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The Impact of Creative Circles on EFL Learners' Reading Comprehension

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***Abstract*—The aim of this study was to investigate the impact of Creative Circles approach in developing Saudi EFL middle school learners' reading comprehension. The study was carried out at a Saudi middle school in Jeddah, involving three intact third grade classes. A triangulated approach was adopted in order to collect data by means of multiple instruments- reading comprehension test, reflective journals and semi-structured interviews over the period of a school term. The results revealed a significant improvement in the experimental group's reading comprehension abilities. The success of Creative Circles approach could be attributed to its adoption of collaborative reading as a teaching/learning technique, explicit teaching of reading skills, attention to low-level and high level reading processes and metacognitive awareness. Moreover, the experimental group as well as their teacher indicated that the new approach has immensely helped in addressing the issue of vocabulary learning. They also described the approach as efficient and flexible in large and mix-abilities classes.**

***Index Terms*—creative circles, EFL, reading comprehension**

I. Introduction

As one of the key language skills, reading can be perceived as a complex mental activity which integrates two processes: decoding a particular text (word recognition) and comprehension (grasping the meaning) behind the text (Gough, Hoover, & Peterson, 1996). Based on this definition, the two processes interact with one another to establish understanding. To accomplish this result, word recognition must engage the learner's relevant schemata and initiate thinking about the collective meaning of a text (Collins & Collins, 2002).

Reading is an indispensable skill for foreign language learners. In fact, Nuttall (1996, p.30) states that "language improvement is a natural by-product of reading." It is even considered as "an essential skill, perhaps the most important skill, taught in schools"(Collins & Collins, 2002, p.9). In a foreign language classroom, learners are constantly constructing meaning of the texts before them regardless of the focus skill; and they need to comprehend, interpret, infer and draw conclusions. Alfassi (2004) emphasizes the point that as the learner matures, texts become a major source of information. Hence learning about and from reading is crucial. Therefore, a skilled reader can achieve greater levels of language proficiency than those who cannot read well.

Regrettably, reading is often marginalized in a Saudi EFL classroom settings. AL-Nifayee (2010) criticizes the reading activities inside these classes as being solely focused on grammar and vocabulary while ignoring other comprehension activities and strategies. Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2011, p.69), after discussing the importance of reading comprehension skills, state that: "most EFL students, especially school students, are often unable to comprehend a written text effectively". Furthermore, Al-Nujaidi (2003) points out that Saudi first year university students' reading ability is far below the acceptable standards and that their vocabulary is very limited (between 500 and 700 word families). Moreover, according to "Test and Score Data Summary" for the Educational Testing Services (2009, 2010, 2011, 2012), the TOEFL test scores of Saudi students were the lowest compared to their peers in other Middle Eastern countries in all four skills: listening, speaking, writing and especially reading, in which they even scored the lowest worldwide along with applicants from countries such as Guinea and Angola. Saudi students, along with students from the United Arab Emirates, also scored the lowest in the IELTS in 2012 in its two versions: Academic and General Training.

The aforementioned views are in agreement with the researcher's own observations during his fieldwork experience as an EFL teacher and supervisor for 16 years. Based on the researcher's classroom observations, teaching practices of the actual reading class involve: oversimplification of reading texts and activities, excessive use of L1, discouragement of interaction between students, under-emphasis of higher order thinking skills, lack of reading strategies training and feedback. Moreover, when testing reading, EFL teachers often provide students with passages and comprehension questions that were previously taught; and most of test items do not go beyond the literal level of comprehension.

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In the context of what was previously discussed about the current displeasing situation of teaching reading to Saudi EFL learners, it has become evident that there is a need to adopt a teaching strategy which improves reading comprehension of Saudi EFL learners. The answer, this research has proposed, might lie in Creative Circles approach. This study has been undertaken using a mixed methods methodology in order to advance the understanding of the impact of Creative Circles approach in developing Saudi EFL middle school learners' reading comprehension. The specific research objectives were to:

1. Determine the impact of Creative Circles approach on learners' reading comprehension
2. Gain students' perceptions on Creative Circles approach

II. Theoretical Framework

CREATIVE CIRCLES

Creative Circles is a collaborative instructional model that is informed by Learning Circles strategy, which was introduced by Robert Karplus and Myron Atkin when they joined forces to build up a science teaching strategy intended to teach elementary level learners, coming in two steps of *invention* and *discovery* (Atkin & Karplus, 1962). In 1967, an exploration phase was introduced to precede invention and discovery phases (Karplus & Thier, 1967). In order to additionally explain the meaning of each phase for teachers, Karplus had to change the names of the phases into *exploration*, *introduction*, and *application*. Later variations were the 5E and the 7E.

As shown in Figure 1 below, the phases of Creative Circles model begin with the *engagement*, whereby the teacher creates student interest, elicits students' questions, and ascertains students' prior knowledge with respect to the topic(s) to be read. During the *exploration* stage, the teacher encourages students to collaborate actively on reading tasks with other students with limited teacher input. The teacher provides directions and responds to students' questions while acting as a facilitator, providing students opportunities to seek their own answers to the problems. Within the *explanation* phase, which recurs at different time during the lesson, the teacher encourages students to explain concepts through teacher questioning while prompting students to give evidence to support their ideas. Also, in this phase, the teacher introduces formal definitions and explanations of ideas and information drawing upon students' experiences during the exploration activities. In the *elaboration* phase, the teacher encourages students to apply or extend their newly constructed concepts into different or real-life contexts. Assessment is ongoing throughout the lesson, whereby the teacher formatively observes and assesses students' learning as well as letting students assess their own learning. In the *evaluation* phase, a summative evaluation is developed. It takes the form of reflective journals, which students write to evaluate their own learning and identify strengths and areas of improvement.

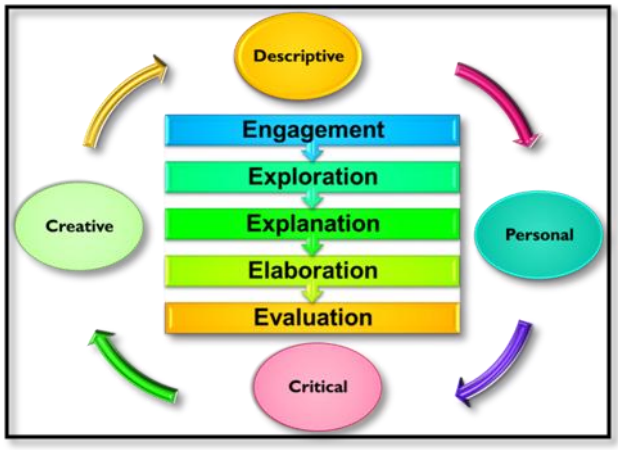

Figure 1:Creative Circle reading instructional model

Moreover, this model promotes effective reading and creative thinking by encouraging students to go beyond finding out what is written on a page. According to the model, reading is viewed as a dialogue between reader and text in which the reader contributes as much as the text. Hence, reading becomes more than just a source of information and entertainment; it becomes an empowerment effort. Indeed, effective reading creates opportunities for readers to understand self and others as well as provides them with a source of imagination and inspiration.

The Creative Circles model evolves through four phases, which do not happen independently, but simultaneously. In the *descriptive* phase, the reader attempts to understand the content of the text through dealing with questions and queries that ask *what*, *when*, *where*, *who*, and *why*, which can be answered by the text. In the *personal* phase, readers react to the text through expressing their own feelings and emotions drawing on their real life experiences in conditions related to the text. Through this process, the reader confirms, evaluates or expands his experience in relation to the information from the text. The questions that can be asked in this particular phase might be: *How do I feel about this? What do I like/dislike?* or *How has my experience differed?* In the *critical* phase, the reader engages in a critical reflection, which involves evaluating and passing judgments on the purpose, bias and truthfulness of the information in

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the text. The type of questions in this phase could be: *Is this statement right?, What would be the consequences?, What are the author's intentions?* or *what is point the author tries to prove?* Finally, in the *creative* phase, the reader is moved to action by the text and use their imagination and curiosity to create constructive ideas through elaborating and transforming the concepts and thoughts provided in the text. The type of questions to guide the dialogue in this phase might be: *What do I know now that will empower me?, How can we improve life/conditions/relations?* or *In what ways can we act differently?*

RELATING CREATIVE CIRCLES TO THE CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY

As Keser (2003) points out, many of the existing models in the area of education as well as teaching process are rooted in a constructivist learning theory. Constructivism theorizes that learners construct knowledge and meaning from their experiences reflecting on those experiences (Kilavuz, 2005). The generative model of Creative Circles approach is closely related to the constructivist teachings. It encourages students' active participation, collaboration, reflectivity and inquiry-based learning. Each of the phases in Creative Circles is having a particular function, both serving a consistent and effective teaching as well as in improving learners' perceptions, knowledge, attitudes, and skills (Bybee, Taylor, Gardner, Scotter, Powell, Westbrook, & Landes, 2006). When learners are inspired by forming a kind of mental disequilibrium or become interested to address a known or unknown real-life situation, the first phase in learning which is called *Engagement* occurs. The motivation and curiosity produced in the first phase guides the learners to the second step, called *Exploration*, through which they employ immediate and tangible experience to inspect, examine and collect information, as well as to check their predictions, and verify their hypotheses. Such data gives them the powers to set in motion and find some answers to the questions set off in the engagement phase. The exploration phase requires teachers to be supportive enough and assist learners to feel secure. They also need to provide a supervised and open question and answer so that learners can expose their misgivings regarding a particular point of discussion. The phase of *Explanation* follows as the third step in which the teacher becomes active in the sense that he unifies and makes sense of the observations and information from learners to generate valid justifications for their outcomes. He brings in suitable terms and notions relevant to the experience of learners at this moment of the development. *Elaboration*, as the fourth phase, follows with a new set of challenges presented to the learners aiming to let them apply their newly gained knowledge to suggest explanations, make decisions and see themselves enabled enough to analyse and come to logical conclusions. This phase is sometimes performed during another inquiry task or as an annex to the Exploration step. Finally, the *Evaluation* phase tries to establish whether or not learners have gained accurate understanding of the notions and ideas discussed and to see if they can take a broader view in generalising and transferring their skills to other contexts (Wilder & Shuttleworth, 2004). With the help of the aforementioned phases, the Creative Circles approach can be applicable for learning new topics as well as making an effort to gain a deeper understanding of already familiar ones as learners can employ both their previous knowledge and experience and the newly encountered knowledge (Newby, 2004).

SIGNIFICANCE OF CREATIVE CIRCLES IN EFL CONTEXTS

Creative Circles approach can be a pedagogically vibrant platform for developing language acquisition in foreign language classrooms. This format of reading instruction provides opportunities for learners to model and judge the effectiveness of reading comprehension strategies. When learners read collaboratively in small groups, they can read texts more efficiently and incorporate reading skills to better understand the reading material. The cooperation between learners' strategic reading and active engagement with what they read can lead to motivated readers. In fact, social interaction and interactive learning that is associated with collaborative reading can sustain learners' motivation, which is necessary for successful reading effort (Mathewson, 1994).

This approach shares important aspects with influential teaching methods such as Communicative Approach (CLT) and Task Based Learning and Teaching (TBL). Creative Circles shares with CLT the common goal of developing learners' linguistic fluency. This occurs when learners read with their peers and collaborate to negotiate meaning, correct their understanding and use communication strategies (Shelton-Strong, 2012). In addition, Creative Circles seem to adhere to the requirements of TBL, which emphasizes exposure to rich comprehensible input, negotiation of meaning and motivation to listen, read and to speak the language (Willis, 1996). Creative Circles facilitate these conditions through reading and interacting within group discussions, which provide sufficient comprehensible input. Also, learners' motivation is increased through genuine communication efforts that provide them with ample time, space and freedom to deal with clearly defined reading tasks. This is coupled with the benefits of peer- and teacher-led feedback, which are crucial for language acquisition (Larsen-Freeman & DeCarrico, 2010).

Moreover, Creative Circles approach may have several positive effects on EFL learners (See Figure 2). First, this approach can enhance learners' attitudes and self-confidence through working independently and collaboratively in preparation for and participation within group discussions about what is being read. Second, it can provide readers with incidental learning opportunities, which can raise their awareness, improve their achievement and encourage reflectivity in meaningful reading activities. Third, this type of approach advocates reading for pleasure, reading habits and noticing incidents that allow for L2 acquisition to take place (Spada & Lightbown 2010). Fourth, since the approach is collaborative in nature and easy to implement, it can be useful in mixed-abilities classes as well as with other school subjects (AlSufyani, 2010). Fifth, readers' creative thinking can be enhanced through creativity activities in the pre and post reading phases, which can help to round up, consolidate, and extend their understanding and interpretation of the

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text being read. In fact, students are given the chance to creatively elaborate on the topic independently and collaboratively, which allows for further language use and fluency.

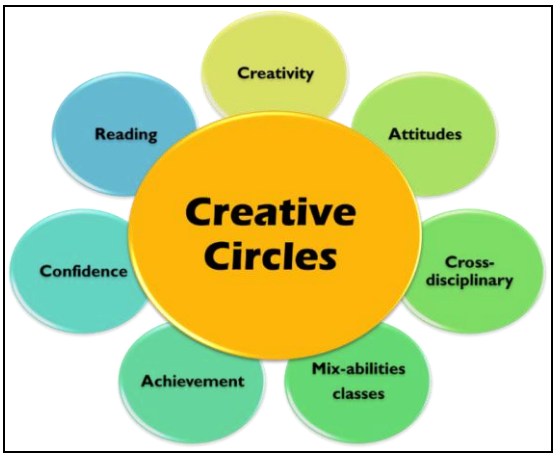

Figure 2: Benefits of Creative Circles approach

Sixth, another important aspect to Creative Circles is its encouragement of peer evaluation through constant involvement in discussions and comments about each member's contribution and effort. It also encourages self-evaluation using a reflective journal in which learners respond to questions about their progress and feelings, performance and improvement plans. Seventh, as the teacher's role moves away from lecturing towards facilitating and monitoring, he has enough opportunities to evaluate language use and overall performance to further improve language learning/teaching experiences.

III. Methodology

Context of the Study

The experiment was conducted at Saudi public intermediate school in Jeddah City. This school, which is situated close to the city centre, consisted of three levels (three classes per level), and the average number of students per class is between 25 and 30. One of the reasons for choosing this particular school was that it is located in a major city. This is an important issue as the general tendency for most Saudi families is to move from rural to urban areas where the infrastructure is well developed and major facilities, schools, universities and job opportunities are available. Another reason was that it is quite typical of most public middle school in Jeddah City and in most Saudi cities with regard to its facilities, teaching materials, resources and number of staff and students. Also, the EFL teacher at this particular school expressed his interest in the experiment and volunteered to participate, which was a positive indication for a good starting point in achieving the goals of the study.

The 90 student participants (age 15 to 16) were all male (as schools in Saudi Arabia adopt single-sex policy in education), and they have similar cultural and economic background. In order to create homogenous classes, all efforts were made by the school to evenly distribute students of different achievement levels among classes of the same stage.

The textbook 'Say it in English' was designed by a group of Saudi EFL teachers and supervisors. The textbook consists of eight units (two of which are revision units); each unit is divided into four forty-five-minute lessons per week. It constitutes a hybrid syllabus combining structural, functional and topical threads which focuses on language functions in which grammar is carefully controlled and the skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing are developed gradually (Al-Yousef, 2007).

Data Collection Tools

A multi-strategy research was conducted in this study whereby different data collection methods were used to gather the necessary data. The tools included a proficiency test, a reading comprehension test and semi-structured interviews. Also, the teacher and students in the experimental group were asked to keep reflective journals during the experiment. What follows is a detailed description of each tool.

Language Proficiency Test

At the beginning of the first term in 2014, the *TOEFL Junior Standard Test* was administered to the three participating classes to identify the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) level of the students in general. This was done to make sure that the three groups were homogenous, and that no significant differences existed between them with regard to their language proficiency prior to the planned intervention. The scores were also mapped to CEFR levels to help in understanding students' English proficiency levels. The *TOEFL Junior Standard Test* is intended for students ages 11+ and can be used for placement in language classrooms. The two-hour test consists of 126 items testing three areas: listening comprehension (42 items), reading comprehension (42 items), and language form and meaning (42 items). Results of the test showed that the students' proficiency level was

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between levels A1 and A2 in the CEFR system. The scores also did not show any significant differences between the three groups.

Reading Comprehension Test

The TELC (*The European Language Certificates*) reading comprehension test was adopted and administered in order to answer the second question of the present study which was about whether Creative Circles approach could improve students' reading comprehension. Two forms of reading comprehension section of TELC were used as pre and post tests before and after the intervention. The TELC test, which is recognized by Association of Language Testers in Europe (ALTE), was used because it has an international recognition at universities, companies and government authorities as well as a transparent world-renowned CEFR level system. It offers authentic and practical examination tasks that are especially designed for A1-A2 level of foreign language learners (TELC, 2014). The reading comprehension test was used to examine whether Creative Circles as an instructional approach had any effect on students' reading comprehension ability.

Each test form had a total of 12 matching items based on three reading passages. The answers were scored as either correct or incorrect and the highest achievable score was 24. The test forms were sent to a number of lecturers and PhD students to validate the tests' clarity, suitability for the measured skills, appropriacy for students' level and timing. Then, the two forms were piloted with participants who were not part of the actual experiment. The aims were to measure the tests' reliability, detect possible flaws in testing procedures and identify unclear or ambiguous items. The internal consistency reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) for Forms A and B based on students' performance in the pre-test were found to be 0.80, and 0.83, respectively.

Semi-structured Interviews

After the intervention, a series of interviews were carried out with thirteen 3rd grade middle school EFL learners from the experimental group as well as with their teacher. The researcher attempted to obtain information about the attitudes of the participants towards the intervention programme as a whole. The interview process also utilized stimulated recall as an introspect method. This was a way, as recommended by Gass and Mackey (2000), of exploring the thoughts and reflections of participants while they were doing activities from the intervention programme aided by extracts of the taught lessons.

The duration of each interview sessions ranged approximately between 30 to 45 minutes, and they were administered in the participants' first language to overcome concerns of foreign language proficiency or miscommunication. The questions considered general and easy to answer were asked at the beginning of the interview in order to engage respondents and put them at ease. Each interview was digitally audio-recorded to help gather as much relevant data as possible and remain attentive to the interviewed during the sessions.

Teacher and student reflective journals

During the intervention, the teacher and students kept reflective journals which were filled in after each lesson. These journals were based on de Bono's Six-Thinking-Hats model which is a system of conscious thinking about an issue in a certain direction for a certain amount of time (de Bono, 1999). Using this model enabled the researcher to capture the teacher's experience, feelings, reactions, attitudes, views, ideas and suggestions about the intervention programme. The generated data could be related to other data collection methods in this research such as interviews in order to achieve triangulation. Thus, after every lesson, participants were given the chance to express their opinions and thoughts about the lesson: what they achieved, what went well during their reading, what went wrong, how they felt about the reading tasks and what they could do to improve their performance.

Data Collection Procedures

The data collection process consisted of three stages. During the first stage, three third grade intermediate classes from the school which facilitated the experiment were assigned, one as the experimental group and the other two as the comparison groups. The three classes took the proficiency test and the first form of the reading comprehension test. The researcher made his best efforts to make the items and the instructions of the tests clear and within a reasonable time frame; and that students were allowed to ask for clarification at any time during the tests. Participants were assured that the results would not have any negative consequences on their academic achievement. The collected data in this stage were analysed later in order to compare and integrate it with the data gathered from the other stages of the study.

The second stage involved the application of the intervention which employed the Creative Circles approach. The teacher, who had been previously trained to use this teaching approach, taught all three classes. Students in the experimental group were taught reading comprehension lessons via Creative Circles approach for approximately eleven weeks. The first comparison group were introduced to some of the lessons that were taken by the experimental group. As for the second comparison group, students did not do any of the tweaked lessons. In this way, the researcher was able to compare between all three groups and decide whether Creative Circles improved students' reading comprehension. Furthermore, after each lesson, the teacher of the experimental group and his students completed their reflective journals.

In the third stage, towards the end of the experiment, the study tools: the second form of the reading comprehension test was administered again to all the participating classes. Moreover, thirteen students from the experimental group and their teacher were interviewed in order to share their accounts and views about Creative Circles approach and how it influenced teaching/learning reading comprehension.

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IV. Results

As discussed earlier, the TELC (The European Language Certificates) reading comprehension test was adopted and administered in order to address the question of whether Creative Circles could improve students' reading comprehension. Two forms of reading comprehension test were administered (as pre- and post-tests) before and after the implementation of Creative Circles on the experimental group, the other two groups also took the reading comprehension tests (pre and post) for comparison reasons. The obtained results, which will be discussed next, showed that the experimental group made a significant improvement in their reading comprehension in the post phase of reading comprehension test compared to the comparison groups, indicating the positive effect of Creative Circles on students' reading comprehension.

In this section, the results of the pre- and post-tests will be presented and the necessary comparisons will be made to identify the impact of Creative Circles on students' reading comprehension. Moreover, relevant findings from qualitative tools (interviews and journals) will be provided accordingly.

Pre Intervention Phase

Before the start of the intervention programme, the first form of the reading comprehension test was administered to the three participating groups. A one-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) test was carried out to examine whether any significant differences exist in the mean scores among the three groups. Table 1 below shows the mean scores and standard deviation for each group in the pre-test, whereas Table 2 shows the results obtained from the ANOVA test of students' scores.

Table 1:
Descriptive statistics results for pre intervention phase reading test

	N	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Confidence Interval for Mean*		*Min*	*Max*
				Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*		
Comparison group1	30	11.67	2.24	10.8	12.5	6	16
Comparison group 2	30	10.70	3.63	9.3	12.0	5	18
Experimental Group	30	11.70	3.06	10.5	12.8	6	18

An alpha level of .05 was used for all analyses. The test for homogeneity of variance was not significant [*Brown-Forsythe F* (2, 76) = 1.05, $p > .05$] indicating that this assumption underlying the application of ANOVA was met. The ANOVA of the pre intervention phase reading comprehension test (See Table 2) did not reveal any statistical significant differences between the three groups: [F (2, 87) = 1.05, $p > .05$], indicating that all three groups had similar levels of reading comprehension abilities prior to implementing Creative Circles.

Table 2:
ANOVA among the groups in the pre intervention phase reading test

	Sum of Squares	*df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	19.3	2	9.678	1.05	.35
Within Groups	801.2	87	9.210		
Total	820.6	89			

Post Intervention Phase

After implementing the Creative Circles to the experimental group, another equivalent form of the reading comprehension test was administered to the three participating groups. An ANOVA test was conducted to examine whether any significant differences exist in the mean scores among the three groups. Table 3 shows the mean scores and standard deviation for each group in the post-test, whereas Table 4 shows the results obtained from the ANOVA test of students' scores.

Table 3:
Descriptive statistics results for post intervention phase reading test

	N	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*	*Confidence Interval for Mean*		*Min*	*Max*
				Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*		
Comparison group1	30	12.6	2.1	11.85	13.42	8	17
Comparison group 2	30	11.9	3.1	10.80	13.13	7	19
Experimental Group	30	15.8	2.7	14.84	16.89	10	22

An alpha level of .05 was used for all analyses. The test for homogeneity of variance was not significant [*Levene F* (2, 87) = 2.32, $p > .05$] indicating that this assumption underlying the application of ANOVA was met. The ANOVA of the post intervention phase reading comprehension test (See Table 4) revealed significant statistical differences between the three groups: [F (2, 87) = 18.045, $p < .05$], indicating that the participating groups had different levels of reading comprehension after the implementation of Creative Circles to the experimental group. To find out exactly where the differences among the groups occur, a post-hoc test was needed.

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TABLE 4:
ANOVA AMONG THE GROUPS IN THE POST INTERVENTION PHASE READING TEST

	Sum of Squares	*df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*
Between Groups	261.089	2	130.544	18.045	.000
Within Groups	629.400	87	7.234		
Total	890.489	89			

The post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test (Table 5) indicated that the mean score for the experimental group (M = 15.8, SD = 2.7) was significantly different from both comparison groups, Comparison Group1 (M = 12.6, SD = 2.1) and Comparison Group2 (M = 11.9, SD = 3.1). The results also show that Comparison Group1 did not differ significantly from Comparison Group2. The actual difference in mean scores between the groups was considerably high as the calculated effect size using eta squared was 0.64.

TABLE 5:
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS TUKEY HSD TEST BETWEEN GROUPS FOR POST READING TEST SCORES

(I) Group	*(J) Group*	*Mean Difference*	*Std. Error*	*Sig.*	*Confidence Interval*	
					Lower Bound	*Upper Bound*
Comparison group1	Comparison group 2	.667	.694	.604	-.99	2.32
	Experimental Group	-3.233*	.694	.000*	-4.89	-1.58
Comparison group 2	Comparison group1	-.667	.694	.604	-2.32	.99
	Experimental Group	-3.900*	.694	.000*	-5.56	-2.24
Experimental Group	Comparison group1	3.233*	.694	.000*	1.58	4.89
	Comparison group 2	3.900*	.694	.000*	2.24	5.56

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

From the findings presented above, it can be concluded that students who were involved in the Creative Circles intervention exhibited better reading comprehension skills as they outperformed their peers in the other comparison groups. Moreover, the large effect size that was calculated indicates that 64 percent of the variance in students' reading comprehension performance could be explained by the implementation of Creative Circles approach.

In addition, the journals and interviews with students from the experimental group and their teacher provided additional insights into the impact of Creative Circles on students' reading comprehension. These are discussed next.

Students' views

Interview and journal data that were gathered from students in the experimental group after the implementation of Creative Circles approach provided some insights into students' use of careful and expeditious reading skills. Expeditious reading emphasizes the macrostructure understanding of texts and selectivity in reading, whereas careful reading aims at detailed comprehension and close reading of texts. What follows is an exploration and an interpretation of students' views and perceptions of their reading skills in relation to these two types of reading.

With regard to expeditious reading skills, students seem to be generally satisfied with what they had achieved in reading skills such as skimming and scanning. For example, Ali indicated that the activities that he was involved in enabled him to "*get the overall impression of a passage through learning about text types and identifying text topic*". When asked about the significance of such improvement, he explained that it allowed students to recognize the main purpose of what they read as well as some features that were related to certain types of genres. Omar added that:

"*being taught explicitly about different purposes of texts has helped me find out whether a passage was written to inform, instruct, or entertain*".

Moreover, students commented, in their own words, on scanning, which is another reading skills related to expeditious type of reading. Some students such as Jalal and Ahmad mentioned that it was 'exciting' for them to find specific details (e.g. names, figures, dates) and that even though they were used to scanning exercises, they believed Creative Circles addressed the 'need to do scanning activities' more than what they were doing in the past. It seems that this type of activity improves students' attitudes and boosts their confidence, as it does not require a lot of syntactic processing or macrostructure building up. Furthermore, the majority of the interviewees mentioned that prior to the intervention there was not enough emphasis on skills such as 'activating prior knowledge', 'previewing' and 'making predictions'. All of the attention, in their opinion, was paid to reading aloud and answering questions based on the reading passage.

As for careful reading skills, the majority of students pointed out that they had never been involved in activities that were geared towards developing careful reading skills before Creative Circles intervention. When asked about the activities they found new to them, many students mentioned activities like using 'grammatical function, word root and contextual clues to guess the meaning of new words', 'establishing a plain sense of a text through interpreting discourse markers', 'recognizing the functional value of a sentence', 'recognizing text structure', 'making inferences' and 'evaluating a text'. As these skills were included in the Creative Circles intervention, most students expressed positive comments about the benefits of being involved in such an experience. For example, Nasser said:

"*I have found learning about these skills very useful. I like the design of these activities. It is gradual and really makes me think deeper so that I could read better. I believe reading is better learned this way*".

Ahmad also maintained that:

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"*To me, this* [the intervention] *was very useful. I have never seen such organization, design and clarity. There were so many exciting reading skills activities. I also noticed my friends enjoying the lessons. Most students were active*".

Omar compared Creative Circles lessons to reading lessons in his textbook and said: "*The way the lessons were designed here* [the intervention] *is far better than the organization of the textbook, it really gives more attention to reading*". However, few students such as Jalal and Ali expressed their wish to be allowed more time and practice with reading skills. They also criticized Creative Circles for having 'too many activities'. Nonetheless, they maintained that the programme was 'really beneficial and exciting'

Teacher's views

The teacher of the experimental group offered some important and interesting observations in his interview after the implementation of Creative Circles approach. Ayman, the participating teacher, held very positive view of Creative Circles' role in introducing and developing students' reading skills in English. He described Creative Circles as "*A very successful programme*". He valued this programme's significance in engaging and improving students' reading skills. For example, he noted:

"*I found significant improvements thanks to creative circles. Many students liked the way in which the lessons are presented, they enjoyed the activities and they showed more interest than they used to. They were more engaged and on task, they also showed huge progress in their reading abilities*".

He offered a range of reasons why he thought Creative Circles approach had a positive effect on students' reading skills. As demonstrated by the earlier quote, 'improving students' attitudes' is one of the reasons. Another reason was the 'logical structure and organization of Creative Circles'. He commented "*I really liked the way the programme was organized. It was very clear and meaningful to me and my students*". Moreover, he described the 'reading skills training-oriented' aspect of the intervention as being an important factor in improving students' reading skills. Aymen pointed out "*It* [Creative Circles approach] *is desperately needed. Students lack many reading skills and had no previous training before*". According to Ayman, 'Raising students' awareness' of reading skills was considered a crucial reason for the success as well a significant outcome of this programme. He maintained:

"*Students have become conscious of reading skills, what and how these skills help in comprehension. They had the chance to try them over and over again. Our discussions as well as the journals they kept helped them internalize and appreciate these skills more, something they had never experienced before*".

This quote also signifies the importance of having a 'reflective attitude'. The journals students kept gave them the opportunity to clarify their ideas, gain insights and deepen their understanding of reading skills in a way that encourages them to monitor their own comprehension and to be empowered and independent.

V. Discussion

The analysis of posttest reading comprehension test indicated that the experimental group was significantly different from both comparison groups. Based on this finding, it could be concluded that students who were taught via Creative Circles approach exhibited better reading comprehension skills as they outperformed their peers in the other comparison groups with a large effect size. To understand this result, one must discuss the outcomes of this approach in order to relate them to the observed positive change in students' reading comprehension.

A key outcome of Creative Circles approach from the reactions of learners in the experimental group and their teacher was the increase in students' reading comprehension and use of *expeditious* and *careful* reading skills compared to traditional teaching methods, as observed by both the teacher and the students. This result is in agreement with the findings of various studies on the positive effect of collaborative reading on reading comprehension (e.g., Ghaith, 2003; Stevens, 2003; Takallou & Veisi, 2013).

Collaborative reading as learning technique is considered an effective tool in improving students' ability to read with comprehension. When students read collaboratively, they jointly brainstorm, interact, decode texts, evaluate and make decisions together, something that requires students to reflect on their knowledge and share generalizations and elaborations with others. This exchange of ideas and experiences is an effective way to develop students' *"depth of processing"* (Stevens, Slavin & Farnish, 1991) as students, in group work, discuss and communicate their thought processes and problem-solving strategies to one another. Moreover, collaborative reading involves questioning, discussion, and cooperative learning which makes it highly effective in improving students' use of comprehension strategies and retention (Caposey & Heider, 2003).

In addition, this study reveals that both students in the experimental group and their teacher appreciated explicit teaching of reading skills and the clarity, organization and gradual progression of the activities. This finding is consistent with other studies (e.g., Pressley, 2006; McNamara, 2007) which maintain that explicit teaching of reading skills helps students become expert readers and develops a more positive attitude towards reading. The explicit teaching of reading skills involves explaining what reading comprehension skills are, and where, when, how, and why they can be used/adapted to various situations. It also includes modelling reading skills, and providing feedback to students (Pressley, 2006). This helps students develop an awareness of the interactive nature of reading process and the effective role of comprehension-fostering activities. Although, some researchers (e.g., Alsamadani, 2009) claim that explicit teaching of reading skills does not improve comprehension, the mounting evidence, including findings of this study, is

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in support of effectiveness of explicit instruction of reading skills in improving L1/L2 reading comprehension (Akkakoson & Setobol, 2009; Kazemi, Hosseini & Kohandani, 2013).

One of the important advantages of Creative Circles approach is its attention to both low-level and high level reading processes. Based on the data obtained from the experimental group's reading questionnaire, journals and the interviews with both students and their teacher, both levels of reading comprehension were facilitated. Both levels of processing are considered the building blocks of comprehension (Grabe, 2009). Bearing in mind that Saudi EFL learners are poor readers, this approach provides students with sufficient practice of recommended low-level processes such as word recognition, knowledge of grammar and basic sentence structure. It also emphasizes high-level processes such as drawing on background knowledge, recognizing and processing discourse structure and markers, evaluating text information and monitoring one's comprehension. However, it is important to stress the fact that long-term practice and extensive exposure to target language texts is the only way to develop mastery of reading comprehension skills as L2 reading is a long and highly complicated process (*Ibid*.).

Another key outcome is the significant increase in students' awareness of their own thinking as well as the various reading skills used when a text is approached, which pertains to the concept of 'metacognition'. Through the explicit teaching and training of reading skills and the use of tools such as student journals and thinking activities, students were given enough opportunities to practice and internalize skills; hence, students obtained active control over their cognitive processes. Metacognition is very influential in reading comprehension (Aksan & Kisac, 2009). It involves two interacting elements: knowledge of cognition and regulation of cognition (Kazemi, Hosseini & Kohandani, 2013). Knowledge of cognition in reading comprehension consists of activities such as identifying reading skills, knowing how to deploy these skills and knowing when and why these skills are applied, whereas regulation of cognition involves all the mental processes that are used to control and monitor one's own reading (*Ibid.*). Based on the previous explanation, it is quite clear that metacognition is extremely important for the improvement of students' reading comprehension, and to pay more attention to metacognition is of paramount priority.

Furthermore, students in the experimental group as well as their teacher noted that Creative Circles has immensely helped students address the issue of vocabulary, which is considered a very influential factor in improving or hindering reading comprehension (Rouhi & Negari, 2013). Both vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension have a two-directional relationship as vocabulary knowledge helps learners comprehend the text and the process of reading contributes to increasing learners' vocabulary size (Maher, 2008). The new approach and the accompanying materials provided students with sufficient training opportunities to explore and learn new vocabulary through word attack skills such as guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words through identifying grammatical functions, examining prefixes, suffixes and word roots, using synonyms, antonyms and contextual clues, interpreting pro-forms, discourse markers and functional value of words. Teaching these skills as well as text-attack skills was a rarity in the Saudi EFL context as described by students, teachers and supervisors in this study and in the findings of other studies (e.g., Sofi, 2015). Therefore, providing students with the knowledge and practice of these important vocabulary-learning skills is highly recommended.

Moreover, the results of this study showed that Creative Circles approach is an efficient and flexible tool to use to facilitate the development of reading comprehension skills in large and mix-abilities classes. Students from the experimental group believed that the approach has improved their reading comprehension. They also indicated that it was very useful and worked well with their level of language proficiency as well as their crowded class. The teacher echoed these points and added the observation that poor readers were actively involved during the lesson. These findings were supported by that of Khan (2011), Goodmacher and Kajiura (2010) and Takallou and Veisi (2013) who maintain that collaborative reading can assist teachers in large and mixed-abilities classes who cannot attend to all students needs and queries during the lesson. Groups help address the issues of discovering and attending to all of the reading problems in a more effective learning environment which promotes interaction, communication, socio-linguistic competence (Bolukbas, Keskin, & Polat, 2011; Ning, 2011). In addition, in this kind of environment, students are able to learn from each other in a non-threatening environment that provides planned as well as incidental learning opportunities.

VI. Implications and Recommendations

Based on the earlier discussion about the positive effect of Creative Circles approach on EFL learners' reading comprehension, a number of recommendations can be suggested. First, given the unsatisfactory English language proficiency level of Saudi students at different academic stages, it is quite important to introduce English to Saudi students at an earlier stage in their life. Even though English language is introduced to Saudi students at grade 4 in elementary stage, it does not seem to have a significant impact on the development of their language abilities as students learn English during two periods of 35 to 45 minutes per week. Therefore, the idea of exposing students to English at the first grade and allocating more classes to language learning is worth considering as recent studies suggest that most youngsters can successfully learn more than one language from their earliest years (Kuhl, 2004).

Second, based on the positive effect of collaborative reading in this study, it is recommended that this mode of teaching be adopted at different school levels. The findings of this study have shown that collaborative reading develops students' reading comprehension and that it is very useful in large and mixed-abilities classes, which is the case in

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Saudi schools. Furthermore, Creative Circles has helped address the issue of dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary items in reading passages, which is considered the most problematic aspect as reported by EFL students and teachers as well.

Third, the findings of this study highlight the important role of metacognition in developing students' reading comprehension, which is also the conclusion of several studies (e.g., Razi & Çubukçu, 2014). Therefore, metacognitive strategies (declarative, procedural, and conditional) should be fostered in Saudi EFL reading classes through familiarizing students with these strategies, modelling them to students and providing enough opportunities for students to practice them. This study proposes reflective journals and explicit reading skills instruction as methods of fostering students' metacognitive awareness, which could eventually facilitate the comprehension processes.

The fourth recommendation of this study is for all those concerned (Saudi educational policy makers, textbook designers, EFL supervisors and teachers) to encourage consistent explicit teaching of reading skills to Saudi EFL readers. Learners should be aware of reading skills and have sufficient practice and training on how to use low-level and high-level reading processes. In fact, most recent research findings concur on one fact that explicit reading skills instruction and training significantly improve students' comprehension in both L1 and L2 (e.g., Cubucku 2008; Grabe, 2009).

Closely related to the previous suggestion, it is highly recommended that explicit reading skills instruction is emphasized not only in L2 but also in L1 as well. This is based on the critical role that L1 plays in L2 reading development as proposed by different well-known theories on L1 reading skills transfer effects on L2 reading development such as the *Interdependence Hypothesis*, *The Common Underlying Proficiency Theory* and the *Threshold Hypothesis*. It is important to identify ways in which L1 can support EFL learners' reading development. This could probably involve building students' metacognitive, metalinguistic and sociocultural awareness as well as cognates and morphological similarities (Grabe, 2009).

In closing, implementing extensive reading programmes in Saudi EFL context is recommended. Research evidence shows that the average time students spend on reading is very small (between seven and 15 minutes per day). Therefore, students need to be engaged in extensive reading at school and at home as related literature supports the effectiveness of extensive reading on student's reading comprehension, motivation and attitudes, vocabulary growth, conceptual-knowledge growth and reasoning (*Ibid.*). Some of the most popular extensive reading programmes include Sustained Silent Reading (SSR), Free-reading Time, Reading Lab, class library corner and school library (National Reading Panel, 2000). Regardless of names and labels, the most important goal for extensive reading programmes is to have students read materials that they want to read even on their own.

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Alienation and Betrayal: A Comparative Study of Okonkwo and Said Mahran

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***Abstract*—The study aims at tracing out the analogous creative credo Chinua Achebe and Naguib Mahfouz share and decipher it through their novels Things Fall Apart and The Thief and the Dogs. The focus is on examining alienation and betrayal as two of the recurring themes in modern novel in general and Third World novel in particular. One of the objectives of the study is to show how social change affects the lives of the protagonists in both novels in two societies that undergo a transition resulting, in varying degrees. These novelists present a painstaking study of the effects of this change on the sensibility of Okonkwo and Said Mahran which shows their understanding of the social forces at work at the time and their skill in using their knowledge of human psychology to develop their central characters Okonkwo and Said. The comparative methodology is used to understand the reaction of both men to the social changes around them in the light of their personalities and their social background.**

***Index Terms*—Achebe, alienation, betrayal, Mahfouz, Okonkwo, Said Mahran**

I. Introduction

Alienation and betrayal are two of the most recurring themes in modern novel in general and Third World novel in particular. The changes that third world countries underwent in the last century socially, politically and culturally were so drastic and sometimes sudden that many individuals felt alienated and disturbed. Naguib Mahfouz and Chinua Achebe are two of the most important third world novelists who traced the changes in their societies for most of the 20th century. They began writing during the colonial period and continued to write after their countries gained independence from British rule. Their novels chronicle the political, social and cultural changes in Nigeria and Egypt during the last century. Change is a central theme in many of their novels and they set novels in transitional periods in the modern history of their nations. Their protagonists have different views on the concept of change and they react to it differently. What is remarkable about Mahfouz and Achebe is their ability to grasp the historical dialectics of their societies in change. In the two novels chosen for this study, Mahfouz and Achebe try to examine the historical evolution of their societies at a transitional period. Things fall Apart deals with the rapid change that Igbo society underwent after coming in contact with the western influence while Mahfouz's protagonist in The Thief and the Dogs faces the dilemma of confronting the change brought by the 1952 revolution in Egypt, which ended the western rule.

Mahfouz and Achebe are historical novelists fond of choosing themes, plots and settings of their novels from the recent history of their native lands. Mahfouz the Nobel Laureate rooted the setting of The Thief and the Dogs in the 1950s in Cairo a city of "streets belaboured by the sun, careening cars, and crowds of people moving or still…" (Mahfouz, Thief, 1986, P. 151), where "the wheels of streetcar growl and shriek like abuse." It includes "great mosques and, beyond them, the Citadel…" (Mahfouz, Thief, 153), while Achebe in Things Fall Apart finds setting in late 19th century Nigerian village called Umoufia. Both placed their protagonists in direct confrontation with change. They refuse to accept the changing society around them for different reasons. While Okonkwo tries to preserve the traditions and values of his society because he thinks that they do not need western values , Said is not happy with the change brought by 1952 revolution because it is not the change that he fought for. While the first is totally against change, the latter is for a change that he dreamt of. One of the most remarkable features of these two novels is their penetrating psychological insight, delving deep into ethnological psyche of the two protagonists. We are given good insight into the minds of Said and Okonkwo, their thoughts, feelings and emotions. We follow their progress in a path that leads in the end to the inevitable result, death.

II. The Theme of Alienation and Betrayal in The Thief and the Dogs

To understand this novel, one must understand Mahfouz's attitude vis-à-vis the revolution and the Nasser era. El-Enany (1993) tells us that the novels that Mahfouz wrote during the Nasser era can be seen as "a barrage of bitter criticism aimed at a revolution that has abjectly failed to deliver the goods" (Pursuit, P. 25). This idea is echoed by Roger Allen (1992) when he says that in the novels of the 1960s, Mahfouz tries to reflect the increasing unease of the middle class with the course of the revolution (Najib Mahfouz). Mahfouz has always maintained that his criticism of the revolution is not a criticism of its ideals, but of the failure to fulfill these ideals. Being a part of the system, for which he worked most of his life, enables him to "navigate inside the system so that he could participate and observe, collaborate and critique" (Mehrez, 1993, 76).

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Thief and the Dogs combines the realist and the symbolist elements to express the author's evaluation of the political life in the country. Structurally speaking, it is more complex than its predecessors are and has two time frames, the narrative present and the remembered past. Its language is often rich in imagery, which helps the writer convey his ideas and emotions in an indirect way. Through the use of animal imagery in The Thief and the Dogs, Mahfouz manages to enhance our understanding of the post-revolution society and give us good understanding of the psychological make-up of his protagonist. This is a shift from his earlier realistic novels. Mahfouz himself acknowledges the shift in emphasis and style that these novels represent:

When I was preoccupied with life and its significance, the most suitable method for me was the realistic one…. Details of the background, character and plot are important in a technique that sets out to mirror and reflect life as a whole, ideas may proceed as an indirect result. When I was interested in thought and ideas, neither characters, incidents, nor background seemed important in themselves. Character became more or less a symbol or a type. Details of background were discarded and incidents were plotted to contribute to the main idea. (qtd. in Mousa's "Depth of Vision" P.162)

Therefore, after the panoramic, almost photographic descriptions and details of background of the realistic novels, Mahfouz turns to more compressed plots, which are based, to great extent, on the Bergsonian concept of time.

Mehrez(1993) tells us that, "Mahfouz has often remarked that literature should be more revolutionary than revolutions themselves, that writers must find the means to continue to be critical of the negative elements in the socio political reality" (65). Walter Allen has emphasized that "contemporary novels are the mirror of the age, but a very special kind of mirror, a mirror that reflects not merely the external features of the age but also its interface, its nervous system, coursing of its blood, and the unconscious promptings and conflicts, which sway it" (Reading a Novel 18-9). According to Roger Allen, Mahfouz, in his short novels since the 1960s "seems increasingly concerned with the individual, his role in the society in which he lives and his quest for meaning and purpose in life" ("Mirrors" 115).What distinguishes Mahfouz's novel is his preoccupation with Said as an individual, not in isolation but as a social being, a result of a living political and social reality. The situational plot, a distinct feature of his pre-independence novels is replaced by the importance of the central character. The subject matter is mainly the individual's confrontation with the new political and social reality, which tries to suppress him.

Mahfouz thinks that the sickness of his country lies in the lack of individual freedom. His hero is not an ordinary thief but a sensitive intellectual who has lost their inner harmony and as a result experience rootlessness. Le Gassick points out that the characters in the novels of this period "seem to lack any sense of direction or purpose and to act out of fear, frustration and dissatisfaction. They are devoid of idealism, ambition or patriotism and live in a Kafkasque wasteland that has neither security nor meaning" (Introduction 5).It would be wrong, however, to interpret Mahfouz's interest in the inner world of his characters as a lack of commitment or a rejection of the external reality that was his main concern in the previous works. The emphasis is on the inner world of Said Mahran but, as Bonhomme(1974) tells us, "a man's motives, his spirit, his ideas and ideals, what he is and what he values, are unquestionably coloured by the society to which he belongs" (p.2). Therefore it would be better if we say that in this novel Mahfouz is more concerned with the relationship between Said's consciousness and the external reality it confronts. He explores this relationship and puts emphasis on the human dignity and value. He is aware of the gap between the individual consciousness and the hostile outer reality, a gap that creates in Said the feelings of powerlessness, alienation and frustration.

By focusing on the alienation and the chaos in the inner world of his Said, Mahfouz is indirectly criticizing the prevalent social and political reality which is mainly responsible for shattering his self-image. Said embodies the spirit of the age in which he lives and his fragmented personality is the product of the post-revolution reality. The experiences that Said undergoes reflect the essential features of the age with its political and social characteristics. Therefore, even while seeming to be concerned with the inner world of the individual, Mahfouz's focus is on the contemporary socio-political scene and the inability of the leaders to bring about a qualitative change in the political and social levels. His aim is not to give psycho-analytical studies of his characters, but to show how the current political reality affects the individual and his way of thinking. What the novel shows is Mahfouz's increasing awareness of the problems of his country and his growing concern with the need to confront them. What is remarkable about it is the anger, sense of powerlessness, and disillusionment that come from the lived and direct experience of oppression and lack of individual freedom and identity.

Associated with the theme of alienation is the theme of betrayal. Betrayal in the novel is the type that is defined by merriam-webster.com as "to hurt (someone who trusts you, such as a friend or relative) by not giving help or by doing something morally wrong". Said Mahran is the central character of the novel and its central driving force. All the events in the story tie directly to his character, his actions and reactions. It is through the combination of Said's internal monologue and external events other characters in the novel are introduced to us, all of whom play a role in the life of Said. All the novel's elements revolve around Said's thoughts and actions. When we meet him at the beginning of the novel, he has been just released from prison. The first thing that strikes us is his loneliness. After four years in prison, there is nobody to meet him." "no one was waiting for him; nothing but his blue suit and gym shoes" (Mahfouz, Thief, 151)

The force that drives him is his boundless determination to seek revenge on his friend Ilish and his ex-wife Nabawiyya who betrayed him and were responsible for his imprisonment. His wish is to see the day "when those who

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had betrayed him would despair unto death, when treachery would pay for what it had done" (Mahfouz, Thief, 151). This feeling of hate and bitterness is combined with his love for his daughter Sana "as the thought of [Sana] crossed his mind, the heat and the dust, the hatred and pain all disappeared, leaving only love to glow across a soul as clear as a rain-washed sky" (p. 152) But even Sana his little child is made to feel afraid of him and reject him.

Theme of betrayal is shown to us in the relationship of Said and his wife Nabawiyya , his friend Ilish and his guardian Alwan. Said is presented to us as an isolated human being driven by hatred and revenge against those who have betrayed him. His feelings towards them are summed up unambiguously in the expression "I swear I hate you all." (Mahfouz, Thief 152) He seems to reserve the worst of his hatred for Nabawiyya describing her as "that woman who sprang from filth, from vermin, from treachery and infidelity." (Mahfouz, Thief, 1986, p152) and "one of the secrets of hell!" (Mahfouz, Thief, 1986, p 158). Said's attitude towards the crime which put him in prison is quite interesting. We assume that he is the 'thief' of the novel's title, but he denies being a criminal. "It was partly fate and circumstances, partly my sense of duty and decency that drove me to do what I did. And I did it partly for the sake of the little girl." (Thief, 1986, p 157). His perception of himself becomes a key feature of the novel.

Said's characterization is given to us through the narrative voices used by Mahfouz. He uses third person point of view and Said's interior monologue. These monologues give us access to the protagonist's thoughts and feelings. This enables us to identify with him more closely and feel more sympathetic to him. As the novel progresses, however, our identification with him is shaken by Said's actions which become less acceptable to us. We are made to sympathize with him as he is betrayed by his wife and close friend, rejected by his daughter and is shocked by the change in his mentor's actions and ideas. Rauf used to be Said's mentor as well as his friend in the past. Said at the beginning thinks that "He's still a friend and mentor, a sword of freedom ever drawn, and he'll always be like that…"But when Said revisits Rauf he realizes that he's a completely different person with completely different ideas and behavior. He has changed sides and instead of being an opponent to the regime, Rauf has become a part of the new regime and a defender of it. Said's view of him also changes. "Ilwan's face became cowlike in its fullness, and that despite his apparent friendliness and courtesy, there was something chilly about him, as well as an unfamiliar and rather disturbing suavity, a quality that could only have come from a touch of blue blood…" (The Thief, 1986,P. 174) Rauf even declares war on his disciple using his influence and social status to portray him as a criminal. He exposes Said through his paper inciting the public opinion against him and depicting him as a threat to society. Said addresses Rauf "You pushed me into jail, while you leapt free, into that palace of lights and mirrors. You've forgotten your wise sayings…" (The Thief, 182) Rauf may represent changes in Egyptian society after 1952, the changes that Said and his creator did not like. This is why Said tries to kill Rauf but fails.

III. Alienation and Betrayal in Things Fall Apart

Alienation has long been a preoccupation of modern African novels, alienation as resulting primarily from external forces operating upon natives, and to overlook former detachment. What is most fascinating about Achebe is his avowed dealing with the burning contemporary social and national issues, highlighting them perhaps with great didactic purpose to revive past and mirror the present in the unforgettable past background. A dispassionate study of Things Fall Apart unfolds meticulously inlaid themes of social morality, cultural conventions, obsolete and obtuse social mores etc; strongly manifesting Igbo society in superb allegorical and fictional form. Achebe focuses on tradition / modernity dichotomy and the conflict between traditional way of life and the modern way brought by the British. He draws attention to the nature of the conventional dichotomy between 'foreign' and ' local'. As we know literature, and the novel in particular, has the ability of recording the characteristics of times including the social manners, customs, how people act and react, what they do, think, like and dislike. As Wellek and Warren (1942) rightly argue, literature as a social document can " yield the outlines of social history " (P.103). Things Fall Apart provides us with social pictures of whole societies through the story of Okonkwo. The novel derives its strength from the quality of its writers' understanding of the social forces at work at the time and the way he uses his knowledge of human psychology to develop his central characters Okonkwo. Okonkwo's family is affected in one way or another by the foreign presence.

Things Fall Apart dramatizes how conditions are changing around the protagonist especially in the social sphere bringing about many changes in the attitudes of people towards many issues. It also dramatizes the conflict of the new culture with the traditional culture and the consequences of that conflict. Okonkwo's inability to adjust to the new reality created by the white people is partly attributed to fear of change and fear of being his father in "Failure and weakness"

Perhaps down in his heart Okonkwo was not a cruel man. But his whole life was dominated by fear, the fear of failure and of weakness. It was deeper and more intimate than the fear of evil and capricious gods and of magic, the fear of the forest, and the forces of nature, malevolent, red in tooth and claw. Okonkwo's fear was greater than these. It was not external but lay deep within himself. It was the fear of himself, lest he should be found to resemble his father--a playmate had told him that his father was agbala--another name for a woman--also a man who had taken no tide.

And so Okonkwo was ruled by one passion--to hate everything that his father Unoka had loved. One of those things was gentleness and another was idleness. (Things Fall Apart 9-10)

It is his distorted image of manhood that leads him to deal in a rigid way with other people. He even misunderstands his father and his own son. In trying to avoid his father's failure, Okonkwo becomes rigid and inflexible

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with no room for feelings and emotions. He classifies things and actions into two categories "womanly" and "manly." For him, as O.Solomon Lyasere tells us, "one is either a man or a woman; there can be no compromise, no composite" (Lyasere, 1979, p104). This distorted view of manhood shapes his attitude toward his son. He laments that Nwoye "has too much of his mother in him". Nwoye is capable of feeling and emotion and his soul is open to compassion and pity. Unlike his father, he is not willing to follow the rigid old values without questioning them". Nwoye is repelled by his father's equation of masculinity with bloodshed and violence. His conversion to Christianity is a proof of his openness to new values and ways of life and a rejection of the shortcomings of his own society. In other words, Nwoye's defection is an act of revolt against his father and the society he represents. Nwoye becomes, "a symbolic negation for his father, the living denial of all that Okonkwo accepts and stands for". (Le Gassick, Critical Perspectives, 1991, p. 13). Okonkwo's sees his son's revolt as a crime," To abandon the god's of one's father and go about with a lot of effeminate men clucking like old hens was the very depth of abomination" (Things Fall Apart, P.108).

Like Said, Okonkwo has to leave his village and clan for seven years during which many changes take place in the tribe.

Seven years was a long time to be away from one's clan. A man's place was not always waiting for him. As soon as he left, someone else rose and filled it. The clan was like a lizard; if it lost its tail, it soon grew another. --Okonkwo knew these things. He knew that he had lost his place among the nine masked spirits who administered justice in the clan. He had lost the chance to lead his warlike clan against the new religion, which, he was told, had gained ground. He had lost the years in which he might have taken the highest rifles in the clan. (Things Fall Apart, 121)

He refuses to accept the new culture and decides to fight this powerful force that has enabled his son to revolt against him. Like Said who was rejected by his daughter, Okonkwo feels helpless and unable to control his own son. The difference between them is that Said never lived with his daughter and the image she has about her father is formed by her mother and her new husband Ilish. Just as said failed to change his daughter's view of him, Okonkwo failed to prevent his son from adopting the white man's culture and religion. The missionaries who came to Umoufia did succeed in converting many people to their faith, especially those who were not happy with their social lot. They also succeeded in shaking the private world of the great invincible giant whose word was undisputed in his tribe.

IV. The Unchanging Hero in a Changing World

Both Okonkwo and Said can be described unchanged heroes in a changing world. Their fatal flaw is their inability to accept the change that took place in their societies due to historical forces. They tried to" set things right" and face the force of change but found themselves alone betrayed by those close to them. Said and Okonkwo stand for their respective societies at the moment when the social fabric is being altered. Social change in the two novels is dramatized through the stories of these two characters, their attitude towards change in society, their reaction to the new reality. Despite the fact that one of them is a thief while the other is a leader in his tribe, comparing these two characters, one finds that there are similarities in their behavior. Both are fighting change and both are betrayed by those around them and both are let down by society.

