus on exploring the adjusting individuals' acculturation strategies and willing to communicate.

The present will investigate on the relationship between willingness to communicate and deculturation. More specifically this paper will survey the relationship of different types of willingness to communicate (outside, inside, orientation) and their relationship with deculturation.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participant:

The participants for this study were 50 Iranian students as an English Foreign language (EFL) learners in private English language center of Shahriar, Iran. All the selected participants were female. Students were in upper-intermediate language proficiency based on TOEFL placement test. Their course book assigned by the institute was American English File, level 3. Their ages were between 18 to 25 (M= 21.25).

Instrument

TOEFL Test

In order to make sure that all the selected students had the same level, first of all, the second version of TOEFL placement test was administered. The test is divided into two parts. All the students can answer questions 1 to 40, without supervisors' help. The second part is questions 41 to 60 that they should answer them with supervisors' help. It has assessed learners' grammar, vocabulary and reading skills. It takes 30 minutes to answer all the questions.

Home Culture Attachment Scale

Home Culture Attachment scale (HCAS) was adopted from Pishghadam et al. (2013). According to these researchers, HCAS questionnaire is validated by Rasch measurement. It consists of 36 items and its reliability was 0.85. This questionnaire consists of Religion, Iranian, cultural, artistic and western attachments.

TABLE 1
FIVE FACTORS OF SCALE RELIABILITY OF EACH FACTOR

Area	Statements	N of Items	Percentage
Religion	7,14,18,21,28,31,35	7	20
Iranian	5,8,13,19,29,32	6	16
Cultural	3,6,9,11,16,34,36	7	20
Artistic	2,10,15,17,24	5	14
Western	1,4,12,20,22,23,25,26,27,30,33	11	30
	Total	36	100

Willingness to communicate

MacIntyre et al. (2001) modified a Likert-type questionnaire to measure students' willingness to communicate inside/outside the classroom and their orientation for language learning. The first two parts contained 27 items, and the third part contained 20 items, which were Likert-scale ranging from 1 to 5 for the first two types, and 1 to 6 in the third part.

Procedure

To begin with the permission of Shahriar institute authority the TOEFL placement test was taken. After that, the WTC and HCAS questionnaires were distributed among students during the class time. The instructor assisted students so that they could answer the questions properly.

The first questionnaire was Willingness to Communicate (WTC) which contains three parts: Willingness to communicate inside the classroom, Willingness to communicate outside the classroom, and Orientation for language learning. The second questionnaire was Home Culture Attachment Scale (HCAS). It was borrowed from Pishghadam and Kamyabi (2013, p. 5). They classified the HCAS questions into five categories based on their elements as shown in figure 1. Also they numerated the options from one to four. For some questions, totally disagree was valued as 1 and totally agree as 4, and for some other the reverse procedure was applied.

Data analysis

To analyze the data, first descriptive statistics was used. To find out the relationship between deculturation and WTC a Pearson product-moment correlation was taken to find out which type of willingness to communicate has effect on deculturation.

IV. RESULT

To analyze the data in this study, the statistical package for a social sciences (SPSS), version 22, was used. The significance level that was set was 0.05. The descriptive statistics of the two instrument- HCAS and WTC questionnaires are shown in table 2.

TABLE 2
WTC AND DECULTURATION FREQUENCY

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Deculturation	60	35.00	150.00	94.6453	23.28312
WTC Inside	60	14.00	92.00	50.56	67.00
WTC outside	60	13.00	91.00	51.3897	18.33294
WTC orientation	60	19.00	82.00	45.3662	12.11482

To obtain the correlation between deculturation and WTC Pearson product moment correlation was used. The result showed that there was a strong positive correlation between WTC inside the class and deculturation ($r=.557$, $p<.05$) and also a moderate positive relationship between deculturation and orientation toward willingness to communicate ($r=.247$, $p<.05$). The result also showed that there is a negative correlation between deculturation and willingness to communicate outside the class Outside($r=-.483$, $p<.05$). (See table 3).

TABLE 3
THE RESULTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN DECULTURATION AND WTC

Sig		Deculturation
.000	WTC Inside	.542*
.026	WTC Outside	-.483*
.000	WTC Orientation	.247*

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

To investigate which type of willingness to communicate (inside, outside, orientation) has more effect on deculturation regression analysis was run. The next table is the ANOVA table of regression. The quantities of F and p-value ($p<0.05$) showed that the considered models were significant. (See table 4)

TABLE 4
THE ANOVA TABLE OF REGRESSION

Model		Sum of Square	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
1	Regression	20213.362	1	20213.362	46.893	.000a
	Residual	44321.143	58	432.502		
	Total	64972.924	59			
2	Regression	21193.463	2	10132.743	26.302	.000b
	Residual	41744.309	57			
	Total	56324.253	59			
3	Regression	23458.392	3	8256.423	19160	.000c
	Residual	39590.453	56	476.491		
	Total	64983.093	59			

a.predictors: (constant) orientation toward learning

b.predictors: (constant) orientation toward learning, inside the class

c.predictors: (constant) orientation toward learning, inside the class, outside the class

As table 5 showed willingness to communicate inside the class and orientation toward learning have positive effect on deculturation while willingness to communicate outside the class had negative effect on deculturation.

TABLE 5
FACTORS IN WTC

Model	B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig
1.constant	56.398	4.176		8.276	.000
orientation	.598	.99	.493	4.602	.000
2.constant	50.398	5.945		6.926	.000
orientation	.386	.102	.348	3.264	.101
inside	.398	.198	.259	2.518	.619
3.consonant	59.376	6.823		7.173	.000
orientation	.203	.129	.280	2.068	.167
inside	.709	.210	.518	3.011	.023
outside	-.532	.201	-.293	-2.176	.056

V. DISCUSSION / CONCLUSION

The present study sought to find out the relation between WTC and Deculturation among upper-intermediate learners. The result revealed that there were strong positive relationship between deculturation and WTC inside the class, and negative relationship between Deculturation and WTC outside the class, and the moderate positive relation between deculturation and orientation toward communication.

The results of this study indicate that there is a significant relationship between the two variables. The analysis indicated that learners who have tendency to communicate outside the class, want to learn English for their needs, like talking to a friend while waiting in line, reading different materials e.g. novel, article and etc. However, as the statistics show willing to communicate inside the class is just for demonstrating the prestige among their classmates. The implication of this study for ELT teachers is that, they should not just focus on communication in the class. It is better to prepare learners to communicate in authentic situations, this can also avoid deculturation.

Previous studies have been done about different variables and WTC. One of these studies is McIntyre (1994), which a casual analysis has been done, investigated the relation among self-esteem, communication apprehension, introversion and their contribution to WTC has been tested.

As it is found out, no assessment has been conducted regarding the relationship of WTC and deculturation.

And from this research and other studies, it is appeared that deculturation has a direct relationship with willingness to communicate.

The reason of this deculturation maybe is that, the atmosphere of English/ foreign classroom of these countries is quite different with other learning courses like physics, Mathematics, history, etc. It is common among outer circle countries to learn English native-like which causes learners to be alienated from their own culture and identity, especially among younger learners who wants to be distinguished from other learners in their same age. Learning English in a class, a learner fosters a new identity approximate to the culture of that new language and give up his own culture.

Regarding Wray's study (1999, 2000, 2002, 2004) learners in the initial stages of second language acquisition, mostly use prefabs and expressions to show high prestige, but as the fluency increase and learners become more proficient and will to use their knowledge of English for their needs outside the class, they tend to use too much language, which is created afresh.

Nevertheless, the present study suffers from a number of limitations. The current study was likely the first attempt to investigate the relationship between WTC and deculturation. Due to the lack of instrument measuring deculturation the present research employed HCAS questionnaire, which relies on participants' honesty to answer the questions. Further studies can use interview to obtain their level of deculturation. It should also mention that this study was just among female learners. A similar study can be conducted on male learners as well, to find out the gender differences on WTC and deculturation.

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Mahdi Nasiri, is an assistant professor of TEFL in the University of Zanjan. His fields of interest are Language Assessment and SLA.

Mojde Suzani, is an MA candidate of TEFL at the University of Zanjan, Iran. She has 4 years' experience of teaching English in various English Language Centers. Her areas of interest are corrective feedback, teaching listening, and dynamic assessment.

Parvin Babamoradi, is an MA candidate of TEFL at the University of Zanjan, Iran. She has 4 years' experience of teaching English in different institutes. Her main research interests are dynamic assessment and assessment literacies.

Nasrin Mohammadi, is an MA candidates at Zanjan University in Iran. She was graduated from Imam Khomeini International University of Qazvin in her BA level. She has studied English Language Teaching in both levels of her graduation and has taught English for 5 years.

Art and Daoism in “How Wang Fo Was Saved”

Jing Zhu
Hebei University, China

Abstract—In “How Wang Fo Was Saved”, the essay distinguishes three kinds of people in terms of their relationship to the world of art: the outsiders, the insiders, and the in-between. Wang Fo and Ling are the only insiders who really follow Dao (the way of all things). The essay argues that, Daoism is not only seen in Wang Fo’s paintings, it’s also lived by Wang Fo and Ling.

Index Terms—How Wang Fo Was Saved, art, Daoism

I. INTRODUCTION

Yu Hua, a Chinese contemporary writer and one of many admirers of Yourcenar (1903-1987) in China, once observed that “How Wang Fo was saved” is a Chinese tale pervaded with French aroma (Yu Hua, 1999). The overlapping of seemingly Chinese scenes with western tastes creates something that is neither totally Chinese nor particularly western. Thus, in Yourcenar’s hand, the Imperial Palace is made into an exotic place: the shapes of the square and rooms were such that they “symbolized the seasons, the cardinal points, the male and the female, longevity, and the prerogatives of power;” while “the doors swung on their hinges with a musical note, and were placed in such a manner that one followed the entire scale when crossing the palace from east to west.” (Yourcenar, p.9) Not only is the story set in an ambiguous space where east mingles with west, it is also set at a questionable time. The first sentence sets the time at the Kingdom of Han (202 B.C to 220 A.D.), and it is repeated three times later on. (Yourcenar, p.1, 7, 12, 13) Yet Yourcenar wrote about the pigtailed of the courtiers, and man having pigtailed was only popular when China was under the rule of Qing Dynasty (1644-1911). Obviously, this is an anachronism.

However, it would be missing the point if we were to find fault with Yourcenar and accuse her of not being accurate and of not rendering a truthful picture of ancient China. The argument here is, what Yourcenar means to convey is a poetic representation of Chinese philosophical ideas rather than a faithful depiction. As Konrad Czyski (1987) has argued, it is a journey “set forth within the realm of literary imagination”, to exemplify “a unique meeting of East and West” (p.302), so it does not matter much whether the painter is a Chinese Wang Fo or a Dutch Rembrandt. Ambiguous as it is, it is like a prism, disseminating multiple meanings. Here I will focus on two of them: the way people are related to Wang Fo’s paintings, or more generally, to the world of art, and how Daoism is represented in the story.

II. ART AND PEOPLE

Of all the people portrayed in “How Wang Fo was saved”, I distinguish three groups in terms of how close they can get to the world of art: the insiders, the outsiders, and the in-betweens. The three groups of people constitute a pyramid structure, and the outsiders of the realm of art are at the bottom, and they are in majority. They come from all walks of life.

The Outsiders

First there are the ordinary people, the folks. When “it was murmured that Wang Fo had the power to bring his painting to life by adding a last touch of color to their eye,” people come to him, with different purposes: “Farmer would come and beg him to paint a watchdog, and the lords would ask him for portraits of their best warriors. The priests honored Wang Fo as a sage; the people feared him as a sorcerer. Wang enjoyed these differences of opinion which gave him the chance to study expressions of gratitude, fear, and veneration.” (Yourcenar, p.7) Apparently, these people who come to Wang Fo are blind to the beauty of his artwork; what they are concerned is not the art itself but practical uses. They are also superstitiously in awe of the artist’s almost magic power.

Then there are the soldiers that arrest Wang Fo and Ling. When they come to arrest Wang Fo and Ling, they treat the two artists harshly. But Wang Fo seems not worried about his fate, rather, he notices that the soldiers violate artistic beauty because their sleeves “did not match the color of their coats.” (Yourcenar, p.8) They lack human compassion as well as a sense of beauty. They are unable to appreciate Wang Fo’s work and the door to the world of art is forever shut to them.

Finally, there are the courtiers, among whom are the minister of Perfect Pleasure and Counselor of Just Torments. They witness the birth of Wang Fo’s last masterpiece in the Imperial Palace, but without any awe. And when the water came up to their shoulders, they stood “motionless as *etiquette* required” (my italicizing), only “trying to lift themselves onto the tips of their toes”. (Yourcenar, p.17) How right Ling is when he observed that “they will soon be dry again and will not even remember that their sleeves were ever wet. . . . These people are not the kind to lose themselves inside a painting.” (Yourcenar, p.18) To lose oneself inside a painting indicates the capability to get totally immersed in art. So

they are kept forever out of the world of art.

The In-betweens

Besides Wang Fo, the ones who are close at the door of the artistic world, who can understand and appreciate art, are the Emperor and Ling. The Emperor loves Wang Fo's paintings, so much so that he is totally immersed in them. Before sixteen, he lived a life of enclosure, in the world of Wang Fo's paintings. He imagined the world as Wang Fo painted it: "with the Kingdom of Han at the center, to be like the flat palm of my hand crossed by fatal lines of the Five Rivers. Around it lay the sea in which monsters are born, and farther away the mountains that hold up the heavens." (Yourcenar, p.12) Wang Fo's paintings make him believe that "the sea looked like the vast sheet of water.....so blue that if a stone were to fall into it, it would become a sapphire". (Yourcenar, p.12) Thus we may say that Wang Fo's paintings usher him into the world of beauty.

The Emperor is also able to understand the artist Wang Fo. He pictures how Wang Fo used to paint his unfinished masterpiece: "no doubt, when you began your work, sitting in a solitary valley, you noticed a passing bird, or a child running after the bird. And the bird's beak or the child's cheeks made you forget the blue eyelids of the sea." (Yourcenar, p.15) His sensitivity to color is another proof that he is one of the few people who understands the old painter. That's why, at the end of the story, Ling said that the courtiers "will soon be dry again and will not even remember that their sleeves were ever wet," but the Emperor will "keep in his heart a little of the bitterness of the sea." (Yourcenar, p.18)

All this does not make him an insider, however. He remains an outsider in that he isolates the objects from the world, confuses art with real life, mistaking the world in the paintings as the real world. So when he finds out that the real world is not as beautiful as he perceives in the paintings, he becomes outraged and condemns Wang Fo for being a liar, "an old imposter" (Yourcenar, p.13).

In Ling's case, things are different. Unlike the emperor, he approaches art the other way round, that is, he steps out of the physical into the metaphysical. Ling understands the paintings not because he is immersed in them for a long time. His understanding comes as a sudden insight through Wang Fo's instruction: Wang Fo presents him with "the gift of a new soul and a new vision of the world". (Yourcenar, p.5) When he was able to admire "the livid zebra stripes of lightning" and "stopped being afraid of storms", when he discovered "with surprise that the walls of his house were not red, as he had always thought, but the color of an almost rotten orange", when he followed with delight the hesitant trail of an ant along the cracks in the wall", (Yourcenar, p.5) Ling is able to leap from the physical world of real life to the metaphysical world of art. All the horrors, all the indifferences, are now transformed into aesthetic experiences. More importantly, the artwork and the object it represents, together with the artistic world it creates, constitute an integrate system for him. They are not isolated as in the Emperor's world.

Another thing that is remarkable about Ling is his piety towards art and the artist. He is so humble before art that he "bent beneath the weight of a sack full of sketches, bowed his back with respect as if he were carrying the heaven's vault, because for Ling the sack was full of snow-covered mountains, torrents in spring, and the face of the summer moon." (Yourcenar, p.3) In order to buy his master pots of purple ink that came from the West, he "sold his slaves, his jades, and the fish in his pond" "one after the other". He "begged for food, watched over his master's rest, and took advantage of the old man's raptures to massage his feet." (Yourcenar, p.6) For him, aesthetic pleasure is no longer confined to the frame of the painting itself, but expands to include everyday life. Thus Ling's appreciation of beauty transcends the artworks themselves into a much broader space, where the measure for beauty is in the hands of the one who perceives, not the one that is perceived. This is exactly what the emperor lacks: he perceives the forms of beauty, not beauty itself.

The Insiders

Ling's transcendence further makes him an insider. His mind and the artistic world of the painting are in harmony, and ultimately becomes one. It indicates an existence beyond the commonplace, or what we call "*Chu Shi*" (transcendence). Indeed Ling transcends ordinary life in many ways. He used to be wealthy, but later sold everything to buy pots of purple ink that came from the West paints for his master. And when he had emptied his house, he closed "the door of his past behind him," (Yourcenar, p.6) began to roam with Wang Fo, and enjoyed it. He is unmoved by the loss of the wealthy and comfortable life he used to lead. He begged food, took care of everything, and when Wang Fo became disheartened by his old age, he cheered him up by "showing him the solid trunk of an old oak." (Yourcenar, p.7) Following Wang Fo, he is free from worldly concerns whatsoever, and steps into the world of art with disinterestedness and detachment.

There is also his indifference to death. Ling experiences two deaths in the story, one being his wife's and the other his own. He used to be "afraid of insects, of thunder, and the face of the dead," (Yourcenar, p.3) but when his wife died, because his master Wang Fo loved "the green hue that suffuses the face of the dead," and set out to paint it, he began to "mix the colors and the task needed such concentration that he forgot to shed tears." (Yourcenar, p.6) At such a time, Ling seems infected by Wang Fo's obsession with color and forgets the cruel fact that his wife just died, thus forgets the pain. When it's time for him to face his own death, he is able to take it calmly, with no fear. This is because once he transcends the ordinary and perceives another world beyond it, he connects the significance of his life only with his master Wang Fo and art, nothing else ever matters. When he is arrested, what worries him is not that he would be put into prison, but that "who would help Wang Fo ford the next river on the following day." (Yourcenar, p.8) The moment he is about to be killed for protecting his master, what he cares is not his own life, but that his blood would "stain his

master's robe." (Yourcenar, p.14) This is what an insider is like: neither the worldly power nor fear can affect him, he breaks free from this physical world and enters the transcendental world of art. His resurrection at the end thus can be seen as a kind of sublimation of his spiritual world.

As Ling's master, Wang Fo is of course another insider. More than that, he sits at the top of the pyramid, giving forms and life to the paintings and art. Ling's transcendence is a result of Wang Fo's teaching: he does not care about wealth, "no object seemed to him worth buying, except brushes, pots of lacquer and China ink, and rolls of silk and rice paper." (Yourcenar, p.3) They are poor, "because Wang Fo would exchange his paintings for a ration of boiled millet, and paid no attention to pieces of silver." (Yourcenar, p.3) The court does not interest him as the tavern where peasants and craftsmen drink and fight. For him, this is where the secrets of beauty or ugliness hide. He is sad when Ling dies, but at the same time he "in despair, admired the beautiful scarlet stain that his disciple's blood made on the green stone floor." (Yourcenar, p.15) Such a Wang Fo as Yourcenar represents him, is an incarnation of Taoist ideals. And it is no coincident at all that we can read the whole story in light of Daoism, for as Lu Jiande (2009) has pointed out, arguably Yourcenar's favorite writer was Zhuang Zi (Lu, p.83), one of the Daoist sages.

III. DAOIST IDEAS IN "HOW WANG FO WAS SAVED"

For Wang Fo, "no object in the world seemed to him worth buying, except brushes, pots of lacquer and China ink, and rolls of silk and rice paper." (Yourcenar, p.3) He loves "the image of the things and not the things themselves." (Yourcenar, p.3) Such an attitude towards worldly possession is very typical of Daoism. Zhuangzi famously claims, that human beings can possess things, but should not be possessed by things. Wealth and fame are obtained only through loss, because once you are in possession of them, you will live in eternal worry about losing them. Thus when it seems that you possess them, you are actually possessed by them. All wealth and fame are vanities. (Outer Chapters, "Perfect Enjoyment") For vanities, a wise man and a Daoist like Wang Fo can't care less. And this kind of attitude, I will argue, comes from one of Daoist core beliefs: the unity of opposites and the reciprocal transformation of the opposites. It is manifested both in Wang Fo's paintings and their way of living.

Male and Female in Wang Fo's Painting

Let's read the following quote first: "For many years, Wang Fo has dreamed of painting the portrait of a princess of olden days playing the lute under a willow. No woman was sufficiently unreal to be his model, but Ling would do because he was not a woman. Then Wang Fo spoke of painting a young prince shooting an arrow at the foot of a large cedar tree. No young man of the present was sufficiently unreal to serve as his model, but Ling got his wife to pose under the plum tree in the garden." (Yourcenar, p.5-6) When we read this, one question that will immediately come to our mind is: why only a man can pose as a model for a painting of a woman and a woman for a man? This is because for Wang Fo and Daoists, individuality conceals universality—a man's or a woman's body conceals "manness" or "womanness". Reality is too real to reveal the essence of things. But a man can pose for a woman, and vice versa. The radical differences between men and women exclude anything that is individual, so we may be more able to approach the essence of men and women.

This may seem ridiculous, yet, as Zhuangzi has made it clear thousands of years ago, male and female are not independent of each other. Rather, they are interdependent of each other. The unity of opposites is not an isolation of each other but a mutual transformation of each other. Once this is made clear, the notion that the opposites are irrelevant or are sharply contrasted to other will be subverted. As Zhuangzi argues, useless is useful. The tree is able to remain intact and live its years because it is useless. (Inner Chapters, "enjoyment in Untroubled Ease") By the same token, because male body is radically different from female body, no particular part will overshadow the essence, so it becomes the best model for a female portrait.