Mahfouz and Achebe believe in change as a fact of life. Achebe is quoted by Bu-Buakei Jabbi (1979), stating that "Life just has to go on, and if you refuse to accept changes, then tragic though it may be, you are swept aside"(p.135). Things Fall Apart is a novel of striking contrasts built around the opposition involving before and after the arrival of the white man. Two different worlds, one traditional and the other one is the present reality in which the old values including patriarchy are falling apart. The Igbo society he presents in his novel is at a transitional phase in which there is a conflict between the old and the new values, the former is deeply rooted in mythology and age-long traditions and the latter is developed under the influence of an alien culture. The novel dramatizes the gradual disappearance of Umuofia's customs and traditions. Okonkwo sees the traditional values of his society disintegrating and tries to protect these values by confronting the foreign influence. Okonkwo has to choose between accepting the new order or standing against it. Okonkwo chooses to act against the forces of change though he is aware that he has no hope of succeeding in his mission.

In the last part of the novel, Okonkwo appears a lone man who finds the process of change around him incomprehensible and too quick for him to cope with. When he returns to his village, he is faced with a world" out of joint" and he sees it as his responsibility to "set it right". However, he acts rashly without carefully measuring his steps. "Unable to change himself, he will not accept change in others, in the world around him, in the people of Umulfia" (Lyasere, 1979. p 107). Unoka stands for "the poetry of life' or the human feelings that are essential in man's life. R.S Sharma tells us that in excluding the poetry of life Okonkwo "strikes at the very sources of renewal so that when the crisis finally comes, he finds himself utterly helpless" (41). Okonkwo gradually loses his control over his household and the world around him. Okonkwo wants to lead his tribe against the British intruders but, like Said, he finds himself alone fighting a lost battle.

Both Said and Okonkwo fail to view time as both a negative and positive force moving steadily, bringing about changes that help societies to move forward. Their tragic death is viewed as the result of their inability to understand the irreversibility of changes. They found themselves alienated from their societies and "swept aside" because they are unable to change or accept change.

To fully understand the reaction of the two protagonists to the changes in their societies, one has to understand the

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nature of change in both societies. In the case of Egyptian society, the change is rapid and radical because of a revolution. It took place while Said was in prison. This is why he is shocked when he came out and found a different society from the one he knew before being jailed. On the other hand, the encroachment of British civilization destroys the whole social fabric of Umuofia. The new civilization erodes the traditional values. Like Said, change in Umuofia takes Okonkwo by surprise like a nightmare that he has never expected. Through the story of Said and his family, Mahfouz explores the changing norms of Egyptian society and emergence of a new modern morality. For Mahfouz change is a process that affects individuals, families and communities. Like his Nigerian counterpart, Said tries to fight the forces of change; he does not learn how to make concessions and accept changes. He tries to act as the defender of the society. He rather wheels away his solitude reminiscing about the good old days. Said meets Okonkwo's end because he fails to understand the rapid passage of time and realize and accept the fact that society changes.

One of the similarities between the two novels is depiction of the death of the protagonists. Their death symbolizes end of old society and beginning of a new one While Okonkwo is forced to end his life in utter helplessness, Said keeps fighting until the end. However, their painful end has a cluster of symbolical traits left behind to be pondered over by the readers. Okonkwo's end symbolizes shattering of the native age-old values due to foreign invasion on the cultural sensibility of the respective community while Said's end signal the emergence of new social values created by the 1952 revolution, values that Mahfouz is clearly unhappy with.

V. Conclusion

Mahfouz and Achebe are two of the most important Third World writers in the last century. They wrote about the social, historical and cultural development in their countries. They excelled in narrating the story of a nation through the story of the individual. Change, on personal and national levels, is a central theme in many of their novels. They share the view that society has good and bad sides. They focus on the positive and negative social changes that are brought about by internal and external historical forces. Both Mahfouz and Achebe believe that time is both a negative and positive force moving steadily creating changes that help nations to move forward. It is, therefore, natural that a way of life with its age-old traditions falls apart making way for a new world. Okonkwo's rigid stance towards the new culture is the product of his personality, which is in turn the product of Igbo culture, while Said's inflexible attitude is the product of the teaching of Rauf Alwan and his feeling of bitterness and alienation.

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A Critique of Politeness Theories

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***Abstract*—This paper presents a critique of politeness theories. As such, it aims to show the shortcomings and defects of the different theoretical foundations and pragmatic models of politeness. This work is hopefully supposed to be significant for the specialists and analysts in the field of pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics and conversational analysis, ethnomethodology and communication studies. On the basis of the results of the criticism, it has been concluded that politeness theories suffer from different shortcomings and problems that lessen their efficiency in the successful analysis of interactive communication. Universalism, for instance, is not well-defined by Brown and Levinsons' theory. Leech's model is limited to some speech acts. Besides, his model is not clear whether to cover culture-specific as well as cross-cultural aspects of communication.**

***Index Terms*—politeness theories, face theory, universality, communication, critique**

I. Introduction

This study deals with a critique of politeness theories. As such, it aims to show the shortcomings and defects of the different theoretical foundations and pragmatic models of politeness. To achieve this aim, the current study adopts the following procedure, (1) reviewing literature on politeness theories and their related models; (2) presenting a critical evaluation of these theories; (3) drawing conclusions that are based on the results of the criticism. This work is hopefully supposed to be significant for the specialists and analysts in the field of pragmatics, discourse analysis, sociolinguistics and conversational analysis, ethnomethodology and communication studies.

'Politeness Theory' is a set of linguistic theories that relate linguistic action or behaviour to social behaviours. Politeness theories attempt to formulate a scientific conceptualization for the commonsense notion of politeness. The lay term of politeness refers to the appropriate or acceptable use of language in a given situation (Thomas, 1995, p. 156). It simply means that behaviour (whether verbal or non-verbal) is polite when it does not offend other people, and it is impolite when it does. However, politeness is often misinterpreted as only referring to the courteous and refined expressions by lay audience. Despite the fact that the discussion and studies about politeness encompass both polite and impolite speech acts (see Eelen, 2001, pp. I-II; see also Watts, 2003, p. 12; LoCastro, 2012, p. 156).). Some other views assume that the more scientific or theoretical notion of politeness is concerned with developing theories or views that interpret the relation between linguistic aspects of polite behavior to social reality. That is, it investigates the process in which language use and social interaction intersect (Eelen, 2001, p. IV). Different theories and speculations have been proposed to tackle the task of theorizing politeness in linguistics, pragmatics and sociolinguistics. The following sub-sections will review the different perspectives that are proposed for the definition of politeness and the most prominent approaches to linguistic politeness from a variety of theoretical foundations.

II. Definition of Politeness

For Different scholars present distinct definitions for the pragmatic term 'politeness'. Some definitions have been purely linguistic, others are of social or socio-cognitive roots, while some other definitions have been discursive in nature (see Haugh, 2003, p. 12). The following discussion represents a chronological review of the definitions of politeness in the available literature.

Lakoff (1975, p. 64) defines politeness as a notion "developed by societies in order to reduce friction in personal communication".

Leech (1983, p. 19) views politeness as simply "strategic conflict avoidance" that "can be measured in terms of the degree of effort put into the avoidance of a conflict situation".

According to Arndt and Janney (1985, p. 282), politeness is "interpersonal supportiveness". This definition is based on the strategic function of some speech acts that may precede or follow the main speech act. Such 'secondary acts' support the civic and smooth overflow of interpersonal communication (For previous treatments, cf. Van Dijk, 1977, p. 144).

Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 1) deals with politeness "as a complex system for softening face threats". They base their own definition of politeness on 'face theory' which is originally seeded by Goffman (1967).

Similarly, Ide (1989, p. 22) sees that politeness is a "language associated with smooth communication".

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Kasper (1990, p. 194) formulates her definition of politeness as a part of human efforts to make their communication more successful and corteous. For her, "communication is seen as fundamentally dangerous and antiganostic endeavour" (Ibid). One can conclude that politeness is tackled here as referring to the strategies available to conversational interlocutors to eliminate the danger and minimalize the antagonism.

Another definition is based on the cognitive construct of the participants. As such, Sifianou (1992, p. 86) defines that politeness is "the set of social values which instructs interactants to consider each other by satisfying shared expectations".

Eelen (2001, p. 128) simply states that ''to be polite is always 'to act appropriately'… according to the hearer's expectations.'' On this basis, politeness is defined by some scholars as an evaluation of the speaker's behaviour by the addressee as polite (see for example Terkourafi, 2001, p. 127; Mills, 2003, p. 21). This approach, as Watts (2003, p. 97, 119), invokes that the addressee's evaluation of the speaker's behaviour, rather than the speaker's behaviour or intention itself, is what determines whether or not politeness arises. This 'reception-based' or 'discursive' approach, thus, differs in its perspective from other traditional conceptualizations of politeness in linguistic and social pragmatics, which are 'production-based' approaches. Hence, it can be asserted that

the definition of politeness as a means to avoid conflict and promote smooth communication is the consensus point for many studies of politeness at present. It seems to be closely related to the original sense of politeness where one makes things run smoothly, in particular, relationships between people, and thus serves to focus attention on one of the main purposes of politeness (that is, promoting smooth interpersonal communication) (Haugh, 2004, p. 89).

More recently, politeness is thought "as a sociocultural phenomenon, roughly to be defined as showing, consideration of others" (Wang, 2014, p. 271).

Accordingly, whether seen a discursively dynamic notion, or a conversationally and socially static fact, politeness would not be interpreted other than being a reference to the language user's attention to appropriate use of that language in the light of the speaker/hearer/context demands or requirements of the face-to-face interaction in the broader constructive meaning of the three factors. Nevertheless, ''defining politeness is a challenging task and an ongoing debate'' (Liu and Allen, 2014, p. 652), and it will be open to develop and overlap as much as there are continuous approaches and studies on it. As such, the most influential theories of politeness are those of Lakoff (1975), Leech (1983), Brown and Levinson (1987) and Fraser (1990), and they will be reviewed in the following lines.

III. Lakoff's (1975) Theory

Another Lakoff (1975: p. 87) asserts that there should be a set of rules or principles that will determine whether a linguistic act is polite or rude. She surveys different cultures and languages in order to formulate such rules. Extending the maxims of 'pragmatic competence' (i.e. 'Be Clear' and 'Be Polite'), these rules are as follows:

1. Formality: Don't impose. (Keep aloof.)
2. Deference: Give options.
3. Camaraderie: Show sympathy. (Be friendly.)

(Ibid)

Lakoff (Ibid) points out that the first rule is related to formal aspects in conversational interactions. This form of formal politeness invokes that there must be a consideration for the social distance between speakers and hearers. For instance, academic contexts demand different expressions or terms of address. The second rule, as Lakoff (Ibid: pp. 89-90) stresses, entails that speakers have the power of decision to do things, yet they give options to others to downtone or eliminate imposition. The frequent device for this rule is the use of hedging. Hedges are linguistic expressions that are used to reduce the force of the utterance (see Holmes, 1995: p. 26). Therefore, Lakoff's theory is one the conversational-maxim views that are based on Grice's CP (Ibid: p. 223).

IV. Impoliteness and Underpoliteness

Some scholars, such as Kienpointner (1997), Rudanko (2006) and Methias (2011), distinguish between impoliteness and 'underpoliteness'. The latter refers to aspects of verbal aggression or other linguistic behaviours that do not necessarily involve the kind of social disharmony or disequilibrium in societal relationships which are conditions for impolite or rude behaviours. As such, features like spite and malice are not crucial conditions for the interpretation of underpoliteness. This means that underpoliteness occurs only in contexts of situation when some participants fail to achieve the required politeness in the given interactive exchange (Methias, 2011, p. 12). In other words, not all offending acts include dislike or hatred. For instance, impoliteness in TV entertainment shows and corrective behavior in mother-child talk do not generally described as spiteful or rude. In this vein, "underpoliteness could therefore, be defined as communicative acts which may cause offense though not triggered by malice" (Ibid).

At the sociolinguistic level, underpoliteness can achieve some important purposes such as group-ascription and the enhancement of social solidarity and collaboration. For example, some speakers tend to utilize false impolite or offensive acts that seem aggressive at surface, but they have the effect of greasing the wheel of interaction or gaining a turn in a talk with a sign of agreement with others (Ibid, 13). However, Culpeper (2005, p. 36-7) argues before that some impolite acts may have an incidental effect of offence or face-threat although a party has no spiteful intention.

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Underpoliteness may also have such an effect due to the negotiated context of communication. Methias (2011) presents an example for such an incidental effect where

an adult may shame a child into doing something that will be of a long-term benefit to him. The act is conceived of as underpolite because a short term offense is effected to achieve a long term goal which is beneficial to the target. *Shaming, reprimanding, rebuking, preaching and frightening are instances of underpoliteness* when they occur as by-products of corrective behaviour. [Emphasis added](p.13)

In the light of the former discussion, it seems that some speakers are compelled to be underpolite to achieve another aim such as self or other-correction. Some conversational analysts and pragmaticians (cf. Gumperz, 1982, p. 32; Grundy, 1995, p. 53-6) suggest that speakers can use different ways or strategies to repair such incidental acts or interpretations as in the use of apology, agreement and self-repairs.

Consequently, underpoliteness can be seen as an instance of Watts' (2003, p. 20-2) 'politic' verbal and non-verbal behaviour that is viewed to be expectable as well as socio-pragmatically and culturally acceptable in terms of the acceptable conventional norms in the given speech community. This is so since underpoliteness is not a departure from the acceptable norms of communication and is not a marked linguistic behavior that harms or threats the other participant's face or social rights (see Methias, 2011, pp. 13-4).

V. Leech's (1983) Theory

Like Leech (1983: p. 104-5) introduces politeness through his analysis of illocutionary acts and forces. He (Ibid: p. 22) affirms that an illocutionary act is "a speech act or more precisely an act that predicts something". As such, an illocutionary act can be a request, an order or an apology. Then, he (Ibid: pp. 104-105) classifies illocutionary acts into four different kinds in the light of ''how they relate to the social goal of establishing and maintaining comity.'' These four types of illocutions can be elaborated on as follows:

(a) Competitive: The illocutionary goal competes with the social goal; e.g. ordering asking, demanding, begging;

(b) Convivial: The illocutionary goal coincides with the social goal; e.g. offering, inviting, greeting, thanking, congratulating;

(c) Collaborative: The illocutionary goal is indifferent to the social goal; e.g. asserting, reporting, announcing, instructing;

(d) Conflictive: The illocutionary goal conflicts with the social goal; e.g. threatening, accusing, cursing, reprimanding. (Ibid: p. 104)

According to Leech (Ibid), the first two acts involve politeness. The first is related to negative politeness, while the second act demands positive politeness. Moreover, *competitive* acts are discourteous by their nature since they impose something on hearers. However, *convivial* acts are generally courteous by their nature because they motivate civic and social ties and relationships. *Collaborative* acts are irrelevant to politeness since they are neutral. Finally, *conflictive* acts evidently are offensive; therefore, they are outside the domain of politeness.

According to Shahrokhi and Bidabadi (2013: p. 21), Leech's model is related to the 'conversational-maxim view'.

Leech (1983: pp. 138-9) suggests a set of maxims to form the PP such as:

(1) Tact Maxim (in impositives and commissives)

(a) Minimize cost to other.

(b) Maximize benefit to other.

e.g., Could I interrupt you for a second?

If I could just clarify this then.

(2) Generosity Maxim (in impositives and commissives)

(a) Minimize benefit to self.

(b) Maximize cost to self.

e.g., You relax and let me do the dishes.

You must come and have dinner with us.

(Ibid)

VI. Brown and Levinson's (1987) Theory

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory is considered by many scholars as the most influential work in politeness theory (see Eelen, 2001: p. 3; Leech, 2005: p. 1; LoCastro, 2012: p. 137). Brown and Levinson (Ibid) revise Goffman's (1967) notion of 'face', which he uses to mean ''the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact'' (p. 213). Brown and Levinson (1987: p. 61-2) present their version of face as ''the public self-image'' that must be maintained by others in communication. Thus, their model is based on the postulation of the free individuality of the person in social interaction. For them, the concept of face is dichotomized into negative and positive face. Negative face mainly refers to the individual's want to preserve his/her own independence, while positive face concerns the person's want or desire to be liked by others. This invokes that negative face demands that one's actions are unimpeded by others, whereas positive face refers to one's want to be

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desirable (Ibid: p. 22). In other words, the first face activates imposition quit, whilst the second one motivates membership (see Cutrone, 2011: p. 52).

Certain strategies are available for speakers in order to mitigate or soften the force of threat. For instance, a student would apologize for issuing a request that may threat his teacher's face:

(2.1) *Sorry to bother you, sir…but I would like to borrow your book.*

In this context, hesitation (but), hedging (would like to) and apology are utilized by the student to downtone the degree of imposition (Brown and Levinson, 1987: p. 60).

Conversational partners can enact 'face threatening acts' (FTAs) in accordance with the following set of options:

(1) Do the act on record, baldly; e.g. '*Give me a pen'*;

(2) Do the act with redressive action; e.g. '*Would you mind giving me a pen?';*

(3) Do the act off record; e.g. '*I wonder if someone has a pen'*;

(4) Don't do the act totally.

Thus, their theory is called by some scholars the 'face-saving view' (cf. Fraser, 1990: p. 22; Vilkki, 2004: p. 323). The strategies already referred to can be introduced in some detail as follows:

A. Positive politeness strategies

1. Notice, attend.
2. Exaggerate interest, approval, sympathy.

(Brown and Levinson, 1987: p. 102)

B. Negative politeness strategies:

1. Perform the FTA on record.
2. Question, hedge.
3. Be pessimistic.

(Ibid: p. 131)

LoCastro (2012: p. 141) states that Brown and Levinson' (1987) model build up the speaker's decisions to enact FTAs in the light of three variables: (1) the social distance between the speaker and hearer; (2) the power difference between the speaker and hearer; and (3) the weight or force of imposition.

Another aspect, according to Brown and Levinson (Ibid), which may play a role in the theory of politeness, is related to the existence of cross-cultural features of linguistic politeness. This factor has been pointed out before by Lyons (1977) when he argues that there are some innate socialization or acculturation strategies that may be universal to all human beings. Brown and Levinson (1987) argue that their politeness strategies are applicable to cross-linguistic and cross-cultural contexts that are outside the Anglo-Saxon domain of culture. Their claim of universality is presented by what they call 'a universal speaker/hearer' or 'Model Person'. This Model Person is seen as the embodiment of universally valid human social characteristics and principles of social reasoning [and logicality]'' (Eelen, 2001: p. 5; Pikor-Niedzialek, 2005: p. 109). In this domain, politeness is understood as strategic conflict-avoidance, and this is manifested in the view that the main social role of politeness is in its ability to function as a way of monitoring potential aggression and rudeness between different conversational parties (Brown and Levinson 1987: p. 1)(see also Blum-Kulka, 1992: p. 275).

VII. Fraser's (1990) Theory

Fraser (1990) presents his theory of politeness under the label 'the conversational-contract view' (CC). The bases of this theory have existed before in Fraser (1975, 1980) and Fraser and Nolen (1982). However, Fraser's (1990) formulation of this theory is slightly different from that of Brown and Levinson's (1987) though both are based on Gricean maxims and Goffman's notion of 'face' (see Fraser, 1980: p. 341). According to him, when participants interact, each party brings an understanding of some initial set of rights and obligations that will determine, at least for the preliminary stages, what the participants can expect from the other(s). […] there is always the possibility for a renegotiation of the conversational contract: p. the two parties may readjust just what rights and what obligations they hold towards each other. (Fraser, 1990: p. 232)

Fraser's theory, then, is a simulation to the political theory of 'state' and the democratic regime, which relies on the postulation of 'social contract'. According to him (Ibid: pp. 232-3), the conversational contract works within certain conditions or terms of dialogue:

A- Rights or obligations that are imposed by conventions and traditions. Such conditions are not subject to situational negotiation.

B- Conditions and terms that are imposed by the institutional nature of interaction.

C- Conditions that are activated in the light of the particular demands of a current situation. Such terms are open to be renegotiable according to the interlocutor's understanding "and/or acknowledgements of factors such as the status, the power, and the role of each speaker, and the nature of the circumstances'' (Ibid: p. 232).

A final point on Fraser's theory is that it seems that he simulates the principles of 'Conversational Analysis' rules such as turn-taking and repair systems. Moreover, there are certain conditions and expectations that are held to be workable in any arena of interactional communication which conversationalists adhere to (see Schegloff and Sacks, 1973: pp. 289-90).

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VIII. Critique of Politeness Theories

Traditional politeness theories have been criticized by many scholars on different grounds. The most prominent critiques directed to the various kinds of approaches to politeness will be highlighted in this section. However, the 'social norm' view is neglected because it does not have a considerable stream of adherents in modern linguistics and pragmatics (see Fraser, 1990: p. 221).

IX. The Conversational-maxim Approach

The criticism to this approach is basically directed to the theoretical foundations on which it is grounded. The conversational-maxim view is represented by Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) and based on Grice's (1971) theory of CP and the four maxims. The Gricean approach to pragmatic meaning is criticized for including the following shortcomings:

a. Conversational implicature is related to speakers rather than hearers. It does not interpret exactly how inferences of the implied meaning are arrived at and on what grounds (see Sperber and Wilson, 1986: p. 4-5).

b. The model lacks an explicit interpretation of the word 'information' in Grice's model. Participants have different recognitions of what constitutes information in social interactions, whether transactional or interpersonal. Thus, different cultural backgrounds lead to conflictive informative interpretations. Interlocutors evaluate relevance, quality, quantity and manner differently and in line with their own backgrounds (LoCastro, 2012: p. 51).

c. It fails to explain the reason on which a speaker relies for selecting a certain type of flouting rather than another. Selectivity, therefore, needs to be more reasonable and justifiable. Similarly, the model needs extra-maxims and principles such as Irony Principle or Politeness Principle and even other 'plausible' maxims that have not been suggested yet. Moreover, there is no justification why one infers this or that indirect meaning and on what grounds. For instance, '*It is cold in here*.' can be interpreted as a request to close the door, but it may be a request to open the door and so on until we reach an infinite number of potential implicatures (Coulthard, 1985: p. 32).

d. There is no adequate reference to the role of the sociocultural context of communication in which conversationalists interact. For example, a humorous or ironic comment may be considered as a rude move or a friendly encouragement depending on the social roles of the participants and the cultural conventions of the interactants. Each participant sees the comment through the lens of his/her own culture. Hence, the inclusion of the sociocultural sphere is supported by most contemporary pragmaticians in the analysis of pragmatic and interactive meaning (LoCastro, 2012: p. 51).

Since Leech's (1983) theory is considered as one of the post-Gricean approaches (see Eelen, 2001: p. 3), some criticisms are directed to his Maxims of Politeness. They are as follows

a. Such maxims are overlapping and there is no clear distinction between the workability of one or another maxim in a given context. Moreover, Leech's model makes no reference to the importance of the culture-specific conventions of different language communities other than English that will interpret or evaluate maxims differently or even conflictively (Thomas, 1995: p. 167-8).

b. Besides, Leech's approach is biased towards the Western culture. It neglects the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural manifestations.

c. In addition, his correlation of politeness with specific kinds of illocutionary acts is limited. For instance, collaborative speech acts are considered as irrelevant to politeness. Conflictive acts are seen by him as outside the domain of politeness. However, collaborative acts such as invitations can be utilized as a strategy in politeness (negative or positive), and not as irrelevant to politeness. Similarly, conflictive acts are used as impolite markers in communication, and this is an important domain of knowing what is polite and impolite in conversational interactions.

d. Leech (1983) limits each maxim in politeness to specified speech acts such as limiting the 'Generosity Maxim' to impositives and commissives. However, this maxim can be incorporated in the interpretation of other speech acts such as assertives and expressives as in the following examples:

(2.2) *I feel I deserve the prize.*

(2.3) *You don't have to eat more.*

Where in (2.2), the expressive act violates the 'Generosity Maxim' since it maximizes benefit to self, and the assertive in (2.3) minimizes benefit to other.

X. The Conversational-maxim Approach

Brown and Levinson's (1987) model is the most representative work of the 'face-saving' approach (see Watts, 2003: p. 13). This model receives a great deal of criticism in the light of the following weak points:

a. The model is static since it is represented by a rule-like system of strategies and their linguistic realizations. There is no dynamic activity of the participants' evaluations and perceptions of politeness in specific contexts. ''The only flexible and dynamic part is that of the choice of the strategy and of the evaluation of the participants'' (Karafoti, 2007: p. 123). This static view prevents human tendency to productivity and social creativity (LoCastro, 2012: p. 145). In a previous study, Werkhofer (1992: p. 155) affirms that this stativity extends to the social factors such as distance and power since they are regarded as static entities that combat conversational and interactive negotiation.

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b. A major criticism of the face-saving model is that it invokes a Western-centric bias towards the Anglo-Saxon culture. This claim is generally accompanied by a proposal for a universal view of politeness. This is asserted in an earlier study by the statement that ''[t]he essential idea is this: p. interactional systematics are based largely on universal principles. *But the application of the principles differs systematically across cultures, and within cultures across subcultures, categories and groups*'' (Brown and Levinson, 1978: p. 288) (Italics are the researcher's). Thus, the model is concerned with the rational philosophy of individualism. For Brown and Levinson (1987), conversational actors are 'individuals' who are seeking their own 'individualistic' rights. Thus, all face needs are explained in terms of this individualistic and Western culture and philosophy. In this vein, there is no space for the variation among other cultures (Fukada and Asato, 2004: p. 1992). As it is stated by some scholars, ''[d]ifferent cultural backgrounds may lead to different productions of the level of […] politeness'' (Chang, 2008: p. 60). Hence, the Universalist claim of this model is in contrast with the cross-linguistic and cultural differences. For instance, Eastern communities are characterized by 'collectivist' culture and philosophy. There is no room for the individualistic rights since they are melted in the more collective sphere of the social group (see Werkhofer, 1992: p. 157; LoCastro, 2012: pp. 154-5). In this vein, Ide (1989: pp. 243-4) argues that Japanese '*Wakimae*' politeness invokes the attention to people's interdependence and to the reciprocal relationships, and specifically the discernment of appropriate behaviour based on this notion. Moreover, the 'face-saving' model sees Japanese as a negative politeness culture where it is required for the speakers to use more hedges and other mitigators in order to eliminate the force of imposition. On the contrary, most Japanese politeness strategies are positive ones as the everyday utterances show (see also Marriott, 1993: p. 23; Cutrone, 2011: p. 53). As such, individualistic society is a society which celebrates and stresses the individual over relationships, while a collective society underlines societal relationships and interdependencies of the individuals it is composed of (Meyerhoff, 2011: p. 104). In addition, some aspects of communication are unique to specific cultures such as the act of bowing in Japanese greeting sequences which is specific to Japanese speech community. Also in Japanese, ''interpersonal communication, preserving social hierarchies is much more important than claiming freedom from imposition'' (Wijayanto *et al*., 2013: p. 190). In an earlier study, Spencer-Oatey (2000a,b: p. 14) questions the limitation of 'face' which concentrates on self needs. Therefore, there should be a reference to group relations and ascriptions. Thus, he coins the term 'rapport management' to crystalize the relation between group and self to handle politeness limitation to individuality endeavour in isolation. This new modulation invokes the importance of sociality rights as well as societal inclusion/exclusion and identity manipulation. In the same baseline, even in the English culture, the concept of politeness has changed to a more egalitarian and democratic one. Thus, it loses some of old-fashioned indications of the upper or higher classes. This shows that terms like 'polished', 'courteous' and 'refined' are only indicators of modesty or even solidarity rather than social discrimination and distinction (Haugh, 2004: p. 20).

c. This model is a product-oriented perspective rather than a process-oriented one (Werkhofer, 1992: pp. 77-8). This is also related to the problem of dynamism and stativity mentioned above in (a.). Additionally, the model has focused on the speaker's preconceptions of politeness regardless of the listener's. This means that the face-saving approach has a bias towards the speaker. It ignores the evaluations of the hearer (Burke and Kraut, 2008: p. 2).

d. There is no reference to the difference between linguistic and non-linguistic politeness. Moreover, there is no reference to the distinction between politeness and other related notions and concepts like tact, civility, deference, respect and other terms which need a concentrated attention (Fraser, 1990: p. 234).

e. Traditional pragmatic approaches to politeness, the face-saving perspective in particular, do not distinguish adequately between the pragmatic or communicative strategy and the linguistic realizations or means, and the consequent relation between them. For instance, there is no explanation why certain tags are related to specific strategies in negative politeness. There is no successful interpretation of the overlap between some strategies and their linguistic counterparts. Watts (2003: p. 93) formulates this problem into questions like: ''Can negative face-threatening only be redressed by negative politeness strategies?...Will positive politeness always and only be addressed to positive face threats?'' Thus, the ''pragmatic approaches' mistake lies in the fact that they are not conscious of their assumptions, which makes them blind to the consequences thereof'' (Katrin, 2011: p. 4).

f. The face-saving theories, and perhaps most traditional ones, are limited to the study of single utterances or turns abandoning the analysis of large texts and exchanges. Therefore, there is no true consideration for the study of linguistic and interactive aspects like back-channels that extend over longer discourses. Moreover, there is no research in traditional politeness theories on casual conversations which are not dominated by predetermined or ritualized interactive goals (Kitamura, 2000: p. 2). This is also related to the problem that politeness study in long texts could be useful in the understanding of global or macro pragmatic coherence which is related to the appropriate use of language in larger texts and longer conversational exchanges (see Al-Khazaali, 2009: pp. 19-20).

g. There is an unjustifiable correlation between politeness and indirectness. It is thought that indirect speech acts almost always are polite acts (Leech, 1983: p. 108). This is due to the idea that is related to the problem in (b.) above. In English communities, indirectness is a mark of politeness, especially in negative politeness strategies. An example is presented by Félix-Brasdefer (2005: p. 76) who concludes that Mexican speakers, like German and Polish, adopt directness not for impolite behaviour, but they attempt to achieve affiliation, solidarity and closeness with other interlocutors (see also Ogiermann, 2009: p. 191). However, this is not true for all cultures, and even English does not

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work in this route all the time in all contexts of situations. In Arabic, for instance, direct invitations and offers are thought to be more polite than their indirect counterparts (Archer *et al*., 2012: p. 88).

h. A crucial shortcoming in the 'face-saving' approach is that it invokes that there are some linguistic expressions like 'please' that are inherently polite or some speech acts such as orders are inherently face-threatening. This idea is challenged by the fact that even this 'please' can be used impolitely when uttered with an ironic intonation. Moreover, fathers can order their sons without threatening their 'face' in any interpretation of this notion (see Watts, 2003: pp. 91-2; LoCastro, 2012: p. 149).

i. A real problem in the model is ''[f]ailing to articulate an adequate conception of context, despite the key importance of context in judgments of politeness'' Culpeper (2011: p. 404). (Im)politeness is context-bounded and cannot be fully understood or interpreted unless there is a reference to the broader and limited context in which the utterance occurs (For earlier treatments, see Spencer-Oatey, 2000a: pp. 25-6).

j. A highly drastic problem in this model is the abandonment of 'impoliteness' research (cf. Sorea, 2007: p. 55). In Locher and Bousfield's (2008: p. 3) terminology, impoliteness has been viewed as ''the neglected 'poor' cousin of politeness''. This is due to the mistaken belief that politeness study is concerned only with 'courteous' and 'refined' language and expressions (Zhao, 2008: p. 630). Traditional theories of politeness envisions 'impoliteness' as merely doing nothing or a 'non-act' at all; that is, resulting from the disobedience of politeness maxims or neglecting a redressive action (Culpeper, 2008: p. 18). According to LoCastro (2012: p. 146), impoliteness is an important phenomenon that deserves considerable research. This notion motivates many scholars such as sociolinguists and pragmatists to shed light on the discursive construction of conversational and verbal behaviour that can be seen as 'face-aggravating' to others.

The continual neglect of 'impoliteness' as well as its dynamism in discourse in classic theories of 'politeness theory' has resulted in a group of scholars' motivation to develop various theories, perspectives and approaches to tackle impoliteness from a variety of theoretical angles and through different empirical and analytical lens. In this vein, post-modern politeness theorists are concerned with the hostile, conflictual and argumentative use of language. 'Impoliteness theory' identifies how and when 'impolite' behaviour is triggered and how it can be resolved (see Archer *et al*., 2012: p. 87-8). It is also concerned with how impolite sequences are arranged in larger conversational exchanges. Impoliteness studies should be multidisciplinary and even transdisciplinary in nature since the communication circumstances and circles are multidisciplinary as well. This theory makes use of other humanistic sciences such as sociology, cognitive study, psychology and politics (see Chapman, 2013: p. 140-1).

XI. Conclusion

Politeness theories suffer from different shortcomings and problems that lessen their efficiency in the successful analysis of interactive communication. Universalism, for instance, is not well-defined by Brown and Levinsons' theory. Leech's model is limited to some speech acts. Besides, his model is not clear whether to cover culture-specific as well as cross-cultural aspects of communication. In addition, face theory in general implies problem of how to correctly define the notion of face, and it is problematic how to limit the threatening effect of some speech acts and functions. Neo-theories have the same shortcomings that are found in the 'Cooperative Principle' approach of communication.

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‘Keep an Eye on Your Son! He Is Reading Too Much These Days’: Understanding the Reading Attitudes in English of Rural and Urban Sindhi Students

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***Abstract*—Research in second language reading has demonstrated that positive reading attitudes are very crucial in motivating a reader to engage in meaningful reading practices. The exploration of such findings is very limited in the context of Sindh, Pakistan. Learners in Sindh, Pakistan’s rural and urban areas experience life quality generally and reading resources and motivation very differently. This study explored a very basic question of the differences between the reading attitudes of learners from both areas. The findings suggest wide differences between the reading attitudes of rural and urban learners. An understanding of their reading attitudes leads one to devise ways for inculcating or reinforcing positive reading attitudes in further studies.**

***Index Terms*—L2 reading attitudes, reading motivation, rural and urban, reading culture, self perception as a reader, utilitarian value of reading, personal involvement in reading, reading anxiety**

I. Introduction

It is generally recommended that the question of how and why learners read can be answered in a better way through a sociocultural lens (Arzubiaga, 2002). For learners of diverse social cultures get exposed to different reading practices and availability of reading resources. Learners growing up in literacy rich environment, where a positive value is ascribed to reading, will develop positive attitudes towards reading than the learners who remain less exposed to stimulating reading environment. Learners with positive reading attitudes may read with more interest and may remain advantaged in terms of reading abilities, future career. For learners with negative reading attitudes may avoid reading.

Some reading attitude models too have acknowledged the impact of social life on the reading attitudes (McKenna 1994). Despite this growing interest, there has been little research on exploring the reading attitudes of learners in the light of their diverse social and cultural backgrounds. This study explores the reading attitudes of learners from two geographical locations-rural and urban in Pakistani context.

To understand the above, next section presents the literature review in the following fields:

a) Reading Attitudes: As the study explores the reading attitudes so this section reviews literature with twofold purposes: i) to understand the construct of reading attitude ii) how they have been explored

b) Rural and Urban difference: Although there have not been direct research on the differences between reading attitudes of rural and urban learners, there have been considerable research on rural and urban on reading achievement and performance. This section explores these studies to understand how the gap between both the groups has been viewed.

c) Rural and Urban Sindh: A short review will be given on the scenario of Sindh in order to depict the rural and urban parts of Sindh. This section would help the readers to understand findings of the present study.

II. Literature Review

A. Reading Attitudes

A successful reading program -whether in first language or in second language- must not only develop children who can read but also children who do read (Harris and Sipay, 1985, p. 562). For students to have the desire to read, they must have a favorable attitude toward reading. McKenna et al (1995) suggest,

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Even for the fluent reader, poor attitude may occasion a choice not to read when other options exist, a condition now generally known as aliteracy. (p. 934)

Moreover, reading attitudes may affect the level of reading proficiency in learners also. The more positive the attitude, the more positive the participation in reading activities (Black, 2006). Consequently, it is more likely that s/he would improve reading proficiency. On the other hand, negative attitudes bring in a set of weak self-efficacy and beliefs, lack of interest, unmotivated mind-set. Those students with negative attitudes engage less often with texts and generally achieve at lower levels than their age peers (McKenna et al, 1995).

Such a link between reading attitudes and reading ability may highlight the next important aspect. Reading abilities may affect students' level of academic achievement, which in turn may influence their employment choices in the future. Thus, negative attitudes can impact directly on society and the workforce of the future. This emphasises further on recognising the significance of one's reading attitudes.

In second language learning, it becomes rather more important to take account of learners' reading attitudes. Reading in a second language is much more complicated than in one's own language for many reasons. For example, L2 readers have to read in a different language about different people, different culture and different ideas. Particularly, in the context of Pakistan, English as a second language is now taken as a passport to a better future and sophisticated jobs. If a student fails to read in English efficiently, then s/he may deny him/herself from achieving many luxurious career options. So, it becomes very important for teachers of reading in L2 to take into account learners' reading attitudes in L2, to understand their reading behaviour and their reading problems. Such an approach could possibly help in getting through the affective barrier for students to a certain extent.

As attitude is a psychological term so there have been myriad of definitions. In second language research, many researchers have used Mathewson's (1994) tripartite definition of reading attitude. According to this definition, reading attitude is made up of three constructs: cognitive, affective and conative. This study used this definition but focused on only the former two as the conative aspect deals with observing the real behaviour of the participants. Many rural parts of Sindh do not have adequate library facilities or even proper books availability in local books. Therefore, their behaviours cannot be compared in an appropriate manner.

Cognitive reading attitudes: There has been limited but good amount of research on this aspect of reading attitude. Following sub categories of cognitive reading attitudes have been drawn.

(a) Self Perception as a reader: Learners develop self perceptions as a reader about themselves based on their internal evaluations and beliefs regarding their capabilities to perform on a reading task. The evaluations may be positive or negative in nature, Arzubiaga (2002 Gambrell et al's (1996)

(b) Value for reading: It is the importance and significance that learners attach to reading practices. It is further divided in the following sub categories in Yamshita's (2004, 2007 and 2010) studies:

c) Self Involvement in reading: Self Involvement in reading consists upon a reader's feelings of enjoyment, satisfaction curiosity or desire for reading for its own sake (Yamashita 2007).

d) Reading anxiety: It is a feeling of stress or nervousness related to texts during the process of reading.

B. Rural and Urban

A growing body of educational research has investigated the differences in performances of students from rural and urban backgrounds. Like many other areas in educational research, the studies investigating differences in academic achievement across rural and urban settings have yielded a rather inconsistent pattern of findings. While some studies have failed to find any statistically significant difference (Edington and Koehler, 1987; Haller et al., 1993) others have reported urban students having a significant advantage over rural students (Young, 1998). In other studies, however, students from rural schools were found better than their urban counterparts (Alspaugh and Harting, 1995). Although, these studies together do not give a conclusive picture, they do suggest that there are differences between rural and urban. The present study is first of its kind which compares reading attitudes of rural and urban in Sindh, Pakistan context.

C. Rural and Urban Sindh, Pakistan

The participants in this study come from both parts of Sindh, which remain poles apart from each other in terms of resources, social life style, education, job opportunities, information communication technology and almost in all aspects. The rural and urban gaps are noticed in public and official records too. The slow growth in the rural sector has led to widespread rural poverty and large and widening income gap with urban areas (The Nation 2008). Here, a small account of educational background, reading culture and their linguistic background is given in order to facilitate my reader to understand the findings of the study.

Education: In education sector, Sindh suffers with enrolment deficit in schools, urban-rural and gender disparity and a yawning gap of illiteracy (The News on Sunday 2014). According to the Pakistan Social and Living Standards Measurement Survey 2012-13, overall literacy rate in rural areas of the Sindh province is 42 percent only compared to 77 per cent in urban areas. 'Unfortunately, the issue of quality service delivery in rural areas receives scant attention specifically and it has been seen that the worst public sector schools are in the rural areas' (White Paper Report 2007). Urban settings enjoy better quality of English than teaching and learning opportunities as compared to the rural areas (Dawn Newspaper 2014).

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Linguistic Background: Sindh is linguistically a rich province. People speak many languages such as, Dhatki, Goaria, Jandavra, Kutchi, Memoni, Mewari, Parkari Koli, Saraiki and Sindhi. Sindhi is the official regional language of the province. The majority of people of Sindh speak Sindhi as their first language, Urdu as national language and English as official language. In rural Sindh, 92 % people have Sindhi as L1 (Population Census 1998). Sindhi is mainly used for communication in daily business, public gathering, shopping and in all aspects of life. The urban Sindh is populated with Mohajirs, who speak Urdu as their L1. The present study used urban Sindhis only, who speak Sindhi as their L1. The indigenous Urban Sindhis interact with Urdu-speaking Mohajirs in business, education, personal and professional relationships and for these purposes in Urdu language. They also use English to a large extent particularly in education, government offices, court, and formal address in public gatherings.

Reading culture: According to Sindh-Baluchistan reading council report 2013, the literacy rate in Sindh province is 59%. Only 40% of the literate population can read simple text in local languages. A significant part of society lacks the reading habit. Generally students read selected portions of class textbooks to prepare for their eventual examinations. Education managers, school head teachers, and classroom teachers rarely buy any books for their own reading. Most schools lack library facilities even. The situation is worst in rural parts of Sindh. Availability of reading resources is another issue in rural Sindh. The common rural people do not have access to public libraries for they are located in the urban areas or in some district headquarters (The Culture Tourism and Antiquities Department, Sindh, Pakistan Website). The most common source is Sindhi newspapers. Moreover, one may access the academic syllabus books to some extent.

Based on the above studies, following research questions are taken in this study

D. Research Question

What are the differences in the reading attitudes of the rural and urban Sindhi learners?

It is further divided into following questions:

RQa: What are the differences in the 'Self Perception as a reader' of the rural and urban Sindhi learners?

RQb: What are the differences in the 'value rural and urban Sindhi learners place for reading in English?

RQc: What are the differences in the 'self involvement in reading' of the rural and urban Sindhi learners?

RQd: What are the differences in the 'reading anxiety' of the rural and urban Sindhi learners?

III. Method

Mainly, research in reading attitudes area has taken place through questionnaire. Attitude is psychological construct and can be understood in more depth through qualitative accounts. This study aims to understand the differences, if any, between the reading attitudes of rural and urban. so interviews present the advantage of listening to the participants' views, life incidents and experiences so it was preferred for the present study.

The questions in interview protocol consisted upon two sections

i. background information on the reading culture in their respective societies

ii. categories of reading attitudes (self perception as a reader, utilitarian value of reading, personal involvement in reading and reading anxiety) undertaken in the present study (See section).

A. Participants

As the nature of my study required the participation of both rural and urban students, I used a stratified sampling technique to divide first-year participants into two cohorts: rural and urban.

B. Data Analysis Technique

All the interviews were transcribed. Following constant comparative method (Maykut & Morehouse 1994), I analysed the interviews in five stages. Firstly, the data was unitized by identifying meaningful units of meaning. Second stage involved combining any ideas that overlapped with one another and subsequently assigning them provisional codes following '*look alike and feel alike'* criteria (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994: 136). The third phase transited to writing rules of inclusion -the propositional rule statement- (Maykut & Morehouse 1994: 141). Lastly, categories were further refined by grouping them under broader groups. In addition, the ratio of occurrence of each unit of meaning in a code was also quantified, with the aim of finding out the maximum and the minimum ratio of participants for any response. The last stage involved the synthesis. The propositions built so far were examined carefully to help understand the meaning in the data. This marked the conclusion of analysis.

IV. Results

This section first presents results from the background questions on reading culture and encouragement for reading. Next, it presents findings on the main reading attitudes.

A. Reading Culture

1. Rural Participants

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(i) Academic Reading in English: an acceptable behaviour: In Sindhi rural societies, the general concept of reading seems to be associated with the reading of academic books. Some participants (7, 54%) expressed their view that parents, friends, teachers, relatives and society as a whole appreciate if someone reads academic books. In particular, if someone engages in reading in English, then people take that learner to be very intelligent and hard-working. The following comments are typical of such a pattern of thinking.

People respect you more if you read your course books and, especially, come first in class.

Rural Participant_10

(ii) Discouraging attitude to reading: As mentioned earlier, the rural population is under the yoke of feudalism, and therefore any activity related to education and literacy is discouraged at many levels. Rather than showing appreciation, some parts of rural societies do not approve of leisure reading at all. A few participants (6, 46%) revealed that if someone reads for leisure, then s/he might have to face a discouraging attitude from other society members. Some rural people associate leisure reading with madness or immorality, because reading makes one think, question and be critical, and such behaviour is taken as a sign of madness and rebellion. The following comments explain this:

My people are strange. If you have a cigarette in the market and at the bus stop they take it as so normal. But if you read a book in a public place the people think something is wrong with us. Once I was reading a book at a local tea spot; the tea vendor said to my father, your son is reading too much. Keep an eye on him. His mind can go off the rails.

Rural Student_11

2. Urban Participants

(i) Appreciation for reading: The urban population expressed positive attitudes (appreciation, joy, exemplariness) towards reading. Many participants (7, 78%) expressed particularly how people normally associate reading of academic resources particularly in English with being intelligent and sophisticated. The following comments are typical:

I can't explain properly, but I feel people associate reading with being intelligent or decent. I remember all my relatives took me as a 'bright child' just because I would read more … as compared to their kids. They would give my example to my cousins. Heehee.

Urban Student_6

People read for leisure to a certain extent. Some participants (6, 46%) expressed the view that people read for leisure at home, but there is no culture of reading at bus stops, hospitals or while commuting from one place to another.

You will not find people reading at bus stops, or in hospitals… I mean reading is not an everyday and everywhere matter… You see! But yes, people do read at home and love to discuss ideas.

Urban Student_8

B. Self Perception as a Reader

1. Rural Participants

Only a few (4, 31%) were confident enough to call themselves good or average readers.

Many of my rural friends do not even pass. I at least passed my English subject last term. So, it may indicate my reading capabilities to some extent.

Rural Participant_10

Overall, rural participants were very humble about themselves. Hardly anyone called themselves an efficient reader. Many of them (8, 62%) called themselves poor/struggling/not efficient readers. Based on my experience, I believe the root of such thinking goes back to a poor educational background, non-existent academic evaluation, especially in the teaching of English and lack of encouragement for reading in English. This influences learners' lives in their own thinking and evaluation, which is often very humble.

I get annoyed with myself for not being an efficient reader, but I am a poor reader. It takes a lot of time to understand anything in the English language.

Rural Participant_7

Some participants came up with explanations. Some of them formed impressions about themselves by comparing themselves with their urban counterparts.

My friends from urban schools take no time in understanding anything written in the English language. And I take so much time in getting the sense. This makes me feel so embarrassed.

Rural Participant_5

One participant mentioned difficult vocabulary as one of the causes for his evaluation of himself as a poor reader.

I am poor because I cannot understand all the vocabulary in a text.

Rural Participant_5

A participant also mentioned the difficulty she faces in comprehending the ideas in a text as the reason to believe herself to be a struggling reader.

I usually skip a lot... a lot of ideas and understand only the central ones.

Rural Participant_8

2. Urban Participants

The urban participants were found to be relatively confident and with good self-esteem as compared to the rural group. Many of them (6, 67%) considered themselves efficient readers. This may be due to the social backgrounds of urban participants. They seemed to be more confident and less judgmental of themselves.

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Yes, I am a successful reader. Reading in English is not much of a problem for me.

Urban Participant_5

I also tried to probe further into the reasons that made them believe in their efficiency in English. One participant reasoned that English is so much embedded in everyday life that they feel confident reading in it.

English is so much embedded in our everyday life. Just think about the medicine prescriptions from the doctors we get and then the medicines we get... the instructions are written in English. Look at the names of the buildings and companies... you will get to read English. I am simply so used to it.

Urban Participant_6

Another mentioned the Internet as one of the reasons they read in English regularly, as a part of everyday life.

We are living in a global world... emails, social networking, everything is in English... Of course we read a lot in English as an everyday activity.

Urban Participant_1

C. Utilitarian Value of Reading

1. Rural Participants

It is an undisputed fact that, in Pakistan, English is taken to be a "Trojan horse" (Cooke, 1988, cited in Shamim, 2008), and the "gatekeeper to positions of prestige in society" (Pennycook, 1995, cited in Shamim, 2008). Literacy in English is considered a prerequisite, similar to ICT skills, for participating in the current trend of globalization and becoming part of the global village (Shamim, 2011). Owing to such widespread popularity, one would assume that everyone would be aware of the *utilitarian value of reading in English*. It came as an eye-opener when some of my rural participants (3, 23%) gave neutral replies such as:

Hmm, it might be useful for those who read.

Rural Participant_5

I do not know what to comment.

Rural Participant_1

The reasons for such a thought pattern can be attributed to the social vibes they receive from a rural society in which reading in English is not an integrated part of life, and where the job market (such as clerical work or daily wages) does not require proficiency in English. Therefore, they might not know the benefits of reading in English.

However, many participants also expressed their views about the utilitarian value they attached to reading in English. The categories formed are given below.

(ii) To experience city life: Some rural participants were very clear about the utilitarian benefits one may achieve from reading in English. Many participants (4, 31%) said that reading in English is a must if they want to come out of rural life and want *to experience city life*. Reading in English will help them to make their survival in urban areas easy.

It is very important to be able to read in the English language. Baba (father) always says... if I want to experience life in cities, then I must learn to read in English.

Rural Student_6

(iii) A route to pass the central superior services (CSS) examination: In Pakistan, CSS (Central Superior Services in Pakistan) is the competitive examination that takes place at national level every year. This is aimed at recruiting personnel for the top bureaucracy of the country. To pass this examination is a dream for the majority of youngsters. This examination requires a high level of proficiency in the English language along with critical and analytical abilities. The language of instruction for attempting this examination is strictly English. One of the main reasons for both the rural and urban population to learn English is to pass this examination. Many youngsters attempt this exam every year in order to join the bureaucracy cadre in Pakistan. Nowadays, people from rural areas are also becoming aware of the value of this examination, and therefore they aspire to attempt it. A few of my rural participants (3, 23%) said that they find reading in English important because of their plans to attempt the CSS examination.

My future aim is to prepare myself for passing the CSS exam. And you know how important it is to be proficient in reading in English.

Rural Participant_12

2. Urban Participants

As mentioned earlier, in Pakistan, English is perceived as the language of individual and national development (Shamim, 2007), and a universal tool for access to opportunities to level social inequalities (Tsui, 2005). In fact, in Pakistan, expressions such as 'English-language school' or 'reading in English' are heavily loaded with economic and sociocultural connotations (Shamim, 2010). That may be the reason that not many urban participants showed any utilitarian interest in reading in Sindhi. The majority of the participants (7, 78%) were of the opinion that:

From exams to personal communication on the Web, I use English so I really see little utility of reading anything in Sindhi. Moreover, all the current knowledge is available in English. So in fact there is little motivation for reading in Sindhi other than if you are really interested in this for personal reasons.

Urban Participant_2

Sadly, such perceptions are very common about indigenous languages in Pakistan. An important study conducted by Coleman (2010: 20) for the British Council, says about the marginalization of indigenous languages in Pakistan, "Not surprisingly, when a particular language is given no role to play in the education system, many parents respond by not

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encouraging the use of that language at home". He further found that many of the teachers who participated in the survey wanted parents to use English at home, with the idea of making learning English easy and effective. However, this is marginalizing the role of local/home languages as revealed in the comments of the above urban participant as well, as given above.

On the other hand, these urban (7, 78%) participants loved reading in English for various reasons, such as the following:

(1) Better public reputation: Many participants (8, 89%) believed that reading in English actually gives them a better public reputation. They read more and so they know more and can share more.

English itself is a status symbol. Reading in it is also important. People think of you as high calibre if you have knowledge about Western authors and philosophies.

Urban Participant_4

(2) Future plans: Useful for higher studies: Urban participants (7, 78%) seemed to have more future plans as compared to rural participants. They planned to undertake Master's degrees in their respective fields and mentioned their plans to take up certain careers. They believed that reading in the English language would benefit them because much research is published or translated into the English language.

I plan to work with non-governmental organizations after doing a master's in sociology. You see, we have to work with international organizations so it is better to read more and more in English. One becomes more proficient.

Urban Participant_5

(3) Future plan: Useful for studying abroad: A few participants (4, 44%) expressed their plan to study abroad.

I aim to pursue studies abroad and for that I know very well that I have to read, read and read everything a lot from now onwards.

Urban Participant_3

D. Personal Involvement in Reading

1. Rural Participants

and backwardness, at least some of the rural learners were aware of the utilitarian benefits attached to reading in English to some extent. This is because, in Pakistan, the general promise of English as a 'world language' for economic and personal development seems to have given a desire to the younger generation at large to learn English (Shamim, 2011). For example, Rahman (1999, cited in Shamim, 2011), in his survey of student attitudes towards English in different school types in Pakistan, found that the desire to learn English occurred among students from all school types including the madrasahs (religious schools), which represent the most conservative element of Pakistani society. Such desire and liking for reading in English was expressed by some of my rural participants as well.

Although I take hours to comprehend a little in English, but yet, I enjoy reading in it. It is not reading alone. But we learn a lot from reading in English.

Rural Participant_8

But overall, rural learners expressed a feeling of liking for reading in Sindhi. Their responses can be gathered in the following categories:

(ii) Easy and natural phenomenon: Rural learners grow up in a setting where people communicate and read (if ever) mostly in Sindhi. Many participants (5, 38%) expressed the view that it is very natural for them to read in Sindhi. They comprehend ideas clearly and easily in it.

I have grown up seeing at least Sindhi newspapers at home… and my family members reading it. I think reading the daily newspaper in Sindhi actually made it quite natural for me to read in Sindhi and today I feel comfortable and easy to reading in Sindhi.

Rural Participant_7

(iii) Identity consciousness as a Sindhi: In a context like Pakistan, where popular beliefs like 'English as a stairway to upward mobility' and 'English as a guarantor of success' are widely popular, it came as an eye-opener to see (4, 31%) participants who preferred to read in Sindhi over reading in English. They took it as a matter connected to one's identity consciousness. They were of the view that, in the age of globalization, we need to save our uniqueness: linguistically and socially.

We have our own literature – so, so rich, like Sain Shah Abdul Latif, Sheikh Ayaz and Hazrat Sachal Sarmast. But many of us are over-obsessed with the wish to be Angrez (English Person) and so we disown our own culture by adopting Western dress, styles and even books. I love my Sindh Darti and for me it provides enough knowledge to read.

Rural Participant_13

This, however, may be owing to the narrow vision of life overall in rural parts of Sindh

2. Urban Participants

The huge promise of English as a 'world language' for economic and personal development seems to be a major driving force for the younger generation's desire to learn English in Pakistan. Therefore, there is an insatiable desire for English in Pakistan (Shamim, 2010). Such views were also expressed by my participants.

(1) A fashion accessory: In Pakistan, familiarity with and use of English is an indicator of social class and educational and family background (Shamim, 2010). Many of my urban participants (8, 89%) stated that reading in

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English is a signpost of being sophisticated and fashionable. It is just like a fashion accessory, which makes you look trendy.

We got to go with the flow, ma'am. Your trendy outfits won't make you look stylish if you do not have a grip of the English language. Reading is an integral part. It feels good when you can discuss Western authors.

Urban Participant_1

(2) Going global: Secondly, urban participants tended to feel more global. Many participants (7, 78%) believed that English, being an international language, is a means of making them feel a part of the global world. It seems that, unlike their rural counterparts, they do not feel threatened about their identity as Sindhi if they read more in English. Rather, many of them find it as way to assimilate into the international world.

The world is a global village now and we are a part of it. Being a part of it, we need to be able to share our experiences and know others' experiences through a common language. English is a very popular language. I love to read in the English language because the latest information is written, translated, in it. It is so easy to browse anything in the English language and read it.

Urban Participant_8

However, a few (3, 33%) expressed their involvement in reading in English but at the same time showed some regret over omitting to read in Sindhi altogether.

It is a pity that our own language is overtaken by the amount of knowledge we share with each other and get to read in the English language. And why blame others – I myself read mostly in the English language. But what can I do, English is an official language of Pakistan and it is the international language of knowledge so I cannot help that. But nevertheless, I am a proud Sindhi and love my language.