Life and Death for Wang Fo

Besides his unique painting skill, Wang Fo's experience with death also suggests that things can turn into its opposites. At the Imperial Palace, he sees Ling dying before him, and he knows that his own death is awaiting him, but once he looks at his own unfinished painting, he forgets all. Instead of trembling with horror before death, as the Emperor expects, he is immediately absorbed into the world of his painting. "A eunuch crouched by his feet, mixing the colors; he carried out his task with little skill, and more than ever Wang Fo lamented the loss of his disciple Ling." (Yourcenar, p.17) This scene reminds me of the painter in one of Zhuangzi's stories. Like Wang Fo, the painter is also ordered by an emperor to paint, and like Wang Fo, when he paints, he forgets about both the world and himself. (Outer Chapters, "Tian Zi-fang")

Taoists hold that whether there is a difference between life and death depends on whether the perceiving subject realizes the unity of the two opposites, and whether he can transcend life and death. Wang Fo and Zhuangzi's painter are able to be totally absorbed into the world of their paintings, because they understand that "all things belong to the one treasury, and death and life should be viewed in the same way." (Outer Chapters, "Knowledge Rambling North") Life and death are like the eclipses of the moon, or the change of the seasons: they are the course of nature. "When life comes, it cannot be declined; when it goes, it cannot be detained." (Outer Chapters, "The Full Understanding of Life") Once there is life, there will inevitably be death. Death is part of life. No one can avoid death. Only when we take it naturally can we overcome the fear for death. Thus, Wang Fo is saved because he transcends the concerns of life and

death and is absorbed instead in his painting, so that he is able to finish his last masterpiece and saved by it in turn. This is also what Laozi believes: “the sage treats his person as if it were foreign to him, and yet that person is preserved.” (Daodejing, chapter 7)

Life and Death for Ling

As a faithful follower of Wang Fo, Ling perceives life and death the same way as his master does. When Ling’s wife hangs herself and dies, because she looks “even more delicate than usual, and as pure as the beauties celebrated by the poets of days gone by”, Wang Fo wants to paint her one last time, because he loves “the green hue that suffuses the face of the dead.” (Yourcenar, p.6) As the husband, Ling is supposed to cry over her death or mourn for her death, yet he does nothing of that kind. Quite the contrary, he joins Wang Fo and is busy mixing the colors, and the task needs “such concentration” that he forgets to shed tears for her diseased wife at all. (Yourcenar, p.6)

This is much the same way Zhuangzi responds to his own wife’s death. When Zhuangzi’s wife dies, Huizi goes to condole with him. To his surprise, he finds him squatting on the ground, drumming on the basin, and singing, instead of lamenting. Huizi thinks it an excessive (and strange) demonstration, but Zhuangzi replies, “It is not so,” he is affected, and sad, but when he reflects on her death and death in general, he realizes that

She had not yet been born to life; not only had she no life, but she had no bodily form; not only had she no bodily form, but she had no breath. During the intermingling of the waste and dark chaos, there ensued a change, and there was breath; another change, and there was the bodily form; another change, and there came birth and life. There is now a change again, and she is dead. The relation between these things is like the procession of the four seasons from spring to autumn, from winter to summer. There now she lies with her face up, sleeping in the Great Chamber; and if I were to fall sobbing and going on to wall for her, I should think that I did not understand what was appointed (for all). I therefore restrained myself! (Outer Chapters, “Perfect Enjoyment”)

Like Zhuangzi, when faced with the death of his wife, Ling also finds the way out of sorrow by absorbing himself in art, by helping Wang Fo paint her dead body. And through this, Ling actually brings his wife back to life again—of course not a life in this physical world, but a life in the metaphysical world, the world of art. He gives his wife a new life, a new form, through Wang Fo’s lines and colors. In this sense, nothing is transformed into something, formless is transformed into form again. This is what Zhuangzi emphasizes above: the reciprocal transformation of opposites, the cycle of life. After his wife’s death, Ling experiences this transformation of “now life and now death; now death and now life”(Zhuangzi, Inner Chapters, “the adjustment of controversies”) himself. We see that when Ling comes to life in the painting, there is a red scarf on his neck where the cut and blood should have been. Here again through Yourcenar’s amazing skill, we achieve the insight that one form of death is another form of life. Everything has its opposite, but they are not opposed. They are, rather, connected and integrated into a whole.

IV. DAO AS A WAY OF LIFE

One interesting thing about “How Wang Fo Was Saved” is that, though it is about Wang Fo, Ling the disciple, is also a central figure. The first line of the story tells us that “The old painter Wang Fo and his disciple were wandering along the roads of the Kingdom of Han.” (Yourcenar, p.3) As a disciple, Ling is supposed to learn from Wang. But in the story, we see how Wang Fo works miracles with his talents, yet never for once do we see him teach Ling how to paint. What Ling is busy with all the time, is to mix the colors, prepare all the stuff Wang needs to paint, or to take care of Wang’s everyday life. There is no mention whatsoever about Ling’s own painting. Ling is an assistant, and an admirer of his master’s works. Ling himself also seems to be contented with this role. Obviously, what is between the master and the disciple is beyond painting itself, and the story is not simply about art. Ling wanders with Wang Fo not to learn how to paint, but to pursue Dao. As the master, Wang Fo does not teach Ling how to paint, he reveals to Ling where Dao is and what Dao does.

The emperor is obsessed with the world in Wang Fo’s painting, and is disappointed by real life. This is not only because he does not have an adequate understanding of beauty, it is also because he has not discovered Dao. When Dongguozhi asks Zhuangzi, “Where is what you call the Dao to be found?” Zhuangzi replies, “Everywhere.” “It is here in this ant.” “It is in this panic grass.” “It is in this earthenware tile.” “It is in that excrement.” (Zhuangzi, Outer Chapters, “Knowledge Rambling in the North”) Therefore, contrary to the emperor’s assumption, Dao is not only in things that please our senses, it is also in things that are perceived as low, gross, and ugly.

Again, here we come back to the belief of unity of the opposites: beauty and ugliness are opposites that can transform into each other. Wang Fo knows this. That’s why he likes to observe the drunken men in taverns, the ants, the face of dead men, and the blood. He knows that though they are named differently, they are actually the same. That is the way of Dao. The emperor lives in an isolated world, and all he can see are Wang Fo’s paintings. He can only understand Dao from one perspective, from one thing. This is far from the way of Dao. But for Wang Fo, he wanders in the world to observe the morning and the evening, he lingers among ordinary people, to study their facial expressions, he is interested in the rich as well as the poor—because it is where Dao is.

Chinese philosophers, especially the Daoists, advocate a unity of art and Dao. To them, they are one and inseparable. The best artworks, like those of Wang Fo, follow the way of all things (Dao), and the best artists, like Wang Fo, are the ones who show us Dao not only through their works, but also through their own way of living. Once we discard all the worldly concerns, we will be able to step into a whole new world, the world of art, the world of Dao, and be truly free.

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Jing Zhu, PhD, is an associate professor in the English Department, Foreign Languages College, Hebei University, China. Her special interests are literary theory and world literature.

The Relationship between Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Frequency of Language Learning Strategies Use and Their Pragmatic and Grammatical Awareness

Shekoufeh Arab

Department of English, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Najafabad, Iran

Omid Tabatabaei

Department of English, Najafabad Branch, Islamic Azad University, Najafabad, Iran

Abstract—In this study, attempts were made to investigate the use of language learning strategies in four areas of communicative competence among Iranian intermediate learners and also the extent of their pragmatic and grammatical awareness. The relationship between the participants' frequency of grammatical strategies use and their pragmatic and grammatical awareness was also explored. In so doing, after conducting the Oxford placement test on a group of students in Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, 63 homogeneous intermediate students were selected. The required data were collected through administrating Language Learning Strategies for Communicative Competence questionnaire to determine the use of language learning strategies by the participants and Pragmatic and Grammaticality Judgment Task questionnaire to determine their pragmatic and grammatical awareness. The findings revealed that the participants used grammatical strategies more frequently and sociolinguistic strategies less frequently than other types of strategies. Furthermore, the descriptive statistics demonstrated that the participants had more grammatical awareness and perceived the grammatical errors more seriously in comparison to pragmatic ones. Finally, correlational analysis displayed there was no correlation between the participants' frequency of grammatical strategies use and their pragmatic awareness. These findings demonstrate the participants' weakness in employing sociolinguistic strategies and their lack of pragmatic awareness.

Index Terms—pragmatic awareness, grammatical awareness, language learning strategies

I. INTRODUCTION

The concept of communication has always been important for every language learner and every language teacher. But, it should not be considered as a simple concept. Successful communication is closely dependent on knowledge in both areas of grammar and pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Levinson, 1983). Developing language learners' competence in a way that they can use the language correctly and appropriately in different social contexts is one of teachers' challenges in EFL learning contexts where learners have little contact with the target language and native speakers in real life situations. Based on Chomsky's (1965) viewpoint, language competence is the underlying knowledge of linguistic features. Chomsky's viewpoint was argued by some researchers such as Hymes (1972). Hymes claimed that Chomsky had overlooked the sociolinguistic factors in his model. Hence, Hymes proposed "communicative competence" as the ability to use language appropriately in different social contexts in addition to having knowledge of constructing grammatical sentences. Consequently, a good communication entails pragmatic competence (appropriateness of utterances concerning situations, speakers, and content) as well as linguistic competence (grammatical competence) (Levinson, 1983).

Afterwards, in Schmidt's (1993) Noticing Hypothesis, grammatical awareness (i.e., awareness of correct grammatical features) and pragmatic awareness (i.e., awareness of appropriate language use in various social contexts) were introduced. It was found that many advanced L2 learners do not know how to communicate appropriately due to the lack of knowledge of pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998). It is particularly clear in EFL contexts in which exposure to native speakers is limited. Thus, the previous findings reveal that high levels of grammatical competence do not necessarily lead to high levels of pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991). Therefore, such a situation does not guarantee a successful communication. The outcome of some other studies reveals that successful language learners are aware of their learning strategies (Cohen, 1995) and know how to improve their communication through the correct use of various learning strategies, such as organizing and planning learning (Ellis & Sinclair, 1989; O'mally & Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). In addition, some researchers (e.g., Schunk, 1999; Zimmerman, 2008) concluded that learners who are equipped with strategic knowledge of language learning acquire a language more easily. So, those learners who develop, personalize, and use a repertoire of learning strategies can gain language proficiency in

a more facilitated manner. Oxford (1990) defined language learning strategies as “specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more enjoyable, more self-directed, more effective, and more transferable to new situations” (p.8).

Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Oxford(1990) provided some models of language learning strategies. The modified version from the above language learning strategies consists of these four parts:

Grammatical competence strategies: This is the modified version of Oxford's (1990) Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (SILL) memory strategies. Here the learners try to find the ways to make them more capable in storing information and retrieving them whenever they are required.

Sociolinguistic competence strategies: This category is the modified version of Oxford's (1990) SILL social strategies, in which the learners are willing to gain the ways to develop their communication.

Discourse competence strategies: This group of strategies is the modified version of Oxford's (1990) SILL cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Here the learners try to increase their ability to combine various grammatical forms and meanings in a comprehensible way.

Strategic competence strategies: This category is the modified version of Oxford's (1990) SILL compensation strategies. Through these strategies the learners try to overcome the communication breakdown and limitations that they encounter when they have conversation with native speakers.

As it was described, possessing communicative competence is necessary for successful language learners and possessing communicative competence itself needs obtaining essential elements such as grammatical and pragmatic awareness (Levinson, 1983). Moreover, successful language learners are aware of their learning strategies and know how to use a wide range of language learning strategies to develop their communication (Cohen, 1995). In the present study, attempts were made to examine the relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL learners' frequency of language learning strategies use and their pragmatic and grammatical awareness.

II. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Many EFL teachers have observed the situation of language learners encountering communication breakdowns despite having an acceptable amount of grammatical knowledge. They have come to realize that just gaining grammatical competence does not lead to effective communication; i.e., they should be equipped with pragmatic competence as well. However, despite the efforts of EFL teachers in Iran, the learners may not gain a reasonable amount of communicative competence in order to have successful communication. The reason may lie in the fact that the learners' pragmatic competence is not developed sufficiently, because they are not provided with sufficient pragmatically appropriate input through their traditional textbooks and classrooms. On the contrary, they are rich in terms of grammar and grammatical competence, because they are exposed to a rich amount of input in grammar instructions. Thus, they have higher tendency to develop higher grammatical awareness. This is a touchable matter for everyone who deals with English language learning, especially L2 teachers. It can be observed that some students who receive "A" as a score for their paper and pencil exams considering grammatical points are not able to use the obtained grammatical rules in an appropriate way when they encounter native speakers. Therefore, EFL learners may generate sentences which are grammatical, but they may violate the usual social norms of the target language (Bardovi-Harling & Dornyei, 1998).

Considering the main goal of language learning, which is successful communication, the type of language learning strategies are important too. Since language learning strategies are related to learners' awareness of grammar and pragmatics, conducting a research regarding all of these elements can be worthwhile. The present study was primarily set out to investigate the relationship between Iranian learners' frequency of language learning strategies use in four dimensions of communicative competence (grammatical, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic competence) and their pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Furthermore, it was tried to determine the most and the least frequently used learning strategies by EFL learners. In other words, it has been intended to determine among four categories of communicative competence which one is the most and the least frequently used one. Besides, this study was designed to specify whether Iranian EFL students have more pragmatic awareness or more grammatical awareness. And finally, it sought to explore whether students perceive pragmatic errors as more severe or grammatical ones. So, the following four research questions were set up for investigation:

- 1) What are the most and least frequently used learning strategies as reported by Iranian intermediate EFL learners?
- 2) Do Iranian intermediate EFL learners have more pragmatic awareness or more grammatical awareness?
- 3) What type of errors do students perceive as more severe, pragmatic errors or grammatical errors?
- 4) Is there any relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL students' frequency of grammatical competence strategies use and their pragmatic awareness?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

In order to investigate the relationship between Iranian Intermediate EFL learners' frequency of language learning strategies use and their pragmatic and grammatical awareness, a sample of 100 EFL learners contributed to the

implementation of the study. They were selected out of 8 classes of BA and MA of Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. To select a homogenous group of EFL students at intermediate level of proficiency, the Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was used as a Proficiency test in advance and 63% of them met the acceptable standard which was established by the OPT rating system. Consequently, the sample of the present study consisted of 63 Iranian intermediate learners consisting of 29 male and 34 female students.

B. Instruments

The present study was conducted utilizing three types of instruments. The first instrument was Oxford Placement Test (Allan, 2004) used to select a homogeneous group of participants at intermediate level. It contained 60 multiple-choice items of vocabulary, structures and cloze test and four alternatives that should be completed in 50 minutes.

The second instrument used was Lee's (2010) Language Learning Strategies for Communicative Competence (LLSCC) which is a 40-item questionnaire categorized in four parts. The four parts include Grammatical Competence Strategies, Sociolinguistic Competence Strategies, Discourse Competence Strategies, and Strategic Competence Strategies and each part consists of 10 items. The instrument is a modified version of Oxford's (1990) SILL and Canale and Swain's (1980) four-component model of communication competence and it is on a 5-point Likert Scale; (5) I always do this, (4) I usually do this, (3) I sometimes do this, (2) I seldom do this, and (1) I never do this. The questionnaire revealed a high level of reliability ($r=0.97$). The score for each part gained through adding up each participant's answer in that part and gaining overall average; a higher score indicates the respondent's higher tendency in using that kind of strategy and the lower score shows a lower tendency in using the strategy. Three levels for frequency of strategies use were considered for this questionnaire as follows: 1.0 to 2.4 = low 1.5 to 3.4 = medium 3.5 to 5 = high

The third instrument used was Bradovi-Harlig and Dornyeis' (1998) Pragmatic and Grammaticality Judgment Task (PGJT). The task has 20 items, consisting of eight pragmatically appropriate but not grammatically correct sentences, eight grammatically correct but not pragmatically appropriate sentences, and four both grammatically and pragmatically appropriate sentences. Each item was designed in the following format:

John is in the school coffee shop, trying to study, but there are some students talking very loudly.

***John: Be quiet! I'm trying to study.**

Was the last part appropriate/ correct? Yes: No:

If there was a problem, how bad do you think it was?

Not bad at all	1	:	2	:	3	:	4	:	5	:	6	Very bad
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The participants were supposed to decide on the correctness and appropriateness of each item through choosing "Yes" or "No". If the respondent answered the question correctly, he or she received one point and for the incorrect answer no point was allocated. The scores in this part show the error recognition and also grammatical and pragmatic awareness of each participant. The participants' awareness in each part (pragmatic and grammatical awareness) was analyzed based on their mean scores in that part (8 items for pragmatic awareness and 8 items for grammatical awareness), while a higher score represents higher awareness and a lower score represents lower awareness.

C. Procedure

The first phase of the study started with choosing a homogenous group of intermediate EFL learners. So, the OPT was administered to 100 EFL students of Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch who were selected from among BA and MA students. It took about 50 minutes for students to complete the test. 63 intermediate students were sampled and the other steps were followed by these participants. Then, the questionnaires were administered to the participants.

Regarding the first questionnaire which was the language learning strategies for communicative competence (LLSCC), the researcher introduced the main purpose and maintained that for each item they should select one of the alternatives on a 5-point Likert scale. Then, the PGJT was administered. The researchers informed the participants that they should decide on the appropriateness and correctness of each item through selecting "Yes" or "No" box. Furthermore, they were supposed to check on the severity rating varying from 1 to 6. The participants were informed formerly that the collected data from their questionnaires would be kept secret, so that more reliable information is obtained.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

The statistical analyses were conducted using the SPSS software program. To answer the first research question which was finding the most and the least frequently used strategies by Iranian intermediate EFL learners, descriptive statistics including frequency, means, and standard deviation were reported. The data were obtained from students' responses on the LLSCC questionnaire. In each category the total number of each respondent's answers was calculated and its average was computed. Regarding the second research question with the main objective of making decision on learner pragmatic or grammatical awareness, the participants' responses on the "Yes" " No " part of the PGJT were gathered. To decide on pragmatic and grammatical severity which was the aim of the third research question, the mean scores of the participants' responses on severity rating part of the PGJT were calculated (eight items for pragmatic and

eight items for grammatical severity). To answer the fourth research question of the study which was finding the relationship between frequency of using grammatical strategies and pragmatic awareness, a correlational method of data analysis was used. The Pearson correlation was run on the obtained data from the LLSCC and the PGJT to find the mentioned relationship.

V. RESULTS

A. Research Question 1

For first research question, descriptive statistics of frequency, mean, and standard deviation were calculated on the scores collected through the LLSCC questionnaire. Based on Oxford (1990) classification, participants' frequency of language learning strategies use is divided into three levels; the mean scores between 1.0 to 2.4 are considered as "low" frequency strategy use, and the mean scores between 2.5 to 3.4 are defined as "medium" frequency strategy use, and finally the scores between 3.5 and 5.0 are considered as "high" frequency strategy use. Table 1 represents the data related to the mean, standard deviation, and the recognized level on each item's frequency of learning strategies use of LLSCC questionnaire.

As it is clear in Table 1, among the 40 items of the questionnaire, 14 items were found as "high" frequency use, 26 items were found as "medium" frequency use, and none of them was found as "low" frequency use. Regarding four categories of language learning strategies, they can be ranked from grammatical to sociolinguistic competence strategies, since among 10 items of each category, grammatical competence strategies has 6 items with "high" frequency of strategy use and 4 items with "medium" level of frequency strategy use.

To put the other categories of language learning strategies in order, strategic, discourse, and sociolinguistic competence strategies have 4, 3, and 1 item with "high" frequency use and 6, 7, and 9 items with "medium" frequency use, respectively. It is a clear point that most items with "high" level of frequency were found in grammatical competence strategies (6 items), and just 1 item in sociolinguistic competence strategies was categorized in "high" frequent use category. So, it is obvious that the highest mean score is related to grammatical competence strategies and the lowest mean score is related to sociolinguistic competence strategies.

Table 2 represents descriptive statistics on four categories of communicative competence strategies. The participants' average score in each group of learning strategies was calculated through adding up every subject's responses in all 10 items of each category and the overall average of these 10 items represented the tendency of the respondents in using the category of strategies, while the higher average represented that the respondent tended to use the strategies of that category more frequently, whereas a lower average score revealed an opposite result. The following table shows the ranked overall average scores for all categories of Learning Strategies.

As it was predicted, among the four strategy categories, grammatical competence strategies were identified as the most frequently used learning strategies ($M=3.52$, $SD=.47$) whereas sociolinguistic learning strategies were reported as the least frequently used ones ($M=3.33$, $SD=.58$). Furthermore, strategic competence strategies ($M=3.51$, $SD=.60$) and discourse competence strategies ($M=3.37$, $SD=.54$) were categorized into second and third group of strategies, considering frequency of their uses.

Table 3 represents the mean and standard deviation of language learning strategies use. It can be inferred that Iranian Intermediate EFL learners use Language Learning Strategies under the "medium" level of frequency ($M=3.43$).

TABLE 1.
FREQUENCY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USE

Language Learning Strategies	Mean	Std. Deviation	Levels of strategies use
GRAM1	3.75	0.983	High
GRAM2	3.59	1.131	High
GRAM3	3.1	0.995	Medium
GRAM4	3.19	1.33	Medium
GRAM5	3.54	1.105	High
GRAM6	3.33	1.218	Medium
GRAM7	3.89	1.166	High
GRAM8	3.81	1.09	High
GRAM9	3.49	1.134	Medium
GRAM10	3.52	0.931	High
SOCIO11	3.29	1.211	Medium
SOCIO12	3.05	1.263	Medium
SOCIO13	3.44	1.147	Medium
SOCIO14	3.46	1.148	Medium
SOCIO15	3.49	1.176	Medium
SOCIO16	3.19	0.877	Medium
SOCIO17	3.65	1.019	High
SOCIO18	3.43	1.214	Medium
SOCIO19	2.92	1.097	Medium
SOCIO20	3.38	1.128	Medium
DISC21	3.44	1.377	Medium
DISC22	3.14	1.12	Medium
DISC23	3.37	1.248	Medium
DISC24	3.25	1.344	Medium
DISC25	3.75	1.15	High
DISC26	3.21	0.901	Medium
DISC27	2.98	1.129	Medium
DISC28	3.84	1.194	High
DISC29	3.59	0.891	High
DISC30	3.21	1.05	Medium
STR31	3.3	1.087	Medium
STR32	3.84	1.096	High
STR33	3.48	1.268	Medium
STR34	3.49	1.134	Medium
STR35	3.37	1.299	Medium
STR36	3.92	1.005	High
STR37	3.63	1.14	High
STR38	3.54	1.242	High
STR39	3.13	1.1	Medium
STR40	3.48	1.06	Medium

GRAM = grammatical competence strategies; SOCIO = sociolinguist competence strategies;
DISC = discourse competence strategies; STR = strategic competence strategies

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF FREQUENCY OF LANGUAGE LEARNING STRATEGIES USE

Categories	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
GRAMA	3.521	0.474	1
STRA	3.518	0.609	2
DISCA	3.378	0.546	3
SOCIOA	3.330	0.589	4

GRAM = averaged scores for grammatical competence strategies; SOCIO = averaged scores for sociolinguist competence strategies;
DISC = averaged scores for discourse competence strategies; STR = averaged scores for strategic competence strategies

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' OVERALL USE OF LEARNING STRATEGIES

Mean	Std. Deviation
3.436	0.400

B. Research Question 2

Table 4 demonstrates the result of data analysis of students' responses on pragmatic and grammatical error recognition regarding the PGJT.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' ERROR RECOGNITION

	Mean	Std. Deviation
PER	0.689	0.290
GER	0.764	0.207
CORR	0.377	0.323

PER: pragmatic error recognition; GER: grammatical error recognition; CORR: correct item recognition

The results indicate that the overall average score for correct responses of grammatical items is .76 (SD=.20), and the score average for pragmatic items is .68 (SD=.29). So, Iranian Intermediate EFL learners showed more recognition in grammatical errors (M=.76) than pragmatic errors (M=.68). In other words, Iranian Intermediate EFL learners have more grammatical awareness than pragmatic awareness. Table 5 represents descriptive statistics regarding each grammatical item.

TABLE 5.
GRAMMATICAL ITEMS

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
2	0.860	0.353	1
7	0.830	0.383	2
15	0.790	0.408	3
3	0.780	0.419	4
19	0.780	0.419	5
12	0.750	0.439	6
9	0.730	0.447	7
16	0.600	0.493	8

The items were ranked based on their means from the highest to the lowest one. The mean of each item refers to its average score of correct responses. Among 8 items in grammatical part, most of the correct responses (86%) belonged to item 2 (nonuse of auxiliary), and least of the correct responses (60%) belonged to item 16 (countable and uncountable nouns). Generally, most of the items (5items) show higher mean than the overall mean of this category (M=.76). Table 6 displays the same information, but for 8 pragmatic items.

TABLE 6.
PRAGMATIC ITEMS

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
20	0.840	0.368	1
13	0.810	0.396	2
10	0.760	0.429	3
5	0.650	0.481	4
14	0.630	0.485	5
1	0.600	0.493	6
8	0.600	0.493	7
17	0.600	0.493	8

The top ranked item in this category has the mean of .84 and the last item (ranked 8) revealed the mean of .60. But generally, most of the items (5 items) have lower mean than the overall mean in this category. In other words, among 8 grammatical items, mean of grammatical error recognition of 7 items is over .70, whereas just mean of 3 pragmatic items is over .70. Consequently, more awareness was found in grammatical items among Iranian intermediate EFL learners. So the null hypotheses indicating Iranian intermediate EFL learners have more grammatical awareness than pragmatic awareness is confirmed.

Table 7 presents the mean and standard deviation of 4 correct items. Their overall average score is .37 and their mean ranged from .27 to .54.

TABLE 7.
CORRECT ITEMS

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
18	0.540	0.502	1
4	0.320	0.469	2
11	0.320	0.469	3
6	0.270	0.447	4

C. Research Question 3

To figure out what type of error is considered as more severe one, the students' responses on a rating scale part of PGJT questionnaire were gathered. The severity rating differs from 1 to 6, while "1" indicates a minor mistake and "6" a serious mistake. Severity of errors in each part (8 pragmatic and 8 grammatical items) was recognized through mean score of that part. Three levels were considered to decide on the error seriousness of errors. An average score between 1 and 1.9 indicates a "mild" level of seriousness, the mean between 2 and 4 indicates a "middle" level of seriousness, and the one between 5 and 6 implies a "severe" level of seriousness (for recognized errors). The obvious point is that the highest mean in each part shows that the respondents found the error as more serious one. Table 8 shows the mean and standard deviation of each part regarding its severity.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' SEVERITY RATINGS

	Mean	Std. Deviation
PSR	2.296	1.358
GSR	3.151	1.102

PSR = pragmatic severity rating; GSR = grammatical severity rating

Through the obtained outcome in above table, it can be concluded that Iranian intermediate EFL learners found the grammatical errors as more serious ones, since the mean score in severity rating part of grammatical items ($M=3.15$, $SD=1.10$) is higher than pragmatic items ($M=2.29$, $SD=1.35$). Detailed information regarding mean and standard deviation of severity rating in each grammatical item is displayed Table 9 They presented in ranked order from high to low level of severity.

TABLE 9.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GRAMMATICAL SEVERITY RATINGS BY ITEM

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
2	3.840	2.018	1
15	3.330	2.125	2
7	3.320	2.085	3
9	3.210	2.329	4
3	3.130	2.203	5
12	3.080	2.18	6
19	2.940	2.117	7
16	2.370	2.267	8

The outcome of descriptive statistics from Table 9 revealed that no items in grammatical severity rating fell into "mild" and "sever" level of seriousness and participants perceived all grammatical errors on "middle" level of seriousness, since their mean ranged from 2.37 to 3.48. The noticeable point is that the top ranked item in grammatical severity rating was item 2 which perceived the highest awareness in error recognition part. The error in this item was related to grammatical point in using auxiliaries. The last ranked item in this group (item 16) with the average severity rating of 2.37, was considered the last item in grammatical awareness. The data on pragmatic severity ratings are displayed in Table 10.

TABLE 10.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRAGMATIC SEVERITY RATINGS BY ITEM

Item	Mean	Std. Deviation	Ranking
20	3.020	2.052	1
13	2.760	1.94	2
10	2.730	2.119	3
5	2.220	1.946	4
14	2.210	2.171	5
1	1.920	1.937	6
8	1.780	1.827	7
17	1.730	1.833	8

With a short glance to Table 10, it can be concluded that among 8 items in pragmatic severity rating 6 of them were under the "middle" level of severity with the mean ranged from 1.92 to 3.02, and 2 items were under the level of "mild" seriousness with the mean of 1.37 and 1.78. It is worth mentioning that the highest mean in pragmatic severity ratings belongs to the item with highest pragmatic awareness (item 20) and the lowest one is the item with lowest awareness (item 17).

D. Research Question 4

In last research question, an attempt has been made to investigate the relationship between grammatical competence strategies and pragmatic awareness. In so doing, the obtained data from the LLSCC questionnaire and Pragmatic and the PGJT questionnaire were utilized. To this end, first descriptive statistics consisting mean and standard deviation was conducted on each variable separately. Table 11 demonstrates descriptive statistics on pragmatic awareness. In this table, mean of pragmatic error recognition refers to the average of participant's correct answers in error recognition part (Yes/No part) and mean of pragmatic severity rating refers to average of rating scale part with 6 levels of severity.

TABLE 11.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PRAGMATIC AWARENESS RATINGS

Category of awareness	Mean	Std. Deviation
PER	0.69	0.290
PSR	2.30	1.358

PER = pragmatic error recognition; PSR = pragmatic severity rating

Table 12 reveals information on descriptive analysis regarding grammatical competence strategies. Here the mean of 3.52 shows the average score of 10 grammatical competence strategies on a 5-Point Likert scale questionnaire.

TABLE 12.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE STRATEGIES

Category	Mean	Std. Deviation
GRAMS	3.52	0.474

GRAMS = grammatical competence strategies

The correlation procedure was conducted on the mentioned variables to seek whether there is a relationship between them or not. Table 13 demonstrates the results of correlational procedure between participants' frequency of grammatical competence strategy use and their pragmatic awareness.

TABLE 13
CORRELATIONS BETWEEN PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PRAGMATIC SEVERITY RATINGS AND GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE STRATEGIES

		GRAMS	PER	PSR
GRAMS	Pearson Correlation	1	0.08	0.036
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.534	0.781
	N	63	63	63
PER	Pearson Correlation	0.08	1	.800**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.534		0
	N	63	63	63
PSR	Pearson Correlation	0.036	.800**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.781	0	
	N	63	63	63

**Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed); PER = pragmatic error recognition; PSR = pragmatic severity rating; GRAMS = grammatical competence strategies

Regarding the correlation between pragmatic error recognition and frequency of grammatical competence strategy use, the output reveals that there is no correlation between them among intermediate EFL students, since the significance level is .53 which is more than .05 (P value > .05). Furthermore, the same outcome was obtained regarding the relationship between pragmatic severity and grammatical competence strategy use, since the significance is .78 that is more than .05 (P value > .05). Thus, the correlational outcome shows that increasing in using grammatical competence strategies does not lead to increasing pragmatic awareness at intermediate level. So the null hypotheses indicating there is no relationship between Iranian intermediate EFL students' frequency of use of grammatical competence strategies and their pragmatic awareness is confirmed.

VI. SUMMARY OF THE FINDINGS

To sum up, the following outcomes have been obtained in this study: First, the results of descriptive statistics indicated that Iranian intermediate EFL learners use language learning strategies under the "medium" level of frequency (M=3.43). Moreover, the participants more frequently use grammatical competence strategies to increase their communicative competence (M= 3.52), in comparison to other four categories of communicative competence strategies. The language learning strategies were ranked from grammatical competence strategies (M= 3.52) as the most frequently used strategies to sociolinguistic competence strategies (M= 3.33) as the least frequently used strategies. Second, the analyses of the gathered data from the PGJT revealed that Iranian intermediate EFL learners are more grammatically awareness. In other words, they showed higher recognition in grammatical errors (M= .76) than pragmatic ones (M= .68). Third, the results showed that Iranian intermediate EFL learners perceived grammatical errors as more serious ones in contrast to pragmatic errors. This outcome was established from students' responses to severity rating part of PGJT questionnaire, since the average of grammatical severity rating (M= 3.15) is higher than the average score of pragmatic severity rating of errors (M= 2.29). Finally, from correlational data analyses procedure, it has been explored that there is no correlation between the frequency of grammatical strategies use and pragmatic awareness, since the significance level is .53 which is more than .05 (P value > 0.05). Furthermore, the same outcome was found concerning the relationship between pragmatic severity and frequency of grammatical strategies use with level of significance of .78 which is higher than the acceptable level of significance (.05). Hence the findings proved that through higher use of grammatical competence strategies, intermediate EFL learners cannot reach to a higher level of awareness in pragmatic knowledge.

VII. DISCUSSION

As for Research Question One, the findings of the present study revealed that Iranian intermediate EFL learners use the grammatical learning strategies more frequently and the sociolinguistic learning strategies less frequently than other types of strategies. Moreover, it was shown that the learners use language learning strategies on "medium" level of frequency. So, it can be concluded that while Iranian intermediate EFL learners use language strategies under the "medium" level of frequency, they mainly focus on the ways to sort out and retrieve information better through using grammatical competence strategies, such as word formation, sentence formation, linguistics, semantics, and using structured reviewing. But, they showed lower tendency to use sociolinguistic competence strategies with emphasis on

producing socially appropriate sentences. One of the possible reasons for these findings could be the learning environment. Language needs are recognized in the learning environment. The current study was performed in Iran where English has been considered as a foreign language. English is not recognized as a means of communication with other people within the country and, so, the learners do not find any necessity to use sociolinguistic competence strategies for producing socially appropriate sentences or improving their communication. Hence, it is obvious that they tend to use these strategies less frequently. Moreover, since educational system in Iran is more grammar oriented, the learners tend to use and focus on grammatical competence strategies more frequently. These findings are in agreement with some findings of the previous researches. In their studies, Phillip (1991), Goh and Kwah (1997), and Griffiths (2003) put emphasis on the impact of learning environment on learners' choices of learning strategies. They state that ESL learners, unlike their EFL counterparts, tended to use sociolinguistic competence strategies more frequently to make their English more comprehensible for the people around them. The other outcome of the study showed that Iranian intermediate EFL learners use all communicative competence strategies under the "medium" level with overall average of 3.43. This outcome is in line with some previous findings (e.g., Park, 1997; Oh, 1992; Warton, 2000; Lan & Oxford, 2003), indicating that EFL learners tend to use language learning strategies at "medium" level in their foreign language setting.

Analyses of data from the PGJT revealed that the participants had more knowledge in the area of grammar than pragmatics. Through a detailed survey on participants' responses on grammatical items, it was found that the participants had better recognition on "nonuse of auxiliaries" and they displayed lower recognition on "countable and uncountable nouns". These findings are consistent with some previous studies. Based on BardoviHarlig and Dornyei (1998) findings, EFL students recognized grammatical errors better than pragmatic ones. But the research findings on ESL learners showed the opposite results. ESL learners in opposition to their EFL counterparts recognized pragmatic errors better than grammatical ones. These findings can be interpreted through some explanation. Since in Iran the main focus of educational system and textbooks is on grammar, The EFL classes are found as more grammatical oriented ones and Iranian learners are exposed to higher amount of grammar inputs rather than pragmatic ones, so they gain more grammatical knowledge and grammatical competence. Some previous studies show a high consistency with these explanations. The findings revealed that EFL learners tend to face communication breakdowns in part because in their traditional classrooms and textbooks they are provided with rich grammatical input not pragmatically appropriate one (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Rose, 1997; Niezgodna & Rover, 2001). Therefore, they showed higher grammatical awareness than pragmatic awareness.

The results of descriptive statistics also showed that Iranian EFL students use grammatical strategies as the most frequently used strategies and sociolinguistic strategies as the least frequency strategies. Canale and Swain's (1980) definitions concerning pragmatic and grammatical competence, grammatical competence refers to "the knowledge of linguistic code features such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantic" which improve through grammatical competence strategies, whereas pragmatic competence which is represented as sociolinguistic competence refers to "the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use" that mainly improve through sociolinguistic competence strategies which help learners to improve their communications. (p. 31). Consequently, Iranian intermediate EFL learners can gain higher grammatical awareness than pragmatic awareness because they use grammatical competence strategies more frequently than sociolinguistic strategies.

Through the same descriptive statistics procedure, it was tried to search on the participants' point of view on the level of seriousness of the recognized errors (pragmatic or grammatical). The obtained data on severity rating part of this questionnaire showed that the respondents perceived all errors under the medium level of seriousness, but they found the grammatical errors as more serious, since the average score in severity rating of grammatical item is higher than pragmatic ones. These findings are in line with Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's findings (1998). They found that not only EFL learners recognize grammatical errors better than pragmatic ones, but also they perceive the grammatical errors as more serious ones in comparison to pragmatic ones, while their ESL counterparts perceive pragmatic errors as more serious. The obtained results in this part can be due to the participants' higher knowledge on grammatical aspect of language than pragmatic ones. In other words, since Iranian intermediate EFL learners have higher grammatical awareness than pragmatic one, they perceive grammatical errors as more serious errors in comparison to pragmatic errors.

To investigate the relationship between grammatical competence strategies and pragmatic awareness, the correlational procedure was run on the obtained data from the LLSCC and the PGJT. To this end, two correlation coefficients were estimated, one between 10 items of grammatical competence strategies and grammatical error recognition (Yes/No part of the PGJT) and the other between the mentioned strategies and pragmatic severity rating. The output presented that there is no correlation between the mentioned variables because the significances were higher than acceptable level of significance (.05). The findings were somehow predictable. As it was mentioned earlier, grammatical competence strategies are those which help the learners to improve their knowledge on linguistic code features, such as phonology, morphology, syntax, and semantic. Therefore, grammatical competence strategies cannot provide the learners with the knowledge of appropriate L2 use of and the higher use of grammatical strategies will not necessary result in higher pragmatic awareness among the participants.

VIII. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The present study mainly focused on communicative competence strategies, as well as grammatical and pragmatic awareness as influential elements in the processes of L2 teaching and learning. Therefore, the results of the current study are useful for the EFL learners, teachers, course designers and all those who are concerned with English as the second or especially foreign language. Being aware of the EFL learners' weak and strong points in their language learning, guide the learners to find their problems regarding successful communication and improve their communication by finding their weakness and removing them. The teachers can benefit from this study, too. Because, they can direct their teaching in a way to help the learners overcome their communication problems. Beside, emphasizing on grammatical aspects of language, they should encourage the learners to pay more attention on how to use the language appropriately in different situations. They can provide learners with more sociolinguistic strategies in order to increase their pragmatic knowledge. Finally, the course designer can better recognize the problematic gaps in EFL textbooks and fill these gaps through focusing on pragmatic aspects in addition to grammatical ones by exposing the learners to more authentic materials.

Doing research in all areas needs a lot of effort and in-depth analyses and imposes a series of limitations to the study. The present study like other ones has its own limitations which some of them influence the findings and the generalizability of the research. The study was carried out in one university in Esfahan, involving 63 intermediate EFL students. Comparing the sample with a large number of intermediate EFL learners in Iran, the sample may be regarded proportionally small. Moreover, some findings are obtained from learners' reports of their learning strategies which may be affected by learning situation. It is obvious that in different learning environments, learners can obtain various amount of knowledge of communicative strategies. And finally, since the research was done in a specific region of Iran, the same outcome may not be obtained in other contexts.

There are significant insights for further researches and there are still some questions that require some studies in future. In this section some directions are suggested. First, those who are interested can replicate the study to check whether the same results will be obtained or not. Second, this research was performed at Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch, further research needs to be carried out on other universities as well as other language schools. Third, those who are interested can consider other levels of language learning in relation to communicative competence strategies and pragmatic and grammatical awareness. Forth, the obtained data from this study were gathered through LLSCC and PGJT questionnaires. Further researches can be delivered by some other data collection tools, as well.

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Shekoufeh Arab received her BA from Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch in 2010. In the following year, she was accepted as a MA student by the same university and graduated from there in 2014. Her main research areas of interest include second language learning strategies, models of L2 communication performance, second language pragmatics, and second language assessment, among others.

Omid Tabatabaei is an assistant professor at Islamic Azad University, Najafabad Branch. He has published and presented articles in national and international journals and his main research areas of interest are Task-Based Instruction, L2 acquisition, assessment and testing, research methodologies, and psycholinguistics.

The Disillusionment of F. Scott Fitzgerald's Dreams and Ideals in *The Great Gatsby*

Fahimeh Keshmiri

English Department, Farhangian University, Isfahan, Iran

Abstract—In F. Scott Fitzgerald's *The Great Gatsby*, the American economy ascended, bringing unprecedented levels of affluence to the nation. The chaos of World War I left America in a state of distress, and the generation that fought the war turned to profligate living to recompense. In this novel, Fitzgerald found this new lifestyle seductive and, like Gatsby, he had always idolized the very rich. In this era, unrestrained materialism set the tone of society, which ends to the collapse of all characters and society. This novel represents Fitzgerald's attempt to confront his conflicting feelings about the Jazz Age. Here we analyze major characters, symbols, themes and plot of this masterpiece as a tragedy, and a social novel. This creative work has been identified as one of the greatest novels of all time with Fitzgerald's incredible use of realism and symbolism. Moreover; there are some elements that make this work a modernistic and existential one. These key elements that made this work a success are obvious in the development of characters, plot, themes and setting throughout the novel. It is a highly symbolic meditation on 1920s America as a whole.

Index Terms—*The Great Gatsby*, F. Scott Fitzgerald, literary movements, twenty century, Jazz Age

I. INTRODUCTION

The *Great Gatsby* (1925), F. Scott Fitzgerald's sixth published book and his third novel, is, with Mark Twain's *Adventures of Huckleberry Finn* (1884), one of two American books loved by both literary critics and a wide, general audience. Translated into more than thirty languages, it is a work of worldwide renown and, like *Huckleberry Finn*, provides those from other countries with an idea of America is and Americans with a sense of who they are. With its broad and deep appeal, its complexity and concision, its satire and lyricism, and its eloquence and gift for telling and suggestive detail, this novel is one of the most popular novels in the world.

The Great Gatsby is both romantic tragedy and a social novel. In real, it is a love story that results in the defeat of a union between the persons involved, in a social setting precisely and realistically observed. At the time Fitzgerald composed *the Great Gatsby*; American literature had a slight and distinguished history of social novels. There was, of course, much popular literature that idealized the lives of the rich and that depicted the struggles of persons to gain entrance to that milieu. But these novels made no new explorations into emotion or analysis. "Not until the works of William Dean Howells and Henry James did any American fiction approach social and romantic themes at the level of *The Great Gatsby*. Fitzgerald's novel thus leads, with ironic appositeness, backwards to Howells and James, and in terms of genre especially to James, with his emphasis on wealth and its effect on romance. "None of the books often studied with *The Great Gatsby*, however, have its special tone, its capacity for wonder." (Lathbury, 2000) It is perhaps Edith Wharton who comes even closer than James to Fitzgerald's tone and foci. The sharpness with which wealthy society is satirized in Wharton's *The House of Mirth* (1905) has some of the edge of Fitzgerald's novel. The relative poverty of Lily's inamorata, Lawrence Selden, touches on the theme of social disparity that figures in *The Great Gatsby*, but Wharton's *The Age of Innocence* (1920) reminds a reader of the decent restraint of Nick; the book itself, like *The House of Mirth*, is less committed to idealism.

Of James's book the most natural to compare to *The Great Gatsby* is either *The American* (1877) or *The Portrait of a Lady* (1881). The central figure of *The American*, Christopher Newman, has some of the naiveté associated with Jay Gatsby. Many elements of *The Great Gatsby* are present in this novel too, although in a different way. In *The Portrait of a Lady* and in his later fiction, James's central concern is the contrast of American with European culture. Yet, it is in Conrad's *Heart of Darkness* and *Lord Jim* that a real similarity with Fitzgerald's narrative technique is seen. Moreover, studies of Fitzgerald's style are rare, and there is room to extend some of the appreciations that have been written.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Fitzgerald for all time felt a stable force from both his audience who asked him to write less truthfully and the critics who infrequently considered his work gravely and treated his works with convinced distrust. H.L. Menchen thought *The Great Gatsby* to be "no more than an overvalued anecdote," (Menchen, 1982) and Isabel Paterson defined it as "a book for the season only" (Paterson, 1984). *The Great Gatsby* failed to sell well. But between Fitzgerald's death and the publication of *The Crack-Up* in 1945, the standing of *The Great Gatsby* and Fitzgerald's work steadily increased; by 1945, Lionel Trilling could moderately say in his introduction to New Directions' reissue of *Gatsby* that "Fitzgerald is now beginning to take his place in our literary tradition" (Trilling, 1950). Thus, since the appearance of *The Crack-Up*

that same year, Fitzgerald has received the kind of considerate and insightful consideration from the critics that the work of the other famous writers of his time has.

Thus far many articles have been printed on Fitzgerald and his work, especially on *The Great Gatsby* to reflect its survival. It appoints high approbation that such a short work should propose so much and have its effect remain intensely for such a long time. D. E. Dyson mentions: Thirty-six years after its appearance I would say with confidence, then, *Gatsby* has not only outlived its period and its author, but that it is one of the books that will endure.” (Dyson, 1990) John Henry Raleigh believes that “... at its highest level *The Great Gatsby* does not deal with local customs or even national and international legends but with the permanent realities of existence” (Raleigh, 1957). Noticing only chaos around him, Fitzgerald tried hard to set order on his cosmos.

Lionel Trilling considers *Gatsby* as a genuine representation of America. As such “Gatsby can stand for America as expediently as he can stand for himself.” (Trilling, 1950) “Paul Rosenfeld’s commentary follows the discussion closely: *The Great Gatsby* embodies a criticism of American experience not of manners, but of a basic historic attitude to life more radical than anything in James’s own assessment of the deficiencies of his country. The theme of *Gatsby* is the withering of the American dream. (Rosenfeld, 1976) In any case, Gatsby’s dream, whether he represents America, everyman, or an individual was doomed to failure and corruption because it demanded too much.” (Ghasemi & Tiur, 2012)

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The foremost novel of Fitzgerald, *The Great Gatsby*, is the main texts to be examined in this paper. The approach to this subject is eclectic, proceeding from social, historical, and biographical approaches. A deep reading of the related texts will assist the disclosure of Fitzgerald’s process of disillusionment of The American Dream.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fitzgerald and his family spent generally, all the last half of the 1920s in France and during these months he wrote *The Great Gatsby*. One of the book’s best qualities, which makes it classic and places it above the others, is the author’s inconceivable use of *Realism and symbolism*. Moreover, there are some elements that make this work a *Modernism and Existentialism* work. These key elements are obvious in the development of plot, setting, and characters all over the novel, which we will refer to afterward. In *The Great Gatsby*, as in each fiction, the plots rotate about the characters, which are the base of the novel. Fitzgerald employs *Realism* to create credible characters in both their history and connections to each other.

The protagonist rose from an impecunious childhood in rustic North Dakota to become spectacularly affluent. Though, he gained this arrogant ambition by taking part in prearranged offense. At his youth, Gatsby detested poverty and yearned for prosperity and superiority – he fell out of St. Olaf’s College after two weeks as he could not put up with the janitorial occupation with which he was paying his tuition. Although Gatsby constantly required being well-off, his major incentive in obtaining his luck was his adore for Daisy Buchanan. Like Scott and Zelda, they had fallen in love when Jay was a young officer in World War I with no funds or position.

Gatsby loved Daisy’s sensation of lavishness, grace, and attraction, and preferred to hide his backdrop to attract Daisy. Daisy forgot her promise to Gatsby and married Tom Buchanan after two years, whereas Gatsby tried to achieve an education. From that moment on, Gatsby was eager to win Daisy back, and his gaining of great wealth and his plentiful weekly parties are all means to that ending.

Fitzgerald holds up the illustration of all these information until rather tardy in the novel. At first, Fitzgerald portrays Gatsby as the aloof, inexplicable, standoffish host of the luxurious parties at his house. He is already a type of well-known personality and appears as the focus of a hurricane of rumor all over New York and before he is introduced to the reader. The novelist drives the story onward through the early chapters by covering Gatsby’s background. Consequently, the reader’s first, remote imitations of Gatsby strike fairly different note from that of the obsessed youngster who appears at the end of the fiction.