Urban Participant_7

E. Reading Anxiety

1. Rural Participants

(1) Confidence to overcome: Rural participants (9, 69%) were positive and sounded confident to acknowledge that they do not suffer from anxiety while reading in Sindhi.

Normally, I do not encounter any problems while reading in Sindhi but even if I come across them, I believe I would be able to get through them. After all, I have been reading in this my whole life.

Rural Participant_7

On the other hand, many of my rural participants (7, 54%) talked about getting nervous while reading in English.

Reading in English means giving your time and energies to a stressful activity.

Rural Participant_13

They gave various reasons for their nervousness. They are listed below:

(2) Difficult vocabulary: Poor resources for reading and lack of exposure to English cause the vocabulary of rural participants to be very limited. Many participants (5, 38%) suffered from stress and anxiety while reading in English because of that.

One important thing I share is that I get very stressed when I see text in English. I lose my confidence. The main cause of trouble is the difficult vocabulary. Sometimes I read and I get the main idea, but most of the times, I get the wrong meaning of the difficult words and then the whole passage. Now what to do. I get stressed.

Rural Participant_1

(2) Dictionary addiction: One participant shared that he is so addicted to using a dictionary while reading in English that now if he does not have it he feels nervous.

A dictionary is a source of comfort for me. During regular reading, I carry a dictionary with me. So English is not our mother tongue. And there are a lot of new words, a lot of difficult words. Before school education, we were never exposed to English vocabulary. Sometimes whenever I appear in any test or any situation where I cannot access my dictionary then I feel stressed. I get worried when I can't understand vocabulary or when I cannot get the actual point or subject matter of the text.

Rural Participant_8

(3) A tedious task: Some of the participants expressed how reading in English is a tedious task, a time-consuming job. They have to struggle a lot and for a long time, and therefore they avoid reading in English.

Yes, I do feel stressed, but that does not remain for long. I am always able to convince myself to reread and get the basic idea at least if not the whole passage. But I take a lot of time. And it looks like a time-consuming job so I prefer to avoid.

Rural Participant_11

(4) Comparison with urban counterparts: Some of my participants shared that they feel like giving up on reading in English generally. They feel that they will never be able to get through a text in English as well as their urban counterparts would. They seemed to compare themselves with their urban counterparts time and again.

I feel lost whenever I have to read in the English language. To be able to comprehend properly is the biggest hurdle. While I don't think that my urban friends feel so. They read and make me understand in the next minute. I feel do they have a magic wand or what?

Rural Participant_2

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2. Urban Participants

Most of the urban learners (8, 89%) expressed a carefree attitude towards reading in Sindhi. Rather surprisingly, some of my urban participants expressed some feelings of confusion about reading in Sindhi. Upon asking for explanation, they expressed the main reason.

(1) Outdated vocabulary causing confusion: Some of the urban participants (3, 33%) shared that they sometimes feel confusion while reading in Sindhi, especially when it uses old Sindhi vocabulary.

I sometimes get really upset when I get to read typical Sindhi vocabulary. I do not know what is wrong with the local Sindhi newspapers. They still write in the language of the 100-year-old version. Languages have to adapt and move on to facilitate the language users.

Urban Participant_3

For reading in English, many urban participants (7, 78%) shared that they do not get entirely nervous, though they face some difficulties in the text. They always try to overcome them.

At times, I get to see many ideas which I cannot understand even if I read it and know the vocabulary. But I do not get upset and keep on working until things are clear to me.

Urban Participant_5

V. Discussion

The general differences between rural and urban learners are well accepted in literature (Edington and Koehler (1987); Haller et al. (1993), Fan and Chen, (1999); Khattri et al., (1997), Cartwright and Allen, (2002), Howie et al., (2008), Martínez, Aricak, & Jewell, (2008). This study makes a theoretical contribution by investigating differences between rural and urban learners in terms of reading attitudes. More importantly, another strong contribution lies in bringing forth the inside accounts of the rural and urban learners: their opinions, their stories and the kind of life they live. A vivid and living picture comes through the opinions of both types of participants.

Below are the some of the main reasons, highlighted from the interviews that may explain the differences in the reading attitudes between the two groups:

Reason #1 Educational background differences: Most of the urban learners received education from English-medium schools as compared to the rural participants who received education from Sindhi-medium and government schools. Of course, that may be one of the reasons for their differences in attitudes towards reading in Sindhi and in English.

Reason #2 Differences in reading culture and reading resources: The reading culture in urban areas relatively promotes reading in English, but it is otherwise in the rural areas. The rural learners were not only at times discouraged from engaging in reading activities, but they were handicapped in terms of the non-easy availability of reading resources, particularly in English. Contrary to this, urban learners benefited from easy access to reading resources and stimulating encouragement for engaging in reading in English. This may explain why urban learners have better reading attitudes in English and rural learners vice versa.

Reason #3 Differences in worldview: Urban learners take themselves as a part of the global world and remain connected to it via social networking sites and generally the Web. They use more English than Sindhi there and that may add to their better reading attitudes in English. Meanwhile, rural people remain in touch with local people and use Sindhi for communication. This may also trigger the differences in them for their reading attitudes in Sindhi and in English.

Reason #4 Differences in *self-perception as a reader*: It was not only the quantitative findings but also the interviews confirmed that the urban learners had better *self-perception as readers in English*. They seemed to be less judgmental and critical of themselves as compared to their counterparts. This may be the reason that quantitative findings indicated them as having better self-perception as a reader in Sindhi as well.

Reason #5 Differences in utilitarian motives: Urban learners were more aware of the utilitarian benefits for reading in English than in Sindhi. The rural participants were less aware than their counterparts. A difference was found in the kind of utilitarian motives both the groups held about reading in English. The rural group attached the utilitarian purposes to shifting to cities, or to be able to participate in the civil service examinations. However, the urban group held very different purposes to reading in English, such as gaining a reputation in society and being able to pursue studies abroad.

Reason #6 Differences in personal involvement in reading: With limited reading resources and reading culture in English, it seems plausible that the rural participants harboured personal interests for reading in Sindhi. Interviews also revealed the same. Some of the rural participants even revealed feelings of Sindhism with reading in Sindhi and also expressed liking for reading in Sindhi as this is easy and they feel comfortable while reading in that. On the other hand, the urban learners remain exposed to reading in English and therefore, they feel ease and comfort while reading in English. Due to these all differences, urban learners were found personal involvement in reading in English. And the rural learners had the same for reading in Sindhi.

Reason #7 Differences in lack of reading anxiety: As a consequence of the above differences, urban learners felt a lack of reading anxiety while reading in English; the rural group felt the opposite.

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Owing to the above reasons, differences seem very plausible. These findings may align with what Warsi (2004) said about the standards of teaching and learning of English in Pakistani rural and urban set-ups. Rural Sindh is no exception to what Warsi points out: inadequate infrastructure, poor English language skills and teachers' inexperience of teaching English language, use of the grammar-translation method for teaching and poor assessment of language skills are only some of the drawbacks which are found in rural Sindh as well. Furthermore, the '*White Paper Report on the Educational Policies in Pakistan 2007*' also acknowledges the wide discrepancies, which are creating an educational divide between rural and urban learners and particularly the opportunities to learn are very much limited in the rural set-ups. Moreover, it is also similar to what Cartwright and Allan (2002) found: that the rural and urban communities' best explain the differences in rural and urban reading performance.

VI. Conclusion

This section gives some general implications for policy makers. They may be effective in any research context.

a. Poor reading practices: Educators all over the world have concerns regarding poor reading practices in students. For instance, in the Malaysian context, Kaur and Thiyagarajah (1999) and quite recently Annamalai and Muniandy (2013) have mentioned the lack of interest in students for reading. The present study emphasises the value of policy makers in designing or imparting training programs which sensitize teachers to give importance to a reader's reading attitudes so that students choose more willingly to read.

b. Change in reading classes: Teaching of reading is largely traditionally oriented based on preparing learners for getting better scores in reading tests. Although this approach has its advantages such as; enhancing reading skills of learners, if we aim higher- 'fostering love for reading' (Cramer Castle 1994), or to give desire for reading to students (Morrow 2004)'-we may have to broaden our lens to focus on developing interest of learners in reading as well. For this purpose, a block of time in class may be dedicated for building easy, enjoyable general reading activities. Learners may choose to read material of their own choice. Teachers may use these sessions to talk with students about their attitudes towards reading. Particularly, they can use these opportunities to support struggling readers. Such guided free reading sessions can enhance the reading engagements of learners and help them to be avid readers.

Now, it is useful to give some implications specific for the Pakistani context.

a. Since its inception, Pakistan lags far behind in education than the other countries in the sub continent (Ministry of Education, Pakistan. (2009). Similarly, interviews in the present study highlighted poor reading culture particularly in rural parts. This shows how urgent and important it is to take initiatives to improve reading practices at all levels. In this regard, this study emphasises the importance of policy makers of designing or imparting a national reading program. Training modules may be developed related to extensive/ free/ sustained reading. Teachers may be trained to launch these programmes in their classrooms so as to develop positive reading attitudes in students at all levels. Provinces and district governments should allocate some percent of their budget for updating school/college/universities and general libraries with books, so,that free reading programs can be carried out effectively.

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A Survey Report of Chinese College Students' Perceptions of the College English Course

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***Abstract*—This study examined Chinese college students' perceptions of the college English course. The participants were freshmen and sophomores in a Chinese university. We handed out the original English version questionnaires to 419 students. The results indicated that there were learning problems in students' motivation with respect to empowerment, interest, and success. There were also gender and class standing differences among the participants. Data from exploratory factor analysis (EFA) illustrated that the factors of usefulness, empowerment and interest received the most attention from the participants (n=367). The results indicated that it was necessary to implement the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach in the college English course. Suggestions on how to change the classroom environment were also discussed.**

***Index Terms*—survey report, English as a foreign language, student academic motivation, CLT, higher education**

I. Introduction

A. CLT in the College English Course Syllabus in China

The calling for the communicative language teaching (CLT) approach of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Chinese Higher Education happened at the threshold of the 21st century(Ministry of Education, 2004). The new national syllabus of college English course stated that the goal of the college English course was to improve college students' communicative competence, especially their listening and speaking comprehension. At the same time, the English course should enhance students' competency of self-regulated learning ability and meet the needs of the nation's social development and international exchange. More importantly, the English course should recognize the central position of the students in class, provide them with various activities, increase their interest, and finally help them become genuine self-regulated learners. (Ministry of Education, 2004). As a result, in the national college English test (NCET), the part of vocabulary and structure was cancelled and the percentage of listening increased from 20% to 35% (Zheng & Cheng, 2008). In January 2016, the NCET took a reform in which the former short dialogue and conversation were removed and three pieces of radio news and three excerpted lectures were added to the tests. The content of the revised listening section was the same type and level as those in TOEFL ("the reform of listening section in CET," January 1st, 2016). These changes both in the national syllabus and the NCET demonstrated that the present goal of the college English course was to improve students' communicative competence.

B. The Background of CLT

The increased demand for language learning in the 1960s for European Common Market and the new trends of applied linguistics contributed to the appearance and development of CLT (Savignon, 2000; 2005).When the European Common Market came into being in the late 1950s, more and more people from different countries need to learn another language for communication (Savignon, 2000). At this moment, the language learners realized that the traditional grammar-translation approach was not useful, because it emphasized the structure/form of the language rather than how to use it appropriately in the context of communication (Richards and Rogers, 2001). Further, what the adult learners needed most was the immediate payoff of the language teaching, so a new approach about how to meet the language learners' needs and how to motivate them became the urgent issue for language instruction (Mitchell, 1994).

At the same time, a new trend of modern applied linguistics, notional and functional linguistics, appeared in Europe and North American (Savignon, 2000), which was the theoretical foundation of CLT. American linguist and anthropologist Hymes put forward the concept of communicative competence (Hymes, 1966), as a reaction to Chomsky's concept of linguistic competence (Savignon, 2000, 2005). Similarly, Candlin and Widdowson (Richards and

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Rogers, 2001) held that mastery of language form/ structure cannot meet students' functional goal, and that a new method, different from grammar-translation approach, was needed to improve students' communicative and functional competence. Halliday (1978) argued that the function of language was its potential and the central issue should be how to understand language in the context of situation and how they serve for communication (Savignon, 2005). In summary, communicative competence was the focus of modern systemic functional applied linguistics and the new direction of language instruction.

II. Literature Review

A. The Definition and Features of CLT

The concept of communicative competence can be traced back to Hymes in the 1960s (Savignon, 2005). Hymes (1966) emphasized that the communicative competence is more important than the mastery of linguistics or grammar/form. In other words, how to use the language to interact with people verbal or in writing is more important than the grasp of its structure (Fotos, 2005; Savignon, 1991, 1997, 2005). Similarly, Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2013) argued that communicative competence means to know when and how to say what to whom. Given the focus of reading and writing in grammar-translation approach (Ham and Schueller, 2012), CLT paid attention to both the grammar aspect of reading and writing and communicative competence in speaking and listening (Savignon, 2000). Therefore, in order to increase language learners' communicative competence, "the essence of CLT is the engagement of learners in communication to allow them to develop their communicative competence" (Savignon, 2005, p. 635). In other words, CLT is an approach that meets learners' needs by designing various activities in order to motivate them to engage in the learning process.

Based on the development of CLT in the 1970s in Europe and in the 1980s in North America (Ham & Schueller, 2012; Savignon, 2005), and its essence of engagement, CLT approach usually encompasses the following features: 1) the learner's autonomy or choice; 2) the learner's needs in the specified context; 3) the process of communication; 4) the learners' participation in activities such as role-play, games, tasks, pair work or group work; and 5) a friendly classroom environment for students' independence and teachers' role of facilitator (Fotos, 2005; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Savignon, 2000, 2005). Therefore, the features of CLT focus on language learners' motivation, such as autonomy, learners' needs, and relatedness, and their engagement in the learning process. As a result, language learners' academic motivation and engagement play an important role in the implementation of CLT in class.

B. The Grammar-translation Approach

Given the big gap between traditional grammar-translation method and CLT, it is necessary to group the differences of the two methods into four points: 1) knowing and accuracy versus doing and fluency; 2) passive rote memorization versus active learning; 3) reading and writing versus listening and speaking; 4) sage at the stage versus facilitator in class.

1. Knowing the language and its accuracy

The traditional grammar-translation language teaching method can be traced back to ancient Greek and Roman times (Ham & Schueller, 2012). In this approach, a teacher is the center in class lecturing the linguistic forms, grammar rules, and written translations of the classic texts, and students are passive listeners who memorize the vocabulary and grammar and seek correct answers to any language exercise items (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). In grammar-translation method, teachers use native language for instruction and speaking and listening second/foreign does not included in the instruction (Kim, 2008). As a result, there is no communication or interaction in target language in the lecture class.

2. Passive rote memorization

In the traditional grammar-translation teaching, students are taught the grammar systematically guided by fixed syllabus and prescribed textbooks (Fotos, 2005; Littlewood, 2007). Teacher explain the grammar, provide students with pattern drills for practice, and then ask them to apply them in their reading and writing (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). Passive rote memorization is typical in the grammar-translation class. As a result, students can be easily bored without any enjoyment in the learning process. Further, the function of communication for language learning does not appear in class (Zhou & Niu, 2015).

3. The focus of reading and writing

In the grammar-translation teaching approach, the focus of teaching is reading and writing. All students share the same prescribed textbooks, follow the same steps set up by teachers, and focus on the analysis of the sentence-level of the texts (Fotos, 2005; Harmer, 1991). So in such class, listening and speaking are neglected and pair work or group work seldom happen. In some degree, students' English are "dumb" English because they cannot speak in English (Zhou & Niu, 2015).

4. Sage at the stage

In the traditional lecture class, teachers are regarded as sages at the stage. They are respected as the sole sources of knowledge and the authority in the classroom (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2013). Teachers are the sole judge of students' performance in class and students seldom challenge teachers by asking questions (Fotos, 2005).

From the above review of the literature in language teaching approaches, we can see that the traditional

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grammar-translation approach pays attention to the form of language, the accuracy of the grammar, the learner's reading and writing competence, and the authoritative position of teacher. In contrast, CLT focuses on the use of the language, the communicative competence, the learners' active interactions with peers and teachers in the target language. Thus, the "dumb" target language learned from the grammar-translation approach becomes the useful tool for communication learned from the CLT class. In sum, the essence of CLT is students' engagement in the learning process and the challenge of CLT for teachers is how to motivate their students to engage in such learning process.

C. The Gap of the Current Research

The research in CLT in the college English course in China was very young since the calling for CLT in the national college English syllabus (Shu & Hua, 2009). Most of them examined the effectiveness of CLT from different perspectives such as group work activities, task-based learning, or cooperative learning strategies (Deng and Zheng, 2008; Rao, 2002; Shi, 2010; Tian, 2007; Zhang and Head, 2010). However, little is known about student academic motivation and their engagement in their college English course. Given the essence of CLT and its features, we plan to conduct research to examine Chinese college students' perceptions of their college English course, in order to identify their learning problems related to academic motivation and engagement. Such research will serve as a foundation for the future research in the implementation of CLT in the college English class.

D. Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to answer the question: How do Chinese college students perceive their English course? The specific research questions for this study were:

1. What are the overall perceptions of the College English course among freshmen and sophomores in a Chinese university?
2. How do the college students perceive the College English course based on gender and class standing?
3. What are the latent factors in the questionnaire that receive the most attention from the participants?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were freshmen and sophomores enrolled in a College English course at a university in central China. Of the 419 students, 382 participated (91% response rate). One hundred and twenty nine (35.1%) were freshmen, and 238 (64.9%) were sophomores. One hundred and eighty six (50.7%) were female students and 181(49.3%) were male students. The majority of the participants were Han nationality (n=358, 97.5%), and seven (1.9%) were minority nationality. One (0.3%) reported that he was an international student, and one (0.3%) reported he did not belong to the above three groups.

B. Materials

We used the college version MUSIC Model of academic motivation inventory (Jones & Skaggs, 2016) as the instrument to test Chinese college students' course perceptions. There are five major components in the MUSIC model, empowerment, usefulness, success, interest, and caring. The components of empowerment and usefulness consist of five items; the components of success include four items; and the interest and caring components consist of six items respectively. In order to identify more information about students' perceptions and involvement in the college English course, we added effort (four items) and self-regulation (eight items) to the questionnaire. We rated the five components in the MUSIC Model (empowerment, usefulness, success, interest, and caring) and the component of effort on a 6-point Likert-format scale. We rated the component of self-regulation on a 5-point Likert-format scale. The items in each instrument were averaged to create a mean score for each instrument. The average internal consistency reliability of the 28 items was .898 (n=367). An example item from each variable is presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1
EXAMPLE ITEMS OF THE MUSIC MODEL COMPONENTS, EFFORT AND SELF-REGULATION.

Variable	Example
Empowerment	I have opportunity to decide for myself how to meet the course goals.
Usefulness	In general, the coursework is useful to me.
Success	I am confident that I can succeed in the coursework.
Interest	I enjoy completing the coursework.
Caring	The instructor is willing to assist me if I needed help in the course.
Effort	I put a lot of effort into this course.
Self-regulation	I try to monitor my progress when I study.

Note: The first six variables are rated on a 6-point Likert-format scale. 1= strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= somewhat disagree, 4= somewhat agree, 5= agree, 6= strongly agree. Self-regulation is rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale. 1=almost never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= almost always.

C. Procedure

The research was approved by the Institutional Review Board at a public university on the east coast of the United

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States. We handed out an invitation letter to the college English teachers in a Chinese university. One of them agreed to collect the data for this survey. This teacher got help from the students' tutors for the survey. Before the participant students decided to fill in the questionnaire, their tutors emphasized that they were voluntary to this survey. If they did not want to answer the questionnaire, they could leave or just sit at their seats while the others answered the questionnaire. The teacher and the tutors cooperated together and gave the participants 20 minutes to complete the questionnaire. Then they collected the response survey. After they collected all the response survey, they put all the data into the SPSS system, and then sent the data to the researchers in the United States.

We checked the quality of the data before we analyzed them. First, we checked the input data in order to identify if there were some extreme or error values. In this process, we deleted 15 (3.93%) pieces of the survey. Therefore, we kept 367 responses. Second, we conducted the homogeneity test for correlation and tested the communalities about the factor loading from the component matrix among the items in the questionnaire. The results indicated that there were 12 items whose value of correlation was below 0.20. They included two items of empowerment, four items of caring, five items of self-regulation, and one item of teacher evaluation. Therefore, we finally kept 28 of the original 44 items as the data base for our analysis.

IV. Results

A. Question 1: What Are the Overall Perceptions of the College English Course among Freshmen and Sophomores at a Chinese Universities?

TABLE 2
MEAN VALUES OF THE MUSIC MODEL COMPONENTS AND EFFORT.

Variable	Empowerment	Usefulness	Success	Interest	Caring	Effort
N	367	367	367	367	367	367
Mean Value(SD)	3.97 (0.85)	4.78(0.84)	3.93(0.93)	3.92(0.79)	4.85(0.94)	4.19(0.90)

Note. All items in the MUSIC model and effort are rated on a 6-point Likert-format scale. N stands for the total number of the participants.

First, we identified the components with the higher mean value. Table 2 indicated that the component caring had the highest mean value (M = 4.85). It revealed that students' perceptions of the teacher's caring toward them were between "agree" and "strongly agree". Further, the instructor showed respect toward their students and there was a harmonious relationship between instructor and students. The component with the second highest mean value was usefulness. The value (M = 4.78) demonstrated that students' perceptions of usefulness were nearly "agree". In other words, students realized that the College English course was very useful.

Second, we examined the components with the lower mean values. Further, Table 2 indicated that the components with lower mean values were interest, success and empowerment. The component with the lowest mean value was interest (M = 3.92). The value signified that students' perception of interest in the course was far from "agree", and the data showed that most of them did not have strong interest in the English course. The component with the second lowest mean value was success (M = 3.93). The value signified that most of the students did not have a sense of success in the course. The component with the third lowest mean value was empowerment (M = 3.97), the value indicated that students did not think they have enough freedom to make choice and decision in their coursework.

In addition, we could also identify the components with a relatively higher and lower value from the percentages of the participants from Table 4. The components of caring and usefulness had higher mean values. For the component of caring, 87.6% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that 'the instructor is available to answer my questions about the coursework.' For the component usefulness, 71.7% of the participants agreed that 'in general, the coursework is useful to me.' Success, interest, and empowerment were the three components with the lower mean values. For the component success, 34.6% of the participants agreed or strongly agreed that "I feel that I can be successful in meeting the academic challenges in this course.' For the component of interest, 39.8% of the participants agreed that 'the coursework holds my attention.' For the component empowerment, 37.3% of the participants agreed that 'I have the opportunity to decide for myself how to meet the course goals.' In sum, most of them agreed that the instructor was respectful toward them and they had a harmonious relationship with the instructor. They also realized the course was very useful. However, most of them felt that the coursework and the instructional methods cannot hold their attention, and most of them had no sense of success in this course and they had little sense of control over the coursework.

TABLE 3.
MEAN VALUE OF THE THREE SELF-REGULATION COMPONENTS.

Variable	SR3	SR7	SR8	Total
Mean Value(SD)	2.84(0.938)	3.41(0.919)	3.31(0.966)	3.18(0.705)

Note. SR stands for self-regulation. The value of SR is rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale.
1=almost never, 2= seldom, 3= sometimes, 4= often, 5= almost always.

From data analysis in Table 2, 3, and 4, we concluded that in the College English course, more than 80% of the participants felt that the instructors were respectful of them, and that there was a friendly environment in class. At the same time, most of them (74%) recognized that the College English course was very useful. However, most of them were less motivated with respect to empowerment, interest, and success. Therefore, it appears that there is a sense of

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contradiction and frustration in their course perceptions: English is important and useful for their life and future, but they have no strong interest or sense of success in the course. They do not have a sense of control over the coursework, either. Only 31.3% of the participants reported that they put a lot of effort in this course. Half of them did not have self-regulated strategies in their coursework. Each and every Chinese college student is required to take a two year mandatory College English course, and each week they have three sections (a total of six hours) throughout the semester. Consequently, it is worthwhile for instructors to find ways to solve these problems.

TABLE 4.
THE FREQUENCY OF THE EXTENT TO WHICH THE STUDENTS PERCEIVE THE COURSEWORK

Item	1strongly disagree	2 disagree	3somewhat disagree	4somewhat agree	5 agree	6strongly agree
eMpowerment 1	14 (3.8%)	35(9.5%)	73(19.9%)	108(29.4%)	108(29.4%)	29(7.9%)
Usefulness 1	2(0.5%)	11(3.0%)	22(6.0%)	69(18.8%)	153(41.7%)	110(30%)
Success 1	15(4.1%)	34(9.3%)	40(10.9%)	106(28.9%)	121(33%)	51(13.9%)
Interest 1	13(3.5%)	27(7.4%)	56(15.3%)	125(34.1%)	123(33.5%)	23(6.3%)
Caring 1	8(2.2%)	11(3.0%)	12(3.3%)	36(9.8%)	133(36.2%)	167(45.5%)
Effort 1	9(2.5%)	51(13.9%)	60(16.3%)	132(36%)	80(21.8%)	935(9.5%)
	1Almost never	2 seldom	3 sometimes	4 often	5almost always	
SR1	24(6.5%)	109(29.7%)	146(39.8%)	77(21%)	10(2.7%)	

B. Question 2: How Do the College Students Perceive the College English Course Based on Gender and Class Standing?

Regarding the different course perceptions based on gender, we conducted an ANOVA analysis using the seven variables in the survey. The results showed that there was significant difference in the components of success and self-regulation between male and female students. $F(1, 366) = 9.219$ ($p<0.05$), $F(1, 366) = 7.532$ ($p<0.05$). The female students had more sense of success than male students. The female students had more sense of confidence in themselves being as self-regulated learners than the male students (See Table 5).

TABLE 5
ANOVA TABLE OF THE FIVE COMPONENTS IN THE MUSIC MODEL, EFFORT, AND SELF-REGULATION BETWEEN GENDERS.

Variable	df	F	P
Empowerment	1,366	2.192	0.14
Useful	1,366	2.561	0.11
Success	1,366	9.219	**0.003**
Interest	1,366	1.605	0.206
Caring	1,366	1.877	0.171
Effort	1,366	2.593	0.108
Self-regulation	1,366	7.532	**0.006**

Note. Values in bold are statistically significant at an alpha value of 0.05.

Among the seven variables in the response questionnaire, there were statistically significant differences in the components of interest, empowerment, and usefulness between freshmen and sophomores. The freshmen had more positive course perceptions than that of the sophomores ($F(1, 366) = 19.006$ ($p<0.05$), $F(1, 366) = 6.698$ ($p<0.05$), $F(1, 366) = 23.385$ ($p<0.05$)). In other words, the freshmen had more interest in the English course than the sophomores; the freshmen perceived more sense of control over their course than the sophomores; the freshmen also felt that the English course was more useful than the sophomores. Why did we find that the sophomores were less motivated than the freshmen in English coursework? The more time they spent on the English course, the less sense of interest and empowerment they had in the course. These different course perceptions between freshmen and sophomores indicated the importance of the problems occurring in this course (See Table 6).

TABLE 6
ANOVA TABLE OF THE FIVE COMPONENTS IN THE MUSIC MODEL, EFFORT, AND SELF-REGULATION BETWEEN CLASS STANDINGS.

Variable	df	F	P
Empowerment	1,366	19.006	**<0.001**
Useful	1,366	6.698	**0.010**
Success	1,366	0.298	0.585
Interest	1,366	23.385	**<0.001**
Caring	1,366	3.171	0.076
Effort	1,366	0.494	0.483
Self-regulation	1,366	0.104	0.747

Note. Values in bold were statistically significant at an alpha value of 0.05.

C. Question 3: What Are the Latent Factors in the Questionnaire That Received the Most Attention from the Participants?

We wanted to know further which aspects the students paid the most attention to in regards to their courses. Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) was a proper choice for such research (Field, 2009; Matsunaga, 2010; Widaman, 1993). Before we conducted EFA analysis, we deleted some items for the lower correlation value between the item and

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the commonality (below 0.20). We kept 28 items for our analysis. Cronbach's alpha on all the 28 items combined was 0.889. To verify the sampling adequacy of the data, we used the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Normalization statistic and generated a KMO of 0.871, which was classified as "great" (Hutcheson and Sofroniou, 1999, p. 224). So, we were confident that factor analysis was appropriate. Bartlett's test of sphericity generated x2(378) = 3433.879 with an alpha < 0.001, which indicated that a correlation between the 28 items was strong enough for conducting an exploratory factor analysis.

TABLE 7
KMO AND BARTLETT'S TEST

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.871
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3433.879
	df	378
	Sig.	0.000

TABLE 8
TOTAL VARIANCE EXPLAINED

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.150	25.536	25.536	7.150	25.536	25.536	3.975	14.195	14.195
2	2.798	9.992	35.528	2.798	9.992	35.528	3.279	11.709	25.905
3	1.700	6.070	41.598	1.700	6.070	41.598	2.327	8.312	34.217
4	1.569	5.604	47.203	1.569	5.604	47.203	2.243	8.010	42.227
5	1.284	4.584	51.787	1.284	4.584	51.787	2.063	7.369	49.596
6	1.059	3.782	55.569	1.059	3.782	55.569	1.672	5.973	55.569
7	.989	3.530	59.099						
8	.937	3.348	62.447						
9	.850	3.034	65.481						
10	.739	2.639	68.120						
11	.714	2.550	70.670						
12	.704	2.514	73.184						
13	.667	2.383	75.566						
14	.655	2.340	77.906						
15	.634	2.265	80.171						
16	.601	2.146	82.317						
17	.562	2.008	84.325						
18	.521	1.860	86.184						
19	.494	1.764	87.948						
20	.473	1.689	89.637						
21	.449	1.603	91.240						
22	.437	1.562	92.802						
23	.396	1.413	94.216						
24	.376	1.341	95.557						
25	.353	1.262	96.819						
26	.321	1.146	97.965						
27	.308	1.098	99.064						
28	.262	.936	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

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TABLE 9.
ROTATED COMPONENT MATRIXA

	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Q18	.727	.168	-.016	.097	-.107	.091
Q17	.726	-.042	.066	-.046	-.004	-.046
Q3	.673	.019	.236	-.017	.104	.192
Q23	.645	.199	-.007	.198	.200	.004
Q16	.624	.110	.163	.185	.070	.107
Q15	.602	.117	.217	.116	-.105	.206
Q2	.594	-.049	.185	.134	.341	-.087
Q19	.554	.354	.212	.050	-.267	-.137
Q10	.003	.704	.139	.244	.168	.013
Q13	.076	.681	.074	.014	.205	.152
Q12	.045	.677	.195	.053	.012	.241
Q14	.143	.621	.088	.202	.312	.146
Q9	.152	.598	.145	-.060	.193	.041
Q20	.321	.467	.060	.098	-.056	.129
Q4	.040	.221	.768	.137	.074	.054
Q6	.205	.109	.710	-.020	.262	.007
Q1	.309	.069	.512	.013	.135	.050
Q25	.134	.152	.510	.277	-.121	.280
Q8	.427	.243	.480	.004	.053	-.119
Q24	.027	.143	.093	.826	.080	-.004
Q21	.153	.217	.183	.746	.178	.139
Q22	.294	-.006	-.031	.731	.107	.179
Q5	.033	.130	.169	.018	.782	.022
Q7	.089	.228	.122	.164	.664	.142
Q11	-.055	.355	.028	.233	.560	.080
Q27	.046	.117	.215	.034	.120	.722
Q28	.107	.272	-.174	.169	.199	.679
Q26	.097	.421	.086	.162	-.097	.515

The MUSIC Model was well normed in the United States, and the items in the model had known and expected correlations. For this reason, we selected an oblique rotation to extract and examine the strongest EV variables into factor groupings or loadings (Field, 2009; Kline, 2011; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

From the EFA, we found that there were six latent factors that received students' most attention in the response survey. We planned to analyze the top three factors as the most latent factors. The first latent factor (see Table 9.) identified in the factor analysis was comprised of eight items in the MUSIC Model survey. These items represented the college students' perceptions of usefulness of the course with an alpha coefficient of 0.833. The second strongest factor was comprised of five items indicating the college students' perceptions of empowerment within the course. The alpha coefficient was 0.738. The third component was from five items in the MUSIC Model, which represented the college students' perceptions of interest in the English course. It had an alpha coefficient of 0.714. Overall, the factor that obtained the participants' most attention was the usefulness of the English course. It was closely followed by the factor of empowerment. The third was the factor of interest. Integrated with the results of Question 1, the results from the factor analysis indicated that college students realized the English course was very useful for their life and future. However, they could not perceive a sense of autonomy or control over the coursework. As a result, they did not have a strong interest in the English course. Therefore, the instructors must take actions to redesign their instructional methods in order to motivate students. These results were consistent with the results in Question 1, indicating the urgency of instructional change in the English course.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Overall, the data analysis from the survey indicated that the main problems in Chinese college EFL course were closely related to student academic motivation. This was consistent with the big differences between grammar-translation approach and CLT (Fotos, 2005; Sato & Kleinsasser, 1999; Savignon, 2005). Second, students' perceptions of the college English course had a close relationship with their efforts and self-regulated strategies. This was consistent with the essence of CLT (Savignon, 2005). The data suggests that the lower mean value of self-regulated items may result from the passive role of students in the traditional lecture class (Richards & Rogers, 2001; Savignon, 2005). Taken together, the mean value of all components of the MUSIC model and the items with lower mean value revealed that Chinese college students need the new CLT approach in order to meet their needs in communicative competence (Ministry of Education, 2004). The lowest mean value of self-regulation demonstrated that the big challenge for Chinese college EFL teachers would be how to increase student engagement when they tried to use the CLT approach in their class (Savignon, 2005).

In the literature review part, we knew that motivation played a crucial role in the learning process. If students just wanted to pass the English exams instead of enjoy the learning processes, how could they be truly engaged in their English learning? As for students' engagement in English learning, we would like to cite Sivan's (1986) views on the

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internalized motivation for teaching and learning. Sivan held that it was clear that instruction and motivation share a common goal: to develop an internalized capacity for activity. Only when teachers and students see themselves invested in the outcomes or goals and as able achievers of the goals, can they become independent proactive individuals in teaching and learning. In other words, teachers and students develop a common understanding about motivations and the pay-off of the activities, and then they will desire the same outcomes (Sivan, 1986). How to maximize both student and teacher motivation in the learning process will be a topic for future research.

VI. Limitations

We must interpret the findings of this study with the context of the limitations. First, we took the sample from one university in China. We cannot generalize the results to all Chinese universities. Second, the sample size was 367 students, and this number was sufficient for the current study. But if we had included more students in the sample, we would have made more comparisons between the sub-groups in regards to class standings, programs, and demographics. Third, all the data analysis was based on the response questionnaires. Fourth, in the questionnaire, the components in the MUSIC model and the component of effort were rated on a 6-point Likert-format scale, while the component of self-regulation was rated on a 5-point Likert-format scale. This difference decreased the quality of the results. Fifth, there were no open-ended questions in the questionnaire. Sixth, during the study, we did not conduct interviews with the students. We did not observe the teaching practice. Therefore, the results of the data analysis would have been more forceful if we had conducted the triangulation (questionnaire, interview, and observation) in future research. Seventh, we used the original English version of the MUSIC model questionnaire to examine students' course perceptions of the English course. Given the monolingual language environment on campus and in daily life in China, there might be some gap between the two languages. That was why we deleted some items due to the lower value of commonality. We had better provide an approved Chinese version of the MUSIC Model questionnaire in order to help Chinese students understand the meaning of each item fully. In doing so, we will increase the trustworthiness of the results.

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On Relationship between Factors and the Use of Reading Strategies

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***Abstract*—This paper presents the course of study, including three research questions; subjects; instrument and procedure, by which analyzes the relationship between factors such as age, sex, motivation. The older and the younger should be differentiating strategy instruction. Boy students are more likely to translate into Chinese to but girl students prefer to analyze the grammatical structures. Motivation does have important influence on students' use of reading strategies.**

***Index Terms*—relationship, factors, reading strategies**

I. The Research Question

The research questions in present study concern the relationship between the students' reading strategies and their reading comprehension in study English as a second language. The specific reading comprehension strategies used by the students will be investigated. More special aims of this experiment are to deal with at least three following key questions:

(1) What is the relationship between age and the use of reading strategy?

(2) Are there any differences in using reading strategy by different gender?

(3) What is the relationship between motivation and the use of reading strategy?

The main concern of the study is English majors and adult students majoring in English. Although a number of studies have been conducted in China to investigate the learning strategies of the learners who are learning English as a second language, most of them focus on students who major in English as normal ones. The limitations are evident in these researches, for instance, some only focus on normal students. The present study gets it subjects from one institute in Nan Chang City. In addition, this research is conducted in an attempt to provide useful and practical information for teachers and learners, especially for those who study in adult institute. That is to say, the conclusion of the study may be helpful to language teaching as well as learners.

II. Subject

Although 120 students take part in the questionnaire, 106 of them provide with valid ones, so we choose them as our subjects. They are second-year English majors in the Jiangxi Educational Institute, whose ages are about 19 to 35, among which are 24 boy students and 82 girl students.

The participants are selected for two reasons: Firstly, all of them have intensive and extensive reading course during their studies. It is fair to say that most of them have constructed their own learning strategies including reading comprehension strategies. Certainly, they all come from Jiangxi Province, therefore, they have roughly similar cultural and educative background. Secondly, we know it is evident that the term-end exam is often not the most accurate measure of a student's proficiency of a language while we take the CET and TEM score as a yardstick, whose values of validity reliability and discrimination are high and which are the true reflection of students' achievement. So we take them as data pool. Most subjects have been learning English for about seven and a half years. Normal students have six years of English learning in middle school, and one and a half years at institute. Adult students have three years of English learning in junior middle school, three years in normal school, and one and a half years in university.

With the help of their teachers, 106 students from two classes are willing to participate in the investigation. According to my observation, most subjects of the study are serious and cooperative in finishing the questionnaire. They are all highly motivated students in studying English. So almost all of them show great interest in the study of English and are eager to learn it well.

III. Instrument

There are so many kinds of instrument---verbal reporting, think –aloud, interview, they have their own advantages and of course have shortcomings. Verbal reporting is adopted on the condition that subjects have experienced in this protocol; more example, think-aloud tasks fail to verbalize important information without training; interview can be costly time-consuming and difficult to administer and there is likely for the interviewee to respond in a certain way to please the interviewer which shows their subjectivity and personal bias. This study is designed to undergo quantitative

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analysis so that a questionnaire is suitable for these reasons.

A questionnaire Strategy Inventory for Reading is designed by author herself combined with the observation and experience of the investigator on the basis of Anita (2001) SILL---Strategy Inventory for Language Learning (Version 7) contains two parts: background and statements. The subjects are demanded to fulfill their background information such as age, sex, test scores of CET or TEM. The second part consists of a simple statement that is stated in the first person, including 36 statements, each of which uses five-point scale ranging from 1 (I never or almost never do this) to 5 (I always or almost always do this) (2 indicting rarely; 3 indicting neutral and 4 indicting sometimes). The second questionnaire includes 12 statements that are divided into two groups: instrumental motivation (from1-6) and integrative motivation (from7-12). Subjects are asked to read each statement and write down the number that applies to them, indicting the frequency with which they use the reading strategies implied in the statement. The higher the number, the more frequent the use of the strategies concerned, (excluding strategy 11, 12, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 24, 32, 33. These statements are opposite to the rest for they are perceived as effective strategies which were designed from the reverse side on purpose to test the reliability of the participants' response). A brief description of each category and the number of items within each category are given below:

Metacognitive reading strategies: 12 statements are those intentionally, carefully planned techniques by which students monitor, manage or evaluate their reading, such strategies include having a purpose in mind, previewing the text so as to its length and organization. (Strategies 1,2,3,4,5,7,8,9,13,22,30,32)

Cognitive reading strategies: 22 statements are the actions and procedures students use while working directly with the text, when problems develop in understanding textual information they are used. Examples of cognitive strategies include adjusting one's speed of reading when the material becomes difficult or easy, guessing the meaning of unknown words, and re-reading the material for improving comprehension. (Strategies 6, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 31, 33, 34)

Social\affective reading strategies: 2 statements (Strategies 35, 36) focus on the question and clarification by asking for help from teachers or peers and controlling emotional reaction to reading behavior.

Metacognitive strategies	
1 Formulate some questions before reading the text	Advance organizers
2 Guess the following content	Advance organizers
3 Read immediately without second thought	Advance organizers
4 Recognize failure\success to understand a portion of the text	Self-evaluation
5 Comfirm\disconfirm an understanding after reading	Self-evaluation
7 Try to concentrate on the reading	Directed attention
8 Distinguish main points from details	Directed attention
9 Adjust reading rate in order to increase comprehension	Self-management
13 Skip unknown words	Selective attention
22 Skip to find the needed vocabulary or phrase	Selective attention
30 Read ahead for further clues	Advance organizers
32 Abandon unknown meaning	Selective attention
Cognitive strategies	
6 Think about the significance and truthfulness	Organizing
10 Refer to lexical items that impede comprehension	Elaboration
11 At a loss at difficult text	Directed physical
12 Response negatively to uninteresting articles	Directed physical
14 Skip to find out the summary	Organizing
15 Imagine the mentioned content	Imagining
16 Read not word by word but according to thought-groups	Inferencing
17 Want to look up dictionary meeting unknown words	Resourcing
18 Round the sentences mentally	Repetition
19 Analyze the constructure of sentence	Analyzing
20 Pay attention to the details	Grouping
21 Read one word by one word	Auditory representation
23 Guess words meaning by its root	Inferencing
24 Translate the words or sentences into Chinese	Translation
25 Understand the text by paraphrase	Inferencing
26 Extrapolate from information presented in the text	Inferencing
27 Reread when disunderstanding the article	Auditory representation
28 Use contextual clues to interpret a word or phrase	Inferencing
29 Response to the genre and organization of the text	Organizing
31 Use background knowledge to help to understand	Transferring
33 Analyze the grammatical structures to help comprehension	Analyzing
34 Use signal words to help understand	Inferencing

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Social affective strategies	
35 Communicate with teachers improving comprehension	Question for Clarification
36 Discuss with peers to improve comprehension	Cooperation

IV. Procedure

A questionnaire survey is conducted to collect data on the students' reading strategies. The questionnaire is distributed at the beginning of individual class period with the help of the classroom instructor. Most of the subjects are serious with the questionnaire completed. Before we deliver the questionnaire items, we explain the nature of the study to the subjects and tell them some basic knowledge about reading and reading strategies. We have translated the questionnaire into Chinese in order to avoid the ambiguity in understanding and also explain some of items that we think to be difficult to understand. Subjects are advised again that there is no right or any answers on the questionnaire and the responses will not affect anything and are reminded that questionnaire doesn't measured their belief, that is to say, what they think about learning English, but do measure their strategies, that is to say, how they actually go about learning English. It takes the subjects about ten minutes to finish the questionnaire on the average. During their working on the questionnaire, some subjects don't quite understand one or two statements, so they have been helped by the teacher. On the whole, there was no big problem of understanding.

After the questionnaires were collected, each of them was examined individually, and 14 of them were discarded because some reasons. Then came the data-processing stage. The data from 106 usable questionnaires were coded into computer for statistical analysis to answer the research questions indicted above. The raw data were processed by means of Cohen's (2000) the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS Software for MS Window Release10.0) to analyze and describe the status of effective and ineffective students in using reading strategies and whether significant differences existed between two groups of subjects. Based on the result of the experiment, some issues were discussed, which interested us and we finally came to our conclusions.

V. Relation between Factor and the Use of Reading Strategies

A. Age

In order to find out whether there is any significant relationship between age and reading strategies, the author carries on an analysis of variance comparing the younger adult students with the older adult students. There are 54 younger students with an average age of 21.37 and the remaining 52 older students with an average age of 28.13.

The differences between the younger group and the older group are to be revealed in the following aspect: the frequency of reading strategy use. To find out the differences between the younger and the older in the frequency of reading strategy use is conducted according to the performance in the questionnaire. The mean scores of every category of reading strategies are also calculated and compared between two groups. As to the older, frequency has shown that they use all three subcategories of strategies. The mean score attains by an average older adult in every metacognitive strategy is 3.5826, every cognitive strategy 3.6783 and every social/affective strategy 2.1697. Though the data are not extremely high, they are still high enough to indicate that the older use all three strategies often. Through a comparison, the mean scores of the younger are 3.5181, 3.6792 and 2.1438, the gap between the younger and the older is 0.0645, 0.089 and 0.0259. The results suggest that the younger and the older use reading strategies frequently as each other.

Although the difference between the younger and the older is not significant in the total use of reading strategies, the results show that there is a strong tendency indicating that the older use reading strategies more frequently. The score of the older is higher than the younger in S1, S3, S13, S22, S35, S36, while the score of the younger is higher than the older in S10, S16, S25, S31.

Now there are many adult students studying ESL course. One of the most important characteristics about adult students is that they differ greatly from each other in age. Since age influences reading strategy use, it is very important to find out the differences between the younger and the older in reading strategy use.

It's generally believed that the younger are better language learners than the older are, thus many scholars suggest that the younger are also better in reading strategy use than the older are. However, statistical comparisons from several aspects reveal that the older are not worse than the younger in reading strategy use. The older use reading strategies a bit more frequently than the younger do, although their superiority in the frequency of reading strategies slight.

The superiority of the older in matecognitive and social/affective reading strategies strongly indicates the influence of age. The older have been away from school for many years than the younger, Therefore their memory about English and their ability to handle individual reading tasks are not as sharp as the younger. To compensate their inferiority in these aspects, the older tend to depend on reading strategies to develop their reading ability. According to my personal experience, the older are much more attentive than the younger with reading strategy instruction are, and they are more active to apply the reading strategies to practice. Moreover, the older have cultivated from their richer life and working experiences, the ability of self-managing, organizing and self-evaluating that happen to be the fundamental characteristics of metacognitive reading strategies. As we have known, metacongitive reading strategies are executive skills that may entail self-managing, organizing or self-evaluating the success of reading activity. It can be inferred that the older have transferred these abilities to read. Just like in a work, they make organization for the whole process of

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reading: and they also evaluate their reading as often as they can. Similarly, the success of the older in use of social/affective reading strategies is also due to the influence of age. The older have experienced so much in their life that very few things in the world can frustrate them or make them nervous. When faced with difficulties in reading tasks, they are able to control their affective response very well and seek help from classmates and teachers.

In contrast, the younger have not been away from school for many years, their memory about English is still fresh, and their ability to handle individual reading tasks is still sharp. It happens that cognitive reading strategies are more directly related to individual reading tasks, therefore the younger always depend on cognitive reading strategies, which are seen to bring them with direct and immediate results. On the other hand, the younger are not good at metacognitive reading strategies. They are not as experienced as the older in self-management, organizing and self-evaluating reading strategies, because they are higher executive skills and actions going beyond purely cognitive devices. Moreover, the younger are not as experienced as the older in interacting with the other people or controlling their emotions, therefore they are also not very good at social/affective reading strategies.

A comparison between frequency in reading strategy use indicates that the older often seek help from metacognitive and social/affective reading strategies while the younger mainly depend on cognitive reading strategies. It gives us an implication that the older and the younger should be differentiating strategy instruction.

B. Sex

For some reasons, there were 24 boy students and 82 girl students participating in the experiment. One reason, as we know, is the fact that girl students greatly outnumber boy students in the English department of any university. Another possibility is that boy students were comparatively careless in finishing the questionnaire. There is a wide spread stereotype in language learning, that girl students often do better than boy students. In the experiment, test was performed to see whether boy students different from girl students in strategies use

Although the difference between boy students and girl students is not significant in the total use of strategies, we can see that girl students use reading strategies more frequently than boy students. Girl students' scoring higher in difference is found in the following strategies: strategy3, 5, 12, 13, 19, 24, 27. And compared with boy students, they more frequently skip unknown words and skim the passage for general idea. It's rather surprising to find that boy students, instead of girl students, have a tendency to translate the words or sentences into Chinese in their reading. Girl students also are more likely to reread the text. Boy students only score higher in strategy 12 and strategy 19 among the above strategies. This means that boy students, comparatively speaking, are more able to monitor their effective response to uninteresting texts than girl students. The significant difference in strategy----indicates that girl students are apt to analyzing the syntactical structures more often than boy students. They pay more attention to the grammar.

Though the difference between boy students and girl students in the overall of use of reading comprehension strategies is not significant, Griffiths (1991) found that there is a strong tendency indicating the great extent of strategies use while the boy students' strategies are very limited. This may explain partly the reason why some of the girl students have better achievement in English learning than boy students. One of the possible reasons for it is that girl students pay more attention to the use of strategies. Of course it is only an assumption that may be carried further research in the following years by researchers.

Boy students and girl students use strategies differently, especially in the strategies for establishing coherence in the text. It appears that girl students are likely to use top-down strategies than boy students, but it should be noted that top-down strategies the girl students tended to use are often text-based, for example, using signal words and contextual clues to help their comprehension. As for the use of background knowledge or schema, no significant difference is found. Boy students even use it a bit more frequently than girl students. In general girl students are more careful than boy students. They seem to use the strategies in a more ritualistic way. The strategies that they used are mostly perceived as effective strategies: think in English, do not translate and read for gist, etc. Girl students get strategies in the textbooks or reference books apply them properly while boy students always ignore the study of strategies, they are astonished with admiration that they do not recite such rules. The awareness of strategies as mentioned in Cohen is lacking among the boy students.

Significant difference in strategy 19 and 24 implies that the girl students are more readily receptive to the new knowledge. They are apt to think in English while boy students, on the other hand, tend to think in their native language. When they meet problems in reading boy students are more likely to translate the words or sentences into Chinese to help them to comprehend. In contrast, girl students would prefer to analyze the grammatical structures to help them.

C. Motivation

Students have been found vary considerably in both the overall frequency with which they employ reading strategies and also the particular types of reading strategies they use. Some factors have found to affect the choice of reading strategies. It's turn to focus on the relationship between motivation and the use of reading strategies. The major purpose of this section is to find out whether there is any relationship between motivation and choice of reading strategies, and to find out which the type of motivation influence students choice of reading strategies.

The students are the same. They all have experienced in intensive reading and extensive reading. Most of them have developed their own motivation and reading strategies. The instrument used in this section is a questionnaire consisting of 12 statements of motivation, six of them are instrumental motivation and the rest are integrated motivation.

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Both instrumental motivation and integrated motivation have corrections with some individual reading strategies. That is to say, both instrumental motivation and integrated motivation have effects on reading strategies, either positively or negatively. In order to be convenient to describe, we subdevide 36 reading strategies into 14 categories: C1=Translation, C2=Repetition, C3=Grouping, C4=Contextualization, C5=Inferencing, C6=Resourcing, C7= Practice, C8=Planning, C10=Selection attention, C11=Self-management, C12=Self-evaluation, C13=Anxiety, C14=Cooperation. The statistic that describes the relationship between two kinds of motivation and reading strategies is called a correlation coefficient. This coefficient indicates how closely motivation and reading strategy use. If there is a perfect relationship (either positive or negative), the magnitude of the correlation coefficient would be either +1 or –1. +1 correlation coefficient indicates a positive correlation, -1 correlation coefficient indicates a negative correlation. Instrumental motivation positively correlated with 4reading strategies while integrated motivation positively correlated with 15 reading strategies. We may conclude from the results that the students with instrumental motivation probably use reading strategies frequently or those students who use reading strategies more and often might have integrated motivation.

Generally, results of our study show that there are correlations between motivation and reading strategies. Integrated motivation relates to social/affective strategies significantly. Rubin (2007) advocates instrumental motivation correlates to cognitive strategies negatively. It seems that students with integrated motivation are likely to reduce anxiety when they read passage and encourage themselves to improve their reading. It's understandable that students who are interested in English study and western culture have stronger desire to read more. Therefore, they maybe seek and treasure opportunities to read and practice.

Statistical results also show that both integrated and instrumental motivation positively correlate with strategies Translation, Grouping, and Anxiety. The positive correlation between integrated motivation and strategy Translation is inconsistent with Wen's(1995) in that her study finds that integrated motivation correlates with mother-tongue strategies negatively. The contradiction with her study might be that we have different subjects from different background.

We can get the relationships between integrated motivation, instrumental motivation and individual reading strategies. Integrated motivation correlates positively with C1, C3, C7, C9, C11, C12, C13, C14 and negatively correlated with C2, C5, C6, C8, C10. The students with integrated motivation are likely to use grouping strategy when they are reading, they can group which are details and which are summary, so they can catch he summary and the correlated details that can help them understand the passage better. The next is self-evaluation. After reading they are able to evaluate the results that can improve their reading for the following times. Instrumental motivation is found to significantly correlate with S19, S33 individual reading strategies. Instrumental motivation positively correlates with S4, S5, S20, S23. It indicates that the students who are instrumental motivation seemed to adjust their reading strategies and that they seldom use reading strategies including S19, S21, S27, S33.

In conclusion, motivation does have important influence on students' use of reading strategies. Rosansky(1976) thinks the more motivation generates both the necessity and desire for the employment of a wider rang of reading strategies. And some special motivation types often lead to the choice of certain types of reading strategies. For example, deep integrated motivation usually leads to more frequent and various use of metacognitive reading strategies.

VI. Conclusion

The goal of the study is to check the effects on reading strategies and we can draw the following conclusions: The younger prefer the cognitive reading strategies while the older would rather use metacognitive and social/affective reading strategies. girl students tend to use more and diverse reading strategies and more frequently than boy students because girl students are more careful and more receptive to new things.

Integrated motivation has greater influence than the instrumental motivation on the use of reading strategies. Based on the differences between effective students and ineffective students, teachers should help the students to decide what kinds of strategies are more effective and which are more suitable to them. Oxford(1989) holds that the strategies that are effective for some students may be negative for the others. That's to say, teachers emphasize how to apply reading strategies which is fit to them rather than illustrate a profile of strategies, which is the content of the following chapter.

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English Medium or No English Medium: Parental Perspectives from Pakistan

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***Abstract*—Medium of instruction plays vital role in the education of children. Being major beneficiary or sufferer, parents' role is integral as one of the major stakeholders in the education policy of Pakistan. This research is aimed to present an analysis of parental perceptions regarding medium of instruction for the education of their children. The present research draws closely on Woolard Schieffelin & Kroskrity's Language Ideology Model (1998) for understanding perceptions of parents for English as a medium of instruction. The researchers conducted 12 semi structured interviews from parents of Hyderabad city by using Maximum Variation Sampling (Seidman, 1998). These interviews were analyzed using Constant Comparative Method (Lincoln &Guba, 1985). The findings of the study suggest that Pakistan is a multilingual state and the parents' preferences of the language they want to be used in their children's schools are not uniform. Therefore, government should involve parents at grass root level while making education policy for effective outcomes.**

***Index Terms*—language ideology, medium of instruction, perceptions of parents about medium of instruction**

I. Introduction

Language policy and Language planning determine the status of language in the society (Tarhan.S, 2003). It determines the status of any language to be used in various functions, by government, the legal system, media and the educational system. Language policy or language planning is related to political decision (Tarhan.S, 2003). Language is related to not only symbolic function in the society but also with the instrumental use that the speakers employ in the language (Hoffmann, 2014). The choice of Medium of Instruction is related to language policy and planning which affectively shape the perceptions of masses for any language. Pakistan is a multilingual country. There are six major and 58 minor languages spoken in Pakistan (Rahman, 2004).Selection of medium of instruction for the education of children is a challenge for parents in the multilingual countries. Parents feel difficulty to select medium of instruction when there is not one language policy for all. They become indecisive if there is one official language, other national language and third is the language at home. This is general phenomena in many countries of the world especially those countries that remained colonies of British rule. Linguistic magnetism is inextricably linked to a colonial history and a current capitalist economic system (Evan & Cleghorn, 2014). Parents' choice regarding medium of instruction stems from general attitude towards any language in public and the dreams that they attach for their children's future. The selection of language is rooted of being kept marginalized and subservient if educated in the mother tongue. Parents assume that mother tongue "delays access to English commonly viewed as the gateway to modernity" (Heugh, 2005). This linguistic social cognition approach towards English is a deliberate attempt to maintain social order in the society (Woolard, Schieffelin & Kroskrity. 1998).