Gatsby’s stable pursue for Daisy confirms that he has an amazing aptitude to alter his dreams into reality; first he appears to the reader as he wishes to come into view of the world. This aptitude for self-invention makes Gatsby a *great man*. His dream about Daisy collapses, enlightening the unworthiness of the aspiration, much in the way Fitzgerald sees the *American Dream* breakdown in the 1920s, as immoral pursuit of wealth influences America’s leading sanguinity and individualism deeply.

Gatsby portrays Fitzgerald’s looking for his destiny in the world for in his romantic mode he stands for a deeper depression in the culture, what forces young men to believe that rich men can capture the girls of their dreams simply. Gatsby’s dream girl is Daisy.

If Gatsby symbolizes one part of Fitzgerald’s personality, the pretentious individuality who pursues and overvalued wealth to astonish his dream girl, then the narrator of the story, Nick Carraway represents the other part: the considerate Midwesterner adrift in the garish East. Nick functions as Fitzgerald’s voice, as in his comprehensive deliberation on time and the *American Dream*, and is the ideal option to narrate the novel. He is one of the best personifications of *double vision* in Fitzgerald’s work, as both participates in the action of the novel and comments on it. Moreover, he

verified a mixed reaction to life on the East Coast. Nick was both interested in the luxurious lifestyle of New York and he found that way of life critical. Nick's romantic affair with Jordan Baker mirrors this internal conflict throughout the story.

After observing the disillusionment of Gatsby's vision and the awful scene of Gatsby's funeral, Nick found the pleasurable life of revels on the East Coast, a wrap for the ethical emptiness that the Valley of Ashes symbolized. Achieving the maturity in his vision, he came back to Minnesota, seeking a tranquil life prearranged by more traditional moral values.

To some extent, based on Fitzgerald's wife Zelda, Daisy is a good-looking young woman from Louisville. She represented the ideals that Gatsby desired for as a child in North Dakota and what had first engrossed him to her, but in truth, Daisy fell far short of Gatsby's ideals. She is beautiful, but irresolute, opinionated, and sarcastic. She is characterized by Nick as a careless individual who destroyed things and then recoiled behind herriches. Daisy is the symbol of immoral values of the aristocratic East Egg set.

It should be taken into consideration that, in this novel Tom Buchanon's character was the same as some personalities in author's real life. Tom was akin to Ginevra's father, Charles King –Ginevra was Fitzgerald's first love – Both of them had a string of horses, and the same background in affluence. Tom was additionally, modeled after rich William Mitchell, who possessed horses. But, Tommy Hitchcock a prosperous Great Neck polo player was the other parallel character for Tom.

The last character of the novel to be discussed is Jordan Baker, in reality, one of Ginevra's best friends Edith Cummings. She is the deepest character in this novel. She is an attractive person, who is named for two well-known cars of that time and thus a commodity herself. She is plainly part of the corrupt East. So it is obvious that Fitzgerald mirrored his life in people, their speech and places in his works.

The fundamental and often universal ideas explored in this literary work as the most important **themes** are discussed here. The surroundings and the resulting pattern of winning and losing Zelda was the most significant of his life and had the most impressive effect on this story. A continual altercation between the desire and the loss is obvious in this novel.

At that time, Fitzgerald was a soldier, who never saw a combat, but since Gatsby's experiences are real, the novel can be considered as an instance of wish fulfillment of its creator. Fitzgerald, like Gatsby, had experienced the breakdown in his life. Ginevra was never his, and Zelda, too. Moreover, Fitzgerald remunerated for these deficiencies by portraying them.

Family background is also reflected in the base of *The Great Gatsby*. Fitzgerald's father admired genteel ways; he had the feelings of aristocracy and no wealth. As the author's mother was an ambitious person for her son, Fitzgerald's disdain for her attitude toward money lasted all his life.

Fitzgerald's prep-school experiences intensified his conflicts over social position. A poor boy among rich boys at St. Paul's Academy and then the Newman School, his ideal was being heroic. His literary ambitions found their way into *The Great Gatsby* as well. Like Nick Carraway who wrote a series of editorials for the Yale News, Fitzgerald wrote short stories and verses for the Newman literary magazine. He tried to be striking from his generation by any available means. Obviously, his feelings about money and class reflected in *The Great Gatsby* were repeated in his literary career.

Fitzgerald dealt with the theme of labor in his literary life, as a means of self actualization. The idealism of Gatsby at the core of the story could be considered as a true part of Fitzgerald's life, if the ideas surrounding aspiration in *The Great Gatsby* resolve to divergent attitudes about affluence and the possibility of realizing love in the meretricious.

Totally, *The Great Gatsby* is an extremely symbolic deliberation in 1920s America, particularly the dissolution of the **American dream** in an era of wealth. Gatsby is the personification of this dream. A disadvantaged farm boy is a prosperous man now. He has gained extraordinary wealth in a few years, but he is never really one of the privileged and his dream is just a frontage.

So, Fitzgerald introduces the 1920s as a period in which the social and ethical values are rotten. The inattentive jubilation that led to corrupt parties resulted in the corruption of the *American Dream* consequently. The major plotline of the story, the materialism, mirrors this appraisal.

One of the main topics explored in this novel is the **sociology of wealth**. The West Egg and its occupants imply the newly rich, while East Egg and its residents symbolize the old aristocracy. Fitzgerald embodies the newly rich as being offensive and in contrast, the old aristocracy acquires elegance and subtleness, characterizes by the Buchanan's stylish home and dresses.

The East Eggers as the old aristocracy show themselves thoughtless bullies who are never worry about throbbing others. The Buchanans demonstrate this stereotype when, they don't take part at Gatsby's funeral at the end of the novel. Conversely, Gatsby with new wealth has a faithful heart, what causes his death and the Buchanan's self-interest allows them to eliminate themselves from the tragedy bodily and psychologically.

Fitzgerald employs a variety of colors, objects, and signs as symbols to represent the corrupt ethical values of people and society in this novel. For example, the **Green Light** located at the ending of Daisy's East Egg wharf, symbolizes Gatsby's hope and dreams for the future. At the first chapter, he uses it in the dark as a guideline to direct him to his ambition. "As Gatsby's quest for Daisy is generally related to the *American Dream*, the green light symbolizes that ideal as well. In Chapter 9, Nick contrasts the green light to America, mounting out of the sea, must have looked to early settlers of the new state." (Sanders, 2007) In this chapter, *The Valley of Ashes* among West Egg and New York

City is a wide deserted land created by industrial ashes, symbolizes the moral and social corruption that is the consequence of the unrestrained quest of them for wealth. Furthermore, The Valley of Ashes portrays the troubles of the poor people like George Wilson, who live there and lose their vitality.

The Eyes of Dr. T. J. Eckleburg are a pair of vanishing be spectacled eyes on an advertising billboard over the valley of ashes. May be they signify God gazing upon and criticizing American society as an ethical wasteland, although the novel never makes this point unambiguously. Instead, all through the novel, Fitzgerald recommends that symbols only have meaning because characters inspire them with meaning. The eyes also come to signify the crucial purposelessness of the world and the uncertainty of the mental process by which people devote meaning to objects.

The *parties on Great Neck* in Gatsby's house were a symbol of the twenties and were modeled after real parties held by Herbert Bayard Swope. There he met some of the sketchier people from New York, and bootleggers as rich Max Gerlach, whom Fitzgerald used as James Gatz.

The Great Gatsby is well famous for the use of entangled plots and sub-plots in it. Firstly, Fitzgerald used *Realism* to develop the plots by choosing the realistic ones. For instance, the main plot of the novel, *The American Dream* (Gatsby's dream of becoming wealthy to amaze his dream girl) is simply believable and is still a common dream of current time. Smaller plots, such as Tom Buchanan's affair with Myrtle, are realistic in our life too. In real, Fitzgerald's descriptive style of writing permits him to portray all plots of the story realistically.

The setting of the novel makes structure and development of the plots realistic. The writer has used *Realism* unbelievably because he lived during the time of the novel and he could imitate his interpretation of the era in detail. At this time WWI had just finished and the world dominant power was America. So, it can be concluded that Fitzgerald left the Victorian era to create this *Modernist* masterpiece for American fiction.

All the characters in this novel are spokespersons of the *modern world*. So, the novel is the criticism of corrupt ethics in that social system. Fitzgerald's protagonist Jay Gatsby is the essential modernist hero: he doesn't accept his real life. His trust in his dream is weird, and isolates and obliterates him lastly. Tragically, Gatsby was unconscious of the corrupt and cruel world of wealth, what he desired to enter and will finally cause the disillusionment of his dreams.

Wright Morris believes, the intricacy of Fitzgerald's *existential-philosophic* vision of modernity is established in his optimistic-absurdist vision of modern experience, and it places him as the first American to formulate his own philosophy of the absurd which was created during the writer's tries to write something unlike the works of his generation and from his own early artistic activities and what presents a remedy for living in Jazz Age.

In fact, "it was through Fitzgerald's writing of *Gatsby* that he finds his vision." (Bryer, Petry, 1996) Fitzgerald's complex vision in *Gatsby*, both embody the cultural and philosophic dilemmas of his time and makes his work a unique masterpiece.

V. CONCLUSION

All through his twenty-year career, Fitzgerald used the same material as: the quest of riches and gladness by striving deprived boys; the romantic desires of youth; and the apprehensions of high class men and women. Moreover, he provided unforgettable characters like himself. His fame is for his *material* and *themes*. His essential characters commence processes of self evaluation, they evaluate others, or are evaluated by their creator. Most of female characters in his works are incompetent of used *double vision* sharing the hopes of the men who love them. One of the most well-known personifications of Fitzgerald method is Nick Carraway. He takes part as an insider and outsider viewer.

For Fitzgerald the *American Dream* was bound up with the America's history. His most reminiscent heroes own *the quality of the idea* and *willingness of the heart* described by Fitzgerald as characteristically American. Fitzgerald's idea about the influence of money on character was complex and his works reflect his hesitance of attitude. The main topics Fitzgerald deals with in all his works are: youth, attractiveness, affluence, and romantic keenness. The opposite subjects are: age, ugliness, poverty, and wasted potential. Such conflict and consequential tension is the material for all fiction.

Fitzgerald has given a special attention to *Symbolism* in his artistic works, particularly the use of color images into symbolic patterns, his stable drawing upon episodes from American history, and his constant apprehension with time and variability, or predictable change.

Fitzgerald's vision in *Gatsby* is a multipart combination of history, politics, religion, social issues, and philosophy, which symbolizes the civilizing and philosophic dilemmas of his era, and makes the author different from the others, but what is noteworthy about Fitzgerald is the reflection of European *Existentialisms* in his works and art. Like the existentialists, Fitzgerald realized the insufficiency of American democracy in a profitable culture and rejects the capitalistic values, individualities, and norms arranged by the greatly depressive American culture.

For Fitzgerald the personality and the creative life of the nation are at stake and they appear in all his early works, an emotion obvious in their representations of purposeless characters. Broadly, when he found America not a suitable place for the real growth of the individual spirit, expatriated himself to Europe.

Fitzgerald's art is considered, both as an existentialist critiques of his American moments, and as a response to existential dilemmas of Being American in his time. By doing so, Fitzgerald becomes the prophet of his unfaithful generation.

To conclude, the events leading to Gatsby's death signify that his collapse is a plain conquest of moral powers. His disillusionment is brought about by Daisy, who deserts him; by Tom; and by Wilson as an envoy of the ash-gray men who comes to Gatsby or to Fitzgerald himself, in his disillusionment, as an awful personification of the realities which have ruined his dream.

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Fahimeh Keshmiri is PHD in English Literature (2010-2013), graduated from National Academy of Science, Armenia.

Typology and the Translation of Interpersonal Meaning

Xiufang Xia

Qingdao University of Science and Technology, China

Abstract—In translation, the study of meaning is the most important basis. Translation is a dynamic process. The transfer of meaning from one language to the other one depends on a lot of factors. Typology is one of the important factor to affect translation. Translator has to consider the situation of the context, the purpose of the translated material when choosing the words, the tone to express the exact meaning, especially the interpersonal meaning. This paper used literary style, technical style speech and business letter as the examples to show the importance of interpersonal meaning and the way to transfer it.

Index Terms—interpersonal meaning, translation, typology

I. THE INFLUENCE OF TYPOLOGY ON TRANSLATION STRATEGY

Different typology has its own contextual, text-typological, pragmatic conventions, so different typology requires different translation strategies, that is to say different contexts call for different translation solutions. The different types of text based on communicative functions are used to be the basis of translator's decisions. In her translation-oriented text typology, Katherina Reiss set out from the hypothesis that the decisive factor in translation was the dominant communicative function of the source text. This would mean that any particular text, belonging to one particular text type would allow just one way of being translated. Failure to recognize the text-type can be a major stumbling-block in translation practice. Hatim and Mason (1990) found from the translations by the 12 translator trainees that text type was the biggest hinder in translation practice. If translators misinterpreted text type, they would produce unsatisfying translation product. So it is one of the most important goal to recognize text action and text type in translation practice. Because of the standard communication ways are used repeatedly, certain conventions can be formed in different genre conventions. Ways with the same function will be accepted as common practice in certain situations. Genre conventions are the norms thus play an important role in text production. The translator should attempt to give a correct and complete representation of the source text's content and should be guided, in terms of stylistic choices made by the author contribute to the meaning of context, producing a certain effect on the readers. This effect is the most important element, so it has to be taken into account in translation. The stylistic choices in translation are naturally guided by those made in the source text and its context. Generally speaking, people can easily detect the differences of styles and they also can provide suitable utterance in their own culture and language, but when it comes to the foreign language, they will lack of this kind of sensitivity. This requires the deep investigation of the translation theorists in this field.

Text genres are characterized by conventional features, and genre conventions play an important role in text production. The second chapter has analyzed the relation of genre and register, then what is the strategy to analyze their role in translation? The principal criteria that turns a collection of communicative event into a genre is some shared abstract and macroscopic features. In this sense, text type can have a two-level typology. At the macro-level, genre affects the whole strategy of the text, so understanding the genres of the original text is essential to decide the global strategy in translation. At the micro-level, the individual features are determined by context of situation: field, mode and tenor, so on the lexical level or grammatical level, all the individual components of the original and the target text have to be corresponding. In fact, the most common way of recognizing text type is through the situation and the compositional features of the text, so before we translate, we have to examine the translation brief (Nord, 1996). The translation brief contains information about the source language and the target language, the time and the place of the translation practice, the medium of the translation and the motivation of the text production.

Vocabulary and grammar are not the only things the translators have to deal with in their translation. There are some other factors that affect the translation strategy. As to the translation of the interpersonal meaning, these factors seem even more important.

In the paper "*Interpersonal Meaning and Nature of Translation*", the writer has examined the relationship between context and meaning, and this section will study how interpersonal meaning is expressed in different styles in translation. We will use some styles as examples to explain this question.

II. BRIEF ANALYSIS OF DIFFERENT TYPOLOGY AND THEIR INFLUENCE ON TRANSLATION

Equivalence is the ideal aim in doing translation work. On the word level, translators have to use the most equivalent term between the target language and the source language. They must have the same sense on the level of tense, gender

and the number of the words. On the grammatical level, it is much more difficult considering the different grammatical structure of the source and the target language, so the translators have to change according to the rules of target language (Thompson, 1996). Another very important aspect is textual level. Three factors including the target audience, the purpose of the translation and the text type have an vital influence on the translator to decide what kind of tone should be used to keep the coherence in the target language. The following paper will discuss the translation strategy of several text types. The first one is literary style. In this kind of text type, the translator has to consider the interpersonal meaning in the original source language, in which the writer would be more likely to use lexical ways to express the interpersonal meaning. So whether the interpersonal meaning is expressed to the right point is one of the most important criteria in evaluating a translation of literary work.

Literary style:

e.g. *He loathed politics, hated business, and avoided everything that might upset the even tenor of his ways.*

He lived on a small income which he spend in its entirety without even toughing the capital. He was quite devout, would never contradict anyone, and as he had a bad opinion of everybody he spoke well of them.

If you mentioned politics to him he would say, "I'm nothing-neither one side or the other: I don't care which party runs the government. I'm just a poor sinner who wants to live at peace with everyone.

His meekness, however, was of no avail against the finality of death. It was the only definite thing he ever did in his life.

These paragraphs are taken from a short novel. Usually novel language doesn't express the content by telling what happens, but also using the imagination of the readers, so the language must be vivid and has the function of stimulating the interest of the readers. From these paragraphs we can see that all the sentences are declarative sentences giving information to the readers, and the language can make the reader thinking about the hero's personality.

In this part, the interpersonal meaning is expressed by verbs, adverbs, adjectives, nouns, and even the management of these paragraphs.

1. declarative sentences

2. verbs: loath, hate, avoid, contradict

3. adverbs: ever, quite, never, only, just

4. adjectives: small, devour, poor

5. nouns: sinner, meekness, no avail

6. management of the paragraph: each of the paragraph is very short, and many sentences in these paragraphs are short. These short sentences and short paragraphs give us the feeling that the author wants to tell the readers every aspect of the hero.

7. modality: might

All the above mentioned methods transmit some sense if interpersonal meaning, and the reader can read the emotions of the author between the lines, so in translation, the translators should use words that can clearly show the sentiment of the original text.

他厌恶政治、耍手腕，凡是扰乱他平静生活的一切他都躲着。

他靠这微薄的收入维持生活，花钱节俭。整个开销从不动用本金。他待人十分诚恳，从来与人无争，即使他对大家有什么看法，也尽拣好的说。

你若向他谈及政治，他总会说：“我什么都不是——既不是这一派，也不是那一派。无论哪一个党派执政我都不在乎。我只不过是一个罪人，愿同大家和平共处。”

虽然他秉性温驯，也奈何不了了终有一死。这是他唯一做得很果断的事情。

Though the language is very prosaic, the author tells us about the hero with a clear sentiment, and it is this sentiment that makes the readers feel that they are very near to the hero, so when the translators translate, they have to pay attention to the interpersonal meaning of the original. From the translation we can see that there is no one to one equivalence between the source language and the target language. For example, in the first paragraph, “凡是，都” is used in Chinese to translate the word "everything" of the original text, and in the second paragraph, “即使...也” is used to translate the original conjunction "as". In novel style, many of the lexical meanings can show the sentiment, so the translation has to convey the sentiment meaning to the target text, that is to say, the translators should use corresponding commendatory terms and corresponding derogatory terms. Besides these features, some conjunctions can also clearly show the interpersonal meaning.

Language in novels should have the function of creating a kind of atmosphere that the readers would feel no distance with the heroes in the novel. It should try its best to create the effect that the readers are in the place where the matter happens. In English, this can be realized by using tense. Now let's look at the following example.

e.g. *There are no speeches, for who can speak at such a moment? A comrade advances and reads out the names of the provinces and towns represented at the funeral, the coffin is to lie on the platform until four o'clock.*

It is now ten o'clock in the morning. The guards of Honor, chosen from the various factories, provinces, organizations, and regiments of the Red Army, is to be changed every ten minutes. Only the Kremlin chimes break through the silence. Then a comrade again advances and cries, "workers of the world, Unite."

This is the description of Lenin's funeral. The author used present tense to describe what happened in the past to

create a vivid effect. It will make the readers feel that they are looking at the funeral and deeply impressed by what happened. So in these two paragraphs, the interpersonal meaning is expressed by the finites. There are no such corresponding usages in Chinese, so Chinese has to use lexical ways to translate the interpersonal meaning which is expressed by tense in the original text.

A very important literary style is poem. The translating of poem is so hard that is far beyond the ability of many translators. Some even argue that poems are the source language that can never be translated into a target language satisfyingly. So far from the translations, we can find that some contemporary poems have been translated either from English to Chinese, or from Chinese to English or other languages. When translating poems, translators must bear in mind that form and sound are as important as meaning. The conveying of the ideas in the original is not enough, the art and beauty that are expressed by certain forms and rhythms are also very important. Usually it is impossible for the translator to translate the poem into the target language using the same form, because the quite different language structures. Translators need to make up the loss of the meaning in a flexible way. The most important factor to decide whether it is satisfying is to see whether the original conception and style have been kept.

Technical Style:

The biggest difference between technical style and other styles is that there are a lot of terms which are not often used in other styles. When translating this kind of text, the translators should be aware that the words in the original are usually neutral, and in the translation the corresponding terms should be chosen. These technical terms make the meaning of the articles objective and impersonal.

e.g. *"In offices the automation equipment used to store information, carry out computations and make routine decisions is called an electronic computer." The simplest computer once filled a room. "While processing the data, it can store 60,000 characters for reference purposes on magnetic drums like this." Now it fills your spare time. Forget that file-o-fax, instead you can carry your E-mail, your current projects, your phone numbers and your daily schedule in a palm sized device that weight less than 6 ounces and costs far less than the cheapest laptop. You write on the screen. The machine recognizes your writing and translate into text. An entire industry read the writing on the wall and translated that into money.*

Hawkins figured that to succeed, his palm-sized computer would have to do four things. It would have to work faster than a proper organizer, and be able to share information with a PC. It would have to cost less than \$300 and fit in a shirt pocket.

In these two paragraphs, there are few words that show any sentiment. It is just tells the readers a fact and let the readers know some new knowledge, and it doesn't need the readers to imagine something when they read the text, so the function of this kind of style is to provide information. Technical style doesn't show feelings or emotions in the original language, so in translation, the words that are chosen in the target language should transfer the meaning objectively, and the sentence structures in the translation are more connected than the literary style. The translation of these two paragraphs is as the following.

“在办公室里，用来储存信息、执行计算和做出日常决策的自动化设备叫做电子计算机。”最原始的计算机曾有间房子那么大。“当处理数据时，它可以在像这样的磁鼓里储存 6 万条供参考用的数据。”现在它完全占据了你的业余时间。把那些文件夹和传真机忘记掉，取而代之的是，你可以把你的电子邮件、最近的工作文件、电话号码和你的日程表都带在一个手掌大小，不足 6 盎司重，远比最便宜的手提电脑还要便宜的设备里。你可以在屏幕上书写，它确认你的书写并译进正文文本。整个电脑业都看准机会推出这种产品赚钱。

霍金斯认为要成功，它的掌上电脑必须具备四个条件。那就是它的速度一定要比记事簿快，能跟个人电脑分享资讯，价钱不能超过 300 美元并且可以放进衬衣的口袋里。

e.g. *The paper introduces the design approach of aerodynamic structure of quasi-high speed electric locomotive that is based on the foundation of conventional locomotive with the two streamlined ends. This approach has been used to the design work of several other kinds of aerodynamic structure of SS8 quasi-high speed electric locomotive. This approach is feasible since it has been proved by the data from the wind-tunnel mode.*

本文介绍了以传统机车外形为基础、对机车端部适当流线化的准高速机车启动外形的设计方法，并具体应用到韶山 8 型准高速电力机车启动外形多方案设计，最后风洞实验证明此种设计方法是可行的。

In this paragraph, there is no lexical or grammatical way to show any mood or modality. It just talked about the design of this locomotive objectively. So in the translation, translator can transfer the meaning in an objective way, without showing any emotion. And in technical style, in order to show objectivity, passive voice is often used.

Speech Style:

Speech style can also be classified as literary style. Here, speech style is talked separately to show its features in a clearer way. Usually facing a big audience, the speaker will choose some vocabularies which can give others a deep impression. These usages can be illustrated using the famous speech *Apology* made by Socrates.