II. Historical Perspective

There are mainly two types of systems in education in Pakistan in case of Medium of instruction. First, there was Urdu/vernacular language and, Secondly English as a medium of instruction for the rich people. There was Urdu/ vernacular language for masses and English medium for elitists during British rule (Rahman, 1997). After independence of Pakistan (1947), Urdu was declared as a national language and education was imparted in Urdu or Vernacular languages. English was taught as a subject from later grades. English was declared as an official language and Education was given in English Medium to the elites. Sharif Commission (1959) continued the same policy. New Constitution of Pakistan was promulgated in 1973. It was decided that English would be replaced by Urdu within 15 years. However English remained as a subject and Medium of Instruction was Urdu. After Coup of Zia-ul-Haq (1977), Urdu/vernacular was encouraged as a medium of instruction but Private English Medium Schools continued to grow

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rapidly for the elites. English was made to be taught from grade 1 rather than from grade 4 in government schools in the rule of Benazir Bhutto (1989). Pervez Musharraf (1999) initiated Education Sector Reform (ESR) and English was made compulsory subject from grade 1 in government schools.

Policies and practices have played major role in the mind set of common people when they see that English is being used in the civil administration and the bureacracy, in the legal and provincial system of fedral and provincial governments, in Defence Forces (Army, Air Force and Navy), in broadcast media and schools of elites so parents percieve medium of instruction for their children through socio-political and socio-economic perspectives of the use of the language. There has been common trend in Pakistan that parents mostly get their children admitted in English Medium Schools. They do so because they want their children proficient in English. It is considered essential vehicle for achieving modernization, scientific and technological development, and economic advancement for self and the country, in short, for improving one's life chances (Haque,1982; Rahman, 1997).

There are many studies on English as Medium of Instruction for L2 learners in different countries of the world. For example, Muthwii (2004) writes about language policy in Kenya that mother tongue (Kalenjin) is used medium of instructions up to class 3. English is the official language and Kiswahili is the national language of Kenya but Parents in Kenya preferred their children get education in English from grade one in order to keep them "at par with those in progressive schools"(Muthwii, 2004). Parents saw many advantages of English Medium Education.

Evans & Cleghorn (2014) holds that parents in many parts of South Africa "go to great length seeking English as the sole medium of instruction" instead of 11 official languages as per policy in the South Africa and constitutional permission for the choice of medium of instruction for the education of their children.

III. Methodology

A. Research Approach

Since our inquiry of study is about parents' perceptions about medium of instruction for the education of their children, it involves deep understanding of an individual's perceptions and interpret those perceptions for uncovering the truth of the inquiry which we are pursuing. So, qualitative approach aims to investigate the perceptions of individual and "strive to understand and interpret the world in terms of its actors (Cohen. L; Manion. L ; Morrison.K, 2000)".

The objective of the study is to understand perceptions of parents about medium of instruction for the education of their children. It is a case study about parents' perceptions from Hyderabad. We have selected 12 parents whose children study at different schools in Hyderabad and conducted semi structured interviews from them. The goal of semi structured interviews was to explore the perceptions of parents about medium of instruction for the education of their children. The researcher has used Maximum Variation Sampling in the purposive sampling in order to expand more variability. Thus, the researcher has selected parents with a deliberate attempt whose children study different school systems. Bearing this rationale in mind, I adopted qualitative approach for study.

B. Research Instrument

Semi-structured interviews are useful to gather in-depth understanding of the issue in case of qualitative research. I needed understanding of perceptions of parents regarding medium of instruction for the education of their children that can easily be uncovered through conducting semi-structured interviews 'since they provide access to perceptions and opinions, they are effective for gaining insight into problems that are not immediately perceptible but that nonetheless cause concern in certain areas or in certain segments of the population (Laforest.J, 2012)'. Thus, I used semi-structured interviews technique as my research instrument to gather information for the answer of my research questions. I prepared protocol for the interview by asking background information, main section and the end part.

C. Sampling Technique

I used "maximum variation sampling" (Seidman, 1998) technique as one of the criteria for recruiting participants for the interviews. The researcher, in maximum variation sampling, opts for participants that have diverse characteristics in order to allow a comprehensive picture of the themes to emerge in the data of the study. I used it because I needed parents from Hyderabad Town whose children studied at different schooling systems so that I may be able to explore their perceptions comprehensively regarding medium of instruction for the education of their children.

D. Data Collection Procedure

It is of prime important to hunt potential participants for semi structured interviews in qualitative studies so that they may contribute in understating the issue under exploration. I utilized my all resources to select participants for my study. First, I talked to him/her and apprised about my research project. If he/she agreed then we fixed appointment at his/her ease. Participants decided for time and place. I gave him/her consent form for participating in my research project. Before starting to record interviews, I usually had chat general things in mother tongue in order to develop mind of my participants. I offered them choice of using language as they might wish to express freely and comfortably. Most of the participants spoke in Sindhi. Then I formally started with background information of the interviewees. I also jotted down notes in the diary while interviewing. I conducted 12 interviews: 6 from male participants and 6 from female participants. All of them were from Hyderabad and their children studied in different schooling systems. Female

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participants were less expressive then male participants. Most of female participants were reluctant. I contacted many females through some references to be part of my research project but they refused quoting certain reasons. However I succeeded in taking interviews from female participants who were mostly in service.

E. Data Analysis Technique

I adopted constant comparative method by Maykut and Morehouse (1994) for the analysis of the data. These researchers used this method from the works of Glaser and Strauss (1967) and Lincoln and Guba (1985). There is inductive category coding and simultaneous comparing of units of meaning across categories in the constant comparative method of analysis of qualitative data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, cited in Maykut & Morehouse, 1994).

IV. The Findings and Discussion

Educational policies and Diversity at education system at grass root level have affected the perceptions of parents. Long inheritance to English from the time of colonization to date has made the people with a view that English is the key to success in every walk of life. Parents' perception regarding medium of instruction about education of their children provide justification for them to pursue for English as a medium of English. Parents shared many ideas from their practical experiences and personal observations. Some of them are discussed as under:

Finding 1: Education in English medium schools is the determining factor for the career of children case of going abroad for pursuit of higher education and for getting good job or success in business.

(a) Going for abroad: Majority of the parents are of the view that English is like passport and a gateway to the world. They think that education of their children in English medium school would provide them better chance round the globe.

"English has an importance and if the children go out of the country there they need English." **IF2**

Hence, the mother tongue will not play as much important role as English does. Most of the parents generally wish that their children should move with the world which is only possible when one knows English.

(b) Pursuit for higher studies: English is considered as a means to get higher studies in Pakistan or in abroad.

Most of the parents in response to question about the role of English as a determining factor for the career of their children supported English. The ideas of parents reflected that it is very much difficult to carry out the higher studies in abroad having inefficiency in English language. Most of the tests like GRE, TOEFL and ILETS are being taken in English language, which are considered to be pre requisite in terms of getting admissions in foreign institutions. Moreover, the attainment of scholarships solely depends upon the proficiency of English language for seeking admissions in prestigious universities of the world.

"I think that some of the parents give primary importance to mother tongue but one thing what is valuable in future that is to be seen because all education is to survive keeping future needs. When everybody believes that almost more than two billion people of the world speak English language they strongly believe that this is the only source for survival in today's communicative world. "**IM5**

(c) Getting jobs:

Most of the interviewees responded to question

"It has an impact on the future of my child in case of getting job or higher studies." **IF1**

"He cannot get a job in higher level or he will be frustrated due to his incompetency in English language." **IF3**

On the contrary, an interviewee male 6 was of the opinion "the use of language having any relation with the future is a question mark? For example, the government has been talking about the implementation of Chinese; but I don't think so that what this perception is all about? We have reached on point where we cannot learn English, Urdu or Sindhi effectively and now the Chinese is being enforced as a language in course. I do not understand the approach of government towards languages. I am also lover of English language but I think that the future of their child is concerned with English language."

Finding 2: It is pre-requisite for maintaining their status to enroll their children in well-reputed English medium schools.

Some parents viewed that admitting children in English medium schools is because of maintaining status in the society. People usually ask about schooling of children and those parents whose children are getting education in well reputed institutes, proudly tell people about names of schools of their children.

"See if a child is enrolled in an English medium school, he thinks himself superior. Not only the child considers himself superior but I think we, the parents maintain our status by admitting our children in well-reputed English medium school." **IF 6**

Finding 3: Learning in English medium schools help children learn well and standardized. It will help their children in long run. However, some parents viewed English language as a barrier for the speakers of second language. They thought that English hampers creativity and their children cannot express their ideas freely in English.

Three out of twelve parents (23%) viewed that English help their children learn well.

"English is not a barrier, where my children are learning but English can be a barrier in many other situations because you can see the condition of private schools and the public. I can see this specific context where my children are

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enrolled; English is not barrier for them. I have seen one thing; slowly they are giving more importance to English language..."**IM5**

On the contrary, most of the participants (77%) viewed that English language is great barrier in learning for those who learn it as a second language speaker but they preferred English Medium because of it status. Mostly, the teachers in private schools apply the translation method in class for teaching English language. Eventually, the students mostly feel anxiety and they cannot express freely.

"If I talk about my children, they can learn more in their native language rather than in second language but it is a time of giving quality education. It is just like a status symbol for us that if somebody speaks English; he must be educated." **IF 4**

Mother tongue makes learning easy and more rewarding than that of English. Home experiences become supportive to learning at School which is "a condition that guarantees cognitive equilibrium (Iyamu & Ogiegbaen, 2008).

"Learning is related with language. Message is properly communicated and when message is conveyed, we get effect of it in our mother tongue. Foreign language does not convey such affect." **IM2**

"Of course, it has a relationship with learning. The voice of mother tongue reaches to the ears of a child when he is born…….. We throw a child all of a sudden in an environment where his language is different from his mother tongue; thus he faces the various barriers of language in his learning."**IM6**

Finding 4: Students do not understand the context of learning because of English Medium so they lack not only in analyzing things but also in expressing their point of view freely.

Some of the parents responded that in primary level, the children encounter a number of complexities like; they face difficulty in comprehension of knowledge and gaining information in class. They can hardly digest the concepts which are very novel to them. Thus, the child cannot incorporate a foreign language in early years of his learning. Ultimately, it leads to the educational decline of the children in case of creativity or analysis.

"You are totally avoiding, you are cutting off contextual reference of contextual relation. That is very much hard and that is very much difficult for the kids. Their background is something else. We are giving them something else. It is like you know, you are making them French child speak German." **IM1**

Some parents replied when asked about problems faced by their children while learning in English medium schools that their children face problems in the earlier years.

"Yes, of course because how does child learn? He learns through similarities first. If we talk about from learning point of view of kids then they use to imitate the language that we use. The way the teacher speaks, children hear it. If there is difference in the language, there will be a problem. I would say, not only at the level of instruction but there could be psychological problems as well" **IM1**

Some of the parents said that their children lack in writing mother tongue because they are getting education in English medium schools. They feel reluctant to do papers of Urdu or Sindhi. So they cram these subjects in order to pass the exams. They can hardly count the numbers in Sindhi or Urdu. So the parents felt it great difficulty for them because of education in English medium schools.

"To be very honest, my children are very much reluctant to read any Urdu passage or prepare themselves for Urdu or Sindhi paper. They are not taking any interest in these subjects. They have there at school that kind of atmosphere where everyone speaks English and children watch such programs where there is not Urdu or Sindhi language being used. They mostly focus on English language. We are the people who have created biasness towards languages." **IF 4**

Attitude of children towards learning mother tongue is inferior to English. Some of parents repented that their children are not interested to learn mother tongue so they cram in the papers of mother tongue. They consider subject of mother tongue boring and difficult in the school.

"My daughter is in grade seven and she was so reluctant yesterday; she was trying to cram each and every word of a question in Urdu. We know that cramming and understanding are two different things. She was trying to cram all the things and she was reluctant and uneasy to understand the things. She was having the pronunciation problems in Urdu like the word; "Shams-ul-Ulema" which is totally a pathetic situation." **IF 4**

Finding 5: Learning in mother tongue enables children better comprehension, develops creativity, bridges experiences at home with learning at school and enhances the vocabulary to express freely.

Most of the parents are of the opinion that mother tongue is a key to the comprehension of all subjects in early years of learning. It provides many opportunities to the child when he begins his studies in primary level. Hence, it is the right of a child that he must be taught in mother tongue for better learning. It makes the things easy because the children take much interest in a language which is used at home and in the neighborhood. The children also use the same language with his class fellows for the sake of interaction and communication.

"I believe mother tongue is like oxygen to life. It is something that a child carries. The first word of the child is in mother tongue. This is deep-rooted in us, biological speaking or emotionally speaking. Mother tongue is such language that can never be compromised at all." **IM5**

Most of the interviewees responded that the mother tongue helped the child learn better as compared to second language. It helped the child to understand the ambiguous ideas easily. The child does not face much difficulty in getting his primary education. The child begins to put his interest in the ideas which are explained in his/her mother tongue. It makes the concepts more lucid which are hardly understood in a foreign language.

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"It is very important in the early five years of child as it is proved in science and research that children should be taught in mother tongue.**" IM1**

"Mother tongue should be taught first because the child will not understand properly in English Medium School because it is new to him, but he can understand well in mother tongue because it is his own language." **IF1**

One interviewee was of the opinion that there should be integration of experiences children have at home with learning at school. If experiences at school do not bridge or coordinate with the environment out of school then, the children will face complexities and cognitive imbalance. So mother tongue plays vital role to supplement home experiences with learning at school.

"If the language being taught with, is mother tongue then the children can easily share feelings, experiences and learning with their parents, they can express in mother tongue. Thus the mother tongue plays an important role in learning. So it is very important. Even we also easily share our experiences in mother tongue." **IM3**

Finding 6: Some parents consider the medium of instruction when they enroll their children at school whereas; some of the parents do not because it depends on the affordability; not on the choice.

Some of the participants were of the view that they considered the medium of instructions before admitting their children in schools. It was an arduous job for the parents to choose school for their children. Parents consider it important because it was ultimately to shape the future of their children. Parents often take advice and suggestions from their relatives and friends.

"I had gone to school and had seen the syllabus before admitting my child. The children of my colleagues also studied in that school and I saw the course when they brought the books for the binding. I found the course very informative and interesting. All subjects were taught properly so I analyzed all benefits and then admitted my children there." **IF3**

V. Conclusion

Perceptions of parents regarding medium of instruction were embedded with common trends. They seemed unaware of the consequences of learning of child that occur medium of instruction. Government has failed to deliver in providing one system of education. People prefer to send their children to private schools and there is mushroom of private schools. The rapid change round the globe and easy access to mass media has affected the mind of parents. It is a transition phase. Most of the parents acknowledged that there are many difficulties in learning English in early years of education even then they prefer English because they think that there is quality education. There are more future chances. It is a status symbol which guarantees them of better life of their children ahead. Most of the parents think that English Medium Education would enable their children to move with the world and lead a successful life.

A. Limitations of the Study

The first limitation of the study is that, this study solely employed qualitative research design in which a few educated parents of urban area from Sindh were included; therefore the findings of this research cannot be generalized. Secondly, this study only included parents' perceptions regarding the medium of instruction about Education of their Children whereas the teachers' perceptions were not included who would have given better insight into this issue. Lastly, the data was not triangulated to confirm the findings by designing questionnaire on the emerged themes from the qualitative findings. This would have further validated the findings of the study.

B. Implications of the Study

The issue of medium of instruction has been the major concern among researchers quite recently; therefore plethora of research has been done in the past to know the views of teachers and students regarding the medium of instructions in different social settings. However, scanty of research is available on parents' views regarding medium of instruction about the education of their children. Therefore, this study would aware language policy makers in Pakistan to know the perceptions of parents' regarding the medium of instruction about the education of their children. Secondly, the findings of this study would also significantly contribute to the existing knowledge on the issues of medium of instruction in educational institutes in Pakistani context. Lastly, this study would also benefit those researchers in Pakistan who are currently working on language policies.

C. Suggestions for Future Research

Since this study employed qualitative research design, future research can include mixed research design to determine the strong validity in the findings. The current study only interviewed educated parents, the future research should also include the voice of uneducated parents so that unbiased results can be generated. The future study can also include the perceptions of teachers, students and parents in the same study on the issue of medium of instructions to complement the findings of the study.

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A Study on the Acquisition of English WH-question by Chinese Beginning Learners*

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***Abstract*—The study mainly adopted the quantitative approach. The participants were 30 pupils in 6th Grade Primary School. The WH-questions were collected from a spoken elicitation test—participants were required to produce WH-questions based on specially designed pictures. All audio files obtained were converted into text file in order to better understand the acquisition of the simple English WH-questions by Chinese English beginning learners. The results showed various errors exist in the process of acquiring English WH-questions by Chinese English beginning learners and the causes behind these errors is mainly native language negative transfer, which has both theoretical and pedagogical implications.**

***Index Terms*—English WH-questions acquisition, contrastive analysis between English and Chinese WH-questions, error analysis, negative transfer**

I. Introduction

A. Types of WH-question

WH-question, as a very important type of English sentences, covers kinds of questions beginning with simple interrogative words like *what, where, who, which, and how.* According to Curme (1931), WH-questions are so called in that they typically involve the use of an interrogation WH-word at the beginning, *how* is also classified as a WH-word because it exhibits the same syntactic behavior as other members of this class. Since a variety of constituents can be queried in WH-questions. WH-question can be categorized into the following types according to the grammatical function that WH-words playing:

Subject NP:
(1) *Who will take away the basket?*
Object NP:
(2) *What will other candidates say?*
Adverbial of time, place, reasons and manner:
(3) *When have you fulfilled your task?*
(4) *Where are you from?*
(5) *Why can you win the first prize without Tom's involvement?*
(6) *How did Mary and Jessie get along each other?*
Attributives:
(7) *Whose car in red is parking on the yard? (Attributive subject)*
(8) *Whose dress was designed by famous designer Cathy? (Attributive object)*
Predicative:
(9) *What is William's wish according to your predication?*
(10) *Who is your sister you have never seen her before?*

As can be seen, the scope of *what* can be queried ranges from a noun to a whole verb phrases. Compared these sentences with their underlying structure, we can see that several changes have been taken place: WH-Replacement (replace the corresponding sentence constituent being questioned with wh-phrase); WH-Fronting (move wh-phrase to the beginning of the sentence); DO-Support (insert auxiliary verb into the sentence to fulfill the function if no auxiliary verb or copula *be* is present); Subject-Auxiliary Inversion (invert the subject noun phrase position and the first auxiliary verb position when wh-phrase itself is not the subject of the sentence).

B. WH-movement in English

According to the position of WH-words, languages can generally be categorized as WH-in-situ languages and movement languages. English, along with Spanish and Italian, belong to the movement languages, in which WH-words invariably occur at the sentence-initial position. (Huang 1982)This can be illustrated in (11) as follow:

(11) a. *What is he doing?*
b. *He is doing what?*

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The WH-word what originally occupies complement position after the verb, and then moves to the initial position of the sentence. It can be seen that English WH-questions involve fronting of WH-words, and the movement of WH-words in English is called WH-movement.

C. WH-questions in Chinese

Chinese and English differ in the formation of WH-questions. To get a clear understanding of Chinese WH-questions, sentence (12) is adopted.

(12) *a. Li Ming zai zuo shenme?*

b. Li Ming is doing what?

As can be seen above, the WH-phrase *shenme "what"* does not move to the beginning of the sentence, but stays in situ, so that *shenme "what"* as the complement of the verb *zuo "doing"* occupies the position after the verb. Since Chinese does not involve overt WH-movement, it is termed a WH-in-situ language.

D. Differences between English and Chinese WH-questions

There is one major account to explain the typological differences between Chinese and English WH-questions, proposed by Huang (1982). Huang's proposals were originated under the Principle and Parameters framework of Chomsky's universal grammar (UG). Huang (1982) made a seminal comparative study of English and Chinese WH-questions and maintained that English WH-questions are formed by overt WH-movement, while Chinese WH-questions are formed by covert WH-movement.

E. Previous Studies on the Acquisition of WH-questions

The study on the acquisition of wh-question has always been a hot topic. Research topics include issues like the factors contribute to the difficulty connected with acquisition order (Saunders 1983), the acquisition order of WH-words both in L1 and L2, inversion errors related to different grammatical functions (Rowland & Pine 2000), and argument /adjunct asymmetry and subject / object asymmetry (Ervin-Trippm1970; Stromswold 1988; Wilhelm & Hanna 1992; Cheung & Lee 1993; Kim 1995; Stromswold 1995; Yoshinaga 1996).

A number of researchers have investigated the acquisition of WH-questions, with focus on subject and object WH-questions or argument and adjunct WH-questions. Ervin-Tripp (1970) investigated how children respond to subject *who*-questions and object *who*-questions. He found that most of the children acquired both types of *who*-questions before 3; 1, object *who*-questions should not be regarded as a late acquisition. As a result, the syntactic distinction between subject and object *who*-questions was acquired early, but temporarily confounded by a processing strategy before age 4. But as O'Grady (1997) pointed out, Ervin-Tripp's study contains a potentially serious flaw. Questions such as *who is feeding him?* or *who is he feeding?* were asked and the inclusion of the pronominal case (him vs. he) might provide children a secondary clue about the syntactic function of the WH-word.

The study of Cheung & Lee (1993) tested the subject / object asymmetry in the relative difficulty of WH-questions. The subjects were Cantonese children and a comprehension task had been applied. The study result showed that subject *who*-questions were significantly more difficult than object *who*-questions. However, as to *what*-questions, there was no statistical significance between the subject pattern and object pattern although the subject pattern seems to be slightly easier than the object pattern. Yoshinaga (1996) examined the development of WH-questions by English-speaking and Japanese-speaking children and focused on two types of WH-questions: simple and multiple WH-questions. The simple WH-questions investigated in Yoshinaga's (1996) study were subject WH-questions and object WH-questions and she tried to test whether subject WH-questions are easier than object WH-questions. The production task designed by Yoshinaga was adopted in the study. Twenty-three English-speaking children and thirty Japanese-speaking children were the subjects in the study. The results showed that children tended to substitute object WH-questions with subject WH-questions in English more frequently, and subject WH-questions were less difficult than object WH-questions for English-speaking children. Therefore, Yoshinaga adopted O'Grady's account, which predicted that English subject questions should be acquired earlier and there would be no differences in the relative difficulty between subject and object questions in Japanese.

There are researchers who have studied modal particles, internal types, doubt focus of questions and the way to answer questions as well in China. They have also studied WH-questions and the non-interrogative usage of WH-questions. The researches highlight the features of WH-questions and moreover, the acquisition of WH-questions reveals the mysteries of WH-questions.

Xu Jie (1999) found children know how to move wh-words ahead in questions earlier than how to inverse the auxiliaries with subjects in the process of acquiring English grammar. Children at the age of 28 months would move the wh-words ahead as soon as they notice them. However, children do not inverse the auxiliaries with subjects until they are 38 months old. The grammaticalization of focus and that of doubt are treated as different conceptions in the process of acquiring English for English-speaking children.

Cao Lijiao (2007) studied a group of bilingual children on the acquisition of wh-questions and found there are obvious differences between the children aged 4 to 5 years and the children aged 6 to 7 years. The number of errors committed by the children aged 4 to 5 years is larger than by the children aged 6 to 7 years. The main problems happen

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among bilingual children are the problems of inappropriate collocation, overgeneralization, delay in language acquisition compared with monolingual children and language transfer. The formation between Chinese questions and English questions is quite different due to the differential grammatical systems. Chinese does not involve the movement of do support as well as the movement of wh-words. In a word, the errors made by children in acquiring Chinese are mainly inappropriate collocation and unclear relationship among words; errors in English acquisition appear to be influenced by the characteristic of Chinese verb's un-markedness.

Deng Jinlei (2009) found that different wh-questions have different distributional patterns. The percentage of what questions, accounting for 60% of all wh-questions, remains stable throughout the study. Where and who questions are of high proportion at the beginning but show a decrease tendency over time, while how, when and why questions show exactly opposite developmental pattern, which are of low proportion at the beginning but show increase tendency with children's age.

II. Research Methodology

A. Research Questions

1.What kinds of errors will be made by Chinese English beginning Learners' acquisition of WH-questions?

2. What are the causes of these errors in the acquisition of WH-questions for Chinese beginning learners?

B. Methods

1. Participants

The participants were 30 pupils in Grade 6th in a Primary School. The reasons for choosing them as the subjects are as follows:

Firstly, as the Grade 6 students, they are in the interface between primary school life and middle school life. During English learning process, Chinese is the dominant language in their daily life and English classes. Accordingly, students are accustomed to Chinese thinking pattern in English speaking. In this test, all the participants had been called without consideration over their exam grades. The test was accomplished in the 12th week of the second semester over their last year of primary school study, for the pupils had learned the simple comprehensive English grammar during primary school period, their English level is relative more stable than other grades and can best present their real English level in beginning level.

Secondly, through interview with English teachers in the school and browse over their text books, the author knew that Grade 6th students were exposed to WH-questions for a short time since they entered into sixth grade. Therefore, these participants could be seen as beginning learners on the acquiring of WH-questions.

2. Research Design

The present study adopted the elicitation task to ask the participants to produce WH-questions based on specially designed picture because such elicitation task tends to truly reflect their mastery of WH-questions. The test contains 16 specially designed colorful picture items.

Each subject was given about 3 minutes to ask three questions according to 16 colorful pictures with three different WH-words chosen from *what, where, when, who and how.* In the testing process, there were no instrument and suggestion from the teacher, neither could they discuss with their classmates nor consult a dictionary. 30 audio files were collected. 90 WH-questions were collected during this test.

To better analyze the collected transcription corpus, each subject was numbered as No.1, No.2, No.3 … No.28, No.29, and No.30 based on the order recorded in record cassettes. Besides, the three questions each subject asked were marked as ①②③.

III. Data Analysis and Discussion

A. Results of the Test

1. The Percentage of Correct Questions

In accordance with the experiment design, 90 WH-questions had been collected in total. As can be seen from the following table, 29% questions were right. Within 29% correct questions, 27.6% correct questions were the sentence type as *"What is she/ he doing"* or *"What are they doing?"* ; 31% correct questions were the sentence type as *"Where is she/he?"* or *"Where are they"?*. Therefore, the percentage of 29% correct questions actually are made of two main sentence types—*"what + be + sb +doing"* and *"where + be + sb"*, in proportion of 59%.

The present study calculated the accuracy rate of the WH-questions by Chinese primary level English learners and found that majorities of the participants have acquired WH-questions unsuccessfully.

TABLE1
PERCENTAGE OF CORRECT QUESTIONS

Questions	Correct Questions	Incorrect Questions
Percentage	29%	61%

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Note: 90 WH-questions were collected in total.

2. The Preference and Frequency of WH-words Type

To verify EFL beginning learns tend to choose what kinds of WH-words, the present experiment figure out the frequency of every WH-word subjects used. From the table below, it can be seen that subjects prefer to use *"what"* to ask objects in pictures and to use *"where"* to ask places where activities happened. Besides, subjects tend to ask the way people do their task by using *"how"* to ask questions.

TABLE2
FREQUENCY OF WH-WORDS

WH-words	What	Who	Where	When	How
Frequency	37	6	18	12	16
Percentage	41%	6%	20%	13%	18%

Note: 90 WH-questions were collected in total.

B. Errors Analysis

In order to know what kinds of errors will be made in the process of acquiring English WH-questions by Chinese English beginning learners, the present study classify all the errors into four types on the basis of subject-auxiliary inversion errors, lack of do-support, lack of articles and lack of vocabulary.

1. Subject-auxiliary Inversion Errors

Results showed 9 interrogative sentences have subject auxiliary inversion errors. For example, *what color it is, what I can get coin, what they are watching, where it is* etc. Above these interrogative sentences should be moved auxiliary verbs in front of the subject.

A little part of subjects can correctly speak out WH-questions like *No.7① Where is she from? No.10① How old is she?, No.12③What are they doing?*. These questions were frequently asked by subjects who speak these questions without hesitation. Once they try to create some new interrogative sentences, errors occur.

(13a) What color it is? (No.2③)

(14a) What flower it is? (No.11③)

(15a) What dance it is? (No.27③)

From above examples, we can conclude that subjects were highly influenced by Chinese sentence structure for they are used to say *ta shi*. Therefore, when they want to ask something they do not know, they would like to say *what… it is?*

2. Lack of Do-support

About 15 interrogative sentences are lack of *do*-support, occupying a major proportion in all WH-questions asked by subjects. Questions like *"what class he have?" "Where I buy paopao?" "When JieMu begin?" Do* play an import role in these questions. Without *do*-support, these sentences are grammatically wrong.

There are 15 questions that are lack of *do*-support, accounting for 23% of the total. Therefore, lacking of *do*-support is the most serious problems.

(16) What box look like? (No.3③)

(17) How often they play? (No.14 ②)

(18) When show begin? (No.20①)

In English, there are obvious grammatical markers. But Chinese does not have strict forms, so it is easy for beginning learners to ignore the use of auxiliary words. In addition, Chinese verbs do not have any changes in its forms or some sentences do not need any verbs. Therefore, beginning learners will sometimes miss verbs or auxiliary verbs. It can be seen that subjects ignored using *"do"* to support the whole sentence.

3. Lack of Articles

12 interrogative sentences are lack of articles *"the"* or *"a/an"*. To ask questions according to pictures, *"the"* is supposed to be used in front of nouns while nearly all subjects ignore or have no idea about articles. For instance, *how old is boy? Where is boy in? Who teach boy? Where is show?* The correct way is to add *the* before *"boy"* and *"show"*.

12 interrogative sentences are lack of articles *"the"* or *"a/an"*. Examples are listed below.

(19) Who have money box? (No.1②)

(20) How about pizza? (No.10②)

(21) What JieMu is? (No.21 ③)

The above three examples are the instances of "lacking of articles". English determiners are the articles *the* and *a(n)*, which indicate the presence or absence of definiteness of the noun. However, in Chinese, people do not have this habit. So subjects, especially for beginning learner, usually ignore the use of articles.

4. Lack of Key Vocabulary

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Sometimes, subjects forget some key words resulted in the ambiguity of sentence meaning. *"What day is? What they look? What game is?"* are examples of lacking key vocabularies. Moreover, subjects would choose Chinese words in place of English words, like *"Xiao Chou"* in *"What is Xiao Chou doing?"* and *"GangQin"* in *"When you study GangQin?"*, when subjects do not know related English words.

In this situation, subjects sometimes have no idea about vocabularies they want to express but are eager to say something in English which leads to preference to using Chinese words and phrases to replace related English lexical.

(22) Where I buy paopao? (No.13③)

(23) What is Xiao Chou doing? (No.19②)

(24) What JieMu is? (No.21③)

Paopao, Xiao Chou and JieMu are examples subjects used to replace English words *bubbles, clown and programme*. They have learned these words in class but forget them or cannot remember them immediately when in need.

5. Ambiguous Questions

Besides the four main error types discussed above, the study has found some special errors not belonging to the above conditions. First, *"when it snow"* should be *"when it snows"*, *"what can help he?"* should be *"what can help him"*. Second, *"what color boy cloth"* is an ambiguous sentence but we can induce the subject was trying to ask the color of the cloth that the boy wears. Therefore, the correct way is *"what the color of the cloth that boy wear?"* which is a complex WH-questions. Third, *"how much pizza"* obviously was asking the prize of the pizza in the picture and we can easily get the meaning the subject was trying to express but *"how much pizza"* is an incorrect interrogative sentence from the perspective of grammar. Last but not the least; *"who is play Xiao Chou?"* is hard to understand. The author interviewed the subject who produced the question. He wanted to ask who acted as a *Xiao Chou*. But the sentence he uttered turned out to be very ambiguous.

IV. Conclusions

A. Major Findings

In accordance with the experiment design, 90 WH-questions had been collected in total. The percentage of correct questions is 29%, which shows these Chinese English beginning learners haven't had a good command of simple WH-questions for 71% were wrong. Subjects prefer to use *"what"* to ask objects in pictures and to use *"where"* to ask places where things happened. Besides, subjects tend to ask the way people do their task by using *"how"*. Respectively, *"what", "where"* and *"how"* is in proportion of 41%, 20% and 18%.

After classifying all the WH-questions, the thesis finds out that there are mainly four patterns of errors—subject-auxiliary inversion errors, lack of do-support, lack of articles and lack of key vocabularies—in the process of acquiring English WH-questions by Chinese English beginning learners. And if beginning learners would like to express multiple meanings in one WH-question, it can easily produce many errors.

Several factors are found to account for these errors. Main factors are negative transfer, over generalization and developmental factors. Chinese is topic-prominent language while English is subject-prominent language. This phenomenon is caused by transfer from learner's first language. Chinese learners are especially influenced. *"When show begin?"*(No.20①) is a good example to explain this. Subject No.20 tried to ask the beginning time of the show but he just used three words to express his idea. In Chinese, the question should be *"JieMu shenme shihou kaishi?"* Obviously, subject No.20 was influenced by Chinese, for his use of word-to-word to ask questions in English. Generally speaking, learners with low proficiency level generate more meanings than a simple question can express. *"When baby birth?"* (No.28①) is a typical example on over generalization. Subject No.28 expressed his idea about baby's birthday with only three single words. The last one is developmental factor. With the development of learners' primary level and learners' gradual perception and understanding of the L2 rules, learners begin to try to employ various sentence structures.

B. Implications

On one hand, Spoken English should be paid more attention in teaching. As to negative transfer, teachers should warn students to identify the differences between English and Chinese WH-questions and guide them to produce correct WH-questions. Complex sentence types like WH-questions should be instructed more carefully and patiently. Grammatical items could be taught through in-class activities. English teachers should adjust their teaching methods and adopt different methods to make grammar class lively and interesting. Besides, English teaching materials should be authentic and interesting. Students should be exposed to more authentic WH-questions situation to get sufficient language input.

C. Limitations

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Obviously, there exist a few limitations in the study and they remain to be improved in the future research.

Since the present study only recruited 30 pupils in Grade 6 from one primary school, the findings of this study are not a reflection of the characteristics in whole groups of Chinese EFL beginning learners, and the tentative explanations in this study may not be able to apply to problems of other beginning learners. The experiment design of future study could be more diversified such as puppet show and situation record. Besides, elicitation test is relatively subjective compared with corpus-based approach. With a combination of corpus-based approach, the study would be more objective and convincing.

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L1 Role in Bilinguals' Mental Lexicon: A Comparative Study between Chinese-English and Alphabetic Bilinguals*

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***Abstract*—This study is to compare L1 (first language) roles between Chinese-English and alphabetic bilinguals' mental lexicons through reviewing empirical studies. L1 lexicon plays an important role in L2 (second language) processing in two aspects for alphabetic bilinguals, automatic activation of similar L1 to sensory input of L2, and that of L1 translation equivalent. While for Chinese English learners, L1 lexicon basically influences L2 by equivalent activation only, and the effect may persist throughout their lives, which is dramatically different from the developmental pattern of alphabetic bilinguals. The differences may come from different typological distance between the two languages, different composition of L2 mental lexicon, and their unique English acquisition experience in China.**

***Index Terms*—L1 role, Chinese EFL learner, mental lexicon, comparative study**

I. Introduction

Bilingual mental lexicon has been a hot topic for these decades. Researchers are keen on understanding how foreign words are integrated into the brain and hardwired with the pre-existing mother tongue. However, L2 (second language) lexicon can never be treated and studied as an independent system, at least independent of the pre-existing L1 (first language) word. The present study will explore the L1 role in the bilingual mental lexicon, i.e. how L1 words exert influence on L2 processing in Chinese-English and alphabetic bilinguals, following the Saussurian principle of distinguishing between form and meaning or orthographic/phonologic–semantic organization at the level of individual words (de Saussure, 1972).

There are two different viewpoints in terms of L1 role in L2 reading. One is selectivity, which is that the two languages of bilinguals are activated selectively, in other words, only the target language, e.g., the second language, is activated and accessed when reading this language, and L1 does not play a role in L2 processing. While the other view is non-selectivity. Based on the review on the large body of empirical studies, a majority of researchers intend to believe that languages of bilinguals, target or non-target, are activated non-selectively and parallelly. To be specific, L1 words will be inevitably activated during L2 processing.

II. L1 Role in Alphabetic Bilinguals' Mental Lexicon

Despite task design (lexical recognition or production) and input modality (visual or auditory), L1 exerts influence on L2 processing at both phonological and orthographic levels. In the visual modality, for phonology, masked phonological priming revealed interlingual homophone priming effects from the L1 to L2, just like that from the L2 to L1 (e.g. Brysbaert, Van Duyck, & Van de Poel,1999; Van Wijnendaele & Brysbaert, 2002). The magnitude of cross-language priming was not significantly different from that of priming within a single language. For orthography, there was an interference effect of L1 on L2, affected by orthographic density across the languages (the number of words which are similar in spelling but different by a grapheme) and word frequency (Jared & Kroll, 2001; Van Heuven et al., 1998), i.e., words of cross-linguistic high frequency and with more cross-linguistic orthographic neighbors in the L1 slowed responses to target words in the L2, the size of which was modulated by L2 proficiency, greater for L2 proficient bilinguals (Bijeljac-Babic, Biardeau, and Grainger, 1997). Besides word recognition, L1 orthographic input was also reported to influence bilingual language production. Hermans, Bongaerts, De Bot, and Schreuder (1998) found that bilinguals could not suppress L1 lexical information when naming pictures in an L2 in a picture-word interference task. Words could prime those of similar phonology and orthography in spoken word recognition (e.g. Slowiaczek et al., 2003). However, simultaneous activation occurred more reliably in learners of high proficiency than low proficiency (Jared & Kroll, 2001; Silverberg & Samuel, 2004). Findings of parallel L1 activation during L2 processing had been consistent and L1 activation was so stable that it can be observed even in its absence during L2 processing (Sunderman

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and Kroll, 2006).

Both L1 facilitatory effect in phonology and inhibitory effect in orthography on L2, similar to those obtained within the same language, were highly suggestive of integration of L2 phonological and orthographic lexicons into corresponding L1 ones. Studies reviewed above unexceptionally used alphabetic bilinguals whose two languages were close in typology. When they acquire a new word in the second language, not only the semantics but also phonology and orthography can be well imbedded in the corresponding preexisting L1 lexicons, forming a common area for the most part and a small part of L2-specific area, whose sizes depend on the typological distance between the two languages. The degree of L1 effect might also vary as a function of L2 proficiency, as well as input modality, similarity of L2 sensory input to L1 phonology or orthography, etc.

Besides nonselective activation of L1 neighbor words during L2 processing, L1 role is complicated by automatic activation of L1 equivalents. According to Revised Hierarchical Model (RHM) (Kroll, 1994), when EFL (English as a Foreign Language) learners acquire a new L2 word, this word develops links to both L1 form and meaning, and can be accessed via either orthographic or semantic routes, depending on L2 proficiency. However, to what extent L1 influences L2 reading is still an unanswered question, because of opposite results of presence or absence of L1 translation activation during L2 processing. The rationale of these studies is that if L1 words are activated during L2 processing, it suggests L1 and L2 are lexically associated and the L2 words are accessed through L1 equivalent. If L1 words are not involved during the process, it suggests that the common concept can be directly accessed and L2 and L1 are conceptually linked, L1 lexical information bypassed.

Findings of numerous empirical studies using alphabetic bilinguals on L1 equivalents involvement have supported RHM to a large extent. L1 translation is able to mediate L2 reading, according to some studies, for example, Talamas et al.'s (1999). In their study, translation-recognition task was used to test the performance of English speakers of different Spanish proficiency. Subjects were asked to judge if the second word was the equivalent of the first. The paradigm of this experiment was that the critical trials were those which were not translation equivalents but lexically (e.g., *man-hambre* "hunger") or semantically (e.g., *man-mujer* "woman") related word pairs and subjects' response should be "no". Talamas et al. reported that low-proficiency bilinguals responded to the L2 form distractors more slowly compared with the meaning distractors, whereas more proficient bilinguals were more slowly in response to meaning distractors compared with form distractors. The overall outcome was basically in line with RHM hypothesis, in that lexical relations between the two languages dominated the linking pattern of early L2 learners, while semantic relations dominated that of highly proficient L2 learners.

However, there were also a large number of studies of null activation of L1 translation equivalents. Quite a number of studies reported results that bilinguals could access L2 conceptually, without L1 activation (e.g., De Groot, Dannenburg, & Van Hell, 1994; Zeelenberg & Pecher, 2003; La Heij et al., 1996). What these experiments had in common was that all researchers used highly proficient L2 subjects. Nevertheless, it was still unclear when learners became able to directly access concept correspondent to the L2 words. Some studies claimed that the ability to do so could emerge quite early in learning (e.g., De Groot & Poot, 1997; Altarriba & Mathis, 1997; Potter, So, Von Eckardt, & Feldman, 1984;Frenck-Mestre & Prince, 1997), while others suggested that this ability developed in different stages (e.g., Dufour & Kroll, 1995; Talamas et al, 1999). No matter at what point learners turn to change L2 processing pattern from lexical to conceptual access, L1 equivalent role is basically modulated by L2 proficiency level.

III. L1 Role in Chinese-English Bilinguals' Mental Lexicon

Chinese EFL learners are not as lucky as the alphabetic bilinguals, as Chinese and English are by no means similar in typology. Chinese characters are logographic and monosyllabic, sharing no similar orthographic or phonologic features with English. They even differ in semantics or to a larger extent than any two alphabetic languages. Therefore, their formal lexical representations are definitely separate.

Though L1 role in Chinese-English bilinguals' mental lexicon and L2 access routes can also be described by Revised Hierarchical Model (RHM) (Kroll & Stewart, 1994), findings with these subjects are somewhat inconsistent with those in line with RHM with alphabetic bilinguals in the proficiency effect. For example, in Guo *et al.*'s(2012) study (experiment 1), they studied reading mechanism of highly proficient Chinese–English bilinguals who had immersed in an English-speaking environment for years. The stimuli were Chinese and English word pairs, whose relationship between was manipulated such that the critical trials consisted of Chinese words that were not translation equivalents but were related in meaning or in lexical form similarity (i.e., orthographically and/or phonologically) to the correct translation of the English words. Behavioral measures of response time and accuracy revealed interference for both distracter types. Furthermore, similar magnitudes of semantic and lexical interference effects were observed in these proficient bilinguals. The findings indicate that in highly proficient Chinese English learners, L1 equivalent is still activated during L2 reading. Thierry *et al.*'s (2007) study was in the same line. Chinese–English participants were supposed to judge if the two English words presented in pairs were semantically related or not in the study. Half of the words contained a character repetition when translated into Chinese, which subjects were unaware of. Although reaction time was not influenced by the hidden factor, brain potentials were obviously modulated in the hypothesized direction, that is, English words were unconsciously and automatically translated into Chinese equivalents. More interestingly, the same pattern was observed in Chinese monolinguals when they read the repeated Chinese words. Finally, this pattern of

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outcome was replicated in the auditory mode by using a listening comprehension task. Their results demonstrated that L1 activation was spontaneous and inevitable mechanism of L2 comprehension in Chinese EFL learners, even in the absence of Chinese.

IV. Mechanisms of the Difference

The differences in L1 role during L2 processing between the two types of bilinguals may come from the different organization patterns of the mental lexicon. L2 representation and processing of Alphabetic bilinguals can be well explained by *Distributed Conceptual Feature Model* (DCFM) (Kroll and de Groot, 1997; de Groot, Dannenburg, & van Hell, 1994; de Groot, 1992) (figure 1) and Bilingual Interactive Activation (BIA) series (Dijkstra and Van Heuven, 1998; 2002) (figure 2). The strength of DCFM was that such lexical variable effects as concreteness effect was highly explainable in its framework. In this model, lexical nodes of both languages are related with a distributed set of conceptual features, opposite to conceptual representations in localism. As described by the DCFM, L1 and L2 meanings overlap in conceptual features to varying extent depending on different types of words that were represented. L1 role during L2 reading depends on the extent of the featural overlap. For example, L2 words sharing more common conceptual features with L1, like concrete nouns, are easier to be recognized. BIA series (BIA, BIA+, BIA++) is very popular and of high explanation power in bilingual processing because it highlights recognition of alphabetic orthography. The mechanisms of word recognition of this modal are basically activation of the relevant information and inhibition of the irrelevant. When a bunch of letters are presented, the visual information stimulates features at each letter position, which then activates letters containing these features and simultaneously inhibits letters without these features. Activated letters then excite words in both languages, while all other irrelevant words in the neighborhood are inhibited. At the word level, mutual inhibition occurs between all words, regardless of the language to which they belong. Activation of word level is passed on to the corresponding language node on the same side, which in turn sends inhibitory feedback to word nodes in the other language. The nodes at the language level collected activation from words in this language they represented and inhibited activated words of the other language. The whole process of recognizing a word in a bilingual can be described as activation of all relevant letters and words and inhibition of irrelevant ones due to feedback from the language node. Despite the different foci and strengths of each model, what these two models share in common is that they were developed exclusively for alphabetic bilinguals, whose lexeme and lemma of both languages are represented and integrated to a large extent in the brain.

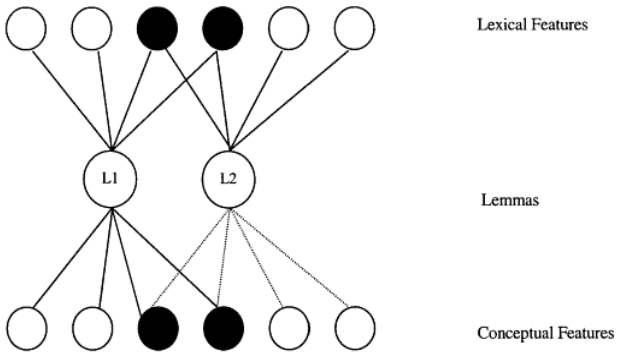

Figure 1: The Distributed Lexical/Conceptual Feature Model (DCFM) (adapted from Kroll and de Groot, 1997)

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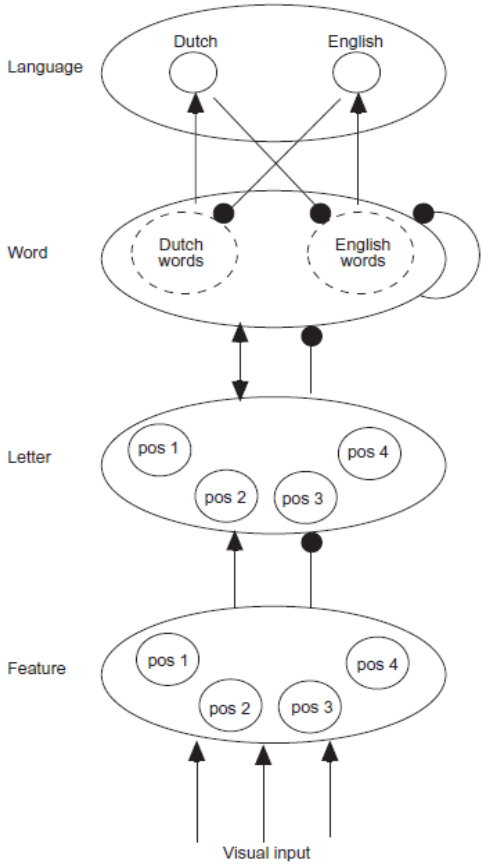

Figure 2: BIA (Ton Dijkstra& Van Heuven, 2002)

However, Chinese-English bilinguals' mental lexicon is best described in Nan Jiang's Three-stage Hypothesis (2000). First of all, Chinese and English lexemes must be represented separately. Second, L2 vocabulary acquisition is seen as consisting of three stages, as is shown in the figure 3 and 4 below: the formal stage when a lexical entry is set up with formal features, the L1 lemma mediation stage when the L2 lexical entry borrows the lemma information of the L1, mediating L2 word processing, and the L2 integration stage when semantic, syntactic, morphological specifications were integrated into the lexical entry. Jiang (2000) also argued that a majority of L2 words would fossilize at stage two because of the practical constraints imposed on L2 learning, namely, the instruction settings instead of communicative settings. Thus, generally lexical representation of Chinese-English bilinguals have three unique features. First, a lexical entry is composed of L2 lexeme and L1 lemma; second, the entry does not have adequate morphological specifications; and third, L2 words are weakly linked with concepts.

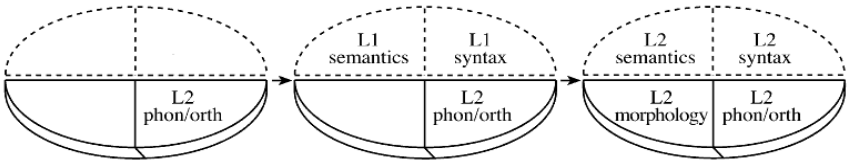

Figure 3: Development in L2 Lexical Representation: From Stage 1 to Stage 3 (Nan Jiang, 2000)

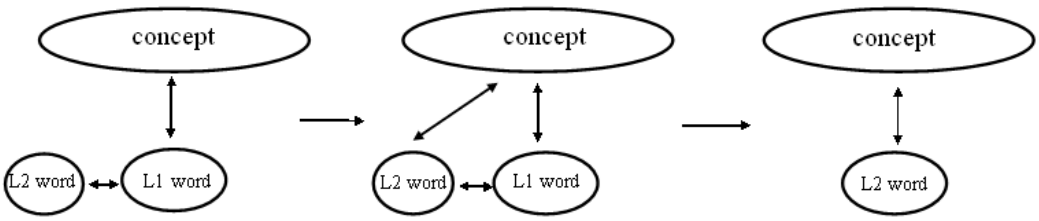

Figure 4: Development in L 2 Lexical Processing: From Stage One to Stage Three (Adapted from Nan Jiang, 2000)

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Although 3-stage hypothesis does not specifically mention the role of L1 lexeme when simulating the composition of the L2 mental lexicon, it does highlight the role of L1 word when L2 words are processed at the first two stages. At stage one, L2 words can only be accessed via L1 words, and at the next stage, L2 words can be accessed via two routes, the conceptual link between L2 form and the concept and lexical link associated with L1 words. Theoretically, any learner and any word can reach the third stage if sufficient and highly contextualized L2 input is available and processed by the learners. Unfortunately, L2 lexical development may fossilize at stage 2 and will never proceed to stage 3 due to the long-term use of L1 lemma (Jiang, 2000).

Besides the distinct typology of the two languages and the different representation of the bilingual mental lexicon, the differences between the Chinese-English and alphabetic bilinguals may also be very likely to come from practical constraints, i.e., English teaching methodology throughout the subjects' learning experience in China. As far as is known, the teaching method that is most frequently used in their high school and the time before is grammar-translation teaching, where translation equivalents are often used to illustrate or clarify an L2 word. Chinese translation equivalents are often taught as direct word-to-word mapping, which does not encourage additional meaning to be acquired.

In the instruction setting, such sentences as the followings are often produced despite L2 proficiency level, which can be good evidence of the unique representation of Chinese bilingual mental lexicon and consequences of grammar-translation teaching. The italicized sentences are the examples of inappropriate utterances in productive language tasks observed in Chinese EFL learners.

Example 1:

1)I want to study law.

2)I /want to /read /law school.

3)我/ 想 /读 / 法律学院。

Example 2:

1) I studied medicine in order to take care of my parents' health.

2).....take care of /my parents' /bodies.

3)..... 照顾 / 父母 / 身体。

The italicized sentences (sentence 2) in example 1 and 2 were what college students spontaneously produced for classroom tasks, and sentence 1)s were what they actually meant. They uttered "read law school" instead of "study law" presumably because "read" and "law school" were the translation equivalents of "读"and "法律学院" respectively, which were very native and high frequency verb-object collocation in Chinese. The same was true with example 2. "bodies" was uttered because it was the two-way translation of "身体" in Chinese. Sentence 1)s were conceptually linked to sentence 3)s, while sentence 2)s were lexically linked to them. The spontaneous output of lexically linked English sentences highly suggested the lexical links might not have totally disappeared, and perhaps even outweighed the semantic links, if there were these links. It may be argued that these students were just at a lower stage in the developmental continuum, but they were in the third year at the college of medicine, with relatively high level assessed by English proficiency tests like TOFEL. Therefore, just as 3-stage hypothesis predicts, fossilization occurs in Chinese-English bilinguals due to the long-term use of L1 lemma, the unique composition of L2 lexicon and special language learning experience.

Grammar-translation is the most efficient way to help students to be a good test taker. There is indeed evidence for the effectiveness and efficiency of this teaching method. Altarriba and Knickerbocker (2011:21-48) reported three methods, translation equivalent teaching, black and white picture teaching, and color picture teaching, lead to similar learning effect, and translation equivalent teaching is superior to two others in L2 word teaching as it leads to the fastest performance. However, as is shown in the present study, unlike alphabetic bilinguals, L1 influence and involvement in L2 processing does not disappear with proficiency. Their L1 reliance is overwhelmingly significant, and L2 concept is not able to be sufficiently established and in use. What's worse, before university, English is taught via Chinese, as Chinese is the major classroom language. Therefore, English language is likely to be learned as explicit knowledge instead of implicit knowledge that any skills should be represented as. So English teaching methodology may be the other significant factor that leads to the unique feature of the organization and processing of Chinese-English mental lexicon.

V. Pedagogical Implications

The first pedagogical implication is that establishment of L2 lemma in L2 lexicon and L2 access directly via concept is the ultimate processing pattern for an EFL learner. Chinese EFL learners' L2 lexicon is unique, different from other alphabetic bilinguals. It means there are more difficulties for Chinese learners in the attainment of the same high proficiency as alphabetic bilinguals, as the Chinese subjects recruited to the studies of the Chinese-American scientists reviewed above have the highest English proficiency in almost all Chinese learners. Only by replacement of L1 lemma by L2 lemma, can it be possible for the bilinguals to move closer to the nativeness in L2 processing. So maturity of sematic/syntactic network can be another indicator of real proficiency, instead of proficiency test result only.

Second, there are not always one-to-one translation relations between the two languages. The availability of multiple translations relates to the issue of linguistic relativity in that thoughts may be different for bilinguals when labels vary

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across their languages. Thoughts may be different in L1 and L2, if lexical forms are so distant across languages. The process of linking semantics for a better alignment with the form of a second language is thought to require more extensive exposure and practice to the second language. Therefore, understanding subtle differences in meaning and L2 concept refinement in teaching is needed throughout the process of L2 learning.

Finally, L1 inhibition should be the theme of the L2 class, as automatic L1 activation can still be observed in high-proficiency learners. It can be assumed that these EFL learners have a difficult time controlling the cross-linguistic competition. As English teachers, it is necessary to be aware of the unintentional activation of L1 and cross-language competition, and strive to minimize it in terms of teaching methods. These methods that are predicated on notions of L1 inhibition could be conceived for teaching a second language. In a communicative L2 classroom, for example, L1 use is intentionally avoided. English learners in this setting are often asked to think of that classroom as a "little USA or UK". English teachers, making every effort to simulate this cultural environment, maintain all-English settings in the class at all times. When teaching vocabulary, they use such various techniques as pictures, context, miming, and circumlocution to avoid the L1, in an attempt to develop form-meaning links for L2 learners. L1 use may be a shortcut for the learners to acquire L2 forms and develop lexical links at the form level between the two languages in the very beginning of learning, but it might be detrimental to the learning process in the long run. Therefore, maintaining enough amount of L2 and keeping learners in the L2 mode is critical to link the L2 lexeme to L2 lemma, which is the ultimate stage of L2 learning.