In the speech, Socrates addressed the listeners by calling them "oh, judges". The exclamation word "oh" can emphasize his mood. He used contrast in the sentence, "no evil can happen to a good man, either in life or death after". In fact, contrast is the common way in a speech to show the speakers feeling. "They have done me no harm, although they did not mean to do me any good." Facing death, the great philosopher was still showing his humor. Another sentence that can show the clear opposite meaning in the speech, "I to die, and you to live." Socrates used this sentence

to end the speech and he was sentenced to death after the speech. Some adjectives and adverbs in the speech can clearly show the speakers love and hate. Socrates used inverted order to show the emphasis meaning in the sentence, "he and his are not neglected by the gods; nor has my own approaching end happened by mere chance".

In the speech, Socrates talked about death in a calm way, which showed his braveness. In the speech, he made contrast to enhance the tone. All these emotions have to be transferred in the translation version using lexical and grammatical ways. In the translation of this speech, translator has to find the equivalent expressions in Chinese vocabularies.

Business letter:

Dear sir/madams,

On June 1st, we have received your letter. In the letter, you have listed the prices of the farming machinery. Since we are quite interested in this line of machinery, we often got inquiries about them from our partners in the USA. We shall be able to give you favorable orders, if the quality of the product is acceptable and the prices moderate. We shall be grateful if you like to send us some samples with the best terms and reasonable prices at your earliest convenience.

Yours truly,

In this letter, the writer used vocative "dear", adjectives, "suitable, moderate, best, considerable", adverb, "often" and modal operator "shall" to show the clear characteristics of the business letter. All these usage can express the politeness of the writer and his wish to establish business relationship with his counterpart. All the above usages make the tone of the letter very moderate. In Chinese, we have some specific phrases that are used in letters, such as "贵", "兹", "谨", "乞谅", "收悉", "承蒙", "为盼". These phrases can express the respect to the counterpart and the modesty of the writer. The translation of the speech is as the following.

敬启者:

贵公司于6月1日的来函已经收到。我们已获悉贵公司的农用工具价格。我公司对此类产品颇感兴趣,我方经常收到美国有关客户的来函询价,如贵公司提供的商品质量优良,价格适中,则可向贵公司大量订购。望早日收到贵公司的样品与最优惠的条件,谢谢。

谨上

III. CONCLUSION

The study of meaning is the basis of translation and translation practice is by no means an easy job. It requires not only a translator who has a command of two languages, it requires linguistics messages and training of translation strategies in a more serious way.

Translation is not a direct change of words from the source language to the target language. It is a craft, to some degree, an art which demands the translators' personal competence in translation professionals (Munday, 2001). It demands linguistic skills as well as language command. It calls on the ability to make clear the distinctions, not only in the source texts to be translated, but also of the contexts, including the situation in which the translation takes place. By analyzing the differences of those text types, we can also see the importance of context. Different situations call on different translation methods on the lexical and sentence structure level and textual level. During these years, on the construction of translation discipline, the dispute whether translation is science or art has been argued for a long time. In the writer's view, science or art is not so important as the method and laws of the translation practice. If we want to present satisfying translation, we should have a full knowledge of the both languages since each language has its own characteristics. Since it is possible to express the same meaning in two languages, it is possible to convert the meaning from one language to the other. To be a qualified translator, one has to study and compare the two languages. In the study, translator has to summarize the differences and similarities of the two languages and understand the laws behind them.

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Xiufang Xia was born in Gaomi, China in 1975. She received her MA degree in linguistics from Ocean University of China in 2002.

She is currently a lecturer in Qingdao University of Science and technology, China. Her research interests include functional linguistics and translation theory. She has published more than ten articles about functionalism and language teaching in recent years.

Comparing the Impact of Divergent and Convergent Tasks on Extrovert and Introvert EFL Learners' Writing Performance

Mania Nosratinia

Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Iran

Kolsum Kounani

Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran, Iran

Abstract—The present study attempted to study the comparative effect of convergent and divergent tasks on introvert and extrovert English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners' writing ability. 120 homogeneous EFL learners between 20 to 28 years old ($M_{age} = 24$), including 60 extroverts and 60 introverts, were selected as the participants of this study; they were assigned into 4 groups. In order to categorize the participants as introverts and extroverts, the Persian translation of Eysenck and Eysenck's (1985) Personality Inventory was employed. A number of PET tests by Quintana (2004) were piloted and employed for selecting homogenous individuals and testing participants' entry and exit writing performances. Running a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that there were not significant differences between the extrovert and introvert participants' means on the posttest of writing ($F(1, 116) = 3.67, p = .058, \eta^2 = .031$). It was also concluded that the divergent group had a significant but moderately higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group ($F(1, 116) = 16.32, p = .000, \eta^2 = .12$). The significance of divergent tasks over convergent tasks among introvert and extrovert participants was also confirmed through running 3 independent samples *t*-tests.

Index Terms—convergent tasks, divergent tasks, extrovert learners, introvert learners, personality types, writing

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing is unanimously acknowledged as the means using which individuals communicate in time and space, transmitting and sharing their culture through generations. As stated by Chastain (1988), "Writing is a basic communication skill and a unique asset in the process of learning a second language" (p. 244). Writing, a major language skill, was once assumed to be the concern of educated individuals; however, it is now becoming a required communicative tool for everyone (Cushing Weigle, 2002), and compared to the past, the role of writing has become more remarkable by the vast usage of electronic and wireless communications in everyday life (Gulek & Demirtas, 2005).

There is little doubt that writing can be very challenging for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners (Kenworthy, 2004). Researchers have reported that for foreign language learners it can be demanding and challenging to write in the target language; they usually produce less fluent sentences and encounter difficulties in the revisions process (Hyland, 2003; McCoy, 2003). However, this difficulty is not just rooted in their linguistic knowledge and gaining mastery over different dimensions of performance (Chih, 2008).

There is now a growing awareness among EFL educators regarding the importance of individual differences, such as creativity, cognitive abilities, metacognitive abilities, personality types, and self-regulation in L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005; Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Nosratinia & Zaker, 2013, 2014, 2015). As stated by Ellis (1994), "Individual differences produce variation in the rate of learning and the ultimate level of second language attainment" (p. 523). As a result, it seems that the language teaching profession has begun to change its focus towards learners and their peculiarities (Kumaravadivelu, 2008; Vygotsky, 1987; Zaker, 2015).

According to Ellis (1994) and Skehan (1989), personality is an important aspect of individuals' differences. Personality, as a complex and multifaceted phenomenon, has been defined as the stable individual differences in thoughts, feelings, as well as actions (Church & Lonner, 1998). As a result, attempts have been made in order to study different dimensions of personality factors (Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 1994; Nosratinia, Shakoory Divani, & Zaker, 2013).

One of the major outcomes of these studies has been the introvert and extrovert categorization. According to Eysenck and Eysenck (1985), extroversion/introversion is a continuum which shows one's degree of outgoingness and sociability. Busch (1982) and Strong (1983) conclude that extrovert learners are sociable, lively, as well as active, but introvert learners are quiet.

Ackerman and Heggstad (1997) argued that personality dispositions are among the predictors of success in a particular task. Influenced by this premise, there have been many attempts to make a link between these two personality types (extroversion and introversion) and L2 skills. For example, Cumming (2006) believes that learners' different personality types play a significant role in their writing. On the other hand, Nejad, Bijami, and Ahmadi (2012) found that there is no significant relationship between extroversion and introversion and writing ability. This finding implies that there can be many other factors, affecting the process of L2 development. These variables can include both individual and instructional factors (Nosratinia, Zaker, & Saveiy, 2015; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Ellis (2003) argues that employing tasks, as an instructional technique, can play a significant role in L2 development among EFL learners. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), tasks started to be used for academic purposes in the early 1970s, following the emphasis on the role of tasks as tools for teaching and training. In the field of L2 teaching, a task refers to "any proposal contained within the materials for action to be undertaken by the learners, which has the direct aim of bringing about the learning of the foreign language" (Breen, 1987, p. 128). In order to create a meaningful context, tasks generally present a gap in terms of information, reasoning, or opinion. Moreover, tasks in a language learning context can create a reason for learners to communicate with others through negotiating the meaning (Ellis, 2003; Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

Tasks can be categorized based on different criteria. According to Ellis (2003), one way in which tasks can be classified is to divide them into divergent and convergent. Divergent tasks are believed to engage cognitive processes (Duff, 1986). For performing these tasks, different cognitive strategies are required. In divergent tasks learners have independent goals to accomplish; by using such tasks teachers could help the students attend to both meaning and form (Duff, 1986). On the other hand, convergent tasks emphasize speed, accuracy, and logic; they focus on recognizing the familiar, reapplying techniques, and accumulating stored information (Cropley, 2006).

There is a great deal of controversy regarding the effect of convergent versus divergent tasks on L2 learning. For instance, while Duff (1986) believes that convergent tasks result in more success, Getzels and Jackson (1962) state that there is a close relationship between divergence (and divergent tasks) and higher achievement. Moreover, McCrae and Costa (1997) imply that there is a considerable association between personality traits and L2 productive skills, including writing. Influenced by the abovementioned controversy over the impact of divergent and convergent tasks and due to the fact that very few studies have investigated the role of tasks in L2 writing performance (Ishikawa, 2006; Kuiken & Vedder, 2007, 2008), the present study attempted to compare the impact of employing these two tasks, divergent or convergent, on writing performance of EFL learners with different personality types, being extrovert or introvert. In order to accomplish this objective, the following research questions were formulated:

Q₁: Do divergent tasks have any significant effect on extrovert and introvert EFL learners' writing performance?

Q₂: Do convergent tasks have any significant effect on extrovert and introvert EFL learners' writing performance?

Q₃: Is there any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on extrovert EFL learners' writing performance?

Q₄: Is there any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on introvert EFL learners' writing performance?

Q₅: Is there any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on EFL learners' writing performance?

II. METHOD

Participants

Though access to both school and university students was convenient, this research was carried out on the latter group based on the assumption that university students take the writing tasks more seriously as writing is one of their essential subjects to study. Accordingly, the participants of the present study were 120 Iranian EFL learners studying English Literature and English Translation at Payam-e-Nour University in different cities of Lorestan province (Khoramabad, Borojerd, Koohdasht, Dorood, Azna, and Aleshtar), Iran. They were all juniors, between 20 to 28 years old ($M_{\text{age}} = 24$). These participants were non-randomly selected and homogenized through employing a piloted PET test and the Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI; 1985) from 250 EFL learners. These EFL learners had completed the Advanced Writing Course and had started to study the Essay Writing Course. So, they were assumed to be somehow familiar with the principles of composition writing, including writing introduction, body, and conclusion paragraphs.

The 120 selected participants were divided into two groups: one extrovert (60 participants) and one introvert (60 participants). Each of these groups was divided into two groups with 30 participants (totally 4 groups). One extrovert and one introvert groups received divergent tasks and the other extrovert and introvert groups received convergent tasks. In addition to the abovementioned EFL learners, 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 and the writing posttest based on the specific rating scales. In order to estimate the inter-rater reliability between the two raters, the scores provided by the two raters on the piloting of writing parts 2 and 3 as well as the scores on the piloting of the writing posttests, parts 2 and 3, were employed. Running Pearson correlations between these score sets indicated that there were significant agreements between the scores, given by the two raters (r values = .833, .802, .877, and .823, $p < .01$). 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.

Instrumentation

Preliminary English Test (PET)

The English language proficiency test employed in this study for homogenizing the participants, was a piloted sample of the Preliminary English Test (PET) adopted from *PET Practice Tests* by Quintana (2004). The PET test is an exam calibrated for those who can use every day written and spoken English at an Intermediate Level. This test includes 125 items, taking 125 minutes to take the whole test. In this study, however, the speaking section of the PET test was not employed due to the limitations imposed by the university officials.

Writing Scale of PET

The rating scale used to rate the writing section of the PET was the one provided by Cambridge under the name of General Mark Schemes for Writing. The rating process was carried out on the basis of the criteria presented in the rating scale, including the rating scale of 0-5.

Writing Pretest

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

Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI)

The Eysenck's Personality Inventory (EPI) is a questionnaire for assessing the personality traits of an individual. It was devised by Hans Jürgen Eysenck and his wife Sybil B. G. Eysenck (1985). This questionnaire initially conceptualized personality as two biologically-based categories of temperament which includes: "Extroversion/Introversion" and "Neuroticism/Stability". This questionnaire consists of 57 Yes/No items and is scored based on the EPI rating scale. Test takers receive three types of scores: the E score indicating how much extrovert/introvert a person is, the N score measuring the neuroticism/stability, and the Lie score estimating how socially desirable a person has wanted to prove to be. The E score is computed out of 24 since it consists of 24 items, the N score is out of 24, and the Lie score is out of 9. The Yes/No answers should be given based on the usual way of acting or thinking of an individual. The time allocated to answer the questionnaire was about 60 minutes.

The original version of this instrument is in English, but in order to avoid any confusion and misunderstanding, the translated Persian version of the questionnaire was employed in order to make sure of the participants' full comprehension. The answer key and the standard rating scales were also provided in the battery. The reliability indices of this questionnaire are reported to be robust, and confirmatory factor analyses has demonstrated a good factor structure, supporting the validity of the instrument (D'Apollonia, Galley, & Simpson, 2001).

The Practical Writer with Readings

All of the participants in this study, received instruction based on *The Practical Writer with Readings* (7th edition), by Bailey and Powell (2007), Published by Heinle and Heinle Publishers. This book provides a manageable and accessible step-by-step approach to writing, from the one-paragraph essay to the five-paragraph essay, and beyond it. This book is stated to present everything that students need to know in order to master college-level writing.

Divergent/Convergent Tasks

During the treatment, the teacher (one of the researchers) used different convergent and divergent tasks to improve writing skills of the groups. The tasks were based on Duff (1986), Smith (2003), and Park (2007).

Compositions

The participants were asked to write six compositions during the treatment sessions. Both divergent and convergent tasks had the same theme. The participants in all four experimental groups had to write a composition based on the same theme of these tasks. The compositions had to have three parts -introduction, body, and conclusion paragraphs. The participants had 40 minutes to write about the following topics:

- Advantages and disadvantages of studying abroad
- Advantages and disadvantages of being single
- Advantages and disadvantages of having strict rules in schools
- Advantages and disadvantages of using Internet by children
- Explain the characteristics of a good English teacher
- Explain the characteristics of a good friend

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

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

Writing Posttest

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

Procedure

In the first step, a permission was gained from the principals and professors of Payame-Noor University who showed their willingness to collaborate in this study. Before beginning the study, the PET test and writing posttest were administered to 30 students who possessed almost the same characteristics of the main participants. The speaking section of the PET test was not administered due to not having the permission from university officials. The data collected from the pilot administration was used for calculating the three characteristics of individual items (Item Facility, Item Discrimination, and Choice Distribution) in order to exclude the malfunctioning items. Moreover, the Cronbach alpha formula was employed in order to calculate the reliability of the test scores.

The next step was to select the participants of the study. For this purpose, the piloted PET test was administered to 250 EFL students. Out of the 250 participants, 165 whose scores fell between one standard deviation above and below the mean were selected. The next step was to identify extrovert and introvert participants from among the 165 homogenous participants. To do so, the participants were asked to fill in the Persian translation of EPI (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1985). They were informed that the information they provide would be kept confidential and would be used only for research purposes. From among the 165 participants who attended the EPI, 120 were chosen based on the scores which were calculated by the test key. These 120 students included 60 individuals on the extrovert side and 60 ones on the introvert side.

The introvert participants were assigned into two experimental groups -one receiving divergent tasks and the other one receiving convergent tasks as their treatment. The same was done for extrovert participants. So, each group consisted of 30 EFL learners. To ensure that the all four groups were homogeneous in terms of their writing ability, the scores of the writing section of the PET test were analyzed in isolation and were used as the writing pretest scores of the participants.

Both groups received the same amount of instruction. The course consisted of 16 sessions of 90 minutes spanning over a period of four months. All students in the four experimental groups were instructed by the same teacher (one of the researchers) using the same material, *The Practical Writer with Readings*. In each session, the divergent and convergent tasks had the same theme. The participants in all four experimental groups had to write a composition based on the same theme of these tasks. After collecting the compositions, they were rated according to the Jacobs et al.'s ESL Composition Profile by the raters. The treatment procedures for both divergent and convergent tasks were adopted from Duff (1986) which is explained below:

The Divergent Task Group

In the divergent task group, tasks were designed in such a way that students were directed to create alternative ideas and implications. While performing the divergent tasks, the participants were asked to hold opposite ideas, so to raise controversial discussions. They were also asked to express as many opinions as possible, negotiate with others, and defend their positions (Duff, 1986). In order to administer the divergent tasks, participants were given some pictures. First, the teacher herself introduced the pictures to the group and talked about her own preferences in choosing, for example, urban or rural life and the advantages and disadvantages of living in such a context. Then, students were asked to describe and talk about the pictures. The students were encouraged to come up with as many possible answers as they could think of.

The Convergent Task Group

In the convergent task group, tasks encouraged participants to collaborate in order to reach a single best answer. They were also given some pictures, and the teacher herself introduced the pictures to the group. The participants had to describe them and come up with one single agreement about the topic of those pictures. In other words, participants were required to reach an agreement collectively. The participants in this group were encouraged to describe pictures by using sentences such as "the picture says that ...", "there is a picture here that shows ..." whilst those in the divergent group were asked to use initiators such as "I feel ...", "I personally believe".

Evaluating the Exit Behaviors

After administering the tasks, participants in the four experimental groups started writing a composition based on the theme of the divergent/convergent tasks. Their compositions were collected and scored by the raters, using Jacobs et al.'s ESL Composition Profile. At the end of the treatment period, in order to compare the effect of divergent/convergent tasks on the writing ability of the extrovert/introvert participants, the posttest was administered. This test was a piloted writing section of another version of the PET test. The performances of participants in this test were analyzed through statistical analyses, reported next.

III. RESULTS

This quasi-experimental study, attempted to compare the impact of convergent and divergent tasks on EFL learners' writing ability, while regarding extrovert and introvert personality types as the two moderator variables. To do so, a series of pertinent calculations and statistical routines were conducted. First, the PET test was piloted to make sure that it could be used confidently for this screening. All items went through an item analysis procedure, including item

discrimination, item facility, and choice distribution. The results showed that all the items enjoyed acceptable facility and discrimination indices. Accordingly, no item was discarded from the test. Moreover, using the Cronbach alpha formula reported a reliability index of .80.

After the administration of the PET test to the 250 initial participants, the descriptive statistics reported the mean of 55.83 and the standard deviation of 9.47. The reliability index of the PET test in this phase was .81. The PET writing scores were analyzed to make sure that the participants of the four groups bore no significant difference in terms of their writing ability before treatment. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was run to compare the divergent/convergent and introvert/extrovert EFL learners' means on the pretest of writing. Based on the results displayed in Table 1 ($F(1, 116) = .053, p = .819, \eta^2 = .000$ representing a weak effect size) it was concluded that there were not significant differences between the extrovert and introvert subjects' means on the pretest of writing. It was also concluded that there were not significant differences between the divergent and convergent groups' means on the pretest of writing ($F(1, 116) = .21, p = .646, \eta^2 = .002$ representing a weak effect size). Moreover, it was concluded that there was not any significant interaction between the two tasks (divergent and convergent) and the two personality traits (introvert and extrovert) ($F(1, 116) = 0, p = 1, \eta^2 = .000$ representing a weak effect size).

TABLE 1:
ESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; PRETEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Introvert/Extrovert	.075	1	.075	.053	.819	.000
Divergent/Convergent	.300	1	.300	.211	.646	.002
Int/Ext * Div/Con	.000	1	.000	.000	1.000	.000
Error	164.550	116	1.419			
Total	28902.000	120				

Testing Assumptions

The present data were analyzed through running two-way ANOVA and independent samples *t*-tests which have four main assumptions: interval data, independence of subjects, normality, and homogeneity of variances. Considering the exercised procedure and employed instruments, the first two assumptions were met. The normality assumption -as tested through the ratios of skewness and kurtosis- was also met. The assumption of homogeneity of variances will be discussed when reporting the results of the two-way ANOVA although as noted by Pallant (2010) and Field (2013) when sample sizes are equal -as is the case in this study- there is no need to worry about the violation of this assumption.

The First and Second Research Questions

The first and second research questions were analyzed through a two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA). The reason that ANCOVA was not run in this study is that the ANCOVA has two more assumptions besides of normality and homogeneity of variances, i.e. homogeneity of regression slope and linear relationship between the dependent variable and covariate which were not met in this study. As a result, a two-way ANOVA was run to compare the divergent/convergent and introvert/extrovert EFL learners' means on the posttest of writing. Before discussing the results, it should be mentioned that the assumption of homogeneity of variances was met (Levene's $F(3, 116) = .057, p = .982$). Based on the results displayed in Table 2, it was concluded that there were not significant differences between the extrovert and introvert participants' means on the posttest of writing ($F(1, 116) = 3.67, p = .058, \eta^2 = .031$ representing a weak effect size).

TABLE 2:
TESTS OF BETWEEN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS; POSTTEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Int/Ext	4.602	1	4.602	3.678	.058	.031
Div/Con	20.419	1	20.419	16.321	.000	.123
Int/Ext * Div/Con	.252	1	.252	.201	.654	.002
Error	145.125	116	1.251			
Total	32232.750	120				

Based on the results of the descriptive statistics, it was observed that the divergent group ($M = 16.75, SE = .14, 95\% CI [16.47, 17.04]$) had a higher mean than the convergent group ($M = 15.93, SE = .14, 95\% CI [15.64, 16.21]$) on the posttest of writing. As reported in Table 2, ($F(1, 116) = 16.32, p = .000, \eta^2 = .12$ representing a moderate to large effect size) it was concluded that divergent group had a significant but moderately higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group (the divergent group had higher means than the convergent group irrespective of the personality traits). Finally, Table 2 indicates that there was not any significant interaction between types of tasks and personality traits ($F(1, 116) = .20, p = .654, \eta^2 = .002$ representing a weak effect size). Table 3 reports the result of pairwise comparisons.

TABLE 3:
PAIRWISE COMPARISONS; POSTTEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS AND PERSONALITY TRAITS

Types of Tasks	(I) P-Trait	(J) P-Trait	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Difference		
					Sig.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Divergent	Extrovert	Introvert	.483	.289	.097	-.089	1.055
Convergent	Extrovert	Introvert	.300	.289	.301	-.272	.872

The results of this pairwise comparison indicated that:

a. There was not any significant difference between divergent extrovert participants (M = 17) and divergent introvert participants (M = 16.51) groups' means on the posttest of writing (MD = .48, p = .097, 95 % CI [-.089, 1.055]. The negative lower bound 95 percent confidence interval (CI) of .089 indicated that the mean difference between the divergent extrovert and introvert groups might be zero. Thus, the above mentioned conclusion -as no significant difference between the two groups' means- was correctly made.

b. There was not any significant difference between convergent extrovert participants (M = 16.08) and convergent introvert participants (M = 15.78) groups' means on the posttest of writing (MD = .30, p = .301, 95 % CI [-.272, .872]. The negative lower bound 95 percent CI of -.272 indicated that the mean difference between the convergent extrovert and introvert groups might be zero. Thus, the above mentioned conclusion as no significant difference between the two groups' means- was correct.