In summary, L1 lexicon plays a role in L2 processing in two aspects for alphabetic bilinguals, automatic activation of similar L1 to sensory input of L2, modulated by lexical variables, such as neighborhood density and frequency on both sides, and that of L1 translation equivalent, modulated by L2 proficiency. While for Chinese English learners, L1 lexicon basically influences L2 by strong lexical link and equivalent activation only, which may persist throughout their lives, despite their L2 proficiency level. The mechanisms of the differences may be typological, psychological and practical.

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Foreign Language Anxiety and Learner Beliefs in Second Language Learning: A Research Timeline

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***Abstract*—Research in second language learning has significantly demonstrated that foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs have been the main domain of inquiry in applied linguistics. Such interest has seen upsurge in studies on L2 anxiety and learner beliefs. This study tends to review language anxiety and learner beliefs in language learning. The review shows moderate and high levels of language anxiety in studies including negative correlation between anxiety and achievement. In addition, it also reveals that learner beliefs have played a role in increasing language anxiety. Moreover, research studies on FLA (foreign language anxiety) and LB (learner beliefs) describe a whole scenario of the exiting literature. The study also critiques some pedagogical strategies suggested in research and how far these are applicable in decreasing language anxiety and avoiding incorrect beliefs about language learning. Further, the research review suggests that different approaches are used to quantify language anxiety and to describe beliefs in language learning. Since, the prime purpose of the study is to review the approaches and their validity and reliability in describing language anxiety and beliefs. The study synthesizes foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs studies and offers some recommendations in order to complement and supplement the existing literature.**

***Index Terms*—foreign language anxiety, learner beliefs, research approaches**

I. Introduction

This review of related literature on foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs describes the concerned phenomena investigated empirically in different contexts. This review also covers some historical perspective of anxiety and learner beliefs research. This study is significant from theoretical perspectives. First, the study supplements and complements the existing literature on foreign language anxiety and learners beliefs in second language learning. Thus, a great deal of research is still required to describe these two problems related with language learning. Second, the study not only describes the concerned issues but also provides in depth understanding, insight and recommendations for researchers and teachers who teach at university level in Pakistan in particular. The research review provides pedagogical benefits to teachers and policy makers who design curriculum at higher education level. Last but not least, this study identifies gaps and creates a platform for further research and broadens a scope of foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs about language learning in Pakistan. This study undergoes a systematic review of literature on foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs about language learning.

Since, research has significantly demonstrated that foreign language anxiety is an important affect factor in second language acquisition (Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope, 1986; Aida 1994; Woodrow, 2006). Affect refers to "emotions, feelings, beliefs, moods and attitudes which greatly influence our behavior (Morgan, 2009, p. 145). The question is which feelings and beliefs affect language learning? However, research is still silent on specifying feelings and emotions which influence the level of anxiety. Students' feelings of nervousness, stress, anxiety and beliefs of accuracy and fluency about language learning have taken a great place in the domain of second language research. These however, may affect the process of learning second language. Scovel (2000) is of the view that researchers have failed to understand affect in research because they have mostly focused quantitative paradigm to examine affect. So this idea of Scovel entails that affect needs to be explored not only quantitatively but also qualitatively in second language learning and teaching research. Such focus on affect in research can make it effective and affective. Moreover, it can also bring some pedagogical benefits in teaching and learning practices at higher educational institutes. According to Horwitz (1989) it is actually a serious mistake to discuss foreign language anxiety and avoid considering emotional reactions of students to language learning. This idea was carried out and confirmed in the study of Tallon (2006) which

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suggested learners' emotional representations of uncomfortable experiences are very significant in language learning. This confirmation may refer L2 anxiety to be a matter of great inquiry for researchers. Moreover, research has described some sources which trigger language anxiety among learners at all levels. Among the sources, learners' beliefs may have contributed a lot in the context of arousal of anxiety in classroom. For example, Horwitz (1988) also pointed out 'students who believe that language learning consists of translation, or vocabulary memorization, or grammar translation are not likely to adopt the types of holistic strategies associated with successful language learners' (p. 292). However, these beliefs of language learning may also contribute as the basis of anxiety among students. Therefore, in depth understanding of the problems of foreign language anxiety (FLA) and learners' beliefs can supplement the existing literature and help teachers improve teaching and learning practices at university levels.

II. Foreign / Second Language Anxiety Research

In foreign language anxiety research, Chastain (1975) conducted a study which resulted showing no significant correlation. Later, two concepts of language anxiety; facilitating and debilitating were determined in study of Kleinmann, (1977). This study was conducted on Spanish and Arab students who happened to avoid structures in English language. However, a very interesting research was carried out by Scovel (1978) who identified some previous studies which lacked consistency and indicated inconsistent results. What he did was a development of instrument which measured L2 anxiety. It may be basically a step towards the consistent measuring instruments for anxiety research.

Moreover, diary study in language anxiety was initiated by Bailey (1983). This attempt was made to investigate language learners who tend to compare themselves with others negatively and become victim of lower self-esteem. It was a classroom based research which developed gradually developed and indicated learners' psychological barriers in L2 learning. In a study of affective factors, Gardner (1985) is considered to be authority because he took initiatives and introduced Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) in order to measure affective factors such as motivation, attitude and anxiety. He excelled in that field and developed instrument which is valid and reliable. Later, a big change came out in the research of Horwitz, Horwitz & Cope (1986) who introduced foreign language classroom anxiety scale. The scale proved to be highly valid and reliable in anxiety research. This was based on 33 items ranging from strongly disagree to strongly agree). Thus, the scale consisted of three main components communication anxiety, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Now onwards, the question of inconsistent results in anxiety research was resolved with development of appropriate instrument.

Furthermore, Young (1990) surveyed on 200 university and high school Spanish students. In her research, it was revealed that students were found more interested in group activities and less anxious in learning. Teachers' involvement in classroom as a facilitator was positively reported to be lower anxiety provoking. Simultaneously, Young carried out another research in 1991. In this study, she classified the factors which mainly cause language anxiety among learners. Such factors were (1) personal and interpersonal (2) learner beliefs about language learning (3) instructor's belief about language teaching (4) instructor- learner interaction (5) classroom procedures and language testing. This study was unique and distinctive because it introduced main factors which caused foreign language anxiety.

A study of Horwitz et al, (1986) on foreign language anxiety which was replicated by Aida (1994) in the Non-Western context. The FLCAS was utilized to measure anxiety among students. She identified four factors; speech anxiety and fear of negative evaluation fear of failing, comfortableness in speaking with native Japanese, and negative attitudes towards the class (Aida, 1994). In the same vein, Gardner and MacIntyre, (1994) reported three stages of anxiety known as input, processing and output. They declared that students' poor performance is related with these stages. Moreover, their research also indicated strong relationship at processing and output stages.

Up till now, we have discussed language anxiety from students' perspectives. The way they experienced language anxiety in L2 learning. In contrast, Horwitz (1996) suggested in her study that non-native teachers may suffer from anxiety with negative consequences in classroom. In terms of teaching methodology, Horwitz also pointed out that teachers select approaches which may not enhance communication rather increase students' anxiety. To examine anxiety among non- native teachers, Teacher Foreign Language Anxiety (TFLAS) scale was developed. Horwitz (1996) suggests that anxiety should be investigated from non-native teachers' perspectives. In this context, Gregersen, and Horwitz, (2002) documented pre English teachers who were reported anxious and non-anxious. In collecting data, a video tape recorder was used to interview teachers. The results indicated anxious teachers avoided making mistakes while no anxious teachers went talking without thinking of mistakes they make in classroom. Another model to examine foreign language anxiety known as WTC was developed by MacIntyre et al., (1998). This was introduced as an alternative for FLA. This scale shows influence of anxiety when L2 is produced. Later, Onwuegbuzie, (1999) determined some of the characteristics associated with level of anxiety at university level. Among these, low expectations, negative perception and the self were mainly reported in the study.

A study conducted by Spitalli (2000) at American high school, suggests significant negative relationship between FLCAS scores and attitudes towards people from different cultures. With continued idea of anxiety, Horwitz, (2000) reviewed literature and suggested that it is essential to understand anxiety in learning. By understanding anxiety, teachers need to understand and listen to students' problems associated with learning. Students having exposed to overseas are found less anxious in leaning (Matsuda & Gobel, 2004). This research was conducted on students at

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university level in japan. Horwitz (2010) describes a research article written by MacIntyre (2007) on FLA and WTC as suggesting situation and trait states. Similarly, Liu and Jackson (2008) suggested foreign language anxiety and willingness to communicate as supplementary approaches to delve deep in students' emotional reactions to language learning and language use. They reported significant correlation between Chinese students WTC and FLA.

III. Research on Learner Beliefs

In study of Young (1991), some factors were revealed which contribute in language anxiety. Among these, instructor beliefs about language learning, learner beliefs about language learning are focus of the study. Through these factors, the study of Young shows that leaner beliefs play a significant role in second language learning. The idea of Young was extended in the research studies of Wen and Clement (2003) and Peng (2007). These studies support the study of Young that learners' beliefs have an important role to play in language learning. However, some beliefs which have been extensively reported are accuracy and fluency in second language learning. These need to be maintained otherwise learning may be negatively affected. For example, in research of Gynan, (1989) and Horwitz, (1984), it is confirmed that learners are not without beliefs. Further, Gynan (1989) researched on beliefs reported that learners were stuck with idea that pronunciation is the most important factor to learn second language. Research in second language confirms that learners develop these beliefs about language learning. It is noticed learners' beliefs are very important in learning second language. Above cited studies show that beliefs have been investigated to determine learners problems associated with language learning. Only research on learner beliefs may not suffice because one sided picture is shown. In contrast, there is a need to research teachers' beliefs. And such research was initiated by Pajares (1992) who documented complexity in teachers' beliefs in second language learning. Some cause of such complexity were also identified in the study. Among these, poor conceptualization and difference in perception of beliefs and their structures.

A very interesting study was conducted by Peacock (2001). This was a longitudinal research on learner beliefs. The prime aim of study was to examine changes in beliefs about language learning. Data were collected from 146 trainee ESL students who were enrolled at the City University of Hong Kong. The study concluded with no significant changes in beliefs. However, some differences were noticed in key areas; learning second language means to remember a lot of words and master rules of grammar including those who communicate in more than one language are considered to be very talented. Peacock (2001) suggested that learning vocabulary was overemphasized by the respondents of the study. Continued with idea of beliefs, a study of Ohata (2005) indicated that teachers' perceptions should be recoded because these play an important role in students' anxiety. This way, researchers can come to understand the way teachers relate students' foreign level in classroom. Further, Atlan (2006) conducted a research on learner beliefs and administered questionnaire to collect data from 248 respondents who were enrolled in different disciplines at different universities. The results of study indicated a range of beliefs with various degrees of validity. The study also confirmed that learners have a set of fixed beliefs about second language learning. Beliefs about Language Learning Inventory, (BALLI) was re-examined to report its reliability and validity in research. This attempt was made by Nikitina and Furuoka (2006) at university Malaysia Sabah. The results of research indicated that BALLI is very suitable research instrument to measure learners' beliefs in any sociolinguistics settings (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2006). FLA and LB research confirms some dominant factors provoking anxiety among learners; learners beliefs on FL learning (Ohata, 2005); instructors' beliefs on FL teaching (Tanveer, 2007); classroom procedure (Williams & Andrade, 20008); self- esteem (Wang, 2009); societal interference, lack of confidence, and lack of preparation (Wei , 2012, 2013, 2014). More importantly, second language research has mostly focused on learners' proficiency levels and it has ignored the issues such demotivation and anxiety in accordance to classroom teachings (Pappamihiel, 2002). In addition, a lack of research has extensively been observed on learners' beliefs about language learning in developing countries in particular Pakistan. It is identified that research has been exclusively conducted on foreign language anxiety and learners beliefs in developed countries like USA, UK, China and Japan. Moreover, not many studies have correlated language anxiety and beliefs in research.

IV. Qualitative V/s Quantitative Approaches

A great deal of research on foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs has been conducted using quantitative approach (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Woodrow, 2006; Horwitz 2010). In quantitative approach, questionnaire has been proved a reliable instrument in gathering data. Quantitative instruments (e.g.… FLCAS, BALLI, TFLAS, ESA, AMTB). Researchers and linguistics discussed and initiated an idea that only quantitative approach didn't suffice research on FLA and LB. There is still much to explore. However, the qualitative approach is followed in order to show in depth understanding of investigated phenomena. Researchers have used quantitative and qualitative methods to investigate foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs in second language learning. After these two approaches, the third wave of approach is mixed methods research. For example, Johnson and Onwugbuzie (2004) interpret it as ''the class of research where the researcher mixes or combines quantitative and qualitative research techniques, methods, approaches, concepts or language into a single study''(p. 17). Recently, this approach is used in research to examine learning issues from more than one aspect. Simply, the prime purpose is to provide clear picture of research problems.

V. Recommendations

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Foreign language anxiety and teacher beliefs may be explored among the non- native at university education. This type of research needs to be operationalized in Pakistan in particular. For example, why students continue and discontinue their studies. Reasons for such issues may be properly addressed in research. It may be systematically explored in research. Moreover, a longitudinal study is required to address anxiety and beliefs in learning. This may help researchers to identify any change among their learners. A literature review recommends a number of things. For example, first, teachers need to create atmosphere of learning which keeps learners comfortable and easy. Second, this can be implemented if we follow Horwitz idea of understanding students learning problems. Teachers play an important role to decrease level of anxiety and clarify incorrect beliefs in learning (MacIntyre, 2007). In this process, L2 anxiety and learner beliefs may not affect learning in classroom.

VI. Conclusion

A review of related literature on language anxiety and learner beliefs entails that L2 anxiety and learner beliefs are challenging issues in second language learning; however, researchers and practitioners should address these systematically and offer thorough understanding. A cited review suggests serious efforts are required explore extensive picture. A systematic research is still needed to confirm previous studies on foreign language anxiety and learner beliefs. This theoretical perspective suggests research timeline conducted so far. It is also noticed that studies have provided consistent results in L2 anxiety and learner beliefs. Horwitz, Gardner and MacIntyre developed appropriate instruments in research timeline. In other words, this review shows consistency in research studies on L2 anxiety and learner beliefs.

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A Social Semiotic Approach to Multimodal Discourse of the Badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University

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***Abstract*—Using the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University as an example, this article aims to unravel that both literal expression and visual imagery have the ideographic function. The analysis in this article primarily utilizes the theoretical framework of the visual communication grammar, which is developed by Kress & Van Leeuwen from Halliday's systemic functional linguistics. By analyzing the representational, interactive, and compositional meaning of the school badge, this article shows that school badges have rich connotations and the ability to interpret them should be attached importance. Furthermore, this article aims to make a little contribution to the interpretation of school badges.**

***Index Terms*—multimodal discourse, social semiotics, school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University**

I. Introduction

Nowadays, people's daily life is changed a lot with the fast development of science and technology, and a quite obvious change is that both language and other social semiotic are involved in daily communication. In this multimodal society, people always communicate and pass on information through the co-employment of semiotic resources. Many foreign linguists have made research on multimodality and social semiotics (Halliday, 1978; Jewitt, 2009; Kress &Van Leeuwen, 1996; O'Halloran, 2011). In China, many scholars also paid much attention to the theoretical framework of multimodal discourse analysis (Li Zhanzi, 2003; Li Huabing, 2013; Zhu Yongsheng, 2007). They give the definition of multimodality and introduce some important theories such as Kress and Leeuwen's social semiotic approach to multimodal discourse and Halliday's systemic functional grammar. Besidess, some scholars also try to use the social semiotic approach to analyze the multimodal discourse such as statue, logo and picture (Li Lijuan, 2009; Zhang Junyan, 2013; Li Enghui, 2012; Wendy, L. B.& Jennifer, Y. L., 2014). Their analyses show that the social semiotic approach is really suitable and useful to analyze the multimodal discourse and it helps people to interpret pictures or statues or some other multimodal discourses.

Hu Zhuanglin (2007) points out that in this multimodalized age, the capability of interpreting the multimodal discourse should be attached great importance. The badge is a school's symbol which could well represents school's spirit and pursuit. All most all universities have the particular and meaningful badges. However, not all of them have been correctly interpreted and recognized. The ability to interpret these school badges is necessary, to which should be paid much attention. Though the social semiotic approach is paid much attention to when analyzing the multimodal discourse like statue and pictures, few articles focus on the school badge. Taking the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University as an example, this article uses the social semiotic approach to analyze the representational, interactive, and compositional meaning of the badge, hoping to give some help to the readers and make a little contribution to the interpretation of school badges.

II. The Theoretical Framework of Multimodal Discourse Analysis

1. Multimodal Discourse

Many scholars try to give a definition to multimodal discourse. Van Leeuwen (2005) points out that "multimodality means the combination of different semiotic modes—for example, language and music—in a communicative artifact or event". A more specific definition is that "multimodal discourse involves the interaction of multiple semiotic resources such as language, gesture, dress, architecture, proximity lighting, movement, gaze, camera angle, and so on" (O'Halloran, Tan, Smith & Podlasov, 2011).

From the perspective of multimodal discourse analysis, Jewitt (2009) puts forward that "multimodality describes approaches that understand communication and representation to be more than about language, and which attend to the full range of communicational forms people use-image, gesture, gaze, posture, and so on-and the relationships between them".

Jewitt (2009) thinks that there are four interconnected theoretical assumptions underpin multimodality:

The first is that language is part of a multimodal ensemble and representation and communication always draw on a multiplicity of modes, all of which have the potential to contribute equally to meaning. The second is that each mode in

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a multimodal ensemble is understood as realizing different communicative work. Multimodality assumes that all modes have, like language, been shaped through their cultural, historical and social uses to realize social functions. The third is that people orchestrate meaning through their selection and configuration of modes. The fourth is that meanings of signs fashioned from multimodal semiotic resources are, like speech, social.

Kress (2012) also holds the same view and thinks that "in a multimodality approach, all modes are framed as one field, as one domain. Jointly they are treated as one connected cultural resources for meaning-making by members of a social group at a particular moment."

Besides, in China, some linguists also develop the theory of Multimodal Discourse Analysis and point out their own views about it. Zhu Yongsheng (2007) proposes two kinds of standards to judge whether it is multimodal discourse or not. The first criterion has already accepted wide recognition in Chinese academic circles. It is realized by judging how many kinds of modality are involved in the discourse. If there is only one modality used in the text, it can be called monomodal discourse while if there are two or more kinds of modality involved, it can be called multimodal discourse. The second criterion is realized by judging how many semiotic systems are involved. Some discourses only consist one kind of modality while some of them contain more than one semiotic system, such as comic strips (which only involve visual modality, but contain both wordage and pictures).

2. The Theoretical Framework of the Social Semiotic Approach to Multimodal Discourse Analysis

The multimodal social semiotic approach draws upon Halliday's systemic functional (SF) theory to provide frameworks for conceptualizing the complex array of semiotic resources which are used to create meaning and detailed practices for analyzing the meaning arising from the integrated use of those resources in communicative artifacts and events (O'Halloran, 2011).

In Halliday's SFG (Systemic Functional Grammar), language contains three systems, that is, semantic system, lexico-grammatical system and phonological system. Among the three systems, semantic system is the core one which involves three metafunctions: ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function. For Halliday (1978), "the grammar of a language is not a code, not a set of rules for producing correct sentences, but a resource for making meanings". Halliday suggests that every sign simultaneously tells people something about "the world" (ideational meaning), position people in relation to someone or something (interpersonal meaning) and produces a structured text (textual meaning) (Halliday, as cited in Bezemer & Jewitt, 2011).

O'Toole and Kress and van Leeuwen develop Halliday's idea to the grammar of other semiotic modes. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) believe that the visual images (e.g. pictures, color, typography) and other semiotic system are similar to language and also can be used to fulfill the three metafunctions. Social semiotics holds the view that language and image often act different epistomological roles in multimodal discourse due to their separate "affordances" (which is closely related to semiotic potential) (Kress, 2003). Language represents narrative world, while image illustrates displayed world.

Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) quote the theoretical concept of "metafunction" from Halliday's SFG and put forward three metafunctions in VG (Visual Grammar): representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning. When applied to visual systems, the ideational metafunction organizes the way that "represented participants' relate to each other to represent the world around us" (Kress and van Leeuwen, 1996). The interpersonal metafunction controls the interaction between the represented participants and viewers and the textual metafunction makes the image form a whole by putting the pieces together as a complete work.

It is Kress and van Leeuwen that improve the theoretical principle of the social semiotic approach to multimodal discourse analysis by reorganize other related theories. And after their theory being completed, many scholars begin to use the social semiotic to analyze the multimodal discourse both in home and abroad. This article also follows their pattern and analyzes the the representational, interactive, and compositional meaning of the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University.

III. The Social Semiotic Approach to Multimodal Discourse Analysis of the School Badge

Badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University belongs to multimodal discourse, since it is made up by image, language and color, whose meaning is realized through more than one social semiotic (Kress &Van Leeuwen, 1996). So this article will use the social semiotic approach to analyze the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University.

Xi'an Jiaotong University grew out of Nan Yang Gongxue which was set up in 1896. In the year of 1926, its name was changed to Nan Yang University and the president Ling Hongxun decided to use a new badge to this university (which is presented in Figure 1).

In 1956, Nan Yang University was moved to Xi'an to meet the demand of economic development. In 1959, The State Council decided that the Xi'an's part and Shanghai's part should become independent and they named the two parts as Xi'an Jiaotong University and Shanghai Jiaotong University respectively. Until now, the two schools badges continue to utilize the original design concept and the two badges of Xi'an Jiaotong University and Shanghai Jiaotong University are very similar.

The shape of the 1926 edition is circular. In the center of this circle, there is an anvil. On the left of the anvil, there is a hammer and on the right a chain is hanging there. Several books written in Chinese and foreign languages are put on the anvil. These designs have the implication of attaching equal importance to the education of engineering and

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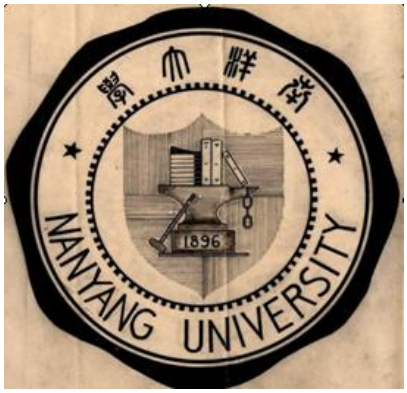
education of juvenile delinquents and paying much attention to knowledge from both China and the West. On the base of the anvil, there are Arabic numerals "1896", indicating the starting year of the university. The background of the anvil is a shield, which is used to encourage teachers and students to be loyal to Jiaotong University and to have the courage to make progress. Surrounding the shield, there is a cross section of gear which is similar to the armature of electric machinery, indicating the major of engineering and the traffic specialty. And it also can be the metaphor of the development of transportation. Out of the gear circle, there are the names of university both in Chinese and English, hoping that the university will win far-flung fame. The Chinese name uses the seal script ("zhuan shu") and the English name uses regular script ("Kai shu"). They hope that the university could be well known at home and abroad (this paraphrase is from Xu Zhengchi's *The Meaning of Nanyang University's New Badge,* cited from Zhang Xiaoya).

Comparing the two badges, it can be found that today's badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University (which is presented in Figure 2) basically continues to use the original pattern of the 1926 edition. Therefore, it is necessary to mention the original edition of badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University when analyzing its meaning.



(Figure1, cited from Zhang Xiaoya)

(Figure2, cited from the official web page of Xi'an Jiaotong University)

1. The Image Analysis

1.1 Representational Meaning

The representational meaning of VG is corresponding to the ideational function in SFG. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) point out that "any semiotic system has to be able to represent, in a referential or pseudo-referential sense, aspects of the experiential world outside its particular system of signs". They divide the representational metafunctions into two processes: the narrative process and the conceptual process. They think that narrative process involves ongoing actions or events, in which actors are represented by vectors—either real or imaginary, while conceptual process is related with classification or analysis of participants in terms of their stable and timeless essence, for instance, graphics, diagrams, etc. There are three kinds of conceptual processes: classificational process, analytical process and symbolic process.

According to this definition, the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University is a kind of conceptual image and thus the following discussion will focus on the conceptual process of the badge.

In the classificational process, the participants are connected through taxonomy relation, in which at least one set of participants would be subordinate and the other superordinate. However, the taxonomy relation can be covert or overt, which depends on whether the larger, more general class appears or not. In some visual images, "the 'Superordinate' is either only indicated in the accompanying text, or inferred from such similarities as the viewer may perceive to exist between the 'Subordinate'" (Kress & van Leeuwen, 1996). The classificational process of these images is covert. In the covert classification process, the participants are realized in an equal and symmetrical composition, that is, the

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participants are equal. The school badge Xi'an Jiaotong University belongs to the covert taxonomy. In this badge, the center image is an anvil with the books on it and the distance between the gear and the anvil is virtually equal. Therefore, the participants of the gear, two circles and the anvil are together used to represent the whole appearance of the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University. The equal distance gives the readers a kind of harmonious impression.

In the analytical process, there should be a part-whole structure in participants, in which two kinds of participants are involved, namely, the carrier (the whole) and the possessive attributes (the part). In this school badge, the Xi'an Jiaotong University is the carrier, which is the focus of the reader. The other components of this badge are the possessive attributes. The gear and the anvil are used to stands for the two distinguishing majors of this school. While the chain, hammer and the setting year "1896" which are surrounded by the Chinese name and English name of this university are combine with the center to obviously represent the structure of the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University. The whole structure well embodies the academic atmosphere of this university.

The symbolic process is about the implied meaning of the participants. The symbolic process usually consists of two kinds of participants. One participant acts as the 'Carrier', and the meaning or of it has been identified in the relations. The other participant stands for the meaning or identity, that is'Symbolic Attribute'. The school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University belongs to the latter. In this school badge, the anvil, the chain, the hammer and the gear are all combined to stand for the meaning of transportation ("Jiaotong" in Chinese) and stress its two distinguishing majors-traffic and transportation. The books on the anvil also symbolize that Jiaotong University also pays much attention to the education of engineering. The English name of this university also shows that this university aims to get the international recognition and popularity. Therefore, all of the components in this badge have the symbolic meaning and the combination of them well embodies the spirit and pursuit of this university.

1.2 Interactive Meaning

The interactive meaning of VG is corresponding to the interpersonal function of SFG. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) point out that "any semiotic system has to be able to project the relations between the producer of a sign or complex sign, and the receiver/reproducer of that sign". They thought that the realization of the interactive meaning involves four elements: social distance, contact, perspective and modality.

According to the definition of social distance, contact and perspective, it can be found that these three elements are not closely related with the school badges. Therefore, the modality is paid much attention in the following analysis.

For the perspective of systemic functional linguistics, modality refers to the speaker's attitude towards the proposition expressed in the utterance. All means of expressions have modality resources (van Leewen, 2005). In social semiotics, modality is often connected with truthfulness. However, it is not a concept that distinguishes the real from the unreal absolutely but one that is related with the issue of representation: reality or fiction, credibility or incredibility and so on. In Visual Grammar, there are three categories of modality: high modality, middle modality and low modality. van Leewen (2005) put forwards several modality markers to judge how real an image is. Each modality marker is a continuum which includes two extremes: the highest modality and the lowest modality. For example, in terms of color saturation, the neutral saturation expresses the highest modality while either full color saturation or black and white expresses the lowest modality. The detailed information is presented in Table 1.

TABLE3. 1
REPRESENTATION OF HIGHEST AND LOWEST MODALITY

Contextualization	Most detailed context	Absence of background
Absence of background	Neutral saturation	Either full color saturation or black and white
Color differentiation	Maximally diversified color range	Monochrome
Image depth	Maximally deep perspective	Absence of depth
Illumination	Maximum representation of the play of light and shade	Absence of representation of Light and shade play
Brightness	Maximum number of different degrees of brightness	Just two degrees (black and white; two brightness values of the same color; etc)

The analysis of the modality of the badge is based on this modality marker. The badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University is often standard red. In Chinese culture, the bright red has the positive connotation—passion, strength, vigor and the strong confidence. This kind of color has often high modality. The red badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University indicates that this school is full of passion and strength and the members in this school have the strong confidence to make more progress and establish a better university. The color of school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University is sometimes standard blue. The blue represents wisdom, calmness, courage and reason. The pure blue also has high modality. The blue badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University indicates that this school has the courage to meet the challenges and the teachers and students are encouraged to be wise, calm and reasonable, just trying their best to carry forward the fine tradition of this school. In a word, the two color of the school badge give the readers impression that this university has the fine tradition and strength, courage to meet the challenges and make it better. From the above analysis, it can be concluded that the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University is high modality.

1.3 Compositional Meaning

The compositional meaning of VG is corresponding to the textual function of SFG. Kress and van Leeuwen (1996) point out that any semiotic system has to have the capacity to form texts, complexes of signs which cohere both

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internally and with the context in and for which they are produced. They thought that composition refers to "the way in which the representational and interactive elements are made to relate to each other and the way they are integrated into a meaningful whole". They also analyze the three resources of compositional meaning: informative value, framing and salience.

Information value is realized through the placement of elements in the image. For Kress and van Leeuwen, the left-right arrangement is a Given-New information structure. The Top-Bottom structure embodies Ideal-Real information. The center-margin composition provides important-less information.

In this school badge, the Chinese name is put into the top of the whole circle while the English name is put in the bottom, indicating that the Chinese name is more ideal and salient while the English name is more real and less salient. Xi'an Jiaotong University grew out of Nanyang Gongxue, which is an old Chinese school, so it is reasonable to place its Chinese name in the spotlight to stress its relationship with the "Jiaotong University". Compared with the center image, the Chinese and English names are marginal. The center image is more important and salient, attracting the readers attention more easily and offering more information.

Salience refers to different degrees to which elements attract the viewers' attention, which can be achieved through size, sharpness of focus, tonal contrast, color contrast, perspective and it is also affected by cultural difference. In this badge, "交通大学" is in "*Mao Ti*" (a style of calligraphy) and boldface, and at the same time, its English name "XI'AN JIAOTONG UNIVERSITY" is written in capitals and the typeface is *Times New Roman*. All of these designs embody that Xi'an Jiaotong University strictly conforms to the standard usage of school's name. The gear and the anvil which quite vividly depict the wheel and the transportation also attract readers' attention.

2. The Meaning Construction of Multimodal Discourse

Kress and Van Leewen (1996) points out that there are some relationships between the image and the language, yet the image is not dependent on the language explanation for itself has its own structure and organization. The image itself could produce the representational meaning, interactive meaning and compositional meaning. The interpreting of image is arbitrary to some extent and in different context there would be different interpretation. The language explanation makes the concrete image more specific and it also can reflect the meaning of the image more clearly. At the same time, the image makes the content of language more vivid. Therefore, the combination of language and image which are both a kind of social semiotic, would communicate meaning more comprehensively and efficiently. The school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University is made up by the language and the image, the combination of these social semiotic vividly and completely convey the rich meaning, which would embody the school's spirit and encourage its members. Therefore, these social semiotics are all meaning-making resources, which are well combined to represent the meaning of this badge.

IV. Conclusion

Utilizing the theoretical framework of the visual communication grammar, which is developed by Kress & Van Leeuwen from Halliday's systemic functional linguistics, this article analyzes the representational, interactive, and compositional meaning of the school badge of Xi'an Jiaotong University. From the above MDA of this school badge, it can be concluded that both literal expression and visual imagery have the ideographic function.

In this multi-media age, the traditional literacy is not enough. By analyzing the school badge, this article shows that school badges have rich connotations and the ability to read them should be attached importance. What's more, it can be concluded that only by combining the language with other social semiotics and paying much attention to the function of all of them, can people have the comprehensive and correct understanding of the multimodal discourses in this modern society.

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An Analysis of *The Falls* from the Perspective of Gothic

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***Abstract*—This research studied the Gothic traditions in *The Falls* from its themes, languages and mysterious setting. Though Joyce Carol Oates may refuse to be characterized as a Gothic writer, more often than not she is regarded as such for the all-encompassing violence and deaths in her works. She treats the Gothic traditions as an appropriate way to obtain her writing objectives. Instead of sticking to the old Gothic conventions rigidly, she revises it in creative and ingenious ways. This research also focuses on its mysterious setting. In traditional Gothic fictions, the scenes are often set in gloomy places like the dark subterranean castles, the outlandish and desolate houses, and the confined decaying abbey. However, the Gothic novels develop with times and acquire new features. In *The Falls,* Oates places her story against the modern scenic spot Niagara Falls, which is the symbol of supernatural power and seduces people to do many unimaginably queer things. To conclude, *The Falls* has a kinship with the Gothic traditions in terms of its themes, languages and settings. With this Gothic tradition in *The Falls*, Oates successfully arouses readers' interest and exposes the darkness of the society.**

***Index Terms*—Oates, *The Falls*, Gothic, death, violence**

I. Introduction

The word "Gothic" originally refers to some barbaric tribes in Scandinavian Peninsula. In a letter to the pope, the Italian painting master Raphael first used the word "Gothic" to criticize an architectural type in the north and central Europe, a style that represented the Catholic idea of theology. In the 18th century, Horace Walpole turned his abode into "a little Gothic castle," established a printing press, and published *The Castle of Otranto*. This novel had a huge influence which eventually resulted in a literary genre called "Gothic novel," partly because Walpole wrote his book in his "Gothic castle," partly because the content was related to the Middle Ages, and partly because it told things that were wild, bloody, and barbarous. Walpole was imitated by many writers all over the European continent and America. At the end of the nineteenth century, the Gothic fiction made its way into a new continent—America. While the British tradition of the Gothic has exerted a strong influence over American authors of Gothic fiction, some have posited a distinct American Gothic genre, which utilizes different recurring elements and themes from that of the British tradition.

Under the influence of British and European Gothic from abroad, the Gothic mode came into being in the American fictions. Gothic cultural role has been entirely paradoxical: an optimistic country founded upon the Enlightenment principles of liberty and the pursuit of happiness, a country that supposedly repudiated the burden of history and its irrational claims, has produced a strain of literature that is haunted by an insistent, undead past and fascinated by the strange beauty of sorrow. The writers of the new republic were deeply influenced by the narrative situations, conflicts, settings, and motifs that made British Gothic so popular on both sides of the Atlantic. The perverse pleasures that acquired conventional status in the Gothic by the early nineteenth century--claustrophobia, atmospheric, gloom, the imminence of violence were generated in early American literature too, and by such standard architectural locales as the haunted house, the prison, the tomb, and by such familiar plot elements as the paternal curse and the vengeful ghost. However, the specificity of American Gothic, what makes it distinctively American, does not come just from formulaic plots and situations of an aristocratic genre being adapted to the democratic situation of the new world, but also comes from the penetrating psychological description.. It achieves the ultimate effects of the haunted, the uncanny and the return of the repressed while placing these thoroughly in the depths of American life and the American psyche.

Botting summarize the feature of Gothic in term of literature, saying that it refers to the fiction which has a mysterious and depressing atmosphere. Early Gothic novel is the fiction of the haunted castle, of heroine preyed on by unspeakable terrors, of the evil villain, of ghosts, vampires and monsters (Botting, 1996, p. 17).

Abrams gives a definition to Gothic in Literature saying that it

set in a gloomy castle furnished with dungeons, subterranean passages, and sliding panels and the typical story focuses on the sufferings imposed on an innocent heroine by a cruel and lustful villain, and made bountiful use of ghosts, mysterious disappearances, and other sensational and supernatural occurrences, The principal aim was to evoke chilling terror by exploiting mystery and a variety of horrors. (Abrams, 2004, p. 111)

Their statement point out that the Gothic writings create feelings of gloom, mystery, terror, suspense and fear as they seek to explore humanity's dark side and arouse questions in mankind concerning good vs. evil, the role of the supernatural, the experience of fear or terror, and others.

Born on 16 June 1938 in Lockport, New York, the prolific and versatile writer Joyce Carol Oates began her writing

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career since the publication of *By the North Gate* in 1963. Until now she has published more than fifty novels and novellas, thirty-one short story collections, eight poetry collections, eight drama collections, twelve essays and nonfictions, seventeen anthologies, and eight books for teenagers. As one representative of contemporary female writers, Joyce Carol Oates has won countless awards, among which is National Book Award for *them* in 1970, Bram Stoker Award for Novel for *Zombie* in 1996, and Prix Femina Etranger for *The Falls* in 2005, etc. She is praised as "the finest American novelist, man or woman since Faulkner" (Johnson, 1998, p. xvii). For more than twenty-five years, Oates has been rumored to be a favorite to win the Nobel Prize in Literature by critics.

Along with the stunning quantity and awards is her flexible employment of different literary devices in her works: stream of consciousness, flashback, the use of pastiche, the gothic elements and other experimental forms. Oates's novels, for instance, include naturalistic portrayals of suburban inner-city life such as *them* and Victorian family sagas such as *Bellefieur;* but then she can also write a Gothic Romance like *Bloodsmoor Romance*, the historical detective story *Mysteries of Winterthurn,* suspense thrillers such as her Rosamund Smith novels, among a variety of other literary ventures. Sage L. in *Women in the House of Fiction: Post-War Women Novelists* comments that "few contemporary writers have more styles than Joyce Carol Oates. She is the traveling writer equally at home with Gothic, realism, romance and detection" (Sage, 1992, p. 186). Her novel *The Falls* severs reflects her diversified writing skills and arouses much interest among readers since its publication.

Focusing around the central image "Niagara Falls", *The Falls* tells the ups and downs of Ariah's life. Firstly, her newly-wed husband plunges himself into the falls; then she settles down in the Luna Park around the falls with her second husband Dirk; after her children grow up, she wishes to bring the kids to the falls, which in the same way appeals to the kids. Finally, the novel ends with Dirk's memoriam held nearby the falls. The falls are within the readers' sight throughout the novel.

II. Literature Review

Oates often uses gothic conventions in her novels and short stories; however, she does this so subtly that her readers realize the mythological and terrifying elements of her fiction only after careful reading. For example, it is only after finishing and pondering the events in *The Falls* that a careful reader fully understands that the story has taken her into the surreal labyrinth of the human psyche.

In 1993, Fonseca A. J. in his dissertation *Horrifying women, terrifying men* made a gender-based study of sexual horror in the fiction of Joyce Carol Oates, he comes to the conclusion that Oates's terrifying male characters are of two basic types: the terrifying stranger and the tyrannical, almost vampire lover (Fonseca, 1993, pp.135-145).

In the same year, Yuan examines the images of women in selected works of Oates, and observes that most of her women characters are miserable, pathetic, and even unbearable for they easily fall prey to violence imposed on them (Yuan, 1993, p. vi).

In 2002, Senencal N.A. considers Oates as the woman writer of violence in her dissertation *Representations of Violent Women* (Senencal, 2002, p. 45), and she suggests readers should connect women's violence with social circumstances. Concerning violence, Sonser A.M. holds that the most basic element of both the classic Gothic tale and the fiction of Oates is the central role of the female victim, she argues in her dissertation "*Subversion, Seduction, and the Culture of Consumption: The American Gothic Revisited in the Work of Toni Morrison, Joyce Carol Oates, and Anne Rice."* that the seductive in the contemporary Gothic heightens the uncertainty and dislocation of the self as well as the terror of existence in a commodity culture (Sonser, 1999, pp.1-17).

Chinese scholars have also done extensive research regarding the connection between the Gothic and the works by Oates. For example, Liu in *Gothic Realism in Joyce Carol Oates's Fictions* investigates the novels of Oates's from four perspectives, namely, serial killer as the modern Gothic villain; from the victim to the victimizer; destruction of the American family and violence in social relations, then draw a conclusion that Oates adopts the Gothic style to dramatize maladies of the American life (Liu, 2007, pp. 1-3).

The publication of *The Fall* in 2004 draws much attention from scholars both at home and abroad. The majority of the critics take notice of the ecological motif revealed by the novel. For instance, Heltzel maintains:

In a career so prolific that this is her 48th novel. It's impossible to call *The Falls* Oates's fictional masterpiece. Yet, in depicting a paradigm shift that permanently altered this country's political and environmental awareness, *The Falls* ranks as one of her best.

Rafferty T. holds Oates speaks about class, economic injustice and the destruction of the environment clearly and strongly

In China, *The Falls* also arouses hot discussions. It was first introduced to Chinese readers by Zou (2004, p. 36). Afterwards, Tan (2005, pp. 15-17) in his article *"Niagara Falls: the Turbulent Torrent of Love and Life"* made a more detailed comment on the novel. In this article the author believed the novel express the helplessness of lower class people under the cruel social condition. She also approached the novel from a postmodernism perspective, pointing out the postmodern narrative techniques employed by Oates, e.g. the indeterminacy of the narrative voices, different types of speech and pastiche. The Chinese version translated by Guo was published in 2006. In the preface of *The Falls*, Guo (2004, pp. 1-5) considered *The Falls* as Oates best work up till now. Guo thinks this novel reflects our horror and respect towards nature, and this opinion is shared with many other Chinese critics, e.g. Zhang, Gao, Xu. Zhang (2007, p.

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1-9) explores the enlightenment of the story: human being is just a part of creatures in the world, and other living beings also deserve concern and respect Gao (2008, p. 130) thinks the novel displays a rich and profound moral world constituted by human being and nature. Xu (2006, p. 92) holds that it exposed the dark side of capitalism and people should protect environment and cultivate an ecological awareness.

Besides the ecological reading of the novel, some scholars interpret it from the angle of gender awareness. Zhang examine the three male characters in The Fall, and discovered the heroic spirits, dignity and courage hidden in their inner world. In 2008, Guo (2008, p. 2) writes a thesis about the studies on symbolic meaning of the novel in the light of myth-archetypal theory. The newly published article by Xu (2010, p. 112) analyzed its narrative skill and praised its successful combination of traditional and non-traditional narrative skill.

The study of *The Fall* is an ongoing one, but it is a pity that none have done any exclusive and systematical study concerning its gothic gender. In light of this situation, this research will make an in-depth interpretation from its gothic angle, in hope of finding how Oates employs the Gothic tradition to criticize the darkness in modern American society and culture.

III. Research Methodology

Although Gothic novels have undergone various changes in the past 200 years, death and violence still remains one of its most typical themes. So the researcher first studied a series of deaths and violence in this novel, and then went to discuss the novel's mysterious setting, which is a typical practice in Gothic writing.

IV. Discussion

Common themes in Gothic works are horrible violence, death, rape, incest, vengeance, skepticism about religion and the fight between good and evil, etc. For instance, *Wuthering Heights* is a story about vengeance, human nature and morality; *The Monk* focuses on death and the fight between good and evil. This research will put an emphasis on how violence and death--the eternal themes in Gothic novels are reflected in this novel.

A. Violence

One distinctive tradition of Gothic novels is to evoke chilling terror by exploring horrible violence and death, so death and violence are conventional themes in the Gothic writing. Kerr regards that "scenes of violence are so characteristic of Gothic themes and patterns that they are too diverse to allow specification" (Kerr, 1979, p. 24). Oates is regarded as a Gothic writer because of the abundant death and violence in her works. In this part violence and death will be analyzed from the following perspectives: Oates's vision of violence and death; violent language and the significances of deaths in *The Falls*.

Though Oates has never admitted to be a writer of Gothic fantasy, her novels are more often than not inundated with senseless violence. Her fascination with violence and death has something to do with her personal experience and memory. Born in a working-class family in a small town of Lockport, she described her childhood as miserable days when interviewed, saying that a lot of things frightened her in the schoolhouse, included the rough and tall boys and tales of incest, etc. Her family background really has a profound influence on her outlook and her writing. She comes from a family in which one of her relatives was murdered and another committed suicide. After marriage, she moved Detroit where she experienced the Detroit Riot. She admits that plenty of her writing draws on their experiences, and she firmly believes that narrative fiction can give people some enlightenment through depicting what real life is like. She claims the violence is part of American character, and she considers the Gothic mode as an appropriate way to explore this contemporary experience and existence

In *Carol Oates Conversations 1970-2006*, a journalist asked Oates why difficult and troubling works of art are more beneficial to readers than happy ones, she said:

Well, the classic theory of tragedy is that it allows people to be ennobled. We see people pushing the limits of their courage and their involvement. Serious works of art push people to the extreme. That is why creative artists try risking things that could fail, because they feel that is how they learn more about themselves. (Johnson, 2006, p. 162)

In other words, Oates holds that the brutal truth of violence and death urge people to learn more about themselves. When talking about her artistic vision, she said:

Art is built around violence, around death; at its base is fear. The absolute dream, if dreamed, must deal with death, and the only way toward death we understand is the way of violence. (Oates, 1972, p. 11)

Words like "violence," "death" and "fear" reveal Oates's kinship with the Gothic tradition. The following passage will discuss how violence and death contribute to her Gothic writing.

Among the Gothic elements adopted extensively in Oates's works of Gothicism, the most prominent and persistent one is probably violence. In the Gothic, violence is used to seek sensation, to expose human bestiality, and to prepare for the ultimate justice; however in Oates's work, the function of violence is more complex and profound. Readers familiar with Oates's work will not be surprised to learn that critics frequently focus on her intense and forceful descriptions of brutality and injustice. One of the common themes in the reviews of Oates's works is the claim that violence is her usual subject matter. *The Falls* reveals her long-standing interest in the extreme, the gruesome, the

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bizarre and violence in American life.

Oates has always been controversial for her great productivity and much violence in her writing. Some critics have consistently been offended by her abundant use of violent subject matter, which includes her tendency to portray characters in states of mental extremity bordering on madness. For instance, her award-winning works *Them* and *Foxfire: Confession of a Girl Gang* are renowned for the prevalent violence and even receive complaints from the worried parents.

Violence in the traditional Gothic tends to take place at midnight or in a dark environment, but in Oates's fictional world it stalks in broad daylight. Instead of separation from the everyday life as it is in the traditional Gothic, violence in *The Falls* permeates daily life, households and neighborhood.

Grant once comments on violence in Oates's works saying that most activities in her fictive world are "performed violently; conversations are angry and charged with hostility, the interaction between characters is often brutal and savage" (Grant, 1978, p. 93).

For instance, at the beginning of the novel, Oates describes Ariah's feeling violently:

Her head was ringed in pain as if in a vise. Her bowels were sick as if the very intestines were corroded and rotting. In this unfamiliar bed smelling of damp linen, damp flesh and desperation. (p.8)

By describing even the most ordinary human feeling in terms of brutality and cruelty, Oates creates a totally violent fictive world. In this world, even the most subtle feeling was exaggerated and elaborated.

Violence in Oates's works often occurs in a familiar environment, and people who undergo these horrified experiences are ordinary people. Accordingly violence appears through various manifestations in everyday life: in men's sexual desire, in women's searching for self-fulfillment, in rebellion and oppression.

For example, when Gilbert jumped into the falls, Oates elaborates his feeling in the violent language, "within ten swift seconds his skull was broken, his brain and its seemingly ceaseless immortal voice extinguished forever," "his backbone was snapped, and snapped, and snapped like the dried," "his body was flung lifeless as a rag doll at the foot of the Horseshoe Falls, lifted and dropped and lifted again amid the rocks" (p. 38). This violent language depicts Gilbert's suffering vividly, and helps create a horrible image. The author explains the process of dying in great detail, for example, the change of the victim's tone, body flavor and the color of the corpse etc. The "video-recording" close-up shot brings about the direct visual stimulus to the readers. Meanwhile, this description sets off a kind of horrified, ailing, inexpressible atmosphere and makes the readers deeply immersed in an unbearable horror.

As for Gilbert's body, the author again uses the most violent language to describe it, "he was naked, hairless, finger-and toenails gone" (p. 84), his skin had "peeled away and a reddish-brown dermal layer was exposed" (p. 85), his swollen tongue protruded from mouth. This elaborated description of the corpse endows a horrible atmosphere, too.

All these violent language is Gothic in their morbidity and gloom, and they stimulate the psychological organs, resulting in a strong shocking effect and causing overwhelming terror.

Why does Oates use so much violence in her creation? Firstly, violence causes terror and brings aesthetic delight; secondly, she doesn't want to turn a blind eye to the dark side of American life, so she uses this horrifying manner to arouse the readers' attention and alert people.

B. Death

Gothic representations of death are so resonant because they occur in a realm clearly delineated as other than ordinary, the supernatural realm of ghosts and spirits, of revenants and vampires, of monsters and zombies, as they also touch on torture, murder and a transgressive desire for destruction. Death becomes attractive, because it is apparently unreal, the result of exaggerated passions, revealing itself in the midst of hallucinatory delusions and involving characters that have been transposed into worlds made unfamiliar, either because they are located in some distant historical past or because the setting is from the start a phantasmatic one. These stories fascinate with chilling horror, because they allow us to indirectly confront death and even our own death.

With respect to Gothic fiction, the dead bodies everywhere and often bleeding unusually remind us that the ultimate source of all terror is death itself. In fact, the frequented castle, the underground passageway, the secret tomb, and the sealed room evoke anxiety because they pose the implicit threat of fatal enclosure. So it is quite understandable that why so many deaths exist in the Gothic fictions.

Oates thinks death deals with the deepest questions of human existence and the meaning of life as well as questions of the presence or possibility of order in the shaping of reality. The events of death prevail in *The Falls* and each one has its own unique way and special connotation.

For example, at the beginning Gilbert commits suicide by throwing himself into the falls; his death signifies the contradiction between his homosexual love and the religious belief. Before he commits suicide, he makes a gesture of farewell, which is a "mock salute, a salute of defiance" (p. 6). He uses his death to defy the false belief that God is omnipotence, and he has "no need of a soul" (p.6). In his mind, only through death can he get consolation and peace in mind. To him, death is the way out. His death also reveals people's helplessness and loneliness in this consumerism-oriented modern society.

However, Dirk's death is a brave one because he dies for an honorable career: justice. He is murdered by the policeman, which exposes the dark side of the society and its senseless people. His death leaves an irreparable damage to his family, for quite a long time, his family refuse to accept it. His name becomes a taboo, for them, it is a shame at

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that time. However, about 15 years later, people and his family eventually recognize his death as a respected one.

As for Mr. Mayweatber, his death is a desperate one, signifying the useless government. After he gets fired, no one care him, and he is at a loss, not knowing how to deal with it. He has a desolate soul, in this sense, it echoes the Gothic spirit: grotesqueness, mystery and desolateness in human's internal world.

Juliet, the daughter of Dirk, ponders on the meaning of death. She doubts death is a vision; people may see this vision before they die, just like the dairymaid sees the vision of Virgin Mary. She thinks: "I would not need to be saved if the vision came to me. The vision would be enough" (p. 446). Her attitude towards death reflects people's maze about the significance of death and life. Contemporary life constantly reminds readers that they are moving toward death, or at least obsolescence and that they must continually strive to hold together. Paradoxically people need the consistent consciousness of death provided by the Gothic in order to understand and want that life. Choosing death as one of the themes, Oates in effect questions and demonstrates her deep concern about the living state of human being.

It can be concluded that death in *The Falls* arrives in various shapes and dramatizes the interpenetration of life and death and the mingling of opposites beyond the senses. These descriptions of violence and deaths in *The Falls* endow a horrible atmosphere both physically and psychologically, thus meet the unique aesthetic need for a Gothic story.

C. Gothic Setting

Setting is the background and is a means of creating appropriate atmosphere. David Punter summarizes the characteristics of Gothic fiction as

an emphasis on portraying the terrifying, a common insistence on archaic setting, a prominent use of the supernatural, the presence of highly stereotyped characters and the attempt to develop and perfect techniques of literary suspense. (Punter, 1980, p. 11)

In other words, mystery and supernatural are distinctive features of Gothic writing. In traditional Gothic fictions, the scenes are often set in gloomy places like the dark subterranean vault, the outlandish and desolate castles, the decaying abbey, and the confined cloisters in the Middle Ages. For example, the background of Walpole's *The Castle of Otranto* is a remote castle with distinctive Gothic style--- antique courts and ruined turrets, deserted and haunted chamber, dark and eerie galleries. These architectural settings help created atmosphere conducive to mystery and anxiety in the protagonist and other characters. Emily Bronte, for instance, drew repeatedly on landscapes to throw into high relief the emotional explosions that occur throughout the novel. However, American authors had no castles, abbeys, nor cloisters in the near proximity that European authors had, thus American Gothic tended to foreground other varieties of tangibles.

In *The Falls*, Oates creatively manipulates the Gothic tradition in the grotesque story setting. She replaces the castle in Gothic romance with familiar scenic spot—Niagara Falls, which is also called Suicide's Paradise. The weather depiction contains much Gothic color because it is often overcast and ponderous, the limestone resembles lead. Through this setting, Oates foregrounds its supernatural power and its magic spell. The supernatural, or otherwise inexplicable events, is a typical characteristic of Gothic novel. "In protest against the meaningless presentation of realistic details in realistic fiction, the writers of the Gothic novels indulged in creating extraordinary situations of mystery and terror even with the aid of the supernatural" (Howells, 1995, p. 98). She comments that Niagara Falls as a mystical, mythic force of nature influence the characters' lives in specific, dramatic ways. It

exerted its malevolent spell, that never weakened…But if you drifted too near, even out of curiosity, you were in danger: beginning to think thoughts of unnatural to your personality as if the thunderous waters were thinking for you, depriving you of your will (p. 57).

This straightforward description of the supernatural power set the tone for the story—mystery. The vague, abstract expression like "malevolent spell" and "depriving you of your will" helps elevate this impression to a feeling of unspeakable fear. When standing besides the falls, visitors will unconsciously be summoned, seducing them to do the most inconvincible things. For example, Gilbert feels "the thunderous river had called to him," the fall seems to convey an adventurous message: "come! Here is peace" (p. 26). Under this mysterious spell, Gilbert surrenders and jumps into the falls.

Under the similar spell, Juliet almost gets herself killed. She experiences the supernatural and mysterious power when she tries to find information about her father Dirk. She always feels there is a voice in the falls, which allures her to the falls. The imaginary voice of her father is an eerie sign of how she herself feels like ghost and lost. For Juliet, the voice is mysterious (and thus horrifying) because it is something she unconsciously desires—to follow her father.

The mysterious and supernatural setting is superior to the visible and material and are feared or held in awe accordingly. It seems that belief in supernatural power shares the feature of almost every culture in the world. The imposing and mysterious landscape overwhelms and dwarfs the visitors, and to some extent, it serves as a modern version of the incomprehensible castle or monastery of early Gothic. It scares readers and inspires human's imagination, which is the typical characteristic of Gothic novels.

Besides the supernatural falls, another favorite Gothic moonlit landscape often appears in the fiction. The moon is intended to awaken nocturnal atmosphere fraught with mystery. For example, it is the background for Dirk's quarrel with his wife Ariah. On that night, the glaring pale moon witnesses their fight, and the surprising rough wind enhances the mystery. Another night under the moon, Ariah sees the illusion of Dirk jumping into the falls. Moonlit also contains symbolic meaning when Dirk is released from prison. The moon is "so bright it hurts his eyes," yet he smiles. It implies he had firm faith in his behavior, and he will never feel guilt of betraying his family and friends for the justice.

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Apart from the moon, and the falls, the house at 7 Luna Park, to some extent, can be regarded as the equivalent of the Gothic castle, because it serves as an enclosed space, where the heroine locks herself. She shuts herself in the house, and is reluctant to read newspapers, let alone associates with others. This secluded house represents her closed internal world. These unique scene arrangement echoes the isolated atmosphere built by the castle and monastery with thick wall, thus leave readers in a deeper mystery and terror.

Moreover, the setting of the gothic novels also has something to do with the historical background. Although the story begins from 1950, it includes a flashback to the 19th century, particularly the Dirk's grandparents' generation. This historical setting makes the novel full of mystery.

It is no doubt that the setting of the novel contains distinctive gothic element, it helps convey the mysterious and gloomy atmosphere that anticipate the horrible happenings. From the above discussed, readers can safely say that Oates creates a grotesque world through the choice of mysterious settings.