The Third Research Question

This research question attempted to probe any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on extrovert EFL learners' writing. Descriptive statistics reported that the divergent group (M = 17, SD = 1.04) had a slightly higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group (M = 16.08, SD = 1.16). Table 4 reports the results of the independent samples t-test (t (58) = 3.21, p = .002, r = .38 representing a moderate effect size), indicating that there was a significant but moderate difference between convergent and divergent tasks on extrovert subjects' performance on the posttest of writing. This finding should be interpreted cautiously due to the moderate effect size value of .38. Figure 1 also shows these results.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST, POSTTEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS (EXTROVERT SUBJECTS)

	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
Equal variances assumed	.142	.707	3.219	58	.002	.917	.285	.347	1.487
Equal variances not assumed			3.219	57.345	.002	.917	.285	.347	1.487

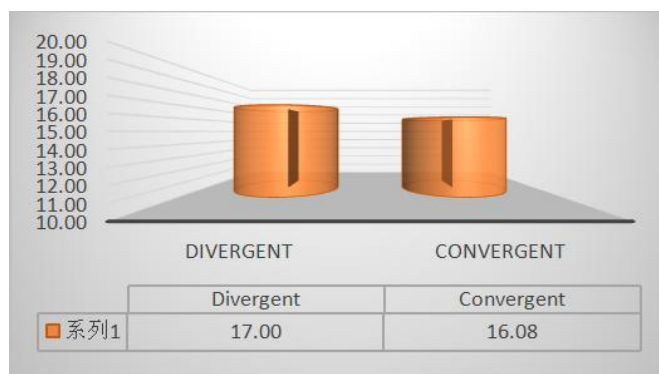


Figure 1: Posttest of writing by types of tasks (extrovert participants)

The Fourth Research Question

This research question attempted to probe any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on introvert EFL learners' writing. Based on the results of the descriptive statistics, it could be claimed that the divergent group (M = 16.52, SD = 1.20) had a slightly higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group (M = 15.78, SD = 1.06). Table 5 shows the results of the independent samples t-test (t (58) = 2.50, p = .015, r = .31 representing a moderate effect size), indicating that there was a significant but moderate difference between convergent and divergent tasks on introvert participants' performance on the posttest of writing. However, this finding should be interpreted cautiously due to the moderate effect size value of .31. Figure 2 also shows these results.

TABLE 5:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST, POSTTEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS (INTROVERT SUBJECTS)

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.019	.891	2.505	58	.015	.733	.293	.147	1.319
Equal variances not assumed			2.505	57.186	.015	.733	.293	.147	1.320

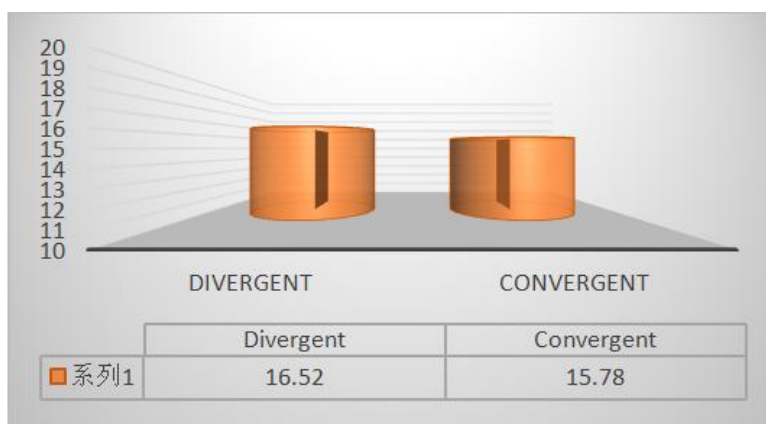


Figure 2: Posttest of writing by types of tasks (introvert participants)

The Fifth Research Question

This research question attempted to probe any significant difference between the effect of divergent and convergent tasks on EFL learners' writing performance. Descriptive statistics reported that the divergent group (M = 16.76, SD = 1.14) had a slightly higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group (M = 15.93, SD = 1.11). Table 6 reports the results of the independent samples t-test ($t(118) = 4, p = .015, r = .34$ representing a moderate effect size), indicating that there was a significant but moderate difference between convergent and divergent tasks on participants' performance on the posttest of writing. However, the results should be interpreted cautiously due to the moderate effect size value of .34. Figure 3 also shows these results.

TABLE 6:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES TEST, POSTTEST OF WRITING BY TYPES OF TASKS

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	.051	.822	4.008	118	.000	.825	.206	.417	1.233
Equal variances not assumed			4.008	117.935	.000	.825	.206	.417	1.233

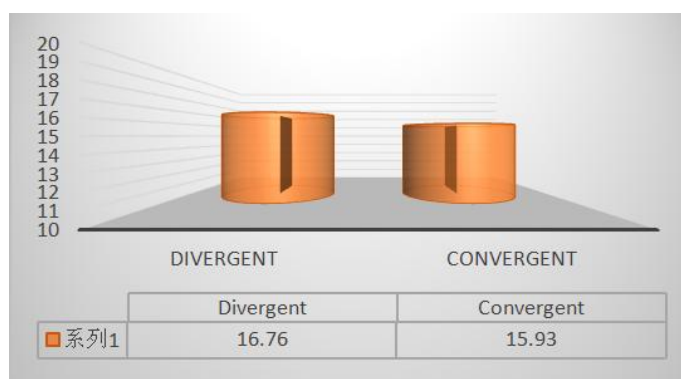


Figure 3: Posttest of writing by types of tasks

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Developing the writing skill, as a significant means for communication, is believed to be an important, and simultaneously, challenging task for many EFL learners (Chastain, 1988; Cushing Weigle, 2002; Kenworthy, 2004; Tan, 2007). Accordingly, many attempts have been, and are being, made in order to gain a deeper understanding of writing

and factors affecting its development. These attempts are influenced by the significance of individual differences (Dörnyei, 2005; Ellis, 1994; Fahim & Zaker, 2014; Vygotsky, 1987) and, on the other hand, instructional techniques and tasks in facilitating and promoting language learning (Ellis, 2003).

Influenced by the abovementioned points, the present study attempted to study the interaction among EFL learners' personality types (introversion and extroversion), the type of instructional tasks (divergent and convergent), and writing ability. These concerns were considered through formulating 5 research questions in order to investigate the comparative effect of convergent and divergent tasks on introvert and extrovert EFL learners' writing ability (see introduction).

120 proficiency-wise homogeneous EFL learners, including 60 extroverts and 60 introverts, participated in this study. They were assigned into 4 groups: 2 groups (30 introvert learners and 30 extrovert learners) were treated with divergent tasks, whereas 2 groups (30 introvert learners and 30 extrovert learners) were treated with convergent tasks. In the divergent task groups, tasks were designed in such a way that students were directed to create alternative ideas and implications, whereas in the convergent task groups, tasks encouraged participants to collaborate in order to reach a single best answer. The obtained results reported that:

a. There were not significant differences between the extrovert and introvert participants' means on the posttest of writing ($F(1, 116) = 3.67, p = .058, \eta^2 = .031$ representing a weak effect size).

b. The divergent group had a significant but moderately higher mean on the posttest of writing than the convergent group ($F(1, 116) = 16.32, p = .000, \eta^2 = .12$ representing a moderate to large effect size).

c. There was not any significant interaction between types of tasks and personality traits ($F(1, 116) = .20, p = .654, \eta^2 = .002$ representing a weak effect size).

d. There was not any significant difference between divergent extrovert participants ($M = 17$) and divergent introvert participants ($M = 16.51$) group means on the posttest of writing ($MD = .48, p = .097, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.089, 1.055]$).

e. There was not any significant difference between convergent extrovert participants ($M = 16.08$) and convergent introvert participants ($M = 15.78$) groups' means on the posttest of writing ($MD = .30, p = .301, 95\% \text{ CI} [-.272, .872]$).

f. There was a significant but moderate difference between convergent and divergent tasks on extrovert subjects' performance on the posttest of writing ($t(58) = 3.21, p = .002, r = .38$ representing a moderate effect size). The divergent group ($M = 17, SD = 1.04$) had a slightly higher mean compared to the convergent group ($M = 16.08, SD = 1.16$).

g. There was a significant but moderate difference between the impact of convergent and divergent tasks on introvert participants' performance on the posttest of writing ($t(58) = 2.50, p = .015, r = .31$ representing a moderate effect size). The divergent group ($M = 16.52, SD = 1.20$) had a slightly higher mean compared to the convergent group ($M = 15.78, SD = 1.06$).

h. There was a significant but moderate difference between the impact of convergent and divergent tasks on participants' performance on the posttest of writing ($t(118) = 4, p = .015, r = .34$ representing a moderate effect size). The divergent group ($M = 16.76, SD = 1.14$) had a slightly higher mean compared to the convergent group ($M = 15.93, SD = 1.11$).

These results, firstly, indicate that there are no significant differences between the writing performances of extrovert and introvert learners who receive the same treatment; this implies that the introversion and extroversion of EFL learners' personality does not play any significant role in determining their writing ability. This finding seems to be in contrast with the common belief that personality type (e.g. introversion or extroversion) plays a determining role in language learning and task completion (Ahmadian & Yadegari, 2011; Dörnyei, 2005). However, this finding seems to support the findings of Hemmat Nezhad, Jahandar, and Khodabandehlou's study (2014) where extraversion vs. introversion did not show any different impact on EFL learners' writing ability.

Secondly, and more importantly, the obtained results indicated that divergent tasks had a significant and positive impact on both introvert and extrovert learners' writing development. Although, this finding seems to differ from Marashi and Tahan-Shizari's study (2014) where convergent tasks are reportedly more helpful in writing development, it seems to provide support for Getzels and Jackson's (1962) statement on the close relationship between divergent tasks and higher achievement. One justification for observing such an outcome can be the similarity between the nature of writing and divergent tasks. Writing requires development of different ideas and concepts during the process of writing (Ellis, 2003), and divergent tasks expect learners to follow different independent goals.

One of the major implications of the findings of this study is the significance of including divergent tasks in different parts of the instruction process. As reported above, divergent tasks have a positive impact on both introvert and extrovert learners' language production. Such a similar, positive impact seems to provide EFL teachers with a higher level of confidence in implementing divergent tasks for different learners with different individual/internal factors. Similarly, both introvert and extrovert EFL learners are suggested to engage in completing divergent tasks. Moreover, syllabus designers and material developers are recommended to pay more attention to employing divergent tasks which, based on the findings of the present study, have a significant impact on EFL learners' language production through writing.

One important point to make is that the findings of this study by no means question the importance of considering learners' individual factors in language teaching (Zaker, 2015). Therefore, when discussing the findings of this study it

should be stated that divergent tasks had a positive impact on both introvert and extrovert learners' writing based on the nature of these tasks rather than implying that introvert and extrovert learners are basically equal. As a result, EFL teachers should attempt to analyze the learners' needs and differences, create comfortable atmosphere for learning, and employ appropriate and context-pertinent tasks; moreover, they should not neglect the importance of establishing a positive rapport with the learners (Ehrman, 1993).

In this study, gender distribution of the groups was out of the control of the researchers. In order to remove the impact of gender on the results, other studies may replicate this study with equal number of males and females. In addition, as learners' individual factors can be studied from different perspectives and dimensions (Nosratinia & Zaker, 2014), it is suggested to inspect and compare the interaction of task types (divergent and convergent) and other personality and individual factors in other studies. Moreover, this research has dealt with EFL learners' general writing ability; therefore, other studies can study the impact of different tasks (i.e. divergent and convergent) on different aspect of EFL learners' writing ability (e.g. complexity, accuracy, and fluency). Finally, other studies may aspire to explore the impact of divergent and convergent tasks on other language skills (i.e. speaking, listening, and reading).

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Mania Nosratinia is Assistant Professor in TEFL at Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran. She has been teaching at undergraduate and graduate levels in the areas of English language teaching methodology, language testing, and research methodology in language studies. She has published in national and international academic journals and presented in several national and international seminars.

Kolsum Kounani holds an MA in TEFL from Islamic Azad University at Central Tehran and is an English teacher at a number of language schools. Her main areas of research interest include EFL writing and psycholinguistics.

The Status of Women in the Novels of Najib Al-Kilani (Based on Two Novels of *Jakarta's Virgin* and *The Man Who Believed*)

Ahmad Lamei Giv*

Department of Persian Language and Literature, Faculty of Literature and Humanities, University of Birjand, Birjand, Iran

Marziye Mohaghegh Nia

Department of Arabic Language and Literature, Faculty of Literature and Humanities, University of Birjand, Birjand, Iran

Abstract—Committed and contemporary Egyptian writer, Najib al-Kilani, is considered as a leader in Islamic literature in the Arab world due to the multitude of writings. Islam and promotion of Islamic principles is a major concern in most of his works. Using a descriptive-analytical method, this article tries to investigate the status of women in his novel 'Jakarta's Virgin and The Man Who Believed'. The findings suggest that Kilani, unlike its predecessors and even his contemporary writers, has not described the superficial and banal aspect of women, but he has tried to promote true status appointed for a Muslim woman. Najib's novels are taken from the real facts of his time. For him, women have the ability to participate in all social, economic areas by maintaining the moral values and standards of Islam as well as men. Kilani has also given women the right to select their own husbands; he insists much on the presence of common moral, cultural and religious points among couples to survive and continue sharing life.

Index Terms—status of women, novel, Najib Al-Kilani, Jakarta's Virgin, The Man Who Believed

I. INTRODUCTION

Traditionally, women have been deprived of many valuable individual and social rights in the Arab world whereas all sublime divine teachings have respected woman and his position. In this regard, many intellectuals have tried to help women to achieve their rightful places in Arabic-Muslim countries. This intellectual movement has begun in the Islamic countries by individuals such as Jamal al-Din Asad Abadi, Sheikh Muhammad Abduh, Qasim Amin. In the meantime, Najib Kilani, the Egyptian Muslim and committed writer, released various works in the world of literature. Because of the large number of works on the one hand and the Islamic formula of his writings on the other hand, he is a leader in the field of contemporary literature in the Arab world. Since novel is influenced by the community's situation more than any other literary work and it can reflect social structures in itself better than any other literary work, Kilani has tried to portray the contemporary Islamic countries using the art of novel writing. While the Najib's novels are full of intellectual and practical battle between Islamic and colonial movements, most of his works refer to the status of women in family and society. Using a descriptive-analytical method, this article tries to investigate the status of women in his novel 'Jakarta's Virgin and The Man who Believed'. However, it is inescapable to call for the help by other novels written by Kilani.

Kilani particular attention to the status of women from the perspective of Islamic teachings as well as the spirit of realism in his works is the importance and necessity of this research.

The questions that will be discussed in this article include:

1. What is the status of women in the novels of Najib Kilani?
2. Which aspect of women's personality is focused in Kilani's novels?

It should be noted that no novel has ever investigated the status of women in the Najib Kilani's novels as an independent factor.

II. NOVEL AND ITS BACKGROUND

As this research aims to investigate the status of women in Najib Kilani's novels, it is necessary to introduce his novels in brief.

* Corresponding Author
Email: Ahmad.lamei2@birjand.ac.ir

It is not easy to define novel or determine its distinguishing boundaries from other types of literature, especially fictions. The fledgling nature of novel in comparison with other literary types has disabled us to establish such firm conventions and principles as the framework of other literary types. It is told that poetry was thousands of years old when Jesus left home at the age of twelve and hundred years passed the birth of play; but novel was born 1500 years later. Moreover, novel has been subject of many fundamental changes from the very beginning in a way very different from other literary genres (Khojasteh, 2008, p. 62).

Short stories and novels are short-lived comparing to fiction. In fact, novel is the most important and famous literary form of our time. As mentioned, novel is younger than two and half centuries; it is known that novel has begun by Don Quixote by Cervantes (1547-1616) the Spanish writer and Princess Chloe by Madame de la Fayette (1634-1693) (Mir Sadeqi, 2004, p. 152).

Nowadays, the term novel refers to a variety of works whose common point is just their long and prose story. Since novel is a long literary narration, it differs from short stories and works with medium length called novelette. Hence, it is not possible to present a comprehensive definition of novel to cover all types. Here, just two definitions will be presented:

It is an innovative prose in a considerable length and specific complexity accompanied by human experience dealing with imagination expresses the sequence of events where a group of the characters involved in a certain scene (Mir Sadeqi, 2013, p. 24).

Harry Shaw's *Dictionary of Literary Terms* defines Novel as a long prose narration organizing characters and their presence in a chronological order. A work of fiction that have less than 30 to 40 thousand words is called short story or novelette but novel has no limitation in the number of length. Every novel is a description of life, conflicts, characters, actions, scenes, and theme (ibid).

III. NAJIB KILANI'S BIOGRAPHY

Najib bin Kilani bin Ibrahim ibn Abdol Latif Al-Kilani was born in Sharshabeh of al-Garbiyah Province in Arabic Republic of Egypt (Al-Arini, 1425, p. 11). Kilani's family was a large family inhabited in Sharshabeh and the neighboring villages. His father was a farmer headed a family consisting of his wife and three sons. The first son is Najib and the others are Amin and Muhammad. When Najib was eight, the Second World War began; thus, his village faced a severe economic crisis. Haji Abdul Qadir Al Shafei, Najib's paternal grandfather was an influential person in his life. He was a Philanthropist man who remembered Quran as the region's biggest cotton merchants. He paid much attention to Najib's moral deeds. Encouraged by his grandfather, Najib began learning memorizing the Quran in a school in his village in four (ibid).

In his book *Glimpses of my Life*, Najib says about his grandfather that he has been influenced by the morals and manners of his grandfather more than any other person; he encouraged Najib's father to educate Najib and gave him gifts (Kilani, 1998, pp.1-33).

In eight, he went to an American school called Sanbat in the nearby village. He finished high school in Tanta. This period lasted 5 years (Al-Arini, 1425, p. 12).

After completing high school, he entered Cairo University Fetal Medicine; he preferred literature or law; but his father forced him to study medicine despite the propensity. Shortly after, he was interested in the field (ibid, p. 13).

In the fourth year of university (1955), he was arrested on charges of orientation to the Muslim Brotherhood and he was sentenced to 10 years in prison. He suffered tortures in jails of Hazmi, Asiyout, Qanatir, Misr al-Omoomi, Cair, Abu Za'bal, and Watreh (Hadian, 2011, p. 20).

At this time, he composed his first collection of poems called *Aghany Alghoraba'* (Songs of Strangers). He spent four years in prison but he was released from prison in late 1958 due to neurological disease of legs. After this event, he continued his studies and graduated in 1960 in Medicine. In the wake of President Gamal Abdel Nasser order to arrest all members of the Muslim Brotherhood, he was imprisoned again in 1967. After two years, following the 1967 Arab defeat against Israel (June Event), he released. After his release from prison, Najib traveled to the United Arab Emirates, where he spent more than twenty years. Finally, he died in 1415 after illness and severe pain in the King Faisal Specialist Hospital in Riyadh (Al-Arini, 1425, p. 17).

Najib Kilani loved reading, especially literary journals published during that period such as Al-Resaleh, Al-Theqafeh, Al-Helal, and Al-Moqtatif. He became familiar with many scholars like Sayyid Qutb, Mustafa Sadiq Rafeay, Manfalouty, Taha Hussein and Tawfiq Hakim.

In the beginning, he had no certain tendency; but he read due to extreme poverty every available text including Universal and Arabic stories and poems of many poets like Mutanabbi, Shawqi, Hafiz, etc. (ibid, p. 13). Kilani was memorized a lot of the Holy Quran. In addition, he was attracted by the Muslim Brotherhood's invitation, he believed in the Muslim Brotherhood. Hence, No wonder to see the soul of Islam the religious nature in his scientific and literary works. It is noteworthy to point out that his Islamic orientation is not limited his novels and stories but in all of his charts. (Al-Arini, 1425, p. 17)

IV. NAJIB KILANI'S WORKS AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Kilani is considered a pioneer of contemporary Islamic literature in terms of multiplicity and diversity of works. Another unique feature is the heroes of his stories who are often concerned with religion and the conflict between intellectual and scientific Islamic currents and colonial requirements. He is also the only Arab writer whose stories cover beyond the Arab world and portray the oppression of Muslims in Indonesia, Turkestan, Nigeria and....

Kilani is considered as a realistic novelist because his style is a need in the Arab world, especially Egypt's society. He has described literary fiction as the need for the Islamic world; that distinguishes him from other religions and contemporary authors are addressing the situation of women in society of that day in addition to the religious spirit and color. At a time when many rights of women were unknown or deliberately ignored, he tried to clarify public opinion in their actual knowledge of women and their place in the Islamic community. Most of events in Kilani's novels are taken from real events of his time (Khosravi, 2014, p. 27). A short and chronological view on Kilani's novels represents that fiction works of this Egyptian writer is divided into three categories:

First, romantic novels talking indirectly about the grief of the people, social problems such as poverty, ignorance, backwardness and disease; they are *Spring Storm*, *Burning People*, *Vanguard of Dawn*, *Slaves' Night*, and *Jadallah's Story*.

Second, historical novels including fiction works inspired by the prophetic tradition and the history of Islam and in which the author intends to aware the reader of the rich civilization of Islam and religious values such as jihad and defense.

Third, Islamic realistic novel including the stories about the problems and heartache of Muslims out of Islamic lands such as *Turkestan Nights*, *Jakarta's Virgin*, *Black Shadow*, and *Giants of North* as well as novels about political and social issues having been encountered by the oppressed people in Egypt such as oppression, violence and tyranny where the writer talks about freedom, justice, security, comfort and vision. Novels like *Abdul Motajali's Confessions*, *Abdul Motajali's Wife*, and *Queen of Grapes* (Khazali & Basiri, 2008, p. 82).

Doctor Kilani has written more than 70 books in the fields of novels, stories, poetry, criticism, thoughts, and medicine. Four of Kilani's books have been translated into Persian:

1. *In search of Freedom*: A book with eloquent prose and fascinating story about Hazrat Hamza's killer, Vahshi.
2. *Second wife*: A collection of stories explaining instances of ordinary issues of a society so that the writer tries to convey moral and social implications in interesting forms.
3. *Quds in Separation of Farouk*: Imagination of a Palestinian who met the second Caliphate.
4. *Heroes of the North*: Scenes from the Jihad of the Muslims of North Africa in the fight against colonialism.

V. THE ANALYSIS OF WOMEN'S POSITION IN AL-KILANI NOVELS

As mentioned, Najib's novels talk about women and their problems; but women are not first character neither in the novels that have been called by the name of women nor in other novels. Nevertheless, women are playing roles alongside men. Sometimes, men are involved in several scenes during a time and the name of women does not hear. It does seem that Najib aims to tell the reader that the body of the community is constructed by of men and women at interaction. It should be noted that women sometimes act quite independently. In his novels, Najib pays attention to women and their problems from different aspects, which will be discussed in this research.

A. *Women in Politics and Resistance*

Four of the novels written by Najib Kilani are discussing situation of Muslims in other countries *Jakarta's Virgin* is a political-moral charter portraying Indonesian Muslim movement against the Communist Party. The novel introduces a religious and committed family whose girl *Fatemeh* is present in various resistance scenes. A student movement has been formed at the University of Female Students; the leaders of the Communist Party try to tarnish the sacred realm of Islamic teachings by deceptive slogans of equality between men and women, equality of people etc. In this situation, *Fatemeh* prefers oral struggle rather than the silence, presents a logical and principled debate with the party's representative, and succeeds to some extent to clarify the opinions. He proceeded to fight and defend the fundamentals of Islam at a time when most female students have been fooled by glamor of the party. Following the arrest of her father and her fiancé, *Fatemeh* thinks about the armed struggle where subsequent events makes her more determined in her decision. Party leaders resorted to assassination, looting and plundering of innocent people's properties, and they not turn away from any crime. *Fatemeh* initially joins honorary to the editorial office. Although Chief disagrees with an armed operation at the beginning, he armed his colleagues finally to defend their reputation. In scenes that the office is surrounded by communist agitators, *Fatemeh* acts bravely so that few women can act like her. In this regard, she criticizes even some of his colleagues because of negligence and disregard for the fate of the country and their fellow citizens. Shooting the assailant to editorial office old guardian, *Fatemeh* pushes rioters away for a moment (Kilani, 2005, p. 229).