V. Conclusion

In over-200-year development, Gothic writing has undergone various changes. With the influence of social or political background at different times, it acquires new features and generates a variety of sub-genres, such as female Gothic, southern Gothic, suburban Gothic, etc. But its basic features remain consistent. Generally speaking, Gothic writings create feelings of gloom, mystery, terror, suspense and fear as they seek to explore the dark side of humanity and society.

Acclaimed as a versatile and productive writer, Oates obviously favors the Gothic tradition in her creation. Books like *Zombie* and *Bloodsmoor Romance* manifest her excellence in Gothic writing. *The Falls* is no exception. The Gothic tradition in *The Falls* allows Oates to explore human being's psychology as well as American culture's darkness effectively from the following perspectives.

Firstly, she touches upon the horrible violence and death in American society. The fiction begins from 1950s when racism prevails and riots happen frequently. Under this social background, Oates sets violence and death in *The Falls* against a familiar environment. In the book, the people who undergo these horrified experiences are ordinary people, whose experiences can evoke chilling terror and shock the readers out of their blind optimism about America.

To foreground its Gothic themes and product psychological impact, Oates sets the fiction against an atmosphere of mystery and grotesqueness. She reveals some of the most morbid and horrifying aspects of individual's existence through people's obsession with youth, imagination of ghost and terrifyingly nightmare, etc.

Gothic machinery thus becomes an effective means for Oates to conduct an in-depth examination of American history and culture and to a large extent it contributes to the success of *The Falls*.

The twentieth century saw various changes like AIDS, homosexuality and environmental pollution, etc. These events to some extent inspire new practice of the Gothic tradition. Under this background, Oates revises it in creative and ingenious ways instead of sticking to the old Gothic convention rigidly.

For example, in the choice of location, Oates chooses the famous scenic spot "Niagara Falls" to replace the traditional Gothic castle in order to remain relevant to the modern time, but still gain the desired aim—to endow a mysterious atmosphere. Through this originality of her adaptation of the Gothic tradition and imaginative power of her creation, Oates added to the richness of the Gothic heritage and won a prominent place in the Gothic world. Her achievement wins her a permanent position in the literary world, and her genius and talent are gaining an increasing appreciation and popularity.

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Adopting CALL to Improve Listening Comprehension of Iranian Junior High School Students

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***Abstract*—The purpose of this study was to investigate the difference between two modes of teaching listening comprehension, computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and traditional mode, to Iranian junior high school students. It also aimed to investigate the role of teacher in CALL class. The study was an empirical one, which employed quantitative research methods. The data were collected from two classes including 60 female students studying in grade 8 in junior high schools in Dezful. These two classes were assigned as CALL group (30 students) and traditional group (30 students). The class of CALL was held at the computer site in Maktab Zeinab junior high school and the traditional group received instruction in a conventional way in Bideli junior high school. Two classes were taught by the same teacher and covered the same materials in their weekly four-hour listening lesson over two months. The data came from listening test, pre- test, post-test and observation. The data was analyzed by descriptive statistics (mean and standard deviation) and T-test (paired sample t-test and independent sample t-test) was run. The results indicated a significant difference between the traditional and CALL modes. Therefore, it seems that the CALL mode is more efficient than the traditional in the improvement of students' listening comprehension skill. Based on the observation, the researchers concluded that the nature of the EFL teacher's role changed in CALL class when compared with the traditional class.**

***Index Terms*—computer-assisted language learning (CALL), traditional class, listening comprehension, teacher's role**

I. Introduction

Technological developments in the last quarter of the 20th century have been greatly influential in shaping various fields of study. Among such developments are computers, the invention and application of which have made a dramatic impact on various aspects of scientific study. Initially used for solving mathematical problems, computers have played a unique role in almost every aspect of our lives. Shortly after their invention, computers started to be utilized in general education especially in language learning, giving rise to the term "Computer-Assisted Language Learning" (CALL). First appearing in the early 1970s' literature, CALL refers to the use of computers in learning and teaching English. Since then, the technology has undergone a rapid process of improvement and computers in different sizes and functions have become available to almost everyone.(Gholami Nobar & Ahangari ,2012)

Prensky (2000) states that nowadays for students, world without computers, digital media or the Internet is meaningless. Named as digital natives, they observe the world of information and communication technology (ICT) in a different way in comparison with the adults in their life, who in contrast, are viewed digital immigrants. Lenhart, Madden, &Hitlin (2005) suggest on average students‟ using some type of technology-based media six hours in a day including listening and viewing more than reading and writing".(p.42)

CALL has contributed enormously to the personalization of education. "The recent advances in educational applications of computer hardware and software have provided a rapidly growing resource for language classrooms. The practical applications of CALL are growing at such a rapid pace that it is almost impossible for a classroom teacher to keep up with the field" (Ghalami Nobar & Ahangari, 2012). This growth can be justified in terms of educational advantages, among which are the accessibility of rich resources to both learners and teachers and the increased possibility of web-based interaction as a source for further learning.

English teaching and learning in Iran, however, is full of challenges. The teaching objective of junior high school in Iran is to cultivate students' comprehensive ability, especially the ability of listening. Though oral English teaching has drawn a lot of attention from teachers, most of junior high school students' English level is still in the stage of "Mute English", which means that students can read and write, but cannot listen and speak well.

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There has been a large body of research addressing the effects of computer assisted language learning from various perspectives (Rahimi & Yadollahi, 2011; Abouseileek, 2011; Marzban, 2011). Few numbers of studies in Iran, however, investigated the effects of computer learning on listening skills therefore, the present study set to investigate the effect of CALL on enhancing Iranian junior high school students' listening comprehension skill.

II. Review of the Related Literature

A. The Role of Listening Comprehension in EFL Learning

Listening skills serve an important role in receiving information and are regarded as active, rather than passive, skills in that a response is needed to demonstrate that one has correctly perceived individuals. It is considered as the first skill to start off the learning and acquisition process and plays an important role in the early ages of the learner. This skill is considered as the base for speaking skill and its correlated with the aforementioned skill and these two skills are inseparable and run in parallel with one another. The relation between these two skills and their correlation is a complex process.

Listening has long been the neglected skill in second language acquisition. As Nunan (2000, cited in Barani 2011) have pointed out, listening is the Cinderella skill in second language learning. Yet, it has been often overshadowed by its elder sister: speaking. This is because "speaking" and "writing" abilities are what most people refer to when they claim they "know" a second language. Listening and reading are therefore secondary skills, i.e. they are means to other ends, rather than ends in themselves.

Richards and Renandya (2002) believe that listening skills did not receive priority in language teaching for many years and it was often assumed that listening skills could be acquired through exposure but not really taught. However, some applied linguists argue that listening comprehension is the essential part of second language acquisition and should be highlighted in language teaching.

B. The Role of CALL in English Language Teaching

The review of the literature on Computer-Assisted English as a Foreign Language (EFL) Instruction revealed that most of the studies in this field were conducted in the Western countries where English is the first language, whereas very few studies were conducted in countries where English is the second or foreign language (Al-Mansour, 2012).

According to Sokolik (2001), the development of new technologies has awakened an interest in applying these new technologies in the educational domain, as well as in making predictions of how they would affect the educational future of our classrooms and students. When discussing the future of technological developments, one should take into account the potential of educational computing as well as classroom activities that will remain current irrespective of technological evolution. There is nothing certain about the future of technology, except that it will no doubt become more ubiquitous and powerful (cited in Celce-Murcia, 2002).

The topic of CALL has received considerable attention since the 1960s. Many studies have shown that the application of computer technology has brought about a positive effect on all four language skills (Chang, 2004; Chen, 2004; Chen & Tseng, 2006; Tsai, 2003; Vahdat, 2009) and has resulted in increased motivation (Chang & Lehman, 2002), self-concept (Stepp-Greany, 2002), and confidence (Chu, 2004).

C. Advantages and Disadvantages of CALL in Listening

One of the major benefits of the growth of CALL is motivation. Motivation can be promoted in students by personalizing information, making use of animate objects on the screen, and providing practice activities which incorporate challenges and curiosity within a specific context. Another benefit of CALL is the student-oriented nature of the learning process, meaning that, it is the students who control the pace of learning and make decisions about what should be learned and how should they learn it; which, in turn, makes them feel more competent in their learning. The third advantage of CALL is authenticity, i.e. the opportunity to interact by means of one or more of the four language skills, using or producing texts meant for a target language audience as opposed to for classroom evaluation purposes. Reduction of anxiety is the fourth advantage of CALL. An important factor in lessening anxiety during learning is privacy. Students feel less stressed and more confident in this language learning environment, partially due to surface errors being insignificant. The fifth advantage of CALL is the development of critical thinking skills. Use of computer technology in classrooms is generally reported to improve self-concept, mastery of basic skills and more active processing resulting in higher-order thinking skills and better recall.

Educators have always considered the advantages of CALL; however, CALL instruction is still debatable. First, technology has its own limitations. For instance, computers are unable to effectively assess students' verbal communication with others, and what is pronounced by the machine is quite different from that of humans. Second, the stability and quality of CALL software is debatable. The commercial sources some teachers might rely on may not pedagogically produce the right results. Third, technical problems, such as teachers' or students' lack of computer knowledge, can limit the learning process. (Bas, 2010).

Furthermore, based on the findings of a number of studies, too many multimedia features interfere with students' learning (e.g. Mayer, Heiser, &Lonn, 2001), while others (e.g. Huang, 2004) argued that while CALL might supplement face-to-face instruction, it should not replace it.

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III. Statement of the Problem

According to Brown (2001), "listening competence is universally larger than speaking competence" (p.247).Schmitt (2002) "maintains that, "Listening involves making sense of spoken language, normally accompanied by other sounds and visual input, with the help of our relevant prior knowledge and the context in which we are listening." (p.1). Because of the complexity involved in both teaching listening and assessing it, listening skill has been overlooked in comparison with other skills, speaking, reading, and writing. This problem is multiplied when listening is viewed within the context of EFL.

Naturally, English classrooms encounter limitations such as lack of proficient teachers, lack of sufficient time, insufficient sources and materials and anxiety in the learning environment for learners. Clearly, listening is very important but it is too difficult for students to improve. One way to solve this problem is to try and make listening as interesting and pleasant as a possible.

That listening skills are the missing pieces of the puzzle of most language teaching programs in Iran is rather obvious. This becomes more apparent when the most common complaint on the part of language learners is taken into account, i.e. not being able to "listen" or "hear" appropriately. It is seen that learners are not familiar with the nature of listening, the manner of improving their listening skills, as well as how to overcome listening comprehension problems that occur during listening.

Unfortunately, listening is not given due emphasis in Iran and is rarely taught in EFL classes. Most of the EFL teachers may not be aware of the appropriate methodology to teach listening to the students. So, this study will be conducted using two different modes of teaching listening to see which one is more effective: traditional mode or CALL mode.

IV. Research Questions

The current study pursues to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between the traditional and computer-assisted listening comprehension classes in Iranian junior high schools?
2. Is there any difference between traditional and computer-assisted listening classes regarding the teacher's role?

V. Methodology

A. Participants

The participants of this study involved 60 female students studying in grade 8 at Maktab Zeinab and Bideli junior high schools in Dezful. The average age of the students was 13 and their mother tongue was Persian. To ensure that the learners were at the same level of English language proficiency, a listening test from Tactics for Listening, basic, (Richards, 2010) was administered. This test was based on English Prospect 1 (Alavi Moghadam, 2013). Before the listening test, the whole population of the participants was about 100.Out of the total score of 30, the students who got higher than 19 were selected. After that they were divided into two groups of traditional and computer-assisted language learning groups. Each group consisted of 30 students. The class of computer-assisted language was held at the computer site in Maktab Zeinab junior high school and the traditional group received instruction in a conventional way in Bideli junior high school. Maktab Zeinab school was chosen because it was equipped with computer site and projectors.

B. Instrumentation

This study proceeded in applying the following instruments: first, to ascertain the homogeneity of the participants, the researchers administered a listening test from Tactics for Listening, basic, (Richards, 2010) which was based on Prospect 1 (Alavi Moghadam, 2013).This test consisted of 37 multiple choice items. The time allocated for the test was (60) minutes. The total score was 30 points distributed among multiple choice items.

To ensure the reliability of the test, KR-20 method which was the most practical and convenient method of estimating test reliability was used. This test merely served as a tool to ensure that the participants were at the same level of proficiency in listening. The listening test was applied on a pilot group of 30students who were randomly chosen from another school. The reliability index was found to be (0.91), which is considered quite high. Thus, the test was found statistically reliable.

The second instrument utilized in this study was a pre-test which was based on Prospect 2. It was administered to both groups to determine the students' prior knowledge of listening. It consisted of 40 multiple choice items from Tactics for Listening, basic, (Richards, 2010).The total score was 40 points distributed among multiple choice items. At the beginning of the test paper, the instructions of the test were introduced. The participants were asked to choose the correct answer. The time allocated for the test was (70) minutes. The pre-test reliability was obtained through KR-20 method. It was found to be (0.84), which is considered to be suitable for the purpose of this study.

After the treatment, a post test was administered to both groups to compare the effect of two modes of listening presentation: computer-assisted language learning and traditional mode. The post-test was identical to the pretest as it had the same type of items, number, and structure. The participants were required to listen to the CD of Tactics for

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Listening, basic, (Richards, 2010) which was based on Prospect 2 and then circle the correct answers. The purpose of this test was to observe the probable impact of CALL on the participants' listening comprehension skill. The reliability and validity of post-test was calculated prior to its administration. It was found to be (0.84), which is considered to be suitable for the purpose of this study. A pilot test was administered before listening test and pre-test for estimating reliability and validity of each test.

The test content was validated by three teachers that worked in researcher's schools. Considering the test instructions, the relevance of questions to content, its suitability to the research goals and objectives, the number and arrangement of questions, and the suitability of the time assigned to the test, the team was asked to validate the content of the test.

C. Procedures

First of all, a listening test consisting of 37 English questions from Tactics for listening, basic (Richards, 2010) which was based on Prospect 1, Alavi Moghadam, 2013) was administered to the participants to determine their homogeneity in terms of language proficiency. Then the participants were selected according to the results they have achieved.

Following this stage, a pre-test was administered to check the learners' level of listening knowledge. It was a paper and audio test in which students listened to a text and answered the related multiple choice items. Since our aim was to detect the effectiveness of two modes of presentation in listening instruction, participants were assigned to two groups: the traditional group (group A) and CALL group who received computer-based listening practice (group B). In group A, listening content was presented through cassette player or by the researcher read short stories aloud and in group B, listening was practiced in computer site during two months of about 20 sessions. During the study, the researcher taught each group in 20 sessions (each session 90 minutes).

During the 20 session instruction, the researcher presented and practiced all listening activities through the curriculum book, English Prospect 2 (Alavi Moghadam, 2014) to the participants in the traditional group. However, throughout the same period (20 sessions), the researcher presented and practiced all these listening activities through computer site to the CALL group.

To improve the listening skill of both groups, the researcher used another book Reading and Writing 2 (Casey, 2010), which included 10 lessons. It has audio CD with two accents (American& British).This book is a collection of activities suited to meet the demands of EFL listeners. The topics of each lesson are based on English prospect 1 and 2. Each two sessions, one lesson was taught.

In CALL group, the following procedures were followed in computer site. First, the topic of the passage or conversation was introduced to help students to activate their background knowledge; then they listened to the whole passage or conversation without any pauses. After that, the students chose the correct answers. In the next stage they listened to the whole passage or conversation for the second timeto check what they had chosen or written. Sometimes after checking their listening, participants listened to the CD again and paid special attention to their mistakes and received feedbacks from the teacher. The teacher explained the new words. But in traditional group, the teacher read a passage aloud or used a cassette player in the class. The traditional group class met two times a week for 90 minutes. It followed a routine prescribed curriculum. The teacher gave explanation about new words before teaching. At the end of treatment, a post-test was administered to compare the progress of the students in both groups.

VI. Data Analysis and Results

A. The First Research Question

To answer the first research question "Is there any significant difference between the traditional and computer-assisted listening comprehension classes in Iranian junior high schools**?"** at-test and Levene test were used. The first hypothesis of this study is "there is no statistically significant between the traditional and computer-assisted listening comprehension classes in Iranian junior high schools."Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics for pre-test and post-test in traditional and computer-assisted group.

TABLE 1:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PRE-TEST AND POST-TEST SCORES

	N	Mean	Std. Error	Std. Deviation	Std. Deviation of the Mean	Minimum	maximum
Pre-test Traditional Class	30	32.50	19.224	4.385	0.801	21	40
Pre-test CALL class	30	31.07	33.926	5.825	1.0631	19	40
Post-test Traditional Class	30	34.00	13.655	3.695	0.675	21	40
Post-test CALL class	30	35.63	13.275	3.643	0.665	20	40
Total	120	33.30	22.430	4.736	0.432	19	40

The mean of pre-test scores of the traditional group was 32.5. In addition, the mean of post-test scores of the traditional group was 34. With respect to the computer-assisted group, those scores were 31.07 and 35.63, respectively. It seems that computer-assisted learning has a greater effect on students' listening comprehension skill.

To verify and reject the first hypothesis, pre-test and post-test scores of traditional and computer-assisted classeswere compared. Results from the comparison of pre-test and post-test scores of traditional group, using paired t-test, are presented in Table 2.

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TABLE 2:
PAIRED SAMPLE T-TEST IN TRADITIONAL CLASS

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
air 1	Posttest - Pretest	1.500	2.596	.474	3.164	29	.004

Correlation coefficient of the pre-test and post-test in traditional group was 0.807.

According to Table 2 and based on the probability of the obtained significance level (p-value=0.004), and also the comparison of it with the significance level of α=0.01, as the probability of significance level of the test was less than α=0.01 (i.e. p-value=0.004 < α=0.01), the equivalence between the mean scores of pre-test and post-test in traditional class was strongly rejected.

Results from the comparison of pre-test and post-test scores of the computer-assisted group, using paired t-test, are presented in Table 3.

TABLE 3:
PAIRED T-TEST SCORES IN COMPUTER-ASSISTED CLASS

		Paired Differences			t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Pair 1	posttest - pretest	4.567	4.500	.822	5.558	29	.000

Correlation coefficient of the pre-test and post-test in the computer-assisted group was 0.635.

According to Table 3 and based on the probability of the obtained significance level (p-value=0.000), and also comparison of it with the significance level α=0.01, as the probability of significance level of the test was less than α=0.01 (i.e. p-value=0.000 < α=0.01), the equivalence between the mean scores of pre-test and post-test in CALL mode was strongly rejected.

To make a statistical comparison between the two modes, the differences between the pre-test and post-test scores were first obtained and then they were compared using independent t-test.

TABLE 4:
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFERENCE IN TRADITIONAL AND CALL CLASSES

	method	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Difference	Traditional	30	1.50	2.596	.474
	CALL	30	4.57	4.500	.822

Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of the difference between traditional and computer-assisted groups in terms of pre-test and post-test scores. According to Table 4, there is a significant difference between the traditional and computer-assisted methods. The computer-assisted group improved the post-test score by 4.57; while, this improvement in the score of traditional group was 1.5.

According to Table 4, there is a significant difference between the traditional and computer-assisted methods. As mentioned earlier, the correlation coefficient between the pre-test and post-test in traditional and computer-assisted groups was obtained separately. The correlations between the pre-test and post-test scores in traditional and computer-assisted modes were 0.807 and 0.635, respectively. That is, in traditional mode, students with higher pre-test scores relatively obtained higher post-test scores. In contrast, this balance was disrupted to some extent in computer-assisted group. Comparison of pre-test and post-test scores of traditional and computer-assisted groups showed their effectiveness in the improvement of listening comprehension skill. To compare the difference between pre-test and post-test scores of listening comprehension in traditional and computer-assisted modes, this difference was obtained. Then, the difference between the scores of the traditional and computer-assisted groups was compared, using the independent t-test, which showed a strongly significant correlation. On average, the computer-assisted mode improved the students' listening comprehension score by 4.57; while, this improvement in traditional mode was 1.5. Therefore, it seems that the CALL mode is more efficient than the traditional in the improvement of students' listening comprehension skill. The results revealed that the first null hypothesis was rejected. For data analysis, SPSS 19 was used and the significance level was considered α=0.01 in all tests.

B. The Second Research Question

The second question was "Is there any difference between the traditional and computer-assisted listening classes regarding the teacher's role? And the second hypothesis was "there is no difference between the traditional and computer-assisted listening classes regarding the teacher's role."

With regard to the teacher's role in the CALL class as compared to the teacher's role in the traditional classroom, some differences were indeed observed. Based on the researcher's observations in the CALL class, the teacher's role could be described as that of an observer and facilitator. For the listening skill, the teacher used a CD in the classroom and explained only the necessary items. In this mode, the teacher spoke less but supervised more. Additionally, the teacher could communicate more with the students because she could easily be among the students for troubleshooting

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or repeating and defining the unintelligible words while the CD was being played. Fortunately, the teacher became less tired in this mode, and there was no need to pronounce the words loudly.

In the traditional class, the role of the teacher was much authoritative. Teacher played a significant role and decided everything in class. While teaching, students should only pay attention to her. In the traditional class, the teacher was, however, supposed to prepare the materials and to check, repeat, and review the pronunciations pertaining to the lesson so that she could have an acceptable performance in the classroom. This mode was completely teacher-centered because the teacher should only speak or read out a short story while working on the listening skill. Finally, the teacher corrected the errors made by the students. This mode would wear the teacher out so much. After presenting the lesson, the teacher should define the new and unfamiliar words. This would tire the students to some extent so that they might not enjoy the class.

In traditional class, however, the main listening skill problem is that students will hear only one particular accent, which is their teacher's. This would make their ears to finally get accustomed to only one accent, which may not be suitable for weaker students. In general, however, it cannot be said that replacing teachers with computers is the right thing to do, simply because teachers should be present in classrooms as guides or observers and facilitator. Therefore, according to the above-mentioned analysis, the second null hypothesis is also rejected.

VII. Discussion

In this study two modes of teaching were compared with regard to their effectiveness for L2 listening comprehension: the computer- assisted language learning (CALL) and the traditional mode. It was expected that listening by computer would produce better performance than the traditional method.

These findings are supported by the results reported by other studies. They are in agreement with those of Meihami, Meihami & Varmaghani (2013) study which indicated a significant improvement in the post-test sample of students in CALL over the traditional classes. The findings of this study revealed that CALL materials have significant effect on improving Iranian EFL learners listening. The results of this investigation attest to the validity of the previous studies on the effect of CALL materials on improving listening comprehension skills of EFL advanced students (Buck, 2001, p. 29; Rost, 2002; Wiebe & Kabata, 2010; Yusof, 2012). According to the findings of this research, using CALL in listening comprehension classrooms can improve EFL students' listening comprehension. The rational justification for such results is that, when students attend a listening comprehension classroom equipped with Computer-Assisted Language Learning materials they have some facilities that help them work more effectively on listening comprehension tasks. In so doing, two important observations were made: (A) students use the most of their time to improve their ability in listening comprehension skills and (B) using computer makes them less exhausted in comparison with traditional modes.

The results of this study indicated significant improvement in students' listening comprehension as a result of computer assisted instruction. According to the results, compared to the traditional class, the number of positive responses to learning environment was higher among the students in the CALL class. Moreover, the students in the CALL class were more interested in learning in the class than those in the traditional class. According to the students in the CALL class, the materials in the class were presented in an attractive way and the class was highly organized. On the contrary, in traditional teacher-centered classes, because of lengthy conversations, which are sometimes beyond students' understanding, students might not be very interested or motivated. These findings are similar to findings of other studies related to computer assisted listening. The use of computers in language teaching appears to increase interaction with a variety of interesting, enjoyable and useful materials and tasks, which sustain and enhance the students' interest (Rahimi & Hosseini, 2011; Ghalami Nobar & Ahangari, 2012).

The main difference between these two modes is the class attraction. Since the traditional classes are teacher-centered, and the students sit in their constant seats, the class is boring to both of them because the teacher is the sole speaker. Due to teacher's fatigue, a mispronunciation may sometimes be involuntarily presented, or it may be hard to manage the class because it is not intriguing enough. The students may not listen carefully or concentrate. Since the greatest energy is spent teaching and reading out the short story in the classroom in a way that all the students can hear the teacher's voice, the teacher may experience a sudden dysphonia reducing the efficiency.

In a computer- assisted language learning (CALL) class, teacher has more control over the class and establishes connection with students easily, without having to worry about time. This is because she/he can easily respond to students' questions while the CD is playing and other students are listening to it and answering to the given text. Regarding the importance of time in Iranian schools and limitation of time devoted to English classes, this mode surely is more beneficial than the traditional modes.

The teacher played a crucial role in both classes; therefore, the role of the teacher could not be ignored in either. In a CALL class, the teacher acts as a guide and a mentor and in the traditional class as a central figure, but neither role can be ignored. In both classes, the teacher's presence is required for answering the students' questions and keeping the class in order. In traditional class teacher has more authority and a greater role than a CALL teacher who is mainly mentor and guide. This shows that teachers are not replaceable with computer as they maintain guiding, observing, and instructing roles in every class, and thus both types of classes need them. According to the obtained statistics from the data and the progress of traditional class students, the teacher relatively succeeded in improving students' listening comprehension. However, this improvement was higher in the CALL class.

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According to Vahdat (2009), during a CALL class, the teacher can devote more time to communicating with the students and this creates an interest among the students. Personal relations in CALL classes solved the students' listening comprehension problems. As a result, the students had more opportunity to develop personal cooperation as well as express their opinions in the class. Moreover, each student was able to communicate personally with the teacher while other students were listening to educational CDs. Instead of showing a central and powerful presence (as is the case in traditional classes), the teacher acted more as a guide and a mentor. In traditional classes, the teacher had less time to communicate with students and would spend most of the class time either teaching or reading out short stories. When the teacher was the only source of the knowledge in the class, he/she was probably able to answer to few of student's questions, so the interaction among the students in relation with the listening comprehension was decreasing and they weren't able to improve their listening comprehension. For this reason, traditional classes are considered to be totally teacher-based.

VIII. Conclusion

Over the last two decades, drastic innovations in technology have changed every aspect of life like the way people live, communicate, work and study. The latest advances in computers and Internet introduced new concepts and resources such as wireless connection, webcam, infinite images, animation, visuals and audio, e-mail, instant messaging, chat rooms, wikis, blogs, podcasting, online communities, groups, RSS, MSN, Yahoo, Google, MOOs (virtual environments where participants can meet, communicate, and interact with each other and the environment as well), and virtual worlds. (Tunçok, 2010)

The overall finding of this research is that computer assisted language learning (CALL) has a positive impact on listening skill. The use of computer as a tool to meet the needs of L2 learners has a great potential in the development of the listening skills. The applications of computer to teaching listening holds great promise as an instructional tool to increase students' engagement in listening, promote listening comprehension, and improve listening skills. Teachers can communicate more with the students because he or she can easily be among the students for troubleshooting or repeating and defining the unintelligible words while the CD is being played. Fortunately, the teacher becomes less tired in CALL method, and there is no need to pronounce the words loudly.

Therefore, it seems that the CALL mode is more efficient than the traditional mode in the improvement of students' listening comprehension skill.

IX. Limitations of the Study

Similar to other studies, this study was faced with several problems in the implementation of computer in the CALL class, including inadequate number of computers relative to the number of students, some broken computers, faulty CD-ROMs, speakers, and CDs, and sudden power outage. In addition, some students had little knowledge about computers and how to use them. In the traditional class, the teacher had to present the lesson loudly due to the lack of tape recorder and cassette. Unfamiliarity of the students with the listening comprehension skill caused some problems in the initial sessions in both classes. These limitations may have significantly affected the findings of the study.

X. Recommendations for Further Study

In order to complement the findings of the present study, some further line of research can be suggested; learning skill cannot develop adequately during an eight-week period. Therefore, it is recommended that this period, as well as the training, should be longer for future studies. Moreover, the samples of the present study were selected from beginner-level participants. It is recommended that a wider range of samples should be selected and various proficiency levels should be investigated. On the other hand, the number of samples can also be expanded so that the findings can be generalized more (the present study included only 60 participants). In this study, only two female groups were investigated in terms of their listening. For future studies, male groups can also be selected to investigate the effect of CALL in four groups.

Similar studies are critically needed in other parts of Iran in order to see whether the results will be the same or different from the results of the present study. Research is needed for developing computer culture for students with poor language skills. Studies are needed to compare between the two kinds of feedback; teacher's feedback and computer's feedback in FL learning.

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The Effects of Context Richness and Different Task-demands on Incidental Vocabulary Acquisition and Retention

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***Abstract*—Incidental learning in reading is an effective way to expand vocabulary acquisition and there are many factors influencing the effect of it. This proposed paper will make an attempt to explore how and to what extent different kinds of tasks based on reading and different contextual richness affect the recognition and retention of vocabulary encountered in reading. 50 sophomore English majors at the same English proficiency level from a university in Xi'an will be selected and be asked to complete different reading processes, which aim to investigate the role of context richness and task demands respectively in incidental learning. The data will be collected from the scores from every task and be analyzed with one-way ANOVA and multi-way ANOVA through SPSS.**

***Index Terms*—incidental learning, vocabulary acquisition, context richness, task-demands, involvement load**

I. Introduction

Second Language Vocabulary Acquisition and Reading

In recent years, the relationship between reading in second language and vocabulary acquisition has been one focus of SLA studies. Some scholars (Lewis, 1993) believe that the words acquisition is the center of L2 acquisition since it supports the practice of almost every kind of language skills such as reading, listening, writing, etc. With the increasing concern on the role of words in L2 acquisition, more and more relative researches were undertaken in this field, for example, we know something about at what rate learners can learn new words from their reading, how many words we need to read effectively in a second language, the frequency of a word we need to learn in reading and how well the reading is retained, etc. (Laufer & Hulstijn, 2001; Hulstijin, 1996; Joe, 1998; Newton, 1995; Pulido, 2003).

According to Elley (1991), extensive reading coming from the "Book Flood" studies has significant effects. In these studies, students are exposed to large amount of extensive reading materials chosen from various fields of interests. These studies (Elley & Mangubhai, 1981) lasted eight months and brought about dramatic improvements in wide range of language skills including reading comprehension, knowledge of grammatical structures, word recognition, oral repetition and writing(Paul, 2004). Although these improvements could have not occurred without substantial vocabulary growth, it can be sure that there are two variables in these studies which provide much insight for the further researches. One is focusing on meaning rather than form and the other is the incidental learning.

Contrasted with intentional learning, incidental learning is defined by Schmidt as "a learning strategy through which learners learn words unconsciously when doing other duties instead of intentional learning which is a conscious and intensive learning process." (Li, Tian, 2005, p.52)The use of the term "incidental learning" dates back to the beginning of the twentieth century, being used in experimental psychology for a long time. In the relevant empirical studies of incidental learning, subjects usually are told to complete some activities involving the process of some information without being told in advance that they will be tested afterwards on their recall of that information (Laufer & Hustijin, 2001). Joe (1998) also mentioned that in the process of incidental learning, learners pay their attention on the comprehension of other activities rather than specific words, though they can still "pick up" certain words, which can be seen as the by-product of other cognitive processes. From this point of view, it can be seen that incidental learning can be used to investigate where the subjects have paid their attention on their own selection in the process. Given a more general, educational meaning, incidental learning refers to the learning without an intention to learn, however, it should be noticed that such kind of learning cannot be confusing with the notions of implicit and explicit learning process since the implicit learning occurs only incidentally while the explicit learning can occur both incidentally and intentionally.

When the incidental learning is applied in vocabulary learning, its effects prove to be significantly evident. To some extent, the incidental vocabulary learning occurs in activities training other language skills, however, according to Ge Shuhua (2003), the incidental vocabulary acquisition is generally accepted to occur in the process of reading for comprehension, which is seen as a good way to broaden the vocabulary size (Pitts, White & Krashen, 1989; Zahar et al., 2001, etc).

Contrasted with the direct instruction on vocabulary learning, or the intentional learning, the incidental vocabulary acquisition has several advantages as followed:

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a) It is contextualization, giving the learner a richer sense of a word's use and meaning than can be provided in traditional paired-associate exercises, b) it is pedagogically efficient in that it enables two activities----vocabulary acquisition and reading ----to occur at the same time, and c) it is more individualized and learner-based because the vocabulary being acquired is dependent on the learner's own selection of reading materials (Huckin, 1999, p. 182).

However, according to Huckin (1999), the simple extensive reading for meaning does not lead automatically to the acquisition of vocabulary. Since incidental acquisition is a complex psychological process, there are kinds of factors that can influence the effect of incidental vocabulary acquisition to different extent, such as the individual's English reading proficiency, the topic of reading materials, the frequency of the target words in reading, reading purposes, the vocabulary size, students' ability of guessing words, different reading tasks and different context, etc.

Since there is growing interest in the field of incidental learning in SLA, this paper aims to explore how and to what extent different kinds of tasks based on reading and different contextual richness affect the recognition and retention of vocabulary encountered in reading. 50 sophomore English majors at the same English proficiency level from a university in Xi'an were selected and be asked to complete different reading processes, which aimed to investigate the role of context richness and task demands respectively in incidental learning. In order to make sure that these participants are at the same level of English vocabulary proficiency, a test will be undertaken before the real study. The test adopts the Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test, which has 90 test words, representing 5 different levels. This study is carried out with three research questions:

1) How and to what extent are students aware of the target incidental words in the reading before they read the questions followed?

2) To what extent does the contextual richness affect the recognition of incidental vocabularies? How long can students retain the words in different contexts?

3) How do different kinds of tasks influence the effect of incidental vocabulary acquisition? What kinds of tasks facilitate the incidental vocabulary acquisition?

The data were collected from the scores from every task and be analyzed with one-way ANOVA and multi-way ANOVA through SPSS. With the final results, it can be seen that tasks which involves more attention and efforts from learners will facilitate the acquisition and retention of vocabulary than those which involves less, meanwhile, the contextual richness is not that significant in the process of incidental learning.

II. Literature Review on Relevant Researches of Influencing Factors

As mentioned above, there are many factors influencing the effect of incidental vocabulary learning, and generally researchers treat them as the focuses of studies. Pulido (2003) investigated topics of reading materials and learners' English reading proficiency's effect on the incidental vocabulary learning. The subjects are 99 adults whose mother-tongue is Spanish. There are four passages tested, two of them are familiar topics while the others are not. The students are examined by the preliminary learning test for adults to test the English reading proficiency. After the study, Pulido adopted the F-test and regression analysis to analyze the data. The conclusion is 1) learners who has high-level proficiency can learn more incidental vocabularies and can retain them well; 2) learners can learn more words and retain them better when the passage is familiar with them. So there exists a positive correlation between these factors and the effect of incidental learning.

On the aspect of the frequency of unknown words in reading, several researchers have conducted relevant studies to explore how many times we need to learn them. According to studies of Saragi, Nation & Meister (1978), subjects can learn 93% of words that had been presented to them six times or more but words represented to learner fewer than six times were learned only by half. Jenkins, Stein & Wysocki (1984) discovered that only 25% of their learners had learned words after 10 meetings. Nagy, Herman & Anderson (1985) showed that the likelihood that a word would be learned after one meeting was 0.15. Rott (1999) concluded that six encounters was an adequate number. And according to Zahar, Cobb & Spada (2001) found that low-level learners needed more encounters to learn a word than more proficient learners, which may be in line with the discovery mentioned when discussing the influence of language proficiency.

Ge Shuhua (2003) investigated how reading purpose affects the incidental vocabulary learning. 50 sophomore English majors were divided into two groups according to different reading purposes. Group A were asked to answer questions after reading while group B were required to restate the main idea of this passage. Results showed that the scores got in group B were higher than that of group A in tests and posttests, which means students who were required to restate the main idea learned more words and retain them better and longer. What can be inferred is that reading purposes can affect the incidental vocabulary learning.

Considering all these factors and studies, researchers should notice the cognitive process, in which the effort and attention is clearly connected to final results of incidental learning (Huckin, 1999).

Attention is governed by task-demands to large extent. For different task demands, learners should select information encountered in reading and then decide how and to what degree they should pay attention on them. Laufer & Hulstijin (2001) investigated the influence of different tasks on incidental vocabulary learning. They claimed that there was a close relationship between these variables. For different reading task-demands, learners should pay different amount of involvement, which is known as the "involvement load hypothesis", claiming that the learning new words during

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vocabulary-focused tasks is dependent on the degree of cognitive processing required of a L2 learner by a given task. The construct of involvement is composed of three components: need, search, and evaluation. The component "need" refers to the motivational, non-cognitive dimension of involvement, which depends on whether the word is required for completion of the given task. "Search" and "Evaluation" consist of the cognitive dimension of involvement while both need attention to word meaning and word form. "Search" happens when the learner tries to find the meaning of an unknown L2 word in a dictionary or from teachers or peer students while the evaluation occurs when students should judge and use the words encountered in reading. If the scores for need, search, and evaluation are summed up, the final value can be used to predict the level of the involvement load. The higher the level of involvement load, the more effective the task is in promoting vocabulary acquisition.

However, the Hebrew-English Experiment and the Dutch-English Experiment's respective results made by Hulstijin and Laufer (2001) showed different inferences towards the involvement hypothesis. The former one was proved to be in line with the involvement load hypothesis: the composition group scored significantly higher than the gap-filling group on both posttests, and the gap-filling group scored significantly higher than the reading group. In the contrary, the results of the Dutch-English Experiment lent only partial support to the involvement load hypothesis. In the experiment, scores obtained for the composition group and the gap-filling group was consistent with what was predicted by the hypothesis. But the gap-filling group did not achieve significantly higher scores than the reading group on either posttest. According to this, more relevant studies on how different tasks influence the incidental learning are expected since they can provide more implication on pedagogy.

One important process to facilitate incidental learning is guessing words' meaning through contextual clues. The context in vocabulary acquisition refers to the surrounding syntax and semantic environment in text. The target words can be located in different contexts. Researchers like Beck (1983) claimed out four types of contexts: directive context, undirective context, misdirective context and general context. Directive context helps students to get the specific meaning of words while the general context can only help students to know the general or vague meaning of words. In the misdirective context, the guessing or prediction of unknown words will be misled while the nondirective context has nothing to do with the acquisition of unknown words; there are always researchers who aimed to find out what kind of contexts can facilitate or hinder the incidental vocabulary learning. Beck, McKeown and McCaslin's (1983) claim that "it is not true that every context is an appropriate or effective instructional means for vocabulary development." They conducted an experiment involving subjects who were given passages from basal readers. The researchers "categorized the contexts surrounding target words according to their four-part scheme and then blacked out all parts of the target words, except morphemes that were common prefixes or suffixes…Subjects were instructed to read each story and try to fill in the blanks with the missing words or reasonable synonyms." Their finding is that natural texts contain a high proportion of contexts that are unsupportive or even misleading for word learning purposes. Rapaport (2005) maintained that the purpose of contextual vocabulary acquisition should be taken into consideration. If its purpose is thought of as getting a meaning sufficient for understanding the passage in which the unfamiliar word occurs, it can be very effective, even with an unproved "misdirective" context. However, there is no complete agreement on the issue of what kind of context can facilitate the acquisition of new words till now. Some researchers and teachers believe that rich and supportive context can facilitate the incidental vocabulary learning, some even design an especially clear context for word acquisition. However, some other researchers (Cross, 2002) disagree with this kind of view. They claim that learners will not acquire and retain a word if they get or guess the meaning easily. Without a deep processing, these words cannot be part of the second language knowledge of the learners.

Mondria and Wit-de Bore investigated which contextual factors influence the guess ability of words, how these factors affect receptive retention, and what the relationship is between correctly or incorrectly guessing and retention. According to their study, it can be inferred that factors that are helpful to guess the words' meaning may not be helpful to remember the words. And when referring to the conclusion of studies made by Zahar et al. (2001), what can be inferred is that learners do not really remember or get the new words if the context is redundant for them to understand the words' meaning. In the contrary, although the mix of kinds of contexts may hinder the reading comprehension, to some extent it facilitates the incidental words acquisition through deeper cognitive processing. When Zahar et al. replicated Horst et al.'s (1998, 2000) research, they have found that frequency needs was related to leaner level while contextual richness was unrelated to learning.

When the relevant researches on the influences of different task-demands and different contextual richnessarereviewed, it can be found that there are few studies exploring the correlation and connection between these two factors and the combined effect on incidental vocabulary learning in reading. According to this, the proposed paper aims to explore the effect of different kinds of task based on passage and to investigate to what extent the contextual richness affects the recognition and retention of vocabulary encountered in reading.

III. Methods

A. Participants

The participants in this study will be 50 sophomore students who have just completed their TEM 4 test. They will be selected from a university in Xi'an and they have an average of 7 to 8 years of experience to learn English as second language. In order to make sure that these participants are at the same level of English vocabulary proficiency, a test

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will be undertaken before the real study. The test adopts the Nation's (1990) Vocabulary Levels Test, which has 90 test words, representing 5 different levels. These five levels are 2000 words level, 3000 words level, 5000 words level, university level, and 10000 words level. According to the requirement of TEM 4, students passing this exam may have around 8000 words, thus the 2000 words and 3000 words levels will be deleted. Every student was scored for each of these three levels. The correctly matched answer will be scored one point but those mismatched or ignored words will not be scored. After summing up the total scores and being divided by the total number of words, the average English vocabulary proficiency will be inferred. If there is significant differences between the students' vocabulary proficiency, they should be sub-divided into groups according different proficiency level while if not, they will be treated as a whole group.

B. Instruments

1. Reading text

It is significant to find a proper reading text which is at an appropriate vocabulary level which is challenging for students to encounter words at 10000 words level. From this perspective, an article named *Internet and Education* is selected, which is above the level of TEM 8 with 1208 words. In order to test whether this text is within the range of the participants, it will be read by computer and analyzed with concordance. Since the context richness is a main variable in the proposed study, the text should contain four types of contexts claimed above.

2. Target words

Target words selected should be unfamiliar with most of the students and at least fall into one type of context richness mentioned in the previous part. There will be twenty words with 75% coming from 10000 words level, 20% from university level list and 5% from 5000 words. These words should be pretested in advance to make sure that students are unfamiliar with them, however, it should be noticed that the time between the pretest and the study should be long enough. These 20 words should be divided into two groups, group A with 10 words for task 1 and group B with10 words for task 2. When the words are grouped, it should be guaranteed that both groups should contain the four types of contexts mentioned above.

3. Tasks

There will be two kinds of tests for students after reading. Task 1 aims to test students' receptive knowledge of words encountered in reading, only requiring students to match these words to Chinese meaning or synonyms listed in corresponding column. The expected results are that there will be great increasing in vocabulary gain from the pretest to task 1.

Task 2 tests students' productive knowledge after reading. There are two sub-tests in it. The former asks students to replace words in sentences with words or phrases they have learned in the text while the latter requires them to make sentences using the rest target words. These can test students' knowledge and ability to use these words, through score of which it can be inferred how different task demands affect the learning of target words.

Task 3 will be taken to test students' words retention respectively after two days, one week and 15 days. The test will also be a matching form, in which the correct answer will be scored one point while the wrong or ignored ones will not be scored. The sum score of these words are expected to show how effective different context richness and different tasks influence incidental vocabulary retention.

C. Procedure

1. Before undertaking the study, researchers will test participants' vocabulary ability with Nation's Vocabulary Levels Test. The results will determine whether these participants should be divided into sub-groups according to their different vocabulary levels, or they should be treated as a whole group. Researchers will make it clear to students that they should ignore the unknown words and do not look for the help from dictionary or other students, which will guarantee that the scores can reflect their true vocabulary ability.

2. After the vocabulary test determined how to group participants, a pretest will be undertaken to test the degree of similarity of these words to participants. Researchers will hand out test papers to students and ask them to finish in 5 minutes. After this process, scores will be calculated immediately.

3. 10 days after the pretest is undertaken, the real study will begin. In order to make sure that students can complete the reading without being disturbed by other factors, they will all be required to read in 15 minutes all together in a classroom. After reading, students will be presented two tasks. First they should finish task 2, which contains 10 sentences. Students will be expected to replace five words in five sentences with the similar words they have encountered in reading and make five sentences with five words. This process will last 12 minutes. After that, task 1 will be completed by students, requiring them just to match the meaning of 10 targets words, which is similar to the pretest but in different order. If the task 1 is undertaken before task 2, there will be possibility that students will be influenced by hints of answers provided in task 1. After both tests are finished, scores will be calculated by researchers.

4. The re-test will be taken respectively after two days, one week and 15 days. All these 20 words will be mixed together no matter which tasks they belong to in the previous sections. This re-test is just to ask students to match the correct meaning to words listed and the only purpose is to test how well the words can be retained. Scores can be calculated and analyzed by researchers to judge how different tasks and context richness affect words recognition and retention.

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D. Data Collection and Analysis

In these tests, one correct answer will be scored with one point while the wrong or ignored ones will not be scored. Researchers will calculate scores for every test and analyze through the SPSS software. For task 1 and 2, the multi-way ANOVA test of scores the within group A and group B will show how different context richness affect the incidental vocabulary learning while the One-way ANOVA analysis between group A and B test analysis will reflect how different task-demands make differences to learn words incidentally. Similarly, scores for task 3 will be helpful to analyze how different tasks and context richness affect words retention.

IV. Results and Discussions

The following table lists the descriptive statistics of the three tasks and presents a general idea about the results.

Tasks	M	S.D.	Gains (%)
T1	7.71	1.72	77.1
T2	7.06/3.97	1.51/1.58	70.6/39.7
T3	7.20	1.73	72.0

*Descriptive statistics of the results

As shown in the table, from the pretest to task 1 the students demonstrate a very good command of the meanings of vocabulary. It is easy for them to find their Chinese meaning and synonyms. Hence, a very good vocabulary gain can be found in T1. While as for T2, we can easily find two opposite results. In T2, we have two sub-tests. In the former the students are supposed to replace the words with what they met in the reading, in which they did very well. But in the latter when they are required to make sentences with what they dealt with, they found much difficulty in doing so. So we do find that different tasks would exert different influences on vocabulary acquisition. In T3, since there are four types of context in the reading text *Internet and Education*, gains in this task show another good result on incidental vocabulary retention. To summarize, these findings can be proof of the role of context richness and task demands respectively in incidental vocabulary learning.

V. Conclusions

The above analysis and discussion show that task types and contextual richness affect the acquisition and retention of vocabulary to varying degrees. Specifically, different tasks presented to the language learners have a different influence on vocabulary acquisition and use. Those tasks that need learners to get the main idea help to understand the spelling and meaning of vocabulary, while, unfortunately, for those tasks requiring learners to use vocabulary correctly, the learners tend to show a poor command of vocabulary usage. In contrast, contextual richness contributes to acquisition of lexical meaning, which entails not only attention but also explicit processing by the learners.

Important implications can be drawn for language teachers and learners. Language teachers can focus their instruction on those tasks that encourage learners to get the main idea of the texts so as to make learners full of sense of achievements. Then the teachers would go further to lead the learners to pay more attention to how to use vocabulary. On the other hand, language learners are recommended to concentrate on key words to get general meaning of the material, so that they may make the salient input unconsciously, hence acquiring vocabulary knowledge through different tasks. Future research is suggested to design more strict instruments and procedures to determine how to combine different tasks to help learners to grasp overall knowledge of vocabulary.

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Research on the Teaching Model of College English Autonomous Learning in the Environment of Internet

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***Abstract*—With the deep application of Internet in the field of college English reform, a new teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the Internet is applied in this study. The new teaching model emphasizes the application of cognitive strategy and monitoring strategy when the English autonomous learning is conducted online and offline. The different notions and different performances of students between new teaching model and traditional model are discussed in this paper.**

***Index Terms*—autonomous learning, internet, cognitive strategy, monitoring strategy**

I. Introduction

This paper aims to investigate the teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet at Qingdao University of Science and Technology (hereinafter referred to as QUST). The College English Curriculum Requirements, the Ministry of Education (2007) points out that, "one of the objective of college English is to enhance their ability to study autonomously". The Internet Development Research Department of China Internet Network Information Center (CNNIC) releases the latest Internet survey which shows more than 95% Chinese college students are Internet users. The Internet provides a personalized teaching environment in the teaching of English autonomous leaning, and the traditional English teaching does not have such kind of advantage. Based on the investigator's teaching experience, this paper proposes building a teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet—"2+2" Model. In this model, the former 2 represents the combination of college English learning online and offline. The online college English autonomous learning is based on Internet environment. The offline college English learning refers to the teaching practice in the class. The latter 2 represents the application of cognitive strategy and monitoring strategy in the process of autonomous learning, which can improve the college student's autonomous learning efficiency and reduce the blindness of Internet autonomous learning.

2015 is the crucial year of college English teaching and learning reform in QUST, where the one-year training program of college English teaching and learning to 2015 non-English majors will be carried out. The implementation of 2015 one-year training program is totally different from the previous two-year training scheme, which proposes the new demands for the teachers and the students. The changes of teaching principles, the innovation of teaching model and the accompanying challenges and opportunities are the motivation and source of college English staff's qualitative variation. The present study attempts to give answers to the following questions: During the implementation of the new training program, what are the students' notions regarding the combination of autonomous learning online and offline? And what is the students' real performance under the "2+2" teaching model and the traditional teaching model?

II. Literature Review

A. The Research of Autonomous Learning

Educationists propose "autonomous learning" in the 20th century. The concept, theory and practice of autonomous learning developed in the field of western foreign language teaching, which is the product of comprehensive research results of psychology, pedagogy and language teaching. Many researchers study and define "autonomous learning" from different perspectives. Henri Holec (1981, p.45-48) formally puts forward "autonomous learning" in the early 1980s. Holec defines the autonomous learning as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning." The proposal of this definition arouses great attention and heated discussion in the western language world. Therefore, many relevant nouns of autonomous learning appear, such as autonomous learning, learner autonomy, self-access learning, independent learning, self-directed learning, self-study and so on. For Holec, autonomous learning is an ability, not an action. He pointed out that the ability was "a potential capacity to act in a given situation, and was not the actual behavior of an individual in that situation. This ability is not inherent and people would get the ability through the natural way or systematic study."(1981, p.45-48) The key of Heloc's definition is to regard autonomy as an attribute of the learner, rather than the learning situation.

In terms of "autonomy", different scholars from foreign countries hold different opinions and understandings. Some

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scholar believes that "autonomy" is a learning process, in which learners need to practice actively and be responsible for their own study. They determine their study objectives, make study plans, monitor their learning process and educate the learning outcomes according to their learning needs and existing knowledge. While some scholar considers that "autonomy" is a kind of learning ability, which emphasizes the characteristics of learners rather than learning process.

Pang Weiguo's (2003) research shows that autonomous learning originates from the Qing Dynasty, and the research on theory and practice of autonomous learning has a very long history in Chinese academic world. Accordingly, there are three main stages:

- the stage of proposing autonomous learning (before 1920)
- the initial experimental stage of autonomous learning (from the 1920s to 1970s)
- the systematic research stage of autonomous learning (from the 1980s to now)

Since 1990s, the study of learner autonomy has become a hot spot in the field of foreign language teaching in china. Over the past 10 years, the research has achieved remarkable results. After 2004, the research on autonomous learning has been heating up in China. In the review of review of research venation of autonomous learning in China, the related studies mainly focus on the following aspects:

- research on the concept and connotation of autonomous learning
- research on influence factors of autonomous learning
- research on types of autonomous learning
- research on ability of autonomous learning
- research on promoting learner autonomy
- research on the evaluation system of autonomous learning
- research on the teachers' role under the multimedia context
- research on the developing stages of autonomous learning

B. The Research of Cognitive Strategy

In the 1990s, O'Malley and Chamot put forward cognitive strategy according to information processing theory. They believe "cognitive strategies manipulate directly on incoming information, operating it in ways that enlarge learning."(1990, p.44) Altogether O'Malley and Chamot sum up 16 cognitive strategies: repetition, resourcing, directed physical response, translation, grouping, note-taking, deduction, recombination, imagery, auditory representation, key word, contextualization, elaboration, transfer, inference and summarizing. The classification of cognitive strategies by O'Malley and Chamot has been widely used.

Wen Qiufang (1996a), a researcher on learning strategies in china, assumes that the system of English learning strategies includes two parts: management strategies and language learning strategies. The two parts influence each other and interact each other. She recognizes language learning strategies as traditional learning strategies and non-traditional learning strategies. In traditional learning strategies, there are using-mother tongue strategies, accuracy strategies and form-focused strategies. In non- traditional learning strategies, there are mother-tongue-avoidance strategies, fluency strategies and meaning-focused strategies.

In teaching practice, the English teachers design their own cognitive strategy framework and guide the training of cognitive strategy in the light of their students' practice and teaching materials.

C. The Research of Monitoring Strategy

In the 1970s, American developmental psychologist Flavell put forward the concept of metacognitive strategy. Flavell believes that metacognition refers to the knowledge and awareness of the subjects' cognitive process. It includes three factors: the metacognitive knowledge, the metacognitive experience and the metacognitive monitoring. Metacognitive knowledge is the understanding towards the factors that affect the cognitive processes and results, and the understanding of ways and influence; Metacognitive experience is the cognitive experience and emotional experience of the subject in the metacognitive activities; Metacognitive monitoring is the evaluating and adjusting process of cognitive activities by using metacognitive knowledge, which is based on the strength of metacognitive experience. In the actual cognitive activities, the three factors are interrelated and interact with each other. Monitoring strategy is considered to be important and necessary to the metacognition.

The implementation of monitoring strategy in learning can promote the development of metacognitive strategy. The monitoring strategies can be divided into external monitoring and self-monitoring according to the monitoring subject and the monitoring object. The Study Theory of Constructivism stresses the importance of learners' subjective positions and it makes the learners have high autonomy. At the same time, teachers' control and regulation can not be neglected. Therefore, in the college English autonomous learning under the environment of Internet, external monitoring and self-monitoring coexist and combine organically. Self-monitoring is the center, while the external monitoring is the guarantee. With the increase of learners' studying experience, studying skills, and studying strategies, the guidance and monitoring of external environment is reduced gradually, and the learners' self-monitoring strategy and the autonomous learning ability can be improved ultimately.

III. Research Methods

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A. *Research Question and Subjects*

The purpose of this study was to investigate the "2+2" teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet. The research questions of the study attempted to explore were as follows: During the implementation of the new training program, what are the students' notions regarding the combination of autonomous learning online and offline? What is the students' real performance under the "2+2" teaching model and the traditional teaching model?

135 students from QUST took part in the questionnaire survey and they were 86 girls and 49 boys. They were all 2015 freshmen from four classes. Two classes of them were assigned as the experimental classes, and they were considered as Group1. They were taught under "2+2" teaching model with the help of Internet. In the experimental classes, teachers strengthened online-offline interaction and the strategy guidance. In the two control classes that were considered as Group 2, students were taught traditionally. The questionnaires were collected at the end of the one-year college English learning.

B. *Research Instruments*

Questionnaire was used to collect the data for this study. The researcher designed the questionnaire by herself based on the metacognitive strategies questionnaires of Bachman et al (1993). The questionnaire consists of three parts with 21 items. The first 6 items of Part A are related to the students' notions regarding the combination of autonomous learning online and offline. The next 6 items of Part B are related to cognitive strategies of students' autonomous learning. The last 9 items of Part C concern the monitoring strategies.

Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) for window version 17.0 and Excel 2013 were employed to analyze the data.

IV. Results and Discussion

A. *Students' Notions Regarding the Online-offline Autonomous Learning*

TABLE I
REPONSES TO ITEMS ON ONLINE-OFFLINE AUTONOMOUS LEARNING

Item	Frequency%					
	Group	5	4	3	2	1
A1 I enjoy English autonomous learning online.	Group1	21	36.8	22.8	3.5	1.8
	Group2	11.5	33.6	36.9	15.4	2.5
A2 I learn English through Internet in order to complete the assignment.	Group1	10.5	30.6	19.3	32.6	7
	Group2	5.5	35.9	29.5	25.2	3.8
A3 I am interested in abundant website resources matched the courses.	Group1	22.8	38.6	19.3	12.3	7
	Group2	14.1	38.5	24.4	21.8	1.2
A4 I finish the assignment actively in network learning.	Group1	21	35.1	29.8	8.8	5.2
	Group2	5.1	35.9	44.8	10.2	3.8
A5 I am attracted by other information online and stop learning.	Group1	24.6	36.8	29.8	7	1.8
	Group2	17.9	37.2	26.9	22.8	1.2
A6 My learning efficiency is improved through the autonomous learning online.	Group1	17.5	21	52.6	5.2	1.8
	Group2	7.7	29.5	48.7	14.1	0

(5-strongly agree 4-agree 3-no views 2-disagree 1-strongly disagree)

Table I showed the students' responses to items on the combination of autonomous learning online and offline. As shown, nearly half of the students' in Group 2enjoyed English autonomous learning online while the number in Group 1 was 57.9%. The data indicated the students in Group 1 were more in favor of the autonomous learning. Item A2 and Item A4 were employed to investigate the learning autonomy of the students online. As for Item A2, 41.1% of the students in Group 1 and 41.4% of the students in Group 2 expressed that they had learned college English online just in order to complete the assignment. The data were almost same. However, 39.6% of the students of Group 1 showed disagreement on this statement, which was ten percentages higher than the number of Group 2. As for Item A4, 56%of the students in Group 1 expressed that they could finish the assignment actively in network learning, while the number in Group 2was 41%. Therefore, the autonomy of the students in Group 1 was stronger than that of students in Group 2. 61.4% of the students in Group 1 were interested in abundant website resources matched the courses, and the data of Group 2 was only 52.6%. In respect of Item A5, 61.4% of Group 1 would be interrupted because of the attraction of other information. The number was bigger than that of Group 2, which indicated that the students in the experimental classes needed more supervision when they did autonomous learning online. The last item of Part A reflected the efficiency of the autonomous learning under the environment of Internet. The views of two-group students on this item were quite similar. The numbers were 38.6% and 37.2% respectively. During the following interview, one student said, "I want to pass the CET Band-4 in the first year, so the knowledge of our text book is not enough. I can get various kinds of English knowledge from the Internet. For example, I often surf the "Putclub" website to obtain the latest VOA Special English listening materials, which is very helpful to improve my listening. But I always spent a little time on chatting or playing computer games when I was online." In conclusion, teacher should achieve the teaching classroom's expansion by using the Internet, enhance students' autonomous learning ability, form the effective autonomous learning

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strategies, lead students to achieve self-monitoring effectively and overcome their dependent psychology finally.

B. Views on Cognitive Strategies

TABLE II
RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON COGNITIVE STRATEGIES

Item	Frequency%					
	Group	5	4	3	2	1
B1 I can look up new words by using dictionary or smartphone, and read them again and again.	Group1	38.6	40.4	10.5	5.2	5.2
	Group2	29.5	40	20.5	10.3	0
B2 I can associate the words with its pronunciation or image.	Group1	24.4	36.8	22.8	10.5	7
	Group2	23	38.5	21.8	14.1	2.6
B3 I can translate the difficult sentences into Chinese in order to understand.	Group1	37.2	46.2	10.3	3.8	2.6
	Group2	35	42	15.8	5.3	1.8
B4 I can guess the meaning of new words according to the context relations.	Group1	43.6	37.2	12.8	5.1	1.3
	Group2	28	40.4	21	8.8	1.8
B5 I can take notes while I listen the passages.	Group1	8.8	15.8	35	24.6	15.8
	Group2	10.3	14.1	47.4	21.8	6.4
B6 I can summarize the English knowledge I learned in my mind.	Group1	10.5	21	33.3	24.6	10.5
	Group2	2.6	20.5	50	19.2	7.7

(5-strongly agree 4-agree 3-no views 2-disagree 1-strongly disagree)

As mentioned earlier, O'Malley and Chamot had summed up 16 cognitive strategies, among which 7 strategies were selected in this study. The 6 items were used to investigate the repetition strategy, resourcing strategy, imagery strategy, translation strategy, contextualization strategy, note-taking strategy and summarizing strategy of the students in two groups.

According to Table II, students in Group 1 got higher scores than the students in Group 2 on Item B1, Item B3, Item B4, Item B5 and Item B6. It indicated the students who were taught under the "2+2" teaching model used repetition strategy, translation strategy, contextualization strategy, note-taking strategy and summarizing strategy much more frequently. As for Item B2 that was used to investigate the imagery strategy, the scores of two groups were alike, and they were 60% and 62% respectively. In the light of above data, students in Group 1 did better on the application of cognitive strategies, yet both groups of the students obtained lower scores on note-taking strategy. Therefore, teachers should strengthen the training of those two strategies during teaching process.

C. Views on Monitoring Strategies

TABLE III
RESPONSES TO ITEMS ON MONITORING STRATEGIES

Item	Frequency%					
	Group	5	4	3	2	1
C1 I read the questions carefully when I do reading comprehension, and predict the content or the theme of the passage.	Group1	31.1	45.6	18.1	5.2	0
	Group2	23.1	43.6	19.2	11.5	2.6
C2 I can limit the reading time and finish the reading effectively.	Group1	7	19.3	45.6	22.8	5.3
	Group2	5.1	19.2	42.3	28.2	5.1
C3 I think my spoken English is fluent.	Group1	5.2	17.5	33.3	26.3	17.5
	Group2	5.1	9	26.9	26.9	32.1
C4 I improve the studying methods of English constantly.	Group1	10.5	36.8	29.8	17.5	5.3
	Group2	6.4	34.6	30.8	25.6	2.6
C5 I ask myself whether I study the new knowledge seriously.	Group1	12.2	35.1	37.1	15.3	5.3
	Group2	9	41	31.5	11.4	1.1
C6 After class, I review the knowledge regularly.	Group1	8.8	15.8	42.1	28.1	5.2
	Group2	2.6	19.2	47.4	27	3.8
C7 I would finish the studying plan on schedule.	Group1	10.5	17.5	43.9	22.8	5.3
	Group2	2.6	23	42.3	26.9	5.2
C8 when I listen English, I realize that something I can't understand.	Group1	31	48.7	23	10.5	3.8
	Group2	33.3	33.3	9	8.7	1.7
C9 when I speak English, I know I make grammar mistakes sometimes.	Group1	28	56	8.8	1.8	5.4
	Group2	43.6	38.5	9	5.1	3.8

(5-strongly agree 4-agree 3-no views 2-disagree 1-strongly disagree)

All the items of Part C were employed to investigate the monitoring strategies of both group students. The comprehension monitoring had been properly investigated by Item C1 and Item C2. Students in Group 1 showed better performance on the two items, the numbers were 77% to 67% and 26.3% to 24.4%. Most of the students of both groups would read questions carefully when they did reading comprehension and predict the content or theme of the passage. But the efficiency of their reading was low, only about 25% of the students could finish the reading in limited time. In the following interview, some students told the investigator that they couldn't complete the previous CET-4 within the time prescribed. In order to improve the reading efficiency, students could enlarge their vocabulary, train reading skills

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and teachers should pa more attention to the reading guidance. Item C3 was related to production monitoring. As the table showed, this strategy was applied better by the students in Group 1. However, only 22.8% of Group 1 and 14.1% of Group 2 believed that when they had said something sounded like native speaker. Chinese students were always trained to attach more importance to writing than speaking. 47.4% of the students in Group 1 had conceived the strategy monitoring, and they improved the studying methods constantly, while the number of Group 2 was 41%. Item C5 concerned the double-check monitoring. The data of both groups were similar. About half of the whole students would focus on what they were studying. As referred to Item C6 and Item C7, both groups of the students had got low statistics. Only 24.6% of the students in Group 1 would make revision regularly after class, while the number in Group 2 was 21.8%. 28.1% of Group 1 would finish the studying plan on schedule, while the number in Group 2 was 25.6%.The above-mentioned data conveyed that the plan monitoring was not realized enough for the students. Nevertheless, it was delightful that most of the students have concerned the problem identification. Nearly 80% of the students in Group 1 knew something they couldn't understand when they listened to English, and the number in group 2was 67%. 84.2% of Group 1 realized they could make grammar mistakes sometimes when they spoke English, and the number of Group 2 was 82%.

In conclusion, the students in Group 1 showed much better performance on monitoring strategies accordingly. They had benefited more from the "2+2" teaching model. As far as the plan monitoring was concerned, teachers should help them to make the practical and progressive studying plans.

V. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper was to investigate the teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet. A survey was conducted for two-group students in QUST. By analyzing the data above, we obtained the following conclusion: First of all, students' autonomy and studying efficiency in QUST remained to be raised to a higher lever. In the new teaching model under the environment of Internet, students were the center of learning, while teachers should act as the organizer, supervisor, facilitator and controller of English autonomous learning. All in all, the Internet was a double-edged sword, which provided the excellent support for autonomous learning, yet put forward higher demand to college English learners' autonomy. Secondly, students who were taught under the new teaching model for one year showed better performance by using cognitive strategies and monitoring strategies. Especially, they were good at using the repetition strategy, translation strategy, contextualization strategy, comprehension strategy, comprehension monitoring, and problem identification monitoring. It indicated that the one-year autonomous learning training under environment of Internet was effective. The "2+2" model enables teachers to achieve the classroom extension by using Internet, which can also improve college students' autonomous learning abilities, form effective autonomous learning strategies, achieve self-monitoring by being given effective guidance and overcome their dependence mentality. However, one-year research time was limited, whether the new teaching model had a more significant effect needed a further investigation.

Appendix

This questionnaire is being conducted for the study on the teaching model of college English autonomous learning in the environment of Internet. The objective of this questionnaire is to map the notions regarding the combination of autonomous learning online and offline, and the application of students on cognitive strategy and monitoring strategy of autonomous learning.

1. Sex: (please tick) Female □ Male □
2. Age: _____
3. Major: _____

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Read the following items and tick according to the actual situation.	strongly agree	agree	no views	disagree	strongly disagree
A1 I enjoy English autonomous learning online.					
A2 I learn English through Internet in order to complete the assignment.					
A3 I am interested in abundant website resources matched the courses.					
A4 I finish the assignment actively in network learning.					
A5 I am attracted by other information online and stop learning.					
A6 My learning efficiency is improved through the autonomous learning online.					
B1 I can look up new words by using dictionary or smartphone, and read them again and again					
B2 I can associate the words with its pronunciation or image.					
B3 I can translate the difficult sentences into Chinese in order to understand.					
B4 I can guess the meaning of new words according to the context relations.					
B5 I can take notes while I listen the passages.					
B6 I can summarize the English knowledge I learned in my mind.					
C1 I read the questions carefully when I do reading comprehension, and predict the content or the theme of the passage.					
C2 I can limit the reading time and finish the reading effectively.					
C3 I think my spoken English is fluent.					
C4 I improve the studying methods of English constantly.					
C5 I ask myself whether I study the new knowledge seriously.					
C6 After class, I review the knowledge regularly.					
C7 I would finish the studying plan on schedule.					
C8 when I listen to English, I realize that something I can't understand.					
C9 when I speak English, I know I make grammar mistakes sometimes.					

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The Effects of Collaborative and Individual Planning on Iranian Male and Female EFL Learners' Writing Ability

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***Abstract*—This article is concerned with the effects of planning type (individual vs. collaborative) and gender on EFL learners' writing quality. The interaction of these two types of variables is also investigated. In a quasi-experimental design, the performance of two collaborative-planning and two individual-planning groups were compared. In each of these planning situations there was a male group and a female group with 26 students of the same proficiency level. All four groups underwent 8 treatment sessions. Results of the Paired-samples T-tests revealed that both types of planning had been effective in improving the learners' writing performance. Moreover, based on the MANOVA results, there was no interaction between the two independent variables of the study and the main effect was significant only for the planning type. Findings of the study highlight the significance of planning, whether individually or collaboratively, before writing tasks.**

***Index Terms*—writing skill, individual planning, collaborative planning**

I. Introduction

Writing is recognized as the most effective medium of conveying ideas and feelings to people who are away from us in place and time. Chastain (1988) envisions a strong link between writing ability on the one hand and language proficiency and education on the other. Beginning in the 19th century, writing has gained gradual but continuous importance in second and foreign language teaching. To improve learners' writing ability, models have emerged each providing teachers with a theory and a host of practical procedures to effectively teach this skill. According to Kellogg (1996), the presented models involve three basic systems: *Formulation*, *Execution* and *Monitoring*. Formulation involves *planning* and *translation*; execution involves *programming* and *executing*; and Monitoring involves *reading* and *editing*. Based on such models, learners are active and able to generate thoughts and ideas.

For the majority of EFL learners writing is a big challenge and they are reluctant to go through doing writing tasks. However, this skill needs to be given enough attention in EFL situations, because it is a key skill which displays learners' English language ability. Also as part of academic requirements, students should present their ideas through clear and well-organized texts.

Writing needs lots of time and lots of practice to develop; however, strategies that teachers employ might hasten the process and reduce the time that is needed to be an effective writer in an academic environment. One of the main strategies that can be adopted in language classes is giving students planning time to design the outline of their written texts and think of the content that needs to be included in them.

Studies have plainly revealed that pre-task planning can deeply affect the nature of the subsequent performance (e.g., Crookes, 1989; Ellis, 2005). Generally, it has become evident that planning is helpful for writing. Planning time provides students with an opportunity to enrich their writing and organize their ideas more effectively. When asked to write promptly, students are not sure how to start, how to develop the paragraph, how to organize the information and how to make the whole text a cohesive one even when they have enough vocabulary to use and know exactly what ideas they want to express. Therefore, it might be useful to give students planning time in which they can work on their own or in collaboration with their peers before embarking on the writing task.

The present study investigated the effects of providing opportunities for learners to plan before engaging in a writing task. Ortega (1999) defined the construct of planning as "the availability of a certain amount of time immediately before performing the experimental tasks" (p. 113). A planned condition, according to Foster and Skehan (2010), gives opportunities to prepare before the tasks and eases the subsequent attentional burden. This can also lower the workload of teachers and assist with their teaching process. According to Foster and Skehan, not many variables have been investigated in relation to planning and the majority of studies so far have been focused on individual planning to the disadvantage of collaborative planning. Additionally, gender identity might be one of the factors that leads to different outcomes with planning time, which is not investigated sufficiently. Gender studies are particularly important in

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cultures that make a distinction between males and females in social and educational arenas, of which Iran is a good example.

Given that in many English language classes in Iran writing is taught superficially and without adequate attention to the details of the skill and with respect to the fact that in many classes no particular strategy is followed for effective writing, it was strongly felt that there is a need for these issues to be investigated. However, because of the time limit, the present research was aimed only at studying the effects of collaborative and individual planning on Iranian EFL learners' writing proficiency. At the same time, the effect of gender as a moderator variable was measured. The following null hypotheses are the ones that were formulated and tested:

$H0_1$. Collaborative planning does not have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability.

$H0_2$. Individual planning does not have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability.

$H0_3$. There is no interaction between gender and planning type in relation to writing ability.

II. Literature Review

A. Planning

In order to attend to form and meaning equally, Willis (1991) suggested a task-based approach for instruction including pre-task, task cycle and post-task activities. Pre-task learning activities are usually inductive activities with certain aspects of task input made salient (Doughty, 1991); Examples of pre-task activities are consciousness-raising (Willis, 1996) and pre-task planning (Crookes, 1989). Pre-task planning gives learners an idea of how to go about the complete task and provides them with an opportunity to practice performing aspects of the task or a similar task before they are asked to do the main task.

Planning is believed to have a beneficial effect on learners' implicit acquisitional processes during the course of language development (Kowal & Swain, 1994; Storch, 2013), because a planned second language output will most possibly push learners to the extremes of their linguistic potential so that they may extend what they can do with language.

The two major types of planning are individual and collaborative planning. In individual planning participants are given time to plan in isolation. In collaborative planning, on the other hand, planning activity is completed by peers being engaged in the planning activity. Spoken and written activities are obviously susceptible to planning. Planning is essential for problem solving activities and involves coming up with linguistic devices that are needed for affecting the audience in the best possible way (Ellis, 2005).

In a study, Crookes (1989) investigated the results of giving learners a ten-minute planning time before the completion of two information-gap activities. The language that the learners in the planning condition produced was more complex and fluent than the language produced by other learners, but their production was not more accurate. His conclusion was that planners use their planning time to complexify the task by including more subordinate clauses with less accuracy.

Similar to Crookes' study, Foster and Skehan (1996) explored the impact of planning on variables as different as personal performance, narrative task, and decision-making task. For the first task, the participants had 10 minutes for individual planning by making notes but the notes were taken away from them at the end of the planning time. In the narrative task, the participants were given directions as to how they might use their planning time. This involved the discourse and suggestions about where to direct attention. The decision-making task involved content of the tasks that were required to be produced. Compared to the Crookes' study, Foster and Skehan reported that planning without guidance produced greater complexity and fluency of language.

The other research was conducted by Wigglesworth (1997) to investigate the effects of planning time in the context of language testing. Her findings revealed that participants' performance improved as a result of planning time but the difficulty of the task done and the proficiency level of the participants had also been exerting influence.

B. Collaboration

Collaboration has also been the subject of many studies in L2 acquisition. Language development as demonstrated by Foster and Ohta (2005) is not limited to the interactive processes but encompasses strategies like negotiation of meaning, co-construction, other-correction, and continuers. Learners working in groups or pairs are more likely to use the L2 for a variety of functions which are usually performed by the teacher, including suggesting, questioning and providing feedback. Group and pair work, therefore, may bring about a shift in the roles of teachers and learners and provide learners with an enhanced quantity and quality of L2 practice.

One of the differences in planning type, as mentioned above, is whether it is done individually or collaboratively. The difference between collaborative planning and individual planning in EFL learners' writing is an area, which according to Storch (2005) and Storch and Wigglesworth (2007), is little investigated and the few research findings show mixed results.

Storch (2005) also points out that the majority of the studies on collaborative work in the L2 classroom in the past "have examined learners' attitudes to group/pair work in general, rather than to the activity of collaborative writing" (p. 155). Another group of the previous research on pair and group work in L2 writing have documented the beneficial effects of group feedback (e.g., Rollinson, 2005; Zhu, 2001), or matters relating to the dynamics of group, types of

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group formations, groups' peer review tasks (e.g., Levine, Oded, Connor & Asons, 2002), rather than collaborative planning.

C. Gender

Difference in gender also might affect students' performance in written tasks. Gender identity can be one of the reasons for collaboration avoidance in instructional settings. Differences in academic practices because of difference in the gender of students are well-attested in research. These differences are attributed to a combination of socialization patterns and physiology of the opposite sexes by Wharton (2000). A very well-known difference in this respect is strategy use. That females use more language strategies across different cultures, especially social strategies, is confirmed in several studies (e.g., Punithavalli, 2003; Zare, 2010).

Just as a case in point, Zare (2010) examined the likely differences between Iranian male and female language learners in relation to using language learning strategies. The findings showed that the use of language learning strategies was different between male and female EFL learners with female EFL learners performing much better in comparison with males in terms of using learning strategies.

Naveh, Kafipour and Soltani (2011) found gender as a fascinating variable in vocabulary learning and final achievement of EFL learners. They emphasized that females outdid males in terms of general proficiency and vocabulary size.

However, it must be admitted that in spite of the existence of studies pointing to the impact of gender on the EFL learners' of proficiency level, there are multiple studies rejecting any direct or indirect relationship between gender and language proficiency in general, and learning strategy in particular. Chou's (2002) study, for example, indicated that male and female EFL learners are not different when it comes to using language learning strategies. In a similar vein, Al Otaibi (2004) stated that gender did not result in any significant difference in using any of the six categories of strategies he studied.

III. Methodology

The current study aimed at investigating the effects of two types of planning (individual and collaborative) and gender on EFL learners' writing performance. There was also an attempt to explore any possible interaction between these two variables.

A. Participants

The study was conducted on 52 Iranian university students (26 males and 26 females) with the same mother tongue and an age range of 20 to 25 years old. Prior to taking part in the study, all of the participants had studied English for several years at different schools and had completed two or more English conversation books in private language schools.

B. Instruments

A simplified version of Top Notch/Summit Placement Test A (Saslow & Asher, 2006), some topics for writing during the treatment sessions, and a picture strip were the instruments used in this study. The simplified version of the test consisted of listening, reading, vocabulary, and grammar sections. Listening was the first section and contained two conversation passages with a few multiple-choice and other comprehension check questions. The Reading section included one reading passage with eight true/false statements. The other two parts were intended to test the students' general knowledge of vocabulary and grammar through some items of mixed difficulty. The allotted time for this test was 50 minutes. The reliability of the test had already been established by applying it to a similar group of students and statistical analysis. The test was also considered to have content validity, because, in addition to its reliability, the items were all directed at measuring students' general English language proficiency.

In addition to this written test, a speaking test was administered using a picture strip and a series of questions in a 10-minutes time. Moreover, some writing topics were used as prompts for pretest, posttest and the treatment sessions. All of these topics were chosen from the book '*How to Prepare for the TOEFL Essay'*, Edited by Abbas Zahedi (2002).

C. Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure was conducted in four stages: administering the placement test, administering writing pretest, implementing the treatments, and administering the posttest.

Out of the 190 randomly chosen students 52 students whose scores fell somewhere between 35 and 50 in the proficiency test were included in the study. These students were then divided into two male and female groups each with 26 students. Each of these gender groups were randomly divided into two further groups each with 13 members. After dividing the participants into four groups, the pretest for writing was administered. In the pretest, the students were given two topics and were asked to write a text of about 100 to 150 words about one of them. In order to make sure that the groups were homogeneous in terms of their writing ability, the statistical test of One-way ANOVA was conducted on the pretest scores. The result was non-significant, P=.071>.05. The result of the Leven's Test of Equality of Variances, which is produced as part of One-way ANOVA, also revealed that equal variances could be assumed among the groups, P=.65>.05, df=3, 48, F=2.490. Normality of the distributions' of scores in all four groups was

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likewise checked which confirmed their normality. Tables for this test, One-way ANOVA run on pretest scores, and Leven's Equality of Variances are given in the next section.

After the pretests, the learners in all four groups were exposed to 8 treatment sessions. What is more, students in two of the classes (one male and one female) were paired up with a partner they chose themselves. This was for providing them with collaborative planning opportunities. After planning in pairs, however, each learner wrote about the topic individually during the treatment and the posttest. In the other two classes, the learners planned and wrote about the given topic all on their own.

In each treatment session, all learners were given a topic and asked to plan (one group individually, the other in pairs) and produce a text on it. The treatments included providing students with information about the components of composition including *content, organization, vocabulary use, language use,* and *mechanics.* After the learners wrote their texts in each session, analytic feedback was provided based on the scoring profile of Jacobs et al. (1981) which takes into account all of the five writing components mentioned above. At the end of the treatment, the learners were asked to produce another passage about a new but very similar topic to the one given to them at the pretest stage as their posttest.

D. Scoring the Written Texts in Pretest and Posttest

Since assessing the written texts in terms of quantitative results seems to be a difficult task, scoring the participants' written texts in this study was based on the scoring profile of Jacob al. (1981). Based on the guidelines of this assessment profile, each text should be scored out of 100. Analytic scoring looks at different aspects of the text and measures learners' performance on each of the five components of *content, organization, vocabulary use, language use,* and *mechanics.* According to this scale, maximum credit given to the components are as follows: Content 30 points, Organization 20 points, Vocabulary use 20 points, Language use 25 points, and finally Mechanics 5 points.

IV. Data Analysis

A. Overview of Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) was utilized for statistical analysis. The reliability of the placement test (used in this study as the proficiency test) was established by running a Chonbach Alpha test on the proficiency scores. The pretest was given and a One-sample K-S test was run on its results to check for the normality of the distributions of scores in the groups. This was followed by a One-way ANOVA for rejecting significant initial difference(s) among the groups and assuring homogeneity of the groups' scores. Furthermore, two Paired-samples T-tests were run on the participants' pretest and posttest scores in order to investigate the first two research hypotheses of the study. To explore the interaction between gender and planning type in relation to writing ability, a Two-way between-groups ANOVA was used.

B. Results

First of all, the reliability of the proficiency test was calculated using Chronbach Alpha test. Table 4.1 shows the result of this test.

Table 4.1.
Reliability Statistics

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Subsections
.703	4

Normality of the scores' distributions, which is an important assumption of parametric tests, was checked by running a One-sample K-S test. The following table shows the results of this test for all four groups.

Table 4.2.
Tests of Normality of Scores' Distributions at Pretest Stage

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test				
	Male individual pretest	Male collaborative pretest	Female individual pretest	Female collaborative pretest
N	13	13	13	13
Test Statistic	.135	.118	.133	.215
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]	.200[c,d]	.102[c]

a. Test distribution is Normal.

After obtaining non-significant results in One-Sample K-S test, a One-way ANOVA along with its accompanying Leven's Test of Equality of Variances were run in order to ascertain that the groups were not substantially different from each other or heterogeneous. Tables 4.3 and 4.4 show the results of these tests. According to table 4.3, there had been no significant difference among the groups of students' pretest scores at P=.07 >.05 level.

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TABLE 4.3.
ANOVA TEST RUN ON PRETEST SCORES

pretest scores

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	961.135	3	320.378	2.490	.071
Within Groups	6175.846	48	128.663		
Total	7136.981	51			

Leven's Test of Equality of Variances or the homogeneity test that follows tells us that the groups in this study had been comparable with each other.

TABLE 4.4.
LEVEN'S TEST OF EQUALITY OF VARIANCES

Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
.554	3	48	.648

One of the main objectives of this study was to see if two types of planning, namely, individual and collaborative, had any effect on the EFL learners' writing ability. To test the related hypotheses, the participants' posttest scores were also entered into the statistical program for the purpose of comparing each group's pretest and posttest means. By running Paired-samples T-tests, each group's pretest mean was compared with the same group's posttest mean to see if the group members had made any significant gains. Table 4.5 shows the results of this test.

TABLE 4.5.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T-TESTS SHOWING GROUPS' PROGRESS FROM PRETESTS TO POSTTESTS

		Paired Differences						
				95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Lower	Upper	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	Male individual pretest - Male individual posttest	-17.61538	6.62745	-21.62031	-13.61046	-9.583	12	.000
Pair 2	Male collaborative pretest - Male collaborative posttest	-19.15385	10.05689	-25.23116	-13.07653	-6.867	12	.000
Pair 3	Female individual pretest - Female individual posttest	-19.30769	8.49887	-24.44351	-14.17188	-8.191	12	.000
Pair 4	Female collaborative pretest - Female collaborative posttest	-15.15385	7.50385	-19.68837	-10.61932	-7.281	12	.000

The *Sig.* values in Table 4.5 clearly show a significant difference between the pretest and posttest scores of each of the four groups ($P<0.001$). In other words, there had been statistically significant increases in participants' scores from the pretests to the posttests in all of the groups as a result of treatments. The effect sizes calculated for these *Sig* values using the formula *Eta squared* = $t^2/t^2 + (N-1)$ are given below:

Eta squared for male-male individual planning = .88

Eta squared for male-male collaborative planning = .80

Eta squared for female-female individual planning = .85

Eta squared for female-female collaborative planning = .82

The effect sizes calculated are very strong effect sizes based on Cohen's classification of the strengths of effect sizes.

To find out whether there had been an interaction between gender and planning type in relation to writing ability, a Two-way between-groups ANOVA was run. This test is used when there are two categorical independent and one continuous dependent variables. The following tables indicate the results.

TABLE 4.6.
BETWEEN-SUBJECTS FACTORS

		Value Label	N
Planning type	1.00	individual	26
	2.00	collaborative	26
Gender	1.00	male	26
	2.00	female	26

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TABLE 4.7.
HOMOGENEITY OF THE GROUPS IN POSTTESTS

Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances[a]

Dependent Variable: scores in posttest

F	df1	df2	Sig.
.623	3	48	.603

TABLE 4.8.
TESTS OF MAIN AND INTERACTION EFFECTS

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Dependent Variable: scores in posttest

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	609.288[a]	3	203.096	5.947	.002	.271
Intercept	343606.327	1	343606.327	10060.546	.000	.995
Planning Type	510.942	1	510.942	14.960	.000	.238
Gender	86.327	1	86.327	2.528	.118	.050
Planning type * gender	12.019	1	12.019	.352	.556	.007
Error	1639.385	48	34.154			
Total	345855.000	52				
Corrected total	2248.673	51				

a. R Squared = .271 (Adjusted R Squared = .225)

Table 4.8 reveals that the interaction effect had been non-significant at P=.556>.05 level. The main effect for gender had also been non-significant with P=.118>.05. But for planning type the P value had been equal to .000, which means that the only influencing factor, so far as the figures show, had been the kind of treatment that the students received. The Partial Eta Squared or the effect size value calculated for this variable is r=.238. This finding forces us to accept our third hypothesis and attribute the overall improvement in our participants' writing to the planning type that they received irrespective of whether the students were male or female.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was an attempt to investigate three research questions:

1. Does collaborative planning have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability?
2. Does individual planning have any effect on EFL learners' writing ability?
3. Is there an interaction between gender and planning type in relation to writing ability?

In brief, it was revealed that both types of planning had positive effects on EFL learners' writing performance. Therefore, the answers to the first two research questions were positive. In fact, the treatments had been effective regardless of the type of planning and the first two null hypotheses of the study were rejected. However, further analysis demonstrated that while both planning strategies had been significantly effective in improving students' writing ability, the individual planning groups had performed better compared to the collaborative planning groups. This finding is reflected in the effect sizes calculated for these two types of planning situations. Moreover, the findings indicated a lack of interaction between the two independent variables of gender and planning type.

The fact that the learners performed better in writing posttests suggests that planning before a writing activity is effective in leading the learners to produce linguistically more accurate and appropriate texts. This is in line with previous studies that report the benefits of planning (Foster and Skehan, 1996; Mehnert, 1998; Ojima, 2006). The effect of individual planning on the students' writing in this study proved to be slightly better than collaborative planning which goes against the findings of some researchers (e.g., Nixon, 2007; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009; Elola & Oskoz, 2010), who found superior effect for collaborative planning. The overall finding of the study, however, highlights the importance of planning in facilitating writing process and enhancing written texts quality. Through planning EFL learners are able to create more organized passages with better content.

This study suggests a need for an emphasis on giving planning time to EFL learners before any writing task. The findings are beneficial to EFL learners as well as teachers. Learners should be encouraged to plan for their writings in terms of content and organization and teachers are advised to provide this opportunity for them.

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The Acquisition of Mandarin Modal Verbs by English Speakers*

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***Abstract*—This article aims to investigate the acquisition of Chinese modals by native English speakers based on the production materials in written discourse. The results show that the functional category is accessible to the L2 learners. Their knowledge of the semantic properties of the modals is impaired, as exemplified by the errors: omission, redundancy, word order and misuse. The finding is in conformity with the Interface Hypothesis (Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006). Finally, the article explores the implications of this study for teaching Chinese as a foreign language.**

***Index Terms*—mandarin modal verbs, second language, English speakers**

I. Introduction

The extensive studies reveal that modality is difficult for both first and second language learners to master (Bloor & Bloor, 1991; Holmes, 1988). The reasons for the well-observed phenomenon are two-fold. To begin with, many modals are polysemous, that is, they can simultaneously convey different clusters of meanings. Take the Chinese modal Hui for example, it can express a range of different meanings: ability, disposition, futurity, generic modality and epistemic modality (Tsai, 2015). On the other hand, an interesting fact is that above-mentioned modal meaning can be expressed by many different modal verbs.

The present study will examine the acquisition of the Chinese modal verbs by English speakers by analyzing the errors committed in their compositions. The results lead to the conclusion that the universal grammar is accessible to the L2 acquisition and the interface knowledge of the L2 learners is severely impaired.

II. Literature Review

A. The Modal Verbs in Chinese and English

There are two approaches for the syntactic study of Chinese modal verbs. The first one regards the modals as verbs (Hu, 2015; Lin & Tang, 1995). Lin & Tang (1995) claim that modals take a CP as complement and that epistemic modals, obligation *yinggai*, and permission *keyi* are raising verbs, while other root modals are control verbs. Hu (2015) proposes that epistemic and deontic modal verbs are one-place raising verbs which take one event argument and could occur in the sentence initial position. The dynamic modal verbs are two-place control verbs, which take one event argument and an agent argument. According to Hu (2015), the two kinds of verbs are different from each other with respect to argument structure, semantic restriction, negation and passivation.

The second one is called the cartographic approach, which assumes that the modal verbs are functional head, to be specific, the head of modal phase (MP). Tsai(2015) proposes a three-layer analysis of Chinese modal projections following Rizzi (1997). Epistemic modality is located on the complementizer layer, deontic modality on the inflectional layer, and dynamic modality on the lexical layer, as illustrated in (1).

(1) $MP_{epistemic} > IP > MP_{deontic} > vP > MP_{dynamic} > VP$

Epistemic modals are related to the information structure in the left edge area. They are discourse-oriented, because they deal with the speakers' commitment to the truth of proposition. The deontic modals are related to the event structure encoded by IP. They concerned with the necessity or possibility of the acts performed by the subject, thus, they are subject-oriented. Finally, dynamic modals are related to the argument structure. As a consequence, they are essentially agent-oriented, because they deal with the ability or willingness of the agent in the argument structure.

In Standard English, modal auxiliaries include *might, must, may, can, could, will, would, should, ought (to)*, etc. (see Palmer (1990) and Coates (1983) for detailed discussion). One of the hot debates concerning the English Modality is how to split the epistemic modals and the root modals. The epistemic modality concerns the speakers' judgments on actual or possible situations in the world; root modality deals with the relation between a subject and a predicate.

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There are various accounts for the epistemic/root distinction. The first approach is syntactic in nature. Picallo (1990) suggests epistemics are encoded in the IP level, and roots, somewhere within the VP. McDowell (1987) claims that epistemics appears in C in LF and roots in VP. The second analysis believes that the distinction is lexical in nature. Ross (1969) claims that epistemics are one-place predicates, resembling raising verbs, while roots are two-place predicates, in resemblance with control verbs. The third approach concerns the semantic/pragmatic component of grammar. Some researchers proposed that the distinction is in the semantic/pragmatic component (Kratzer, 1977, 1981, 1991; Papafragou, 1998). Butler (2003) proposed an explanation of the syntactic and semantic behavior of the English modals from the perspective of the syntax–semantics interface. The epistemic modal is encoded in the CP phrase, and the root modal in the vP phrase.

One of the crucial differences between the Chinese and English modals lies in the interaction between negation and modal verbs. In English all the modal verbs precede the negation, in Chinese the opposite holds.

B. The Acquisition of Chinese Modals by English Learners

There are extensive studies concerning the acquisition of Chinese modal verbs by English speakers. Based on large amount of production materials, Tong (1986) classified the errors into 3 categories, namely the misuse, the omission and semantic errors. Chen (2002) focuses on two modal verbs Neng and Hui. The study indicates the semantic overlapping gives rise to the errors committed by the learners. Lai (2006) addressed the same question from the perspective of functional grammar, and arrived at the conclusion that the negative first language transfer is the root of the various errors.

To date, there is no research conducted in the framework of universal grammar, which is very influential in the second language acquisition. Most of the aforementioned studies are summary of the errors of the learners, however, there is no in-depth discussion of the root of the errors.

C. The Theories Accounting for the Modal Acquisition

Gregg (1993) pointed out the scientific study of second language acquisition (SLA) needs to address two basic questions: what is the knowledge of the L2 learner and how is that knowledge obtained? Therefore, an ideal learnability model for adult SLA should be established aiming to account for both the two aspects. The theory of Universal Grammar (UG) is the only well-developed theory of language, which can explain the knowledge possessed by the L2 learners and how the ultimate attainment is obtained.

One of the hot debates in generative SLA concerns the extent to which the process of acquiring a non-native language resembles first language acquisition. There are two opposing positions on the access of UG in L2 acquisition. The no UG access hypothesis argues for the availability of UG only in L1 acquisition. The UG access hypothesis maintains that the UG is operative in both first and second language acquisition.

There is ample evidence supporting the fact that the final attainment of L2 is different from that of L1. Sorace (2006) proposes the Interface Hypothesis accounting for the selective impairment of the L2 learners' knowledge. She argues that structures which require the combination of syntactic component with other grammatical domains are more complex than structures which involve syntactic component alone. More recently, Sorace (2011) established a distinction between internal interfaces and external interfaces. The former are usually acquired with ease, on the other hand, the latter usually imposes great difficulty to the L2 learners.

According to the previous studies, Chinese modal verbs are functional categories, which head the modal phrase. On the other hand, according to Kratzer (1977), both epistemic and root interpreted modals express either some kind of necessity or some kind of possibility relating to the proposition P / predicate p they operate over. In sum, the modal verbs involve the interface between the syntax and semantics/pragmatics, which may impose great difficulty to the L2 learners, according to the Interface hypothesis.

III. The Research Design

The present study aims to explore the error types of Chinese modality in English learners' written discourse. This was achieved through a learner interlanguage corpus comprised of the learners' writing. The subjects are 25 in total. All the learners are native English speakers, who have learned Chinese more than 2 years in China. The corpus is comprised of 125 compositions, each of which are more than 150 characters. The study specifically examined the errors of the modal devices used to express the concept of modality.

The study was guided by the following two research questions:

1. What are the errors committed by the English CFL learners when they aim to express the concept of modality?
2. What are the reasons for the errors?

IV. Results and Discussion

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A. Omission of the Modals

The first error type is the omission of the obligatory epistemic modals, as illustrated in (2). (2a) is intended to express the proposition that "I think it will rain tomorrow". However the meaning conveyed by (2a) is a statement that "It rains tomorrow" owing to the lack of the necessary epistemic modal *"Hui"* or *"Yao"*. (2b) and (2c) both are unacceptable because the omission of the epistemic modals.

(2) a *Jintian de tianqi bu hao, wo xiang mingtian xiayu.
Today De weather not good, I think tomorrow Rain
Today it is bad, I hope it rains tomorrow.
Intended meaning: Today it is bad, I think it will rain tomorrow.

b *Zuijin Tianqi zongshi bu hao, Dao shenmeshihou tianqi hao?
Lately weather always not good till when weather good
Lately it is always bad, when is it good.
Intended meaning: Lately it is always bad, when will it get better?

c * Zai zhongguo, ruguo bu hui shuo hanyu,
In China if not can speak Chinese
ni dao nali juede hen kunnan.
you be everywhere feel very difficult
In China, if you cannot speak Chinese, you feel very awkward everywhere.
Intended: In china, if you cannot speak Chinese, you will feel very awkward everywhere.

The second is the omission of the necessary deontic modals. (3a) is intended to ask for permission, in which the deontic modal *"neng"* or *"keyi"* are required. Without the modal, the sentence is a question to ask for the statement is true or false. (3b) is aimed to express the obligation. Because of the omission of the modal, the sentence is unacceptable to the native speakers. (3c) and (3d) are both illicit due to the lack of the indispensible deontic modals.

(3) a *Wo yong nide qiche ma?
I use your car Q
I use your car?
Intended meaning: can I use your car?

b * Women dou juede bangzhu ta.
We quantifier think help him.
We all think that we help him.
Intended meaning: we all think that we should help him.

c *Kaoshi de shihou renzhen jiancha.
Exam RC marker time carefully check.
We check the answer carefully in the examination.
Intended meaning: we should check the answer carefully in the examination.

d * Fumu benshen jiushi yimianjingzi, suoyi yishenzuoze.
Parents themselves are a mirror so make themselves an example
Parents is like a mirror, so they make themselves an example
Intended meaning: Parents is like a mirror, so they should make themselves an example
The third type is the omission of the dynamic modals, exemplified in (4)

(4) * Wo xihuan shuo zhongwen, keshi wo zhi shuo yidianer.
I like speaking Chinese but I only speak a little
I like speaking Chinese, but I only speak a little.
Intended meaning: I like speaking Chinese, but I can only speak a little.

(4) is intended to convey the meaning that my spoken Chinese is limited, in other words, the sentence is about the ability of speaking Chinese. Without the dynamic modal, the sentence is a statement that I speak little Chinese, probably not because of the limited spoken ability.

As previously discussed, the modals are the functional category. Do the aforementioned errors lead support to the global impairment hypothesis (Meisel, 1997), according to which L2 is fundamentally different from L2, and in L2 there is no functional category. Seemingly the data discussed above can support this hypothesis. Nevertheless, further examination indicates that the hypothesis cannot hold water. For example, although (2c) is illicit, it does contain a dynamic modal "hui". The evidence in next section can also prove that in L2, the modals are abundant. We assume that the omission of the obligatory modals is due to the fact that the L2 learners are conservative. When they are uncertain of the knowledge of the modal verbs, they tend to omit them.

B. The Redundancy

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The redundancy refers to the situation that the modals are used in the position where they are prohibited. In other words, the use of the modals renders the sentence illicit. Examples of the redundancy of the modals are listed in (5).

(5) a Dao sansui qian, Ta hai mei qu youeryuan, nashi,
to three years before he still not be kindergarden that time
ta cong nali yao xiqu suo xuyao de jingyan.
He from where will learn SUO need De experience
*He did not go to school until 3 years old, then where did he will get the experience?
Intended meaning: He did not go to school until 3 years old, then where did he get the experience?

b Keshi women zong yao dei chifan.
But we always will must eat.
*But we will must eat something.
Intended meaning: But we must eat something.

c Buguan xianzai duofu de guojia, gan kending you zheyangde jingyan.
No matter now how rich DE country, dare must have this experience
*No matter how rich the country is, there dare must be such experience.
Intended meaning: No matter how rich the country is, there must be such experience.

d Shi ta rang wo you yigu yao qiangda de xinxin
Is he let I have a will strong De confidence
qu miandui weilai de yiqie zhangai.
go face future De all obstacles.
*It is him who made me dare strongly confident to face all the obstacles in the future.
Intended meaning: It is him who made me strongly confident to face all the obstacles in the future.

In (5a) the dynamic modal *"Yao"* is unnecessary, because the sentence is intended to convey a proposition that *he cannot get the necessary experience*. With the addition of *"yao"*, the sentence is ungrammatical because the meaning of the sentence is that *he is willing to get the necessary experience*. In (5b), the dynamic modal *"yao"* renders the sentence illicit because in the sentence there is a deontic modal *"dei",* which is incompatible in meaning with the dynamic modal. In (5c) the dynamic modal *"gan"* should be deleted because the sentence is not about whether the subject has the courage to do something. (5d) is unacceptable because of the dynamic *"yao"*, which should be deleted.

The errors of redundancy can indicate that the functional category is accessible to our L2 learners. They make errors because their knowledge of specific semantic properties of the modals is impaired, which is in conformity with prediction of the Interface Hypothesis (Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006). According to IH, a particular linguistic structure must meet the requirements set by more than one modules of the grammar, in which syntax-semantics, syntax-morphology and phonology-morphology are internal interfaces in the grammatical system. This kind of interface knowledge is difficult to the L2 learners, while the syntactic knowledge is relatively less demanding.

C. Word Order Errors

The word order errors refer to the situation in which the modals are positioned to the wrong places in the sentences. The first type of error is related to the VP adverbs as illustrated in (6). In (6) all the adverbs are VP adverbs, which are within the VP; and the modals are epistemic modals *"hui"* in (6a), deontic modals *"keyi"* in (6b) and deontic modals *"yao"*. According to Tsai (2010), epistemic and deontic modals are higher than the VP structurally. Therefore linearly the modals should precede the VP adverbs.

(6) a* Wo tingshuo hanyu hennan, mei xiangdao zheme hui nan.
I hear Chinese difficult not think so will difficult
Intended meaning: I heard that Chinese is difficult to learn, however to my surprise, it is so difficult.

b* Women bijiao rongyi keyi gen zhongguoren liaotian.
We rather easy can with Chinese chat
Intended meaning: we can chat with Chinese with less difficulty.

c* Fumu yu zinv hui biancheng haopengyou, xianghu yao lijie.
Parents with children will become friends each other should forgive
Intended meaning: parents and children can be friends, they should forgive each other.

The second type of errors is related to the negation word. In Chinese, the negation words always precede the modal verbs. In (7) the dynamic modal *"ken"* and *"neng"* precede the negation word *"bu"* and *"mei"*, therefore they are both unacceptable to the native speakers. We assume that probably the mother language transfer give rise to this kind of errors because in English the modal verbs are higher than the negation word structurally. Because of the negative L1 transfer, the L2 Chinese learners wrongly assume that in Chinese the same word order is true.

(7) a* Wode meimei zongshi gen bu shuo hanyu.

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My sister always will not speak Chinese
Intended meaning: my sister is always unwilling to speak Chinese.

b* Laoshi neng mei xiuxi.
Teacher can not rest.
Intended meaning: the teacher cannot have had a rest.

The third word order error is related to the subject, as the case in (8). In (8), the deontic word *"yinggai"* should not be placed to the position before the subject. The deontic modals are TP-internal, and the subject occupies the [Spec, TP], therefore linearly the subject should precede the subject. This error happens probably because the L2 learners' knowledge about the position of the deontic modals is impaired. However there is a second possibility that the L2 learners mistakenly hold that the deontic modal *"yinggai"* in (8) are epistemic modals, which are superior to the subject structurally.

(8) * Weile jiankang, yinggai wo yundong.
For health should I do sport
Intended meaning: we should do sport for the sake of health.

D. Misuse

The misuse errors are made when the context require the use of a modal, the L2 learners replace it with another modal with similar semantic properties. However to the native-speakers the substitution runs counter to the grammatical rules. The first error concerns the use of "yinggai" in (9). In (9a) the deontic modal *"keyi"* should be replaced with the epistemic modal *"yinggai"*, because the former is incompatible with the dynamic modal *"neng"* in meaning. The modals *"yinggai"* in (9b) should be changed to *"keneng"*, because only the latter can be used to convey a negative prediction. (9c) is ungrammatical because the deontic modal *"yinggai"* indicates that the event has not happened, however the verb particle "Le" in the sentence suggests that the event has happened in the past.

(9) a* Wo 21 sui, suoyi keyi neng hejiu le.
I 21 age, so may can drink alcohol Perf.
Intended meaning: I am 21, therefore I can have alcoholic drink.

b* Ruguo bu liaojie, jiehun hou yingai fasheng maodu.
If not know marriage after should happen conflict
Intended meaning: If you do not have a good knowledge (of something important), it is likely that some conflict will arise after marriage.

c* Zuo lvxing baogao de shihou,
Do travel report DE time,
ta yinggai gei women kan le ta pai de zhaopian.
he should for us see perf he take De photos.
Intended meaning: When doing the report, he should have made us see the photos he took.

The second misuse is exemplified by the two modals *"hui"* and *"neng"*.

(10) a* Wo jintian bixu ba zheben shu kan wan, napa bu hui shuijiao.
I today must BA this book look over even not can sleep.
Intended meaning: I must finish this book today, even though I cannot sleep.

b* Ta bu neng youyong, Yiqian mei xueguo.
He not can swim before not learn
Intended meaning: he can not swim, because he has not learned before.

c* Zhehe wenti zhende hennan,
This question really difficult
bieshuo xuesheng bu neng zuo, jishi laoshi ye bu neng zuo.
Let alone student not can do even teacher too not can do
Intended meaning: This question is really difficult. The student can not solve it, even the teacher can not either.

Both of the two dynamic modals can mean the ability. Nevertheless there are subtle differences between them. The dynamic *"hui"* means the ability which is learned through training and learning after birth. The dynamic *"neng"* means different kinds of abilities: inherent ability, learned ability, the recovered ability. With this difference in mind, we can easily detect the errors in (10). In (10a) the modal should be replaced with *"neng"*, because the context requires a modal which expresses the situation in which the objective condition make somebody cannot do something. The *"neng"* in (10b) and (10c) should be replaced with *"hui"*, because the latter is more appropriately employed to mean the learned ability.

E. General Discussion

In sum, the aforementioned findings can lead to the conclusion that the functional category modal is accessible

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to the L2 learners. Although the L2 learners omit the obligatory modals in some cases, they do produce sentences which include modals. Thus the findings do not support the global impairment hypothesis (Meisel, 1997). However the L2 leaners knowledge of the category modal is not perfect, as illustrated by the omission of the obligatory modals, the wrong word order with other functional category, such as Tense and negation. The most prominent errors is related to their impaired knowledge about the semantic features of the modals, as exemplified by the misuse and redundancy. The second finding can be accounted for by the Interface Hypothesis (Tsimpli & Sorace, 2006). According to IH, it is not the syntax per se but the interface knowledge is impaired.

Another finding is that the first language hinders the acquisition of the word order of modals. In English the modals always precede the negation words, in Chinese the opposite is true. The negative transfer is an important factor to the L2 learning.

The findings are instructive for teaching Chinese as a foreign language. When teaching Chinese modals, the teacher should put emphasis on the semantic properties of the specific modal verbs. At the same time, the teacher should raise the learners' awareness about the syntactic differences of modals between the two languages, especially the structural order.

V. Conclusion

The main finding presented in this paper is that Chinese modal verbs impose great difficulty to the L2 learners. The errors include omission, redundancy, word order, misuse. Given the fact that the modal are head of functional category, it naturally follows that the functional head is operative in the L2 acquisition. On the other hand, most of the errors of the L2 learner in present study are the manifestation of the interface knowledge impairment, which gives support to the IH (Sorace, 2006). Theoretically, the results bear on the claim that the IH is universal constraints regulating the L2 build-up. In practice, the study has implications for teaching Chinese as a foreign language.

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Towards the Crypto-functional Motive of Existential *there*: A Systemic Functional Perspective*

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***Abstract*—This paper, based on the proposal of crypto-functions of existential *there* in Dong (2016a), mainly focuses on the motive of crypto-functions in existential *there*. The constraints of genre on existential *there* in terms of indirect realization relationship between genre and lexicogrammar are firstly discussed in an attempt to locate its motive path. Then such a path is followed to explore the distribution frequencies of existential *there* in each genre in COCA for the intention of shedding light on the motive of crypto-functions of existential *there*. It is found that existential *there* enjoys the highest distribution frequencies, among other genres, in academic genre characteristic of hierarchical knowledge structures, and that existential *there* structures conducive to the verticality of the discourse in academic genre help form a semantic network about Existents, i. e. NPs and in the meantime result in the crypto-function of existential *there*.**

***Index Terms*—existential *there*, crypto-function, knowledge structure theory**

I. Introduction

The pioneering study of existential *there* (ExT) in systemic functional linguistics (SFL) can date back to Halliday (1967). However, in this long article Halliday only discussed the existential verbs like 'exist', 'happen', which were then marked as BE1. But only in the classic SFL monograph, *An Introduction to Functional Grammar* (IFG) (Halliday, 1985), ExT has been explored comprehensively and deeply. Though ExT structure has been rendered as one of six transitivity processes in IFG, ExT is still treated as an element that has no experiential function. Henceforth, the functional interpretation of ExT has ever since focused on its interpersonal function as Subject and textual function as Theme. However, the observation of Subject by Fawcett (1999, p. 261) indicating "all three of Halliday's definitions of the Subject rest on the assumption that the Subject is also a Participant Role in the clause" and the definition of Theme as "the first group or phrase that has some function in the experiential structure of the clause" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. 91) entail that Subject and Theme are presupposed of the experiential function. Unfortunately, such a relationship has long been ignored in SFL literatures (see, Eggins, 2004; Downing & Locke, 2006; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014; Thompson, 2014, among others), resulting in a contradiction in the functional interpretation of ExT, that is, SFL literatures claim that ExT has no experiential function on the one hand, while they have taken the experiential function as the presupposition to the interpersonally and textually functional interpretations of ExT on the other.

In light of this dilemma, we (cf. Dong *et al*., 2016) proposed a functional approach to the experiential function of ExT, the essence of which is twofold. For one thing, ExT can be taken as an independent functional unit according to Ranked Constituent Criteria (see, Halliday, 1994, p. 20); for another, ExT cannot be deleted as a compulsory element which undoubtedly contributes to the construction of the experience. Therefore, the functional approach can render ExT experiential function. In the meantime, given that ExT has some features that locative *there* lacks, ExT is then treated as crypto-category (cf. Whorf, 1956), and its experiential function is hence analyzed as crypto-experiential function (cf. Dong, 2016a). The present paper, however, even goes further to addresses the issue of the motive to crypto-functions of ExT. Compared with the replacement relation among micro-function, macro-function and metafunction, crypto-function does not attempt to substitute for the metafunction. Instead, crypto-function analysis is based on metafunction analysis, and forms a complementary relation to the latter. It is this complementary relation between crypto-function and metafunction that provides a better perspective to explore the motive to crypto-functions of ExT. Generally, there are two perspectives to address this issue, external and internal. This study, however, preliminarily attempt to take the external perspective to exploring the motive to crypto-functions of ExT, i. e. from the perspective of constraints of genre on Ext.

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II. The Motive to Crypto-function: The Constraints of Genre on ExT

A. Indirect Realization Relationship between Genre and Lexicogrammar

Since genre and linguistic expression are beyond and within language system respectively, the realization relation between them is thus indirect. Though SFL starts from the study of grammar, the study of genre has long been explored, for example, in the form of generic structure potential (Hasan, 1977), rhetoric structure potential (Mann *et al.*, 1992), and generic relation (Martin & Rose, 2007). These studies directly or indirectly indicate the relationship between genre and linguistic expression, which, to some extent, is well commented by M. M. Bakhtin (1986). That is, one who is a layman to genre cannot maneuver language properly. Accordingly, genre is treated as the basic unit in daily language use, and thus only in the specific context can the linguistic expressions be mastered by language users, linguistic expressions proper have meanings, though (as cited in Hu *et al.*, 2008, p. 286). In other words, genre which is beyond language system has a constraining effect on lexicogrammar which is within language system (Martin, 2009/2012, p. 375), for genre, "a staged, goal-oriented social process" (Martin & Rose, 2007, p. 8), is realized through discourse. Therefore, the constraining relation between genre and expression can be diagrammed as Figure 1 below:

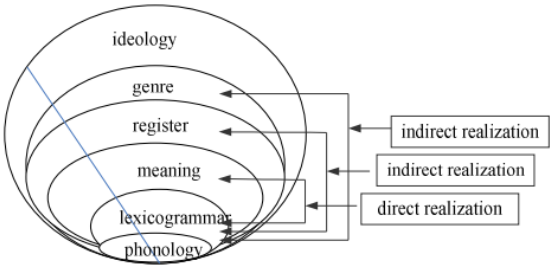

Figure 1: The constraining relation between genre and expression

B. Crypto-function and Types of Genre

As indicated in 2.1 above, genre has a constraining effect on linguistic expression. But the question of whether such a constraining relation has been realized in the crypto-function remains unanswered. Before giving an answer to this question, I claim that it is necessary to elaborate on types of genres, for the distribution frequencies of ExT can be well reflected upon the different types of genres, which in turn can be viewed as a good perspective to explore the crypto-function.

In SFL, Martin (2012), by introducing knowledge structure theory (Bernstein, 1996/2000), is a pioneer in discussion about types of genres. Based on knowledge structure theory, Martin (2012, p. 415) rendered natural sciences as hierarchical knowledge structures, humanities as horizontal knowledge structures, and social sciences in between. In reference to knowledge structure theory, I argue that the four genres in Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) which is to be discussed later can be illustrated in Figure 2 below.