Meanwhile, she tells the reporter of art section huddled on his desk passively and does not make use of his arms:

Are not you ashamed?

Her colleague answers that he does not like to die as he has ever fought against politics and kept himself away from it.

Fatemeh said to him: Go tell it to them, because there is no difference in artist and politician, innocent and guilty for the enemy; art has no place at this point in time (ibid, p. 231).

Fatemeh is present in many scenes along with men and even a few steps ahead of them in politics and resistance; finally, she waters the nascent three of revolution with her red blood.

B. Woman in Marriage

Marriage of girls with men aged as their fathers had been a mysterious and common tradition in Eastern Islamic communities, especially the Arab communities. Poverty and greed in pursuit of wealth led the girls' supervisors to exchange them with Dirhams and Dinars like goods without considering the interest and satisfaction of young girls. Although marriage and divorce laws in the nineteenth century in Arabic countries were based on the Islamic law, they were ignored in many cases. Lack of attention to the equal situation of both parties in addition to lack of common interest in this matter imposed irreparable harm to the body of the society. Najib Kilani paid much attention to this need of the community for women. He has spoken of many women's capabilities in his novels. In *The Man Who Believed*, he describes three main female characters. Arrian is a performer heading to the United Arab Emirates with the intention of playing in a hotel. At departure, he proposes his fiancée Sophia, who is a girl with Western manners and ideas believing in marriage as restrictions and end to the pleasures of life while promiscuity is freedom, and notes that salary is enough for adequate living; but Sophia declares that she is not going to get married soon and wants a taste of life (Kilani, 1997, p. 6).

Thus, Sophia separates her way from Arian at the beginning of the novel. After staying in Dubai, Arian met a Muslim woman named Shams who is a dancer. Therefore, Shams cause a spark in Arian and leads him to search about Islam with an unquenchable thirst. The investigation leads him ultimately to turn to Islam. He is too involved with the foundations of this right religion that refuses marriage with Shams. In his vision, Shams is a Muslim in words and not accordance with the standards of marriage in Islam. In his familiarity with Islam, Arian, who changes his name to Muhammad Ali, gets acquainted with a pious and noble woman named Mason who complies with the standards of religion and Islamic values; this introduction leads to marriage.

In Jakarta's Virgin, exposing to unfair charges due to counter the Communists, Fatemeh decides to marry a classmate, Abol Hasan, to protect the reputation of her family; in this regard, she consults with her father. Haji Mohammad Idris notes that she has postponed the affairs herself. He states that marriage is a serious action and has specific criteria; she should be careful that harsh conditions do not compel her to this decision (Kilani, 2005, pp.49-50).

Stating the dialogue between the father and the daughter, the author aims to instill the idea that mature girls should be free to select their future husbands, what was the need of Arab community at the time. In a dialogue between Zaim and Fatemeh, Zaim proposes marriage to Fatemeh; Fatemeh makes him aware of Islamic principles and commands, "محرمٌ له شرعاً الزواج من رجلٍ لا دينَ له" (meaning, it is forbidden in Islam to marry a man with no religion) (ibid, p. 31).

Every page of the novel propagates Islamic beliefs and values through the real and tangible the events required for society. In *The Man Who Believed*, Arian refuses to marry Shams because the spiritual, moral and religious mutual understandings are very important in marriage. After being informed of Arian's Islam, Shams goes to him to provide marriage arrangements; but Arian notes that Shams is strange to Islamic criteria he has learned, her wearing is not suitable and his harsh make up is not proper (Kilani, 1997, p. 87).

For the same reason, in response to excitement emotional that perhaps somehow rose from the torment of conscience in connection with the Shams, he murmurs that he cannot live with a woman who is an inherited Muslim because she has learned just some common practices of religion. As she has not a deep understanding of religious affairs, she does not differs from any European and American women or with Christian, Jewish and other nations' women who are submitted to only a superficial shell of religion. For him, true love is nothing but a continuity of spirit in the shadow of religious beliefs. In his novel, Najib believes in a love leading to marriage in the light of Islamic teachings away from vulgarity and promiscuity because love and lust are very different. The more love can lead woman and man to peace coast, the more will damage to pure human emotions. Matrimonial alliance is royal road followed by comfort and mental and emotional peace; it keeps people safe from social unhealthy injuries.

C. Equal Rights for Men and Women

The freedom of men and women has been proposed in the contemporary period; but equality of men and women's rights has a long history. Arab world oppress women a lot in this respect and many women has been deprived of their true rights. May Ziade, the famous Christian writer, argues that the first person who was kindly to woman was Jesus Christ who established equality between man and woman. Then, the woman's position was enhanced with the advent of Islam because it regards man and women equal in all cases except witnessing and heritage in an Arab environment where no prestige had been defined for women. It dealt severely with false belief that is a shameful stain on the forehead of Arab history. Instances of this type of belief are "Death is better than living for woman" and "The highest glory is the survival of boys the death of girls" (Amin, p.72).

Modern Arab history is full of events that are indicative of violations of women's rights, especially in the lower classes. One can articulate the deprivation of employment, lack of financial independence, not having the right to choose a spouse and so on as some examples. Clearly, the foundation of all this inequality is gender discrimination while each gender has unique privileges in particular fields and common attributes in many other fields. Thus, one cannot speak of the equality of men and women regardless of the characteristics of each gender. Surely, the most correct way is to put each one in its own proper place, not to put woman instead of a man or a man instead of woman.

It is a mistake by intellectuals who want to teach girls to live the same as boys; in this regard, they will suppress their feminine qualities and they will impose a dangerous damage to society (Pamela, Wallace, & Tyler, 2001, p. 86).

This claim is seen in some parts of the novel; when the party leader speaks to students:

“Women’s chastity is not different from men; it is cruel not to assign limitations for men in this regard while we have determined some for women. It is necessary for our new life to continue equal rights for both men and women.” (Kilani, 2005, p. 18)

With these demagogic and seemingly plausible slogans, Communist Party officials stimulating emotions and try to tarnish the sacred realm of Islamic values. They are fully aware of the dire need of Muslim communities, especially women and their annoying restrictions. Hence, they choose the defenders position and by pointing to the weaknesses. In this way, people suck their poisonous ideas over time in the community. In such circumstances, Fatemeh goes on the scene to illuminate the minds; she states:

“Surely, we are wrong if we think that women are exactly like men because science also insists that each of men and women has particular nature. Male hormones are different from women. They have different muscular strength; their physiological functions are not the same. It is not possible to disregard these facts; is this physical and mental combination without affecting? These epic sermons and speeches are not scientific; I am going to deal with facts (Kilani, 2005, pp. 18-19).

According to the above, it can be found well that the writer tries to argue that the difference between creations of men and women cannot be denied; but this difference is not an obstacle to the participation of women in social and economic affairs.

It was announced earlier that Fatemeh’s father has authorized him in marriage; this is another reason for the equal rights of men and women in every walk of life.

D. Women’s Chastity and Avoidance of Indecency

In Arabic culture, women were confined in the four walls called the house; it prevented him to go out to pay only to domestic affairs. Perhaps, this has defined their dress. Many contemporary Arab scholars such as Hafez Ibrahim, Qasim Amin, and Jamil Sedghi al-Zahawi have been against this idea and they agree with women’s liberation because they believe that hijab is the root of women’s backwardness and their unqualified restrictions. They argue that hijab is cumbersome for women and prevent their activities in community. From the perspective of this group, hijab has not a place in Sharia and Muslims’ habit from some other nations. In fact, when one talks about women’s freedom, people call for Western freedom that is equal to promotion of promiscuity. Contrary to these authors, some moderate intellectuals have risen in recent history of the world with remarkable ideas. For instance, May Ziade states that:

“Femininity is the noblest and greatest blessing that has been given to woman; if she goes away from it and moves out of the circle, everything will suffer, her life be disturbed, and she will get away from the purpose for which she has been created. He says: we need strongly women with male innovation regardless of losing their refined femininity such as affection, sweet mood, and dilution.” (Ziade, 1983, p. 181)

Freedom, from the perspective of this latter group, is releasing from ignorance and freedom of choice, which is contrary to the Western concept of freedom.

May Ziade states in describing woman’s chastity:

“A woman should be like flower surrounded by thorns; thorns are nothing but her chastity, purity and latency.” (Ziade, 1913, p. 60)

Kilani has frequently underlined the genuineness of chastity and modesty of Muslim women in his novels. He tries to induce the reader that women’s freedom is compatible with their covering in Islamic communities. As a committed writer to Islamic principles, he has understood in his life, especially after membership in the Muslim Brotherhood and staying in towns away from home, to respect Muslim women. He has never presented a vulgar description of female appearance; when needed, he refers to few points in short. His portrayal of Fatemeh wearing in the novel represents his view on this issue:

“A young unknown girl will dig down the path while he is going to the platform from where the party’s leader speaks, about 20 years old, more beautiful than anything are her eyes shining vitality of life, faith and greatness. She wears loose clothing with long sleeves, she has a long white scarf covering all her hair; her face seems bright and beautiful (Kilani, 2005, p. 18).

According to Kilani's remarks, it can be found that Fatemeh’s hijab and wearing is more prominent than her other appearance characteristics; he just refers to the shining of her eyes in few words. The description about Fatemeh’s hijab indicate that hijab is not an obstacle to progress and fighting; but it is a favorable factor against all ethical principles.

Elsewhere, when Fatemeh has no choice but to meet with the leader of the party for saving her father and her fiancé she goes to his palace; she must go to the palace due to the invitation of the representative’s wife. The party’s leader describes Fatemeh in these words:

“It was near ten when the leader returned home at night. He saw a young girl sitting with her husband; she wore loose clothing with long sleeves, she had a long white scarf” (ibid, p. 170). Fatemeh’s wearing is mocked many times by his friends during the fighting:

“Eyes care for her when Fatemeh came into office; a girl approached him and said: the saint declines; then she laughed. Another person murmured: she wears angels’ clothes in the age of Satan; the third one said: I swear his face is beautiful and impressive; but why she is here?” (ibid, p. 125)

Chastity and the veil of Muslim women stand out more than anything in these meetings. Fatemeh’s meeting in prison with her fiancé brings both joy and vitality. Abul Hasan says “الانفجار المنظم له اتجاه واحد يا حبيبي”; he uses the word beloved. Fatemeh is embarrassed after hearing this word, fells her head down from modesty and looks less to her fiancé (Ibid, p.150). This is an instance of Muslim women’s chastity and decency, which is stated in Al-Noor Sura in Quran. In the final scene of the novel, which is Fatemeh’s martyrdom, sentences and phrases are full of spiritual sanctity of the character of Fatemeh:

“Fatemeh returned in a wooden coffin while her white and clean clothes were soaked in blood. In the dark of night, the criminals shot her and ended her life. Jakarta’s virgin became a martyr while he had a red rose with some thorns in her hands, smile of satisfaction on her lips, and a tiny Quran in her pocket. Her long eyelashes were wet with tears of eternal love.” (Ibid, p. 264).

Referring to the Quran in Fatemeh’s pocket, Najib tries to insist on the firm faith and true belief of Fatima in the valuable principles of Islam.

Najib’s novel *The Man Who Believed* is not void of these types of descriptions. Muslim women’s modestly covering is declared many times by Arian:

When Shams goes to meet him in a mosque, Arian warns him in a blaming view; because you have not hijab, it is not proper to meet me in this wearing (Kilani, 1997, p. 87). In this way, he affirms the reason for lack of his consent to marry with Shams. He says that because Shams has decided to quit drinking, dancing, ..., and even she has decided to say prayer and fast, her deeds are not for God, but for Arian’s satisfaction. These deeds are hypocrisy and dissension, which is against real virtue of a Muslim woman.

E. Women in Public Life and Family

Mother of has a special sanctity in all human societies. This status is more important in Islamic Eastern societies. She has a great influence in the upbringing of children. Righteous woman is a key to survival and prosperity of family and the society. Woman in family influences on three basic axes:

First axis relates to the status of women that is very important in the strength of the society. Education system should arrange accurate and consistent plans in this regard to foster a generation emblazoned with intellect and literature.

The second axis relates to the impact of women in the economy and the income and expenditure of family life.

The third axis relates to the sensory and emotional impact of women on family spirit. A righteous woman streams the fragrance of purity and honesty in the statue of the family.

Women are not one-dimensional in the vast majority of Kilani’s novels; but most of them can rise and shine in the economic, political, and social fields. However, all the abilities are formed and fostered in the context of home and family. Accordingly, the existence and identity of the women in Kilani’s novels are realized through the presence in family. Islam strictly repeats it. In economic affairs, women of Kilani’s novels try to support the family as the men. This is observable clearly in Abdul Motajali’s *Wife*. The household wife cope with economic affairs as well as administrating fostering children. In Najib’s novels, women always thought of the welfare of his family and they have a close relationship with every member of the family. Family is a sweet and friendly haven in which potential talents are realized. Setting such families close each other together will naturally form an ideal society.

In Jakarta’s *Virgin*, traces of Fatemeh’s love to her father, mother, fiancé and other family members are remarkable. Heroic efforts of Fatemeh in selling everyday life accessories to pay for the release of her father reflect this love. Occasional Fatemeh’s whispers with her father, listening to advice by her father in the chaos of life like when she is tired of many accusations. In such situation, when she resorts to her father and complains about her weakness, the father says, “Leave them to die from anger” (Kilani, 2012, p. 47). These few words calm her. It shows continuous and helpful communication between family members. Because Fatemeh grew up in a family of scholars and ethics, the writer tries to suggest for the society that Islam is not opposed to women’s social activities. Giving these patterns, Kilani aims to clear the way for contemporary Arab women in these areas because female characters in his novels are exactly taken from Indonesia during the years of the Communist Party presence in this Muslim country.

Another important female character in his novels, as stated before, is Arian’s wife, Mason, in *The Man Who Believed*. She is an instance of a Muslim, committed and family-loving woman who is regarded as a helper for her new Muslim husband. Kilani’s portrayal of Mason represents his view about woman:

“Mason was a Damascene with deep and sincere emotions. She had been fostered in a home full of knowledge and grace while she had cleverness, intelligence and pure nature. Mason worked in a school in Dubai; she took part in social and religious activities with other women. She was a member of Social Reform Society in Dubai and um al-Nian Population in Ajman. Compliance with truth could be found in her activities. She participated in meetings, held conferences, criticized new books, wrote materials for Islamic pages of newspapers and magazines; she had released some short publications about women’s issues.” (Kilani, 1997, p. 105)

Perhaps, it can be acknowledged that by describing Mason, Najib tries to promote religious and social activities although only this novel talks frankly about women participation in social affairs. Due to these few lines, Arab women thank to his hard work and effort in fertilizing culture of Arab societies by their involvement of women in social affairs.

Clearly, Kilani has valued highly the role of women in other economic, educational and emotional areas. Maybe, his precaution in the significant absence of women in social affairs results from his fear of undermining women's very original essence in fostering an educated generation.

VI. CONCLUSION

Studying the novels of Najib Kilani, especially *The Man Who Believed* and *Jakarta's Virgin* shows that Kilani is a Muslim and committed author who employs all his concerns for promotion and dissemination of Islamic values. Kilani discusses women and their issues in most of his novels.

What can be taken from his novels, are as follows:

Female characters of Najib Kilani's novels are not one-dimensional characters; but they can present and take part in all social, economic, and political areas. Contrary to previous authors and some contemporaries, Kilani seeks to describe the appearances of woman to highlight vulgarity; but he describes female appearances in short when needed. In his perspective, hijab will not hinder the development and it is not an obstacle for participating in community.

Female characters of his novels take part in many social, political, and economic activities; sometimes independent of men. However, women's personality and identity is formed only in the context of home and family; she finds mental and emotional peace along with other members of his family. Deep emotions exist among all members of the family and women are the center of this type of relationship. A household wife copes with economic affairs as well as administrating fostering children.

For Kilani, marriage is a very important issue calling for the assistance of both men and women in selecting the partners; in addition, the key for survival and salvation of marriage is the availability of common cultural, religious and social areas. Kilani believes that the presence of significant differences in ethos and attitudes of women and men is a fundamental obstacle to the continuation of life. In most of his novels, Najib tries to propagate the principles of Islam; he has never allowed destroying Islam's holy realm by superstition and insults. Kilani's novels are adoptions of actual events of his time. His characters are usually in conflict with oppression and colonization; they are preoccupied with religion and religious principles.

Since women form half of a society, it is suggested for researchers as well as lawyers to focus on job security for women in their community because most of the theories have never gone further than paper sheets in Arab countries, especially Egypt, that one sees many oppression and contempt for women. These ideas have been admirable only in books and journals; but they have no voice in minds and reality. It is necessary for educated women to prove that they have no decision to occupy men's positions; but they aim to lead family and therefore society towards excellence and growth by two amazing wings of men and women.

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2013and 2014.

Ahmad Lamei Giv, was born in Birjand (Iran) in 1969. He has got a Ph.D. in Arabic language and literature from Saint Josef University, Lebanon, 2007. The author has 16 years of academic experience including: Assistant professor of University of Birjand, Faculty of Literature and Humanities (Iran); Scientific and executive secretary of more than 40 conferences and scientific and cultural meetings. Publications are: Hassan Parsi, Birjand, Southern Khorasan, Iran; Chardarakht Publication, 2015; University and the active culture, Birjand, Southern Khorasan; Chardarakht Publication, 2013. The author is interested in Literary criticism, Literary history, Arabic grammar, Contemporary literature, Research methodology, Comparative (interdisciplinary) literature, and Rhetorics. Dr. Lamei Giv. was selected as the top cultural and social national researcher of National Academic Congress of Harkat (Movement) of Iran's Universities in

Marziye Mohaghegh Nia is an MA student, University of Birjand, Birjand, Iran. Her research interests are literary criticism, literary history, Arabic grammar, Contemporary literature, Research methodology, Comparative (interdisciplinary) literature.

Reasoning Critical Thinking: Is It Born or Made?

Xiaoli Wang

Shantou University, Shantou City, Guangdong Province, China

Huibin Zheng

Shantou University, Shantou City, Guangdong Province, China

Abstract—There is a heated debate over whether critical thinking can be taught in the educational field for the reasons that its definition is seldom comprehensively given and universally accepted by the academia, as well as its value and impacts on the development of learners' critical thinking skills. Focusing on the practical use of critical thinking, the main concern in this paper is whether critical thinking can be taught, particularly in an EFL classroom. The reflection on several conceptions and characteristics of critical thinking will be firstly introduced. When discussing these accounts, the reasons that why it is challenging to teach critical thinking as well as why it can be taught in previous relevant literature will be presented. Then the current situations of critical thinking skills taught in the classroom, taking a Chinese EFL classroom for an example, will be illustrated and finally the reasons why it is popular as a tool in teaching and learning will be discussed.

Index Terms—critical thinking skills, EFL classrooms, teaching and learning

I. INTRODUCTION

As a re-born conception in the 20th century, “critical thinking” was rooted in the vision of Socrates, a prophet who discovered that powerful and highly-positioned persons may not be able to rationally justify their claims to knowledge, and established the significance of asking series of questions to verify assumptions and support reasoning (Paul, Elder, & Bartell 1997). This innovative conception as a basic guidance to the educators in various fields has been developed and split in sophisticated ways to equip learners with high-order thinking to make logically judgements. Critical thinking amongst all ways of thinking has been promoted vigorously in schools, international institutions and universities these days. The content of critical thinking admitted by the majority of researchers, evolving from “Socratic Questions”, consists of three major elements – understanding topics, explaining reasoning and solving problems - by which increases the probability of making wise choices when analysing available alternatives. Although its positive impacts on solving a wide range of social or political problems have been addressed to the public in the forms of academic research papers or relevant online resources, practitioners have still found it difficult to turn theories into practice.

Advocates of educating critical thinking skills in the classroom have claimed its necessity to cultivate critical thinkers' excellence in thought, whereas opponents have proven little outcome produced after the theory has been introduced. Contemporary education policies worldwide have emphasized on instructions of critical thinking skills for integrating to other major knowledge, however, it might be concluded as effortless if cost and benefit are in inverse proportion. It is essential for scholars and policymakers to understand if critical thinking is born naturally as an analytical cognition or acquired after training to determine its value in education.

Focusing on the practical use of critical thinking, the main concern in this paper is whether critical thinking can be taught, particularly in an EFL classroom. The reflection on several conceptions and characteristics of critical thinking will be firstly introduced. When discussing these accounts, the reasons that why it is challenging to teach critical thinking as well as why it can be taught in previous relevant literature will be presented. Then the current situations of critical thinking skills taught in the classroom, taking a Chinese EFL classroom for an example, will be illustrated and finally the reasons why it is popular as a tool in teaching and learning will be discussed.

II. BACKGROUND

A. *The Application of Critical Thinking*

How scholars and researchers define “critical thinking” has long been discussing in academia. Also, the advantages and importance of incorporating critical thinking into other knowledge instruction and skill development for evolving the thinking itself as well as enhancing others have been not only presented in academic papers but also demonstrated in public open lectures. Critical thinking, a generally accepted tool that entails elements of thought implicit in all reasoning, encourages important dialogues with oneself, allowing one to reason well and to adopt reasonable positions (Cederblom & Paulsen, 2006). It ultimately ties to the learner's autonomy development, or strengthen the ability to decide on what learners believe. (Mulnix, 2012). The needs of teaching critical thinking in higher education have been perceived by educators. As Vaughn (2005) posit, “Critical thinking has extremely broad application. Principles and procedures used

to evaluate beliefs in one discipline or issue can be used to assess beliefs in many other arenas.”, and also Connor-Greene and Greene (2002) said, “critical thinking is an essential skill for living in the information age”. Under this circumstance, government and organizations or institutions followed the trends to design policies or curriculums for education reform to foster effective graduates in the global workforce.

Stated in the national curriculum of the United Kingdom released in 2013¹, “critically” reading, understanding and thinking have been required in subjects ranging from English Language to Mathematics for all students in Year 1-11 aging from 5-16. Critical thinking courses on different focuses are offered by universities for local and international students.

In the United States, the calls of teaching critical thinking began in 1983 generating by a report *A Nation At Risk* by the National Commission on Excellence in Education, then lasting for a decade till 1990, most states had initiatives to teach and test students’ critical thinking. While there is no national curriculum in the United States, certain standards recommended by states, school or national association levels are used to guide school instruction. The frameworks of the National Centre on Education and the American Diploma Projects have pointed out the need for students to reason and think critically (Willingham, 2007). Learning outcomes and assessments of critical thinking are written into educational standards to capture multiple themes. SAT is urged by the College Board to better assess students’ critical thinking, and ACT, another key American collegiate examination, directly offers a test of critical thinking for college students. Other popular tests of critical thinking, including Collegiate Learning Assessment+ (CLA+), California Critical Thinking Skills Test (CCTST), and Cornell Critical Thinking Test (CCTT), are operated to offer various dimensions to evaluate the learners’ abilities in critically analysing, reasoning, arguing and evaluating problems.