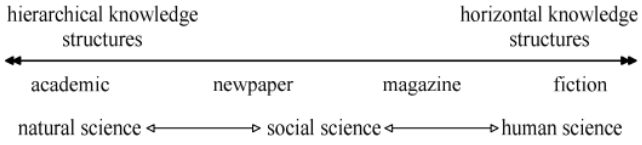

Figure 2: Types of genres and knowledge structure

Now let us come back to the question of how crypto-functions can be reflected in genres. Generally speaking, ExT should have the similar distribution frequencies if there were no differences in their daily use. However, if there exist different distribution frequencies of ExT in different genres, it is surely suggested that ExT be inclined to match a certain genre. Undoubtedly, it is difficult to draw a conclusion that such an inclination is connected with crypto-functions, for nominalization also shows the same or similar performance. For instance, the high distribution frequencies of nominalization cannot ensure that it has crypto-function. But one thing is certain, i.e. that language is as it is indicates that "language has evolved in a certain way because of its function in the social system" (Halliday, 2013, p. 3). That is, different distribution frequencies in genres can indicate the knowledge construction performance in different genres. In this case, the genre per se can be taken as a better perspective to explore nominalization. By the same token, genre can also be taken as a better perspective to explore ExT. Unlike nominalization, ExT often serves as an introducer and helps the knowledge construction of NPs in ExT structure vis-à-vis the construction of ExT per se. In this case, the crypto-function of ExT can be related to types of genres and the different distribution frequencies of ExT in genres can thus be viewed as a testing point to the crypto-function.

III. The Exploration of the Motive to Crypto-function of ExT

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A. Data Collection and Analysis

Given the realization relation between genre and linguistic expression, the procedures of exploring the motive to crypto-function can be conducted by analyzing the distribution frequencies of ExT in COCA. With one year interval and a range of collection from 1990 to 2012, COCA boasts 450 million words. It is worthy of mentioning that COCA includes both spoken and written data, and the latter can be further divided into fiction, magazine, newspaper, and academic. In light of the distribution frequencies of ExT in different genres based on knowledge structure theory, this study therefore only consider the written data. However, the written data left still reaches the amount of 360 million. In addition, the distribution of magazine, newspaper, and academic in COCA is quite balanced, each accounting for 90 million.

It is worthy of noting that the data in online corpus like COCA can only be retrieved by CLAWS7 Tagset instead of by regular expression. In the meantime, the delimitation of ExT structure itself is a hard nut to crack, for the results by CLAWS7 Tagset like [ex*] [vb*] in searching ExT structure cannot exclude those non-existential *there* structure like "there was Michael Jackson the trailblazing musician" (COCA_2009_SPOK_CBS_SunMorn). Luckily enough, the delimitation of ExT by Lakoff (1987, p. 545) can serve as a convincing reference for retrieving ExT in COCA. That is, three retrieval expressions can be set respectively in terms of being embedded, negation, and being questioned (as cited in Dong, 2016b).

(1) [cs]|[csa]|[csn]|[cst]|[csw]|[rrq]|[rrqv]|[vv0]|[vvd]|[vvz]|[vvg]|[vvn] [ex] [v*]
(2) [ex] [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz]|[vd0]|[vdd]|[vdz]|[vh0]|[vhd]|[vm] [xx]:
(3) [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz]|[vd0]|[vdd]|[vdz]|[vh0]|[vhd]|[vm][ex] [vb*]|[vv0]|[vvn]|[nn*]

Given that the results retrieved by (1) also share the features of being embedded and negative, I therefore code the retrieval expression (4) with the focus of retrieving both embedded and negative ExT structures. And the distribution frequencies of embedded ExT structures can thus be obtained by subtracting the results of (4) from those of (1). In addition, given that NP in ExT structures are often with some modifier, retrieval expression (3) can then be modified as (5), (6), (7), and (8) (as cited in Dong, 2016b).

(4) [cs]|[csa]|[csn]|[cst]|[csw]|[rrq]|[rrqv]|[vv0]|[vvd]|[vvg]|[vvn]|[vvz] [ex] [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz]|[vd0]|
[vdd]|[vdz]|[vh0]|[vhd]|[vm] [xx]
(5) [vd0]|[vdd]|[vdz]|[vh0]|[vhd]|[vm] [ex] [vb*]|[vv0]|[vvn]
(6) [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz] [ex] [nn*]
(7) [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz] [ex] [at*] [nn*]
(8) [vbdr]|[vbdz]|[vbr]|[vbz] [ex] [at*] [j*] [nn*]

B. Results: Distribution Frequencies of ExT in COCA

Given the realization relation between genre and linguistic expression, the assertive ExT structures have been included, i. e., the results about embedded as well as questioned ExT structure. This is because ExT mainly expresses the representative function rather than disappearing function like that in those atypical negative ExT structures. Results for embedded and questioned ExT structure in genres like fiction, magazine, newspaper, and academic are shown in Table 1:

TABLE 1:
THE DISTRIBUTION FREQUENCIES OF EMBEDDED AND QUESTIONED EXT STRUCTURE IN COCA

Genre	Distribution frequency		
	Embedded	Questioned	Total
Fiction	24246 (95.69%)	1092 (4.31%)	25338 (100%)
Magazine	26395 (96.63%)	920 (3.37%)	27315 (100%)
Newspaper	28162 (97.69%)	666 (2.31%)	28828 (100%)
Academic	28217 (96.83%)	924 (3.17%)	29141 (100%)

The results in Table 1 indicate that embedded ExT structures enjoy the highest distribution frequencies in academic genre while lowest in academic genre. However, compared with embedded ExT structures, the results about questioned ExT structures show the somewhat opposite direction in distribution frequencies. That is, they have the highest distribution frequency in fictional genre while much lower in academic genre. However, only the standardized distribution frequencies of ExT structures in each genre can be true to their real situation in COCA. In this case, the results in Table 1 are accordingly standardized by per 10 million words, as indicated in Table 2.

TABLE 2:
THE DISTRIBUTION FREQUENCIES OF EMBEDDED & QUESTIONED EXT STRUCTURE IN COCA
(PER 10 MILLION WORDS) AND RESULT IN CHI-SQUARE TEST

Genre	Distribution frequency			Chi-square Test
	Embedded	Questioned	Total	
Fiction	2683.74 (95.69%)	120.87 (4.31%)	2804.61 (100%)	X^2 =18.885
Magazine	2762.00 (96.63%)	96.27 (3.37%)	2858.27 (100%)	df =3
Newspaper	3071.74 (97.69%)	72.64 (2.31%)	3144.38 (100%)	p <0.0001
Academic	3099.24 (96.83%)	101.49 (3.17%)	3200.73 (100%)	

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The results in Table 2 indicate that the similar results can be obtained in Table 1, though the results in Table 1 were not standardized. That is, embedded ExT structures and their questioned ExT counterparts have different distribution frequencies in genres. These results undoubtedly show that ExT structures have quite different performance in terms of the knowledge structure construction.

However, an interesting finding is that though questioned ExT structures have the highest distribution frequencies in fictional genre, it still reveals much lower distribution frequencies in academic genre when compared with that in magazine and newspapers genre, which indicates that to some extent questioned ExT structures are also conducive to the knowledge structure construction in academic genre.

But these results still fail to show the overall distribution frequencies in different genres, which calls for a combination of distribution frequency of questioned ExT structures with that of embedded ExT structures. And the results shown in the section of total in Table 2 indicate that ExT structures have the highest distribution frequencies in academic genre when compared with that of other genres, and in the meantime are statistically significant (X^2=18.885, df=3, p<0.0001).

IV. Discussion

A. ExT Structures and Hierarchical Knowledge Structures

According to Bernstein (1999), hierarchical knowledge structure is just like a triangle (see Figure 3), in which the knowledge with lower hierarch accumulates from the bottom to the top, thus "motivated towards greater and greater integrating propositions and operating at more and more abstract levels" (Bernstein, 1999, p. 162). Therefore, hierarchical knowledge structure belongs to an integrating knowledge structure mode.

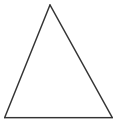

Figure 3: Hierarchical knowledge structure

Unlike hierarchical knowledge structure, horizontal knowledge structure comprises "a series of specialized languages with specialized modes of interrogation and the criteria for construction and circulation of texts" (Beinstein, 1999, p. 162). In this case, any discipline in humanities and social sciences that has a horizontal knowledge structure can be stated as a language series, which can be shown in Figure 4.

$$L^1 L^2 L^3 L^4 L^5 L^6 L^7 \cdots L^n$$

Figure 4: Horizontal knowledge structure

Based on the distinction between horizontal knowledge structure and hierarchical knowledge structure, I claim that ExT structure is conducive to the construction of the latter one. For one thing, ExT structure helps accumulate the relevant contents so that the hierarchical knowledge structure can be formed among these contents. For another, ExT proper can be developed through existentiality in the discourse (cf. Martin, 1992a). In the meantime, the highest distribution frequencies in academic genre with the feature of hierarchical knowledge structure also prove that ExT helps construct hierarchical knowledge structure. In light of distribution frequencies of ExT in genres and knowledge structures among genres, ExT can be treated as a cline between hierarchical knowledge structure and horizontal knowledge structure, as shown in Figure 5:

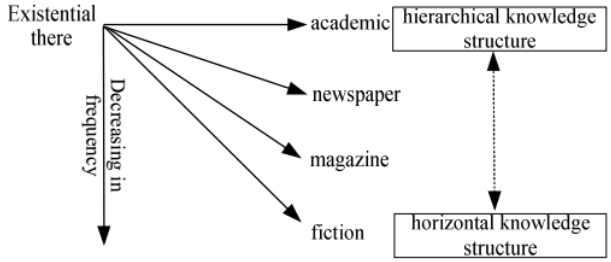

Figure 5: ExT and knowledge structure

B. Increasing Verticality in Knowledge Structure Construction by ExT

The results in COCA show that the distribution frequencies of ExT are the highest in academic genre, which indicates that there is a good match between ExT and academic genre with the feature of hierarchical knowledge structure. But what feature does ExT have to help construct academic genre? The answer to this question may be well explained in terms of verticality proposed by Muller (2007) to distinguish hierarchical knowledge structure from horizontal

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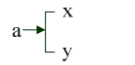
knowledge structure. By verticality, Muller (2007, p. 71) means it is "the capacity of a theory or language to progress integratively through explanatory sophistication". From the definition given by Muller (2007), verticality can be seen as an elastic concept. In this case, horizontal knowledge structure can be changed into hierarchical knowledge structure by increasing its verticality.

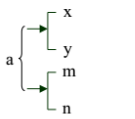
As indicated in Martin (2012), academic genre belongs to hierarchical knowledge structure while fictional genre is categorized in horizontal knowledge structure. But the question left unanswered is whether ExT is helpful in increasing the verticality so as to match academic genre that enjoys the high verticality as hierarchical knowledge structure. Let us see the variation of verticality in two texts, i. e. (9a) and (9b).

(9) a. CONVENTIONS

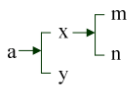
Graphic conventions in system networks



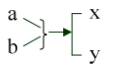
there is a system x/y with entry condition a [if a, then either x or y]



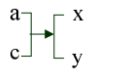
there are two simultaneous systems x/y and m/n, both having entry condition a [if a, then both either x or y and, independently, either m or n]



there are two systems x/y and m/n, ordered in dependence such that m/n has entry condition x and x/y has entry condition a [if a then either x or y, and if x, then either m or n]



there is a system x/y with compound entry condition, conjunction of a and b [if both a and b, then either x or y]



there is a system m/n with two possible entry conditions, disjunction of a and c [if either a or c, or both, then either m or n] (as cited in Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. x)

b. **A system x/y** has an entry condition a, which indicates that if a, then either x or y. **And x/y and m/n** are combined into one simultaneous systems, both having the same entry condition a. **That is, if a**, then both either x or y and, independently, either m or n. **If ordered in dependence such that m/n has entry condition x and x/y has entry condition a**, these two systems can be named x/y and m/n respectively. **To put it simply, if a** then either x or y, and if x, then either m or n. **A system like x/y** has a compound entry condition of conjunction of a and b. **In this case, if both a and b**, then either x or y. **If being attributed to two possible entry conditions of disjunction of a and c**, the system can be called m/n, which means that if either a or c, or both, then either m or n. (adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. x)

For the convenience of comparison, Themes from both original and adapted texts have been taken out in an attempt to analyze their respective knowledge construction.

TABLE 3:
DISTRIBUTION OF THEME IN (9A) AND (9B)

No.	(9a)	(9b)
1	**there**	**A system x/y**
2	**there**	**And x/y and m/n**
3	**there**	**That is, if a**
4	**there**	**If ordered in dependence**
5	**there**	**To put it simply, if a**
6		**A system like x/y**
7		**In this case, if both a and b**
8		**If being attributed to two possible entry conditions of disjunction of a and c**

After the analysis, it is found that (9a) elaborates the discourse by focusing on Participant 'there', while in (9b) the text is centering on Participant 'system' and Circumstances 'if', as shown in Figure 6.

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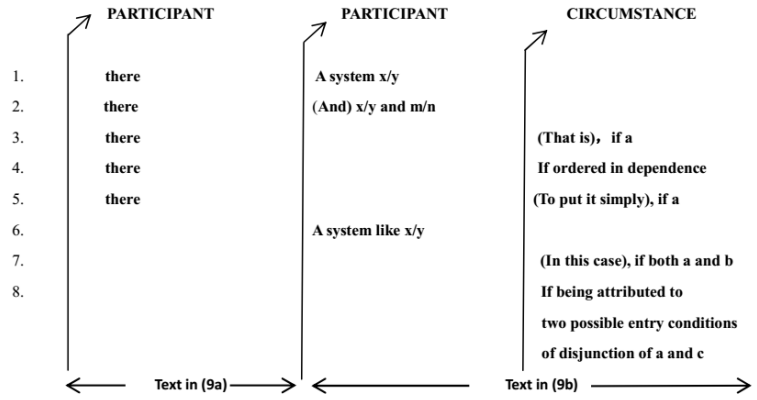

Figure 6: Theme construction in (9a) and (9b)

Now let us explain how (9a) is superior to (9b) in terms of verticality by comparing the Theme construction in above two texts. I argue that ExT structures can increase the verticality from at least two perspectives.

First, in literatures about discussion of verticality in terms of grammatical metaphors like nominalization, the common view is that the more grammatical metaphors are used, the higher the verticality is. Accordingly, the nominalization in ExT structure can increase the verticality. See (10).

(10) a. **And x/y and m/n** are combined into one simultaneous systems, both having the same entry condition a.

b. There are the combination of **x/y and m/n** into one simultaneous systems, both having the same entry condition a.

Second, ExT structure can also increase the verticality by rank shift. That is, the clause can serve as a group in ExT structure. In this case, these NPs can form a large semantic network, which, compared with a single nominalization, can provide a framework for NPs, thus increasing the verticality. Note that such a rank shift does not form a grammatical metaphor. And the purpose of rank shift is to accumulate NPs. See (11).

(11) a. ***A system like x/y has a compound entry condition of conjunction of a and b***. In this case, if both a and b, then either x or y. ***If being attributed to two possible entry conditions of disjunction of a and c, the system can be called m/n***, which means that if either a or c, or both, then either m or n. (adapted from Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. x)

b. There is ***a system x/y with compound entry condition, conjunction of a and b*** [if both a and b, then either x or y]. There is ***a system of m/n with two possible entry conditions, disjunction of a and c*** [if either a or c, or both, then either m or n]. (as cited in Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014, p. x)

The above two perspectives, however, can be elaborated in terms of Legitimation Code Theory given by Maton (2014). In (10) and (11), the semantic density in the former, i. e. (10a) and (11a), is not as good as the latter, i. e. (10b) and (11b). In the former, the description is always focusing on the objects being described, and the comprehension of these objects tends to depend on the context in which they occur, thus lacking the observation of the overall relations among objects being described. The lack of the overall relation, however, lies in the absence of the clue which can link up all the objects being described. In this case, from the perspective of Martin's Theme and Macro-Theme, these Themes due to the lack of internal network cannot relate to Macro-Theme (cf. Martin, 1992b).

However, unlike (10a) and (11a), (10b) and (11b), based on existentiality, can form a network and then link up all the Existents being described and are also open for nominalization and rank shift. Therefore, the text can be hierarchically constructed in terms of Existents, i.e. NPs. In other words, the information coming earlier can help the construction of information that comes later to highlight the topic being discussed. Thus, the comprehension of Existents will undoubtedly depend more on network, which eventually lessens the dependency of the Existents on non-linguistic context. Thus the less dependency on non-linguistic context means the increase of the semantic density but the decrease of semantic gravity (cf. Maton, 2014). In the meanwhile, Existents can link up to the Hyper-Theme, Macro-Theme. To illustrate this, (9a) is a good case in point, which can be diagrammed in Figure 7.

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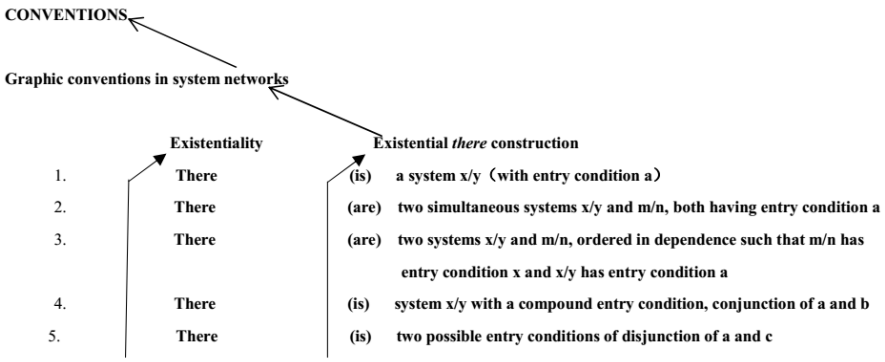

Figure 7: Knowledge hierarchically constructed in terms of Existents

The above discussion indicates that it is the role played by ExT that helps the accumulation of Existents. Then such a hierarchical knowledge structure construction develops upwards to Hyper-Theme "Graphic conventions in system networks", and then to Macro-Theme "CONVENTIONS", which also indicates why ExT gets the highest distribution frequencies in academic genre in COCA.

After the discussion that ExT structures are most likely to be chosen in academic genre, let us discuss how ExT obtains its crypto-function in academic genre.

I claim that the cause for crypto-function of ExT lies in the fact that ExT, unlike Existents which participate in the experience construction and form a hierarchical knowledge structure, does not participate in experience construction, ExT can be constructed based on existentiality, though. It is such a construction based on existentiality rather than on hierarchical knowledge structure that makes the role of ExT played in experience construction underestimated and in turn results in the crypto-function of ExT. Perhaps as indicated by Pence & Emery (1947, p. 145), ExT is just like a catalyst, which can stimulate action but does not participate in action. And it is for this reason that its function is more often than not ignored. However, ExT does have function, though its function is not self-evident.

V. Summary

This paper mainly focuses on the motive of the crypto-functions of ExT from the perspective of the indirect realization relationship between genre and lexicogrammar. The constraints of genre on ExT are firstly discussed and then evidenced by exploring the distribution frequencies of ExT in each genre in COCA. It is found (i) that ExT demonstrates the highest distribution frequencies, among other genres, in academic genre rendered as hierarchical knowledge structures, and (ii) that ExT structures enhancing the verticality of the discourse in academic genre help form a semantic network about Existents, i. e. NPs and in the meantime the crypto-function of ExT has come into being.

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The Study of Kurdish & Persian Languages Use in Kermanshah

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***Abstract*—This study is an attempt to explore the extent people of Kermanshah use Kurdish and Persian languages. Three hundred eighty-four samples were chosen out of** 857048 **population (adopted from Cochran (Cochran, 1977) randomly. The subjects were selected in terms of gender (male of female), age group (Under 10, 11-16, 17-25, 65 to over), education (Illiterate, Primary, Secondary, High school, AD, BA, MA, or higher). The questionnaire is designed on the basis of Parasher pattern (1980). The selection of Kurdish and Persian languages were under study in six social contexts of "family, friendship, neighborhood, business, education, and office" into the four Licker Scale of "Always, Often, Sometimes, and Never". The collected data were analyzed via SPSS Software. The results showed that the differences in the use of Persian and Kurdish languages are statistically significant in terms of age, gender, and social context. However, the average use is not meaningful on the side of education.**

***Index Terms*—sociolinguistics, bilingualism, Kurdish language, Persian language**

I. Introduction

Language is the most important means of communication between humans and it is also the source of life and power in people. In fact, the most distinctive aspect of human species is language (Plog & Bates, 2004). According to Wardhaugh (Wardhaugh, 2006), Language is not an object to study but is what people use. Addressing the communicative function of language is to do with a sub-discipline of linguistics that is sociology of Language or sociolinguistics. Modarresi (Modarresi, 2011, pp. 32-35) believed that Sociology is a related discipline with that of Linguistics; and Sociolinguistics is one of the new domain of Linguistics. Wardhaugh (Wardhaugh, 2006) differentiated between these two concepts. He pointed that sociolinguistic study the linguistic elements as the primary issue in Language and Society researches while sociology of language is more dealt with the effective ways of political and social use of language.

Language change under the influence of intralanguage and interlanguage elements is of inherent characteristics of each language and dialect. Diverse social, political, cultural, and psychological elements are involved in the process of language change. Any language that is socially, politically, culturally, and scientifically prestigious is also highly used and is growing more in use while the local dialects and languages remain on the sideline and are influenced by the other languages (Ghanbari, 2011, pp. 121-147).

There are various languages and dialects in Iran. Persian Language as the official language is increasingly spreading in all areas and thus reduces the use of other languages and dialects that are prevalent in this country such as Kurdish. This language in linguistic categorization of Iranian languages is placed in the North West branch. In this study, the attempt is made to have a comparative analysis on the "USE" of Kurdish and Persian languages in Kermanshah. As far as no comprehensive study has been made on the given area, the present one gets more significant. The extent of use is investigated both in formal and informal contexts to answer this question that "is there any difference in use of Kurdish and Persian languages in different gender, age, and education both in formal and informal contexts?"

Language Selection is a sociolinguistic phenomenon. It means adopting any languages depends on different circumstances and goals (Rahman, 2008). These days, one of the controversial issues drawing the attention of many scholars is bilingualism which is a common occurrence in all countries and it is estimated that half of the population of the world are bilingual (Grosjean, 2011, pp. 10-16). The word 'bilingual' is referred to a person or society who can use two languages in their communications. Hence, bilingualism is discussed in two aspects: a) In individual aspect, we mean a person and b) in social aspect, we mean a society (Modarresi, 2011, p. 46)

There are various definitions for bilingual people offered by linguists. Bialystok (Bialystok, 2003, p.6) attributed different reasons for children to become bilingual such as immigration, education, extended family, temporary accommodation in another country or moving to a new country. According to this, education as an official beginning of literacy in countries where in the official language is different from the mother tongue of the people, especially the children, bilingualism is then inevitable. In countries such as Iran which has many ethnics with their different languages, the main method of bilingualism is through formal education system of the country.

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There are various reasons for individual bilingualism. Fabbro (Fabbro, 1999) divided bilingualism into three categories of Compound Bilingualism in which the parents speak in two languages and their children learn the second language from them; the Coordinate Bilingualism in which the second language is learnt before the puberty in the family or any other places; And the Late Bilingualism in which the person learns the second language after puberty. Lambert considers bilingualism as two types of Subtractive and Additive.

He uses the additive bilingualism when the child's first language is socially predominant and has a social value and is not in danger extinction of being replaced with the second language. In his idea, the subtractive bilingualism happens when the first language that is in minority and has a lower social class is replaced with the second language in children (Khadivi, 2009, p. 14). A bilingual society has more than two languages as accepted formal ones but only one of them is considered official language of the country (Romaine, 1994). As a result, we can consider Iran a bilingual country and the people have to use an official language i.e. Persian in order to communicate with each other.

Parasher (Parasher, 1980) investigated the use of Indian and English Languages in India among three hundred and fifty participants in the six domains of family, friendship, neighborhood, business, education, and office. He used a questionnaire for gathering the data. The questionnaire contained the frequency adverbs of always, Usually, Sometimes, Often and Never. Given the participants' performances in different fields, he showed that they speak English in formal context like business, education and in the office and speak Indian in informal context like family, friendship and neighborhood.

Fasold (Fasold, 1987) conducted a research on the change of the language of Tewa Indian in New Mexico who were bilingual. The results showed that English was adopted instead of Spanish but the native language of Tewa was still spoken there. In other words, Spanish as the second language was transferred to English. Accordingly, the younger people are more interested in using English and would talk to the foreigners in English language. Torto (Torto, 2012, pp. 82- 1576) did a research on the monolingualism and bilingualism in Keepkut University amongst the employees, students and the professors. He found that men more than women, tertiary students more than the other levels and people aged 20-24 use the second language more than the other groups.

Korani (Korani, 2012, pp. 1747-1750) in her research dealt with bilingualism and the attitudes of the girls and boys of Eslam Abaad Gharb's Azad University toward the frequency of Kurdish and Persian languages and the influence of their living place on their use. The outcome showed the urban girls are less interested in using Kurdish language. Shahbakhsh (Shahbakhsh, 2000 according to Bashirnejhad, 2005) worked on Baloch Language in London University. He analyzed the use of Baloch Language at home, workplace, education, business, entertainment and social media. The results showed that Baloch language is used in Central Balochestan in every given area. Persian as the second language is used in the cities in most of the situations except at homes and neighborhoods.

Imani (Imani, 2004) studied the use of Persian and Turkish languages in Qom. It indicated that in more formal situations, the frequency of Turkish language use reduced and the tendency turned to Persian.

Ahmadkhani et al., (Ahmadkhani et al., 2012) worked on the position and use of Persian and Kurdish languages (Fili) among the bilingual people in the city of Shrivan Chardavol. He came to the conclusion that different age groups with various educational levels tend to speak Persian in more formal situations and speak Kurdish in informal contexts. The results also proved that in different educational levels, there exists a difference in the frequency of Kurdish language use. In different educational levels, Persian Language use is not used the same. Educated people use both languages in different situations.

This study seeks to explore the extent people of Kermanshah use Kurdish and Persian languages. Four Hypothesis is proposed to take the helm of the present study that are:1) women use Persian Language more than men, 2) younger people use Persian Language more than older ones, 3) educated people are more interested in using Persian language,4) Kurdish is mostly used in informal context while Persian is used in formal contexts.

II. Material

The research has been conducted in Kermanshah in 2014. The population of Kermanshah is 857048 based on what Iran's Statistics Center provided us with; Three hundred and eighty-four people were chosen as the research sample (on the basis of Chokaran technique of sampling). Three hundred eighty-four subjects were chosen randomly from Kermanshah in terms of gender (Female, Male), age (under 10, 11-16, 17-25, 26-65, over 65), and education (Illiterate, Primary, Secondary, High School, AD, BA, MA, or higher).

III. Instrumentation

In this study, the data were collected from the questionnaire that is adopted from Parashare research (Parashare, 1980) that has been modified for the given subjects here. The questionnaire consists of thirty-six items through which six social contexts – family, friendship, neighborhood, business, education, and office were investigated. These areas were graded from formal to informal using four-item Likert Scale of "always, often, sometimes, never". Six questions were defined for each social area that are of two sections of Persian and Kurdish. The subjects were asked to have their answers on both Persian and Kurdish aspects. The data were then analyzed by SPSS software. SPSS and Excel were both used for data analysis. The independent variables are gender, age, educational level, context while the dependent

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one is just Language Use of the subjects. The responses were all checked out in various areas. The differences in use of Persian and Kurdish languages were illustrated.

IV. Data Collection Procedures

Gender: The 1st independent Variable

The researchers were interested to know the gender differences of Kurdish and Persian Language Use in various areas.

Family context

As you can see in the table 1, there is a significant difference between Persian and Kurdish language Use in family context in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). Upon the data, the index average of Family in women is thirty while it is ten in men that it means the more use of Persian Language among the women. The number for the Kurdish Language Use goes 12 for men and 10 for women; men outperformed women in this context.

TABLE 1.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN FAMILY CONTEXT

	T	df	P
Persian	3/15	382	0/0
Kurdish	2/56	382	0/0

Friendship context

The results showed that there is a significant difference between Language Use in friendship area in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). The index average in this case for women is 18/8979 while for men is 17/349. We can safely conclude that the index average of friendship in Persian Language is higher in women. In Kurdish language, the average index for women is 10/9064 and for men is 12/5839. Thus, Kurdish Language Use is higher in men.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN FRIENDSHIP CONTEXT

	T	df	P
Persian	2/67	382	0/3
Kurdish	3/04	382	0/8

Neighbourhood

The results showed that there is a significant difference between Language Use in neighborhood in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). The index average in this case for women is 18/2618 while for men is 16/651. Thus, the index average of neighborhood in Persian Language is higher in women. In Kurdish language, the average index for women is 10/9274 and for men is 12/302. Thus, Kurdish Language Use is higher in men.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN NEIGHBOURHOOD

	T	df	P
Persian	3/41	382	0.0
Kurdish	1/98	382	0/22

Business Context

The results showed that there is a significant difference between Language Use in business context in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). The index average of business in women for Persian language use is 22/5319 while it is 19/6913 in men that it means the more use of Persian Language among the women. The number for the Kurdish Language Use goes 10/0872 for men and 8/1574 for women; men topped women in this area.

TABLE 4.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN BUSINESS

	T	df	P
Persian	1/413	382	0/20
Kurdish	-1/893	382	0/29

Education Context

The results showed that there is a significant difference between Language Use in education context in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). The index average for women is 23/349 while for men is 20/6426. It is concluded that the index average of education in Persian Language is higher in women. In Kurdish Language, the average index for women is 8/3756 and for men is 9/9489. Thus, Kurdish Language Use is higher in men.

TABLE 5.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN EDUCATION

	T	df	P
Persian	2/54	382	0/0
Kurdish	2/1	382	0/0

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Office Context

The results showed that there is a significant difference between Language Use in office context in terms of gender (p-value< 0/05). The index average for women in Persian Language is 19/6045 while for men is 14/2482. It is concluded that the index average of education in Persian Language is higher in women. In Kurdish language, the average index for women is 6/9214 and for men is 7/9955. Thus, Kurdish Language Use is higher in men.

TABLE 6.
RESULTS OF T-TEST FOR TWO INDEPENDENT VARIABLES OF P-K LANGUAGE USE IN OFFICE

	T	df	P
Persian	7/15	382	0/0
Kurdish	2/68	382	0/36

The overall analysis for the gender variable confirmed the null hypothesis that it means gender plays a role in Language Choice of the users.

Age: The 2nd independent Variable

In this part, the main question is the extent of use shared by each Language of Kurdish and Persian

TABLE 7.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF USE DIFFERENCE OF KURDISH IN TERMS OF AGE

		Average Square	df	Sum of squares	f	P
Family	Inter-group Variance	1229/195	۴	307/299	5/925	0/000
	Intra-group Variance	19659/406	۳۷۹	51/864		
	Total	20885/602	۳۸۳			
Friendship	Inter-group Variance	212/320	۴	53/080	1/892	0/011
	Intra-group Variance	10632/419	۳۷۹	28/054		
	Total	10844/740	۳۸۳			
Neighborhood	Inter-group Variance	165/724	۴	41/431	1/272	0/000
	Intra-group Variance	12311/477	۳۷۸	32/570		
	Total	12477/201	۳۸۲			
Business	Inter-group Variance	28/181	۴	7/045	0/316	0/005
	Intra-group Variance	8451/691	۳۷۹	22/300		
	Total	8479/872	۳۸۳			
Education	Inter-group Variance	40/273	۴	10/068	0/605	0/030
	Intra-group Variance	6306/685	۳۷۹	16/64		
	Total	6346/958	۳۸۳			
Office	Inter-group Variance	248/690	۴	62/172	2/830	0/025
	Intra-group Variance	7799/133	۳۵۵	21/969		
	Total	8047/822	۳۵۹			

Based on what is seen in table 7, there is a significant difference with ninety-five percent confidence between Kurdish Language Use in the selected six contexts among different age groups. Results indicate the penetration and high use of Persian Language in family and in younger people. This means Kurdish is less used in younger people. In the other contexts, there is also the dominance of Persian Language over Kurdish. The results all showed a significant difference between different age groups.

Education Context

The main question here is the extent of Kurdish and Persian Language Use in comparison with education?

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF USE DIFFERENCE OF KURDISH IN TERMS OF EDUCATION

		Average Square	df	Sum of squares	f	P
Family	Inter-group Variance	1/434	۴	0/358	0/268	0/899
	Intra-group Variance	492/990	۳۶۸	1/340		
	Total	494/424	۳۷۲			
Friendship	Inter-group Variance	10/045	۴	2/511	1/369	0/244
	Intra-group Variance	677/102	۳۶۹	1/835		
	Total	687/147	۳۷۳			
Neighborhood	Inter-group Variance	10/786	۴	2/696	1/912	0/108
	Intra-group Variance	516/099	۳۶۶	1/410		
	Total	526/884	۳۷۰			
Business	Inter-group Variance	11/59	۴	2/840	2/188	0/070
	Intra-group Variance	485/511	۳۷۴	1/298		
	Total	496/871	۳۷۸			
Education	Inter-group Variance	106/231	۶	17/705	1/07	0/380
	Intra-group Variance	6240/728	۳۷۷	16/554		
	Total	6346/958	۳۸۳			
Office	Inter-group Variance	520/188	۶	86/698	4/066	0/100
	Intra-group Variance	7527/634	۳۵۳	21/325		
	Total	8047/822	۳۵۹			

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As you can see in table 8, it can be said with 95 percent confidence that there is no significant differences between Kurdish Language Use and that of six contexts. On the level of 0/05, the null hypothesis – there is no differences between the averages of Kurdish Language Use in various educational level – is accepted (p> 0/05). In other words, there is no statistical difference between the averages of Kurdish Language Use at 0/05 and the averages of educational level. In so doing, there is no difference between educational level and Persian language Use in Social areas. It can be finally inferred from the results that null hypothesis is rejected – the significant difference between various educational level – and the alternative hypothesis is confirmed. So this means that there is no significant difference between Langue Use and Language selection of various educational levels.

Context: The 3rd independent Variable

The research is conducted to compare the effect of context (formal & informal) in Kurdish and Persian Language Use?

Family context

The result as it is shown in table 9 signifies the meaningful difference between the averages of Persian and Kurdish Language Use (p-value < 0/05). Family is the most informal area wherein Kurdish is mostly expected to be used. Nevertheless, Persian is used more than Kurdish in this context here.

TABLE 9.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN FAMILY

T	Df	P
1/652	383	0/0

Friendship context

The test shows that there is a significant difference between the average of Kurdish and Persian Language Use (p-value < 0/05). This is indicative of the index average of friendship in Persian that is higher compared to the family part.

TABLE 10.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN FRIENDSHIP

T	df	P
18/31	383	0/0

Neighborhood context

There exist a meaningful difference between the average of Persian and Kurdish Language Use at 0.05 (p-value<0/05). The paired-sample T-test shows the Persian Language Use in neighborhood is higher on average. The extent of Persian Language Use is less than friendship but higher than family area.

TABLE 11.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN NEIGHBORHOOD

T	df	P
11/926	382	0/0

Business context

The results show that there exist a significant difference between the average Use of Persian and Kurdish Languages (p-value < 0/05). The average index of business in higher in Persian as it is shown in the table.

TABLE 12.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN BUSINESS

T	df	P
21/366	383	0/0

Education context

There is a significant difference between the average use of Persian and Kurdish languages at p-value of < 0/05. The results show that the index average is higher in Persian langue. In this part, the highest difference is marked between Persian and Kurdish Language Use.

TABLE 13.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN EDUCATION

T	df	P
30/793	383	0/0

Office context

As you can see in table 14, there is a difference between the average use of Persian and Kurdish languages.

TABLE 13.
PAIRED T-TEST COMPARING KURDISH & PERSIAN LANGUAGE USE IN OFFICE

T	df	P
22/127	359	0/0

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V. Results of Hypotheses Testing

As it is tested, A number of results are drawn that are 1) men speak Kurdish more than women, b) younger people tend to use Persian while the old ones prefer Kurdish, c) education plays no part in the language selection of people in Kermanshah, and d) the use of Persian is more common in informal contexts (family, friendship and neighbourhood) than in formal contexts (business, education and office).

VI. Discussion

1. Gender & Language Use

Regarding the gender variable, men speak Kurdish more than women in all contexts which means females prefer Persian to Kurdish whether in formal or informal contexts. Women tend to use the accepted norms in language according to different social and personal reasons. In this issue, the accepted norm is the official language. In fact, the results are the answer to the first question of the research – what is the relationship between gender and Persian-Kurdish Language use? – That confirms the first hypothesis. Since most Persian Language users are women in families, this can cause the next generation take Persian as their first and foremost language as mothers play a very important role in their educating. So, the role of females in upbringing can be very critical in deterioration or durability of a local and native language. In comparison with other researches, the results of this research confirmed the results of previous researches like Korani's in which the use of Kurdish language by girls and boys in Islam Abad Gharb is dealt with and it is shown that girls tend to speak Persian more than boys.

2. Age & Language Use

Regarding the age of people, younger people tend to use Persian while the old ones prefer Kurdish. This trend in youth can make them forget their native language and mother tongue in the future and the next generations will consider Persian their first language and it will be a beginning to a language change in several generations. Of the outcomes of this can be the fact that the youth will lose their contact with their cultural heritage especially their rich old literature.

The results proved the second hypothesis that is also an answer to the second question of the research – what is the relationship between age and Persian-Kurdish Language use? The results are also similar to the previous findings on this filed such as Bashirnejad (Bashirnejad, 1997, pp. 197 – 224). He worked on the use of Persian and Mazandarani languages in terms of age and gender. He found that 63% of the teenagers consider Persian their first language before going to high school which shows the rising number of families who teach their children Persian as the first language. With Persian becoming the first language of the young generation, the local language is gradually being deteriorated. According to the findings of the present research, the same is happening about the Kurdish language as most of the young people have learnt Persian and tend to speak it in the family and the related occasions while Kurdish is supposed to be spoken in the family as the most informal foundation. However, the second language nowadays has replaced the local language.

3. Education & Language Use

What is regarded a new achievement here and is different from the past studies is the disaffiliation of the language use with the level of education in different contexts. There is no significance relationship between Kurdish language and education in different conditions and levels which shows no relations between language selection in different areas of a society and the level of education. It means people use a language with their own personal attitudes and other factors in different social conditions regardless of their educational levels. A highly educated person may speak Kurdish in more formal situations and speak Persian in less formal places. Based upon the data, it expresses no relation between the educational level and language selection of people. It also answers the third research question – what is the relationship between education and Persian-Kurdish Language use? – And rejected the third hypothesis.

Noteworthy to add that the research conducted in the city of Shirvan Chardavol (Ahmadkhani et al., 2012) on the Use of Persian and Kurdish languages based on the variables of age, gender and education had a different findings from what we have achieved here and that is people with higher educational level speak Kurdish in informal and Persian in more formal contexts.

4. The effect of context on Language Use

The results show the Persian dominance on Kurdish in all six social contexts. However, the variables of age, gender, job and mother tongue have their impact on language use. Based on the findings, people in all the given contexts prefer to speak Persian. Comparing the six social contexts, the use of Persian is more common in informal contexts (family, friendship and neighbourhood) than in formal contexts (business, education and office) which is a confirmation for the fourth hypothesis – Kurdish is mostly used in informal context while Persian is used in formal contexts. It should be bear in mind that the use of Persian language will deteriorate Kurdish language in the near future.

VII. Conclusion

Regarding the variable of gender, this study showed that in all social contexts, women speak Persian more than men do in both formal and informal situations, but men prefer to speak Kurdish. Considering the variable of age, younger people tend to speak Persian more. Older people would like to speak Kurdish while younger ones prefer Persian. But the findings on the effects of education are different from the other studies. The outcome indicates there is no

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relationship between the educational level and language use in different contexts and there is no significance between the six social contexts and the level of education in speaking a language. In all social context of family, friendship, neighbourhood, business, education and office, the use of Persian is more than Kurdish and people speak Persian in more formal situations that Kurdish. Moreover, the use of the formal language is increasing and the local language is being deteriorated. Any language has gone through a long journey of time and effort to get to its present condition and is thus the heritage of many signs of its old speakers and carries a lot of cultures in its vocabulary to be transferred to the next generations. It is not praiseworthy to forget a language and stop teaching it to the next generation. Language Planning is to be implemented to survive the local language. There must be something done to avoid language death in order to stop it from melting into the official language.

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Examining English Language Teachers through Metaphorical Analysis

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***Abstract*—This paper investigated students' conceptualizations of English language teacher. Metaphors play an essential part in understanding of a variety of disciplines and educational issues. It is regarded as a powerful means to examine students' conceptualizations. This study elicited an exploratory angle, describing student participants' conceptualizations of English language teacher through an analysis of metaphors they created in the 'X is Y' format (e.g., "EFL teacher is … because…"). The elicited metaphors were collected, categorized and analyzed. Through the understanding of students' beliefs of English language teacher, it provided insightful suggestions for EFL teaching.**

***Index Terms*— EFL teachers' identity, Metaphor analysis, University Student**

I. Introduction

The past few decades have witnessed a large sum of research which has focused on teachers' identity. One important factor in driving this research into teachers' identity is the realization that we cannot properly understand teachers and their teaching practice without understanding students' cognition generally and in particular their beliefs towards teachers' identity. Therefore, it is quite important to make explicit and uncover students' initial cognition in EFL teachers' identities. Wan, Low and Li (2011, p.403) noted that "Metaphor functioned as a powerful cognitive tool in gaining insight into students' and teachers' beliefs". Through an understanding of students' conceptualisations, teacher can adapt their teaching, which includes their beliefs, teaching setting, as well as constructing and reconstructing their teachings (Gebhard, 2009).

In the past decades have witnessed increasing number of researches adopted metaphor analysis. The research area covers from difference level, such as elementary level, college level. It also investigated from different perspectives, such as from pre-service teacher, administrator, student teacher. In addition, it studied at a variety aspects involved with education issue, such as teaching and learning, teachers' identities, writing, the concept of research.

Besides researches on the general teachers' role, a few recent research studies (De Guerrero & Villamil, 2000; wan, Low & Li, 2011) have focused on the field of ESL or EFL context. Driven by the widely-held hypothesis that metaphor might reveal the practices in the field of education, this paper investigated EFL teachers' identities from the understanding of students' conceptualization.

II. Literature Review

A. Conceptual Metaphor

The notion of metaphor used in this study is the one proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980), with the definition of metaphor is one conceptual domain in terms of another conceptual domain. Lakoff and Johnson first developed the conception "cognitive linguistic view of metaphor" in 1980. They believed that metaphor is an inevitable process of human thought and reasoning. Furthermore, one important argument is that metaphor is not simply a matter of words or linguistic expressions. The essence of metaphor is under-standing and experiencing one kind of thing in terms of another (Lakoff & Johnson, 2003, p.6). They claim that the majority of normal conceptual system is metaphorically structured. In all aspects of life, we define our reality in terms of metaphors and then proceed to act on the basis of the metaphors (Lakeoff and Johnson, 2003, p.158).

As Kovecses (2002) suggested, conceptual metaphors employ a more abstract concept as a target and a more concrete or physical concept as their source. Concrete or physical concepts provide a better understanding of abstract concepts. On the other hand, our experiences with the physical world serve as a natural and logical foundation for the comprehension of more abstract domain (Kovecses, 2002, p.6).

Metaphor analysis is a systematic method of analyzing the metaphors that people use to express themselves (Pitcher and Akerlind, 2007, p.164). Metaphor analysis always uncovers "the metaphorical nature of our activities" (Lakoff and Johnon, 2003, p.8). It shed light on interpreting beliefs or understandings in a more sophisticated method.

Therefore, metaphor has been recognized as a means of cognitive tool, which used to understand complex concept and ideas. As an increasingly research tool, metaphor analysis is quite helpful in raising reflections in the context of education, revealing the beliefs or conceptualizations of teaching practices (e.g., Jin & Cortazzi, 2011; Wan, Low & Li, 2011; Zhang, 2010).

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B. The Reason for Choosing Metaphor

According to Shaw and Mahlios (2008), the most compelling of the cognitive devices, which were elicited to examine teachers' beliefs, is the metaphor.

Metaphors provide "windows" for examining the cognitions and feeling of learners. Because they are usually employed without consciousness on the part of learners they are arguably less subject to false-representation than learners' direct comments about learning (Ellis & Barkhuizen, 2005, p. 313).

Reification, as Tusi (2007) points out, is an essential source of identity. The nature of reification is consideration of something abstract into something concrete, which shares the same essence of metaphor. Therefore, it seems that metaphor plays an essential role in interpreting the thought.

Although a large number of approaches in which researchers can elicit beliefs, there is an increasing number of researches adopted metaphor analysis (Cortazzi and Jin, 1999; wan, et.al. 2011.). Metaphors now constitute a well-recognized area of inquiry in applied linguistics. Metaphor is consistently regarded as "a device for seeing something in terms of something else" (Cameron, 1999, p.78). Ellis and Barkhuizen (2005) regarded metaphor analysis as the major ways of analyzing samples of learner language.

Metaphor plays an important role in educational issues. This is due to the reason that metaphors provide insights into complex concepts of teaching and learning and thus provide a window into the comprehension of participants' personal experiences or conceptualization (Lin, Shein& Yang, 2012). Metaphors might provide inside views for educational practice. Consequently, it leads faculty to raise awareness of the 'inconsistencies the stated beliefs and the implicit framework on which their actions are based' (Marshall, 1990).

C. Brief Introduction of Metaphor Analysis

Metaphor analysis always uncovers "the metaphorical nature of our activities" (Lakoff and Johnson, 2003, p.8). It is a sophisticated method of shedding light on people's beliefs or ideas.

As Cameron and Low (1999) suggested, one way of metaphor analysis is 'Collecting examples of linguistic metaphors used to talk about the topic… generalising from them to the conceptual metaphors they exemplify, and using the result to suggest understandings or though patterns which construct or constrain people's beliefs or actions' (p.88). In other words, one approach of metaphor analysis is grouping linguistic metaphors into conceptual categories. In order to reduce or condense the data, it is vital to group the data into categories. Consequently, it leads to more efficiently in metaphor analysis. On the basis of meanings of the vehicle terms, linguistic metaphors should be grouped into categories. They worked as evidence for conceptualization.

The general procedures of metaphor analysis listed as follows:

(a) collecting informants' metaphorical linguistic expression (MLE) of the topic,

(b) generalising from MLEs to the conceptual metaphors they exemplify,

(c) using the results to suggest the understanding or thought patterns which construct or constrain people's beliefs or actions. (Cameron & Low, 1999, p.8).

D. Related Research: Metaphor in Educational Issue

Metaphors, as Cortazzi and Jin (1999) suggest, play essential part in the development of variety disciplines and educational issues. Metaphors often carry out from one discipline to another (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999, p. 153). Furthermore, metaphor analysis was often employed to find out participants' conceptions or beliefs toward the particular issues or dimensions in education.

In Groth and Bergener's (2005) research, metaphors were employed to examine pre-service teachers' conceptualizations of statistical sample. They processed metaphors elicited from 54 pre-service teachers' writing prompts and found out seven different types of conceptualizations of statistical sample through metaphor analysis.

Metaphors were adopted to investigate elementary pre-service teachers' understanding of diversity and teaching in diverse settings in Brown, Parsons and Worley's (2005) research. In this study, the metaphorical expressions revealed that reflections on diversity were 'misapplied or missing together' (Brown, Parsons and Worley, 2005).

In vocabulary learning section, the participants were asked to use metaphorical expressions to describe vocabulary in Farjami's (2012) research. In this study, analogies were examined and divided into different categories. The five most frequent themes which emerged from the analysis were FOOD & DRINK, COLLECTING, JOURNEY, PUZZLE/PROBLEM, and MUSIC (Farjami, 2012, p. 75). According to data which had been carefully examined and analyzed, tentatively vocabulary teaching implications were proposed.

Within the field of higher education, Batten (2012) employed metaphor analysis in order to investigate the use of conception "learning outcomes". In this case, the author argued "learning outcomes" is an ontological metaphor. Metaphor highlight some parts, while conceal others. Similarly, the learning outcomes focused on dominant values in teaching and learning, as Batten (2012) insisted, while other parts in teaching and learning were eliminated or ignored. The article provides a glimpse into the consequences which were resulted by this kind of situation.

With the concern of the term "research", metaphor analysis was employed to reveal post-doctoral researchers' conceptions toward it. The study divided metaphor analogies into four types. In addition, those four categories were identified "research is spatial", "research is constructive", "research is explorative", "research is organic" (Pitcher & Akerlind, 2009).

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In order to finding out future educational leaders' the underlying beliefs of the principalship, metaphor analysis was elicited. The metaphorical expression was identified and labeled into four different types: protection and nurturing; sill, adventure, or problem solving; challenge, risk, and threat; chance and luck (Linn, Sherman & Gill, 2007).The paper revealed participants' conceptions of leadership and beliefs which might influence their behavior.

E. Related Research: Metaphor in Teachers' Identities

Metaphorical expressions of teaching, as Connelly and Clandinin (1998) noted, is not only a way of talking about teaching practices, but also a way of examine teaching practice. A number of studies have been investigated the metaphors used by elementary, secondary and college teachers to state their beliefs about teachers' role (Nikitina & Furuoka, 2008; Zhang, 2010; Wan, Low & Li,2011). The participants involved with different levels of teachers and students. The results of those studies not only provided the insights of concepts in the field of education, but also provided implications in education. Even more, some researches got a picture of participants' previous experience or affective factors.

In wan et al' (2011) study, it examined a 35 Chinese college EFL teachers' and two groups of English major students' underling beliefs about teachers' role through analysis of their metaphor prompt 'An English teacher is … because…'. The results identified mismatches regarding the interpretations of the teachers' roles both between students and teachers and between student groups at different levels of English proficiency (Wan et al., 2011, p.403).

According to Lin, et al.'s (2012) research, it examined forty pre-service teachers' beliefs about EFL courses and EFL teachers' roles through metaphor analysis. The results indicated that the metaphor provides a framework in which the participants "solidify their views of teaching and learning" (Lin, et al., 2012, p. 196).

F. Problems with Using Metaphor Elicitation Tasks

In order to prevent failing in elicited metaphor analysis, it is essential that provided efficient training involving with metaphors which promote the creation of metaphor. Several metaphor-based researches have demonstrated frequency of invalid responses to some extent. Even more, some researches (Wan, 2011; Eren and Tekinarslan, 2013) indicated that participants had problems in completions of researcher-constructed prompts or elicited metaphors. For instance, Eren and Tekinarslan (2013), researching prospective teachers' conceptualizations of instructional material and evaluation concepts, collected 4351 metaphors, in which only 1260 responses provided valid metaphors. It means that only 28% response were fulfilled the criteria.

To reduce the risk of task failure, basic training of the creation of metaphor and sample of elicited metaphors had provided.

III. Purpose of the Study

Following previous researches, the prime target of this study is to undercover learners' conceptualizations about teachers' roles through the metaphors they had created. Therefore, through the analysis of the research results, relevant pedagogies adjustment could be taken to improve teaching in EFL context. Following research questions were planned to be explored. (a) What are the elicited metaphors about teachers' role presented by non-English major students from a key university in Guangdong Province, China? (b) How do Chinese students use metaphor to indicate the EFL teachers' roles in the classroom?

IV. Methodology

A. Participants

The study was conducted in the English Language Center at a key university in China. English Learning Centre was instituted to teach English to non-English major students, which provides five compulsory levels (foundation level, level 1 to level 4) English courses, optional advanced courses and ESP courses. According to students' scores from both national college entrance exam and an IELTS-based placement test, students were assigned into 5 levels. The subjects were 50 first-year students who were assigned to foundation level.

B. Instrument and Procedure

A short questionnaire was distributed to the participants. The questionnaire included a brief introduction of metaphor and a completion task. It provided both Chinese and English version and participants feel free to finish the task in English or in Chinese. The questionnaire was designed to collect subjects' elicited metaphor regarded with EFL teacher via a metaphor completion task (An EFL teacher is… because…). Besides that, it collected participants' reason for the metaphor they had chosen. The participants received a brief training session regarded with metaphor and metaphor analysis in class. Enough time were given to participants to reflect their opinion about teachers' identities out of the classroom. The participation was completely voluntary and their responses would remain anonymous. Then, all the responses were translated into English and the translation were checked by the professional translator. The final step of the analysis, all the elicited were grouped into different categories.

C. Data Analysis

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This research had adopted the approach developed by Cameron and Low (1999, p. 88) which "collect examples of linguistics metaphors, generalizing from them to the conceptual metaphors, using the results to suggest understandings or construct people's beliefs". Then, 4 steps had been taken to deal with the data. The four steps listed as follows: (a) naming/labeling, (b) sorting (clarification and elimination), (c) categorization, and (d) analysing data (Seban & Seban, 2007).

In order to indentify the conceptual categories which were produced by the remaining 47 metaphors. The conceptual categories for teachers' role listed in this paper were adopted from those used by Saban et al. (2007) and De Guerrero and Villamil (2000) with the consideration to Wan, Low and Li (2011). The 47 metaphors and the entailments produced by the participants were categorized into 7 categories.

V. Results and Discussion

A. Results

Seven conceptual categories from non-English-major students were EFL TEACHER AS PROVIDER, NURTURER, INSTRUCTOR, INTEREST AROUSER, CO-WORKER, AUTHORITY and DEVOTEE. The three main concept metaphors are listed as follows. As many as 21 exemplar metaphors from the participants presented EFL TEACHER AS INSTRUCTOR. Next came EFL TEACHER AS NURTURER with 15 metaphors, and immediately following it in number of metaphors was EFL TEACHER AS AUTHORITY, with 13 metaphors. The conceptual metaphors about EFL teachers' identities produced by Chinese non-English-major students with frequency and entailments were as follows:

The most noticeable category (30%) of metaphorical concept for EFL teachers' roles is "EFL TEACHER AS INSTRUCTOR" including metaphors such as light, lamp, key, navigator and sheepherder. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher provides guidance for students in their study; helps students finding right way in the ocean of knowledge; leads student to success and tells students where the way is.

The second most common category (21.4%) was summarized thematically into "EFL TEACHER AS NURTURER" combined out of several metaphors such as gardener, farmer, kettle, and big sister. The entailments for theses metaphors and figurative images were that an EFL teacher cultivates students carefully; helps students grow up quickly; takes care of students and broadcasts knowledge to students.

The third common group of metaphorical images (18.5%) was entitled as "EFL TEACHER AS AUTHORITY" composed of metaphorical images such as scholar, fairy, foreigner and team leader. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher is a scholar has a large sum of knowledge; a fairy or a foreigner who can speaks foreign language fluently; a team leader who takes charge of every activity in the classroom.

The fourth category (12.85%) named as "EFL TEACHER AS DEVOTEE" included metaphors such as candle, flower and workaholic. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher is a candle who scarifies himself or herself; is a flower who shares beauty to others without any return, and is a workaholic who devotes himself or herself.

The fifth metaphorical groups of images (10%) which was generated by non-English-major student regarded as "EFL TEACHER AS PROVIDER" included metaphors such as dictionary, book, sun and library. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher is a dictionary which translates many words; the sun which give students the light; and a library which has a large sum of knowledge.

The sixth common conceptual category is "EFL TEACHER AS INTEREST AROUSER" (4.26%) and consisted of metaphorical concepts such as sun, entertainer. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher is the sun which makes language learning anxiety go away; and the entertainer who designed a lot of interesting games to facilitate students learning English.

The seventh group of elicited metaphor (2.85%) produced by the participants named as "EFL TEACHER AS CO-WORKER" contains metaphors such as partner, colleague. The entailments for this category were that an EFL teacher is working together and tackling problems together.

B. Discussion

In general, analysis of the data collected students generated 7 conceptual categories for EFL teachers, and offered some substantial findings. First, TEACHER AS INSTRUCTOR was the most common belief held by participants, with TEACHER AS NURTURER next. It revealed that the students stressed the help provided by teachers with students in a passive position. The participants finished this questionnaire at the beginning of their first semester at college, therefore their responses to ELF teachers' identity mainly towards their high school English teachers. This study revealed that most students had been through teacher-centred teaching. Therefore, it leads to the reliance and guidance from their teacher. On the other hand, In a Chinese context, teacher