Learning from the Chinese educational sphere, the report of 10-year national education reform and development released by Ministry of Education in 2010² explicitly emphasizes the combination of learning and thinking, especially inspiring and encouraging students to think independently, creatively and freely, for contributing to the social and science development. Though it is admitted that cultivation of critical thinking underpins different educational interventions that have related to the development of cognitive skills and curriculum, whether its practical value reflected in assessing outcomes could verify the validity of teaching it as a course remains contested, leading to the in-depth thinking in clarifying the ideas of teaching “critical thinking” or “critical thinking skills”.

B. “Critical Thinking” versus “Critical Thinking Skills”

The ambiguous connection between “critical thinking” and “critical thinking skills” is considered another barrier of effective implementation. Thinking itself is a process of cognitive construction to understand matters, make judgements and solve problems, according to the definition given by Cambridge Academic Content Dictionary (2008). Categorized as a type of thinking, critical thinking in Cambridge Advanced Learners Dictionary (2013) is defined as “the process of thinking carefully about a subject or idea, without allowing feelings or opinions to affect you”. Both of the definitions seem alike in a way for concerning about its natural and universal characteristics. On the other hand, a skill refers to “a special ability to do something”, and is teachable as riding a bicycle or swimming. However, it is questioned by theorists and educators that the content to teach learners is “thinking like a scientist” or critical skills to guide them think.

The contested research results have been showed by two groups of researchers – cognitive theorists and educational theorists. Cognitive research argues that the results showed by educational theorists who conducted critical thinking teaching are based on the assumption of equalling “thinking” to “skill”, but, the processes of critical thinking is not a set of skills that can be deployed at any time, in any context (Willingham, 2007). Meanwhile, abundant cognitive research results have further proved that it is not that positive to conclude that critical thinking skills instructions have value in learning outcomes as the evaluation of critical thinking ability relies on unsystematic and subjective criteria to prove its validity by which an unsatisfactory result can be easily generated. Most enthusiast educational theorists see critical thinking as possibly teachable through teaching certain skills to improve thinking. Skills that critical thinkers should possess have been discussed as mainly the abilities to question assumptions, identify false inferences and logical fallacies, and discern bias and opinions from facts and evidence (Brookfield, 2005). Courses integrating domain knowledge to the skills of critical thinking are experimented to both explicitly and implicitly suggest that teaching critical thinking skills improved adult learners’ abilities to critically analyse course content and arguments (Emerson, 2013). Therefore, it is of great significance to discuss further on the fundamental question that whether critical thinking is born or made to give insightful explanations to its educational value.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. *The Development of Critical Thinking Defined*

¹ The national curriculum in England (July, 2013). Available at: https://www.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/210969/NC_framework_document_-_FINAL.pdf

² The 2010-2020 national education reform and development report in China (July, 2010). Available at: http://www.moe.gov.cn/srcsite/A01/s7048/201007/t20100729_171904.html

Critical thinking is not a new concept as its being presented from 2,500 years ago by the Greek philosopher Socrates who philosophized on a method of probing questioning underlined the importance of analysing and evaluating ideas by providing sufficient evidence (Emerson, 2013), followed by the critical thinker Aristotle who developed the rules of reasoning for thinking critically upon things by drawing inferences. Later till 20th century, William Graham Sumner (1911) published a land-breaking study named *Folkways: A Study of the Sociological Importance of Usages, Manners, Customs, Mores, and Morals*, in which he stressed the importance of critical thinking in life and education:

[Critical thinking is] ... the examination and test of propositions of any kind which are offered for acceptance, in order to find out whether they correspond to reality or not. The critical faculty is a product of education and training...Education is good just so far as it produces well-developed critical faculty...A teacher of any subject, who insists on accuracy and a rational control of all processes and methods, and who holds everything open to unlimited verification and revision, is cultivating that method as a habit in the pupils...Education in the critical faculty is the only education of which it can be truly said that it makes good citizens. (pp. 632-634)

John Dewey (1933), one of the extraordinary educators in the early twentieth century, agreed the idea given by Sumner and established the new idea of reflective thinking to examine human's actual purposes, goals and beliefs. In addition to the previous research, scholars as Ludwig Wittgenstein (1921) and Piaget (1951) sought the deep understanding of critical thinking from divergent perspectives, contributing the development of critical thinking in its pragmatic value.

Later, a substantial attempts to define "*critical thinking*" in the academics have generated a highly-contentious debate about the authority of these definitions. The history of scholarly-defined "critical thinking" was traced back to the mid-late 20th century, by which the term "critical thinking" was introduced by B. Othanel Smith as a process to evaluate the accuracy of information (Emerson, 2013). While in the summer of 1987, Scriven & Paul presented at the 8th Annual International Conference on Critical Thinking and Education Reform³ that:

Critical thinking is the intellectually disciplined process of actively and skilfully conceptualizing, applying, analysing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action...Critical thinking can be seen as having two components: 1) a set of information and belief generating and processing skills, and 2) the habit, based on intellectual commitment, of using those skills to guide behaviour.

Ennis (1991) defined critical thinking roughly means "reasonable, reflective thinking that is focused on deciding what to believe and do", emphasizing reflection, reasonableness, and decision-making. Paul and Elder (2007) followed up by introducing ideas of creative thinking, problem solving and metacognition:

Critical thinking is that mode of thinking - about any subject, content, or problem - in which the thinker improves the quality of his or her thinking by skilfully taking charge of the structures inherent in thinking and imposing intellectual standards upon them...Critical thinking is, in short, self-directed, self-disciplined, self-monitored, and self-corrective thinking...It entails effective communication and problem solving abilities and a commitment to overcome our native egocentrism and sociocentrism. (p. 4)

The later studies on defining critical thinking followed the steps of former research results, then expanded the concept by analysing or examining beliefs and assumptions in the light of the existing perspectives (Emerson, 2013). Halpern (1999) provided a new definition of critical thinking to include the cognitive skills and dispositions as the two components of critical thinking, broadening its conception:

Critical thinking refers to the use of cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome. Critical thinking is purposeful, reasoned, and goal-directed. It is the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions. Critical thinkers use these skills appropriately, without prompting, and usually with conscious intent, in a variety of settings. That is, they are predisposed to think critically. When we think critically, we are evaluating the outcomes of our thought processes – how good a decision is or how well a problem is solved. (p. 69)

Amongst all defined conceptions, thinking *skills* are embedded into the cognitive thinking concepts, revolving around analysing, evaluating, reasoning and solving problems. The concept of *skills* here refers to concrete instructions that can be used to guide the way of logical thinking. Generally speaking, skills as tools are widely accepted by the academia. Using skills to achieve the ultimate goal of making sound decisions or solving complex problems is inevitably part of the definitions given. These skills should be taught to the learners by the educators for its beneficial to minimize the difficulty associated with critical thinking (Emerson, 2013). The newly-introduced definitions open a window for explaining these skills, in addition to the function of tooling, even though most definitions acknowledge that critical thinking are a set of intellectual virtues possessed by good thinkers, just as Brookfield (2005) suggests that critical thinkers can analyse and examine their own arguments and Dunn et al.(2009) claim that critical thinkers should be able to evaluate issues from different points of view, whereas others consider it as a set of skills following certain criteria to achieve (Vaughn, 2005):

³ Michael Scriven and Richard Paul. (2003). *Defining Critical Thinking*. Available at: <http://www.criticalthinking.org/University/univclass/Defining.html>

Critical thinking [is] the systematic evaluation or formulation of beliefs, or statements, by **rational standards**. Critical thinking is systematic because it involves distinct procedures and methods...And it operates according to rational standards in that beliefs are judged by how well they are supported by reasons.

Seemingly, the argument existed for a more inclusive concept of critical thinking is on whether to foster intellectual virtues of a good thinker or merely reasoning skills (Mulnix, 2012).

Except for concerning *skills* as the basis and focus of achieving critical thinking consisted, others from different perspectives, such as Daniel Willingham (2007), who claims that the processes of critical thinking are intertwined with the content of thought, emphasizing the significance of *prior background knowledge*:

There are specific types of critical thinking that are characteristic of different **subject matters** (Willingham, 2007).

Generally agreed by the academia that establishing a universally-accepted definition of critical thinking is difficult, it indeed gains popularity in education but known as “is in a mystified state because no single definition is widely accepted” (Halonen, 1995) and “lacks clear consensus” (Sukie, 2004). Later on, for better support the instruction and assessment of critical thinking, a consensus definition was given by an expert Delphi Panel of the ‘American Philosophical Association’ (APA; Facione, 1990), trying to incorporating both thinking dispositions characterized as “habits of mind”, and cognitive skills and its sub-skills:

TABLE 1:
CRITICAL THINKING COGNITIVE SKILLS AND SUB-SKILLS (FACIONE, 1990, P. 6)

Skills	Sub-skills
1. Interpretation	categorization, decoding significance, clarifying meaning
2. Analysis	examining ideas, identifying arguments, analysing arguments
3. Evaluation	assessing claims, assessing arguments
4. Inference	querying evidence, conjecturing alternatives, drawing conclusions
5. Explanation	stating results, justifying procedures, presenting arguments
6. Self-regulation	self-examination, self-correction

When defining critical thinking the scholars and researchers centre on its various processes of formulation and skilled-based activities as well as its end goals to achieve, meanwhile, stressing its influential foundations, such as skills and relevant knowledge. There is no denying that understanding *what we think* and *how we think* can result in a more explicit outcome in critically thinking, however, whether the functions and characteristics of critical thinking can enhance a good thinker in reasoning and logic after classroom instructions remains contentious.

B. Debates over Whether Critical Thinking Is Teachable

Critical thinking in a past long period has been considered as applicable only in the subjects of western contexts as its nature of Western thinking (Atkinson, 1997). Regardless its social features, the contested debate over whether it is born or made to assist deeper thinking from divergent perspectives increases educators’ awareness of its value in practice. This question can direct the educators to analyse the possibility of teaching critical thinking in different contexts.

In the research aiming at proving critical thinking processes conducted by Deanna Kuhn, she reported in her book *The Skills of Argument* (1991) that a certain number of people are not capable of critically reasoning, though they can easily follow or produce elementary inferences. Dunn, Halonen and Smith (2009) claim that even students who have skills to think critically do not always use those skills because they are “cognitive misers (Fiske and Taylor, 1984)” who have neither the ability nor motivation to think critically about every issue. John D. Bransford (2000) finds that fifth graders and college students came up with similar results when they are required to create a recovery plan to protect bald eagles from extinction. Tim van Gelder (2005) argues that humans are not naturally critical, and even humans are, it would be still difficult to master ‘it is what cognitive scientists call a ‘higher-order skill’”.

Additionally, many who contend critical thinking is intrinsic in mind claim that it is so hard to teach critical thinking as a set of skills without ‘domain knowledge’ (Willingham, 2008). Mason (2008) admits that critical thinking includes a deep knowledge of oneself, in which intellectual courage and humility are needed. Worse, Weissberg (2013) helps prove that teaching critical thinking is redundant for talented students who already possess a high level of critical mind. Evers (2008) believes that critical thinking does have universal features but its notion of ‘critical skills’ have to come from somewhere, like cultural inputs. Therefore, Josipa Roksa (2012) concludes that the educators cannot improve learners’ criticality on the mental models, a matter of mental maturation processes that appear to have a genetic basis.

Compared to the limited literature contributed to the opposite standpoint, abundant theoretical and empirical work shows positive attitudes towards teaching critical thinking as a set of skill activities. In academia, there is general agreement among critical theorists as to the importance of teaching students’ critical thinking skills in preparation for effective decision-makers. Paul and Elder (2002) directly points out that daily practice like forming the habit of asking oneself is crucial to further intellectual growth and even develop rational capacity. Brookfield (2005) in his book *The power of critical theory for adult learning and teaching* supports the instruction of critical thinking is attempting to introduce adult learners to a critical theory perspective, and education plays a role in teaching adults dispositions needed in necessary situations. Also, teaching criticality could be successful depending on the context involved, among which the learning tasks designed - challenging ideology, contesting hegemony, unmasking power, and so on – are the key

influential elements. Halpern (2009) agrees that “surely something” can be done to enhance critical thinking skills for everyone and every class.

However, the best way to justify the validity of teaching criticality is to put it in practice. As Emerson (2013) points that it is “more convincing” to provide relevant evidence to support that critical thinking can be done, and can be done successfully. Substantial experimental research exists indicating that, overall, teaching critical thinking skills, whether it is explicitly or implicitly, has possibility of improving learners’ thinking. The explicit teaching methodology refers to infusion-teaching, while the implicit one can be the meta-cognitive teaching approach. Willis (1992) concludes that the literature presented appears to favour infusion-teaching approach of combining thinking skills to subject matter equally, in this case learners’ thinking skills are reinforced and retained later. Also, if skills and subject matter are taught concurrently, learners can grab both things at the same time (Beyer 1988). The metacognitive approach proposed is an alternative way to base on the infusion-teaching approach, however, it should be done one part related to self-awareness before instructions, then, following teachers’ guidance, students are capable of understanding their thinking processes for self-awareness and improvement (Wilén and Phillips, 1995).

Experimental research started to incorporate critical thinking components into certain subject related to cognition and thoughtfulness, like psychology. Bensley, Crowe, Bernhardt, Buchker, & Allman (2010) compare the acquisition of critical thinking skills for analysing psychological arguments in different groups which received or not received instructions of critical thinking skills, and summarize that the infused instruction of critical thinking skills has effectively improved the learners’ thinking skills. Similar cases are conducted by Bensley & Haynes (1995), Penningroth, Despain, & Gray (2007), Dunn, Halonen, & Smith (2009), Emerson (2013) and Heijltjes, Gog, & Paas (2014) to prove that teaching critical thinking can explicitly promote learners’ ability in analysing subject matters and arguments which are based on contextualization, while implicitly improving learners’ thinking skills is demonstrated by other researchers (i.e., Gray, 1993; Greenlaw, 2003; Yang, 2008; Heijltjes, Gog, & Paas, 2014). Recently one of the hot content to integrate critical thinking is to the EFL/ESL context. Substantial experiential studies find that an improvement in critical thinking can be achieved via an instruction designed to assess EFL/ESL learners’ abilities in analysing and evaluating arguments (Saiz, Rivas, & Olivares, 2015).

Additionally, a newly-welcomed approach of evaluating critical thinking improvement is based on various assessments. Based on the existing assessments of critical thinking, Liu, Frankel and Roohr (2014) proposed an operational definition for a next-generation critical thinking assessment approach to enhance the measurement of a wide range of critical thinking tests that help learners to reflect on their own thinking and get improved.

It is apparent that the literature related on both sides of teaching criticality strongly takes a firm stance on their claims. Based on the brief literature review, the use of critical thinking in the classrooms of school and university levels is widely acknowledged as an educational outcome, no matter it has positive, negative or even no effects on the learners. Further discussions presented in academic reports or journals now are more likely to link to the context-based and multi-dimensional subject spheres. Overall, the results are inclined to be positive in most theoretical and empirical tests to support the ideas of integrating critical thinking components to a variety of contexts.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Critical Thinking in EFL Context

In the late 1970s, when the communicative approach was introduced to the field of English language teaching (ELT), along with which the term *critical thinking* began to appear in ESL/EFL literature in the 1990s (Day, 2003). Students who study English as their foreign language need a high-level of language proficiency to manage content-based tasks and achieve culture-merging views on diverse problems of politics or society. It is necessary to apply critical thinking in many different ways for students to not only develop their L2 competency but also adjust their discourse style to suit the new situations (Day, 2003). However, requiring students to express their ideas and feeling in L2 four macro-skills needs their abilities to think critically as well as their linguistic skills. Barriers for students to develop their L2 competency as well as critical thinking abilities also include the current education system, the learning environment and their own genetic disorders, let alone their lack in redefining their social identities (Lantolf, 1993; Kramsch & Lam, 1999). For the purpose of cultivating critical thinking, EFL teachers have to motivate students towards *how to think* instead of *what to think* in the language that they are learning to use. If they could be taught to think critically in L2, it will enhance their abilities to read, write and think with clarity in that language (Ponniiah, 2007).

As Davidson and Dunham (1996) mentioned, recent trends in EFL/ESL instructions have stressed the importance of promoting thinking as an integral part of English language teaching, and based on the empirical research conducted, the results implied that critical thinking skills can indeed be taught as part of academic EFL/ESL instruction. Testifying the validity of teaching critical thinking in ESL/EFL context requires both the students’ cognitive skills and linguistic competency which consists of lexico-grammatical competence and socio-cultural competence, in particular, in the level of universities. Since the advent of research into critical thinking development, universities tend to recognize the close connection between language teaching and thinking processes by integrating criticality to ESL/EFL courses that are taught via effective methodologies like content-based approach and metacognitive learning strategies (Davidson and Dunham, 1996; Zare, 2015).

B. *An Integrated Curriculum*

For the main purpose of assessing students' thinking changes before and after the instructions of critical thinking skills, an integrated curriculum that incorporates language teaching, social studies and critical thinking skills has been designed in the Chinese college that I have been working for more than eight years. As Malik and Malik (2011) point out, twelve steps are needed to develop an integrated curriculum. They are as follows:

- (1) Train the staff member
- (2) Decide on scope of integration
- (3) Choose the level of integration
- (4) Plan for both vertical and horizontal integration
- (5) Establish working groups and elucidate their responsibilities
- (6) Determine learning outcomes
- (7) Identify the contents
- (8) Create themes
- (9) Prepare a comprehensive timeline
- (10) Select assessment methods
- (11) Communicate with students and staff
- (12) Commit to re-evaluation and revision

The integrated curriculum is designed for the students with high-intermediate language proficiency. There are three goal settings, including language goal, critical thinking skill goal and breakthrough goal, among which argumentation penetrates the whole course in any types of practices and instructions. Theme-based content is incorporated into the language teaching approach. Six themes related to sociology (i.e. economics, drugs, marriages, recycling, global English and power) require discussion and verbal and written performance and production of the students, especially emphasizing its presence in argumentative formats. Critical thinking skills of identifying logical fallacies and biases as well as weak supporting evidence, understanding whether it is relevant or reliable, are introduced and practised in the format of all four macro-skills, for example, listening to a lecture with logic gaps and write a critique on the problem found. Tests are also designed revolving around the critical thinking skills and language competency via integrating the two subjects rather than separately evaluate each skill. Take the reading section in the examination paper for example. The students are offered an argumentative essay to read for identifying logical fallacies and biases, then provide definitions and explain logic failure in the reading, finally, support the arguments with convincing evidence. The assessments reflect that after one semester's learning, students are better at finding logical problems and avoiding the use of these mistakes through self-reflection. In terms of the positive results of the assessments, well-designed critical thinking exercises indeed improve critical thinking of certain students who receive trainings to some extent.

C. *Advantages of Critical Thinking Skills Instruction in EFL Context*

Based on the course design, before instruction of critical thinking skills, the course requires students to write an essay on a topic, then after the course closes, the same essay on the same topic is re-written as request. Regardless of the structure, the content and language mechanics are improved as investigation through the comparison and contrast between the before-and-after essays, along with the other four in-class essays enforced. From the category of content and clarity, students better comprehend the structure of argumentation for strengthening the positions and arguments. Clear, appropriate, and ample explanation, as well as convincing examples and evidence, are better used to support the points. The number of generalizations and logical fallacies virtually reduces, whereas the number of appropriate transitions used increases. Language abilities are strengthened in the ways of the reduction of grammatical mistakes (fragments, run-ons, plural nouns, subject-verb agreement, etc.), vocabulary misuses and misspellings, and awkward or inappropriate language usages (i.e. Chinglish).

One of the reasons leading to the positive educational outcomes in this case is the content-based instruction incorporating critical thinking skills. Content-based instruction (CBI) has proven to have many merits and possibilities (Snow & Brinton, 1988). In Chinese colleges, recently CBI is regarded as one of the most effective teaching approach to improve learners' language proficiency (Chang, 2007), enhance the subject knowledge (Chang, 2007; Chang et al. 2009), and also develop their cognitive skills and critical thinking skills (Yang et al. 2011). The two obvious advantages I observed from my classes consist of the reality that students become logical when analysing different topics regarding social sensitive issues and much more alerted and cautious when they construct their own ways of communication or delivery.

D. *Limitations on Critical Thinking Skills Instruction in EFL Context*

As in this specific case I conducted in a Chinese college, since most of the productions like writing and speaking happen in the classroom in which limits the possibilities of students to seek for the relevant academic materials in order to support their arguments. On the plus side, this situation enables students to use their real language competency on the basis of their intellectual virtues and existing content knowledge to analyse and even create new answers to solve the problems because sometimes off-class projects are found plagiarized. Take writing essays for example. In-class writings require students to finish their essays within 50 minutes by constructing five paragraphs which consists of one introduction, one conclusion and three body paragraphs. Because of the rush limit, the time leaving for students to think

is not sufficient for them to think in depth or divergently. Also, students who possess different innate skills should be taken into consideration due to their different production in outcomes.

Therefore, the evaluating results based on this essay should be questioned for its validity and effectiveness. Whether students within this time limit could really follow what they learn in the classroom to analyse and establish the sound arguments or just spring out their intelligence innately to create points with certain development supported remains uncertain.

E. Results of Practicing Critical Thinking Skills Instruction in an EFL Classroom

There is no denying that critical thinking is hard to teach as discrete parts of a course because it is not easy to foster them in the typical classroom pedagogy as meta-cognition is hard to be trained; they must be tightly integrated into the reading, writing portions of every course. Learning to think more deeply, to analyse and then synthesize often apparently contradictory materials and views, applying the familiar to the unfamiliar, and evaluating texts are skills that require plenty of practice to learn, much less to master. However, is critical thinking and critical thinking skills equal to be treated in most cases? The confusion between these two concepts have to be cleared up for better understanding the impacts of teaching criticality on foster learners' critical thinking in analysing, inferencing and evaluating arguments.

Based on the classroom I manage, the instruction of critical thinking in the course of EFL context has positive effects on students who master relatively higher level of linguistics when they tend to produce speaking and writing outcomes. However, the assessments designed have limitations on evaluating whether students get improved because of the instructions or just their intellectual merits.

V. CONCLUSION

There can be no conclusive evidence to support whether critical thinking can or cannot be taught since the foregoing sections introduce the tradition critique in critical thinking theory emphasizing this is "an open and unending project" (Brookfield, 2007). However, discussions over this topic in the past decades remain vigorous because of its indicating implications for the educators who show strong positivity on stressing the significance of teaching criticality. Classroom lessons integrated critical thinking skills into other major subjects can be effective alternatives to traditional curriculum, and motivate teachers and students to create a fun and engaging environment to teach and learn together. All are benefits that school and university administrators desire for the students.

This study compares the contradicted point of views on whether critical thinking is teachable, then comes to a conclusion that takes a neutral stance to offer some insights into critical thinking instruction in the classroom and hopefully improve the curriculum design when incorporating critical thinking skills into EFL courses, eventually stimulate the process of EFL educational reform that focuses language acquisition only in China.

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Xiaoli Wang, Lecturer of Shantou University, has been teaching Chinese EFL learners for more than 8 years. Her research interests include EFL and ESP course curriculum design, teaching evaluation and assessment (in relation to students' learning outcomes) and intercultural communication (mostly China and English-speaking countries).

Huibin Zheng, Lecturer of Shantou University, has been teaching Chinese EFL learners for more than 8 years. Her research interests are in the area of curriculum and instruction, and developing intercultural competence in English language learners.

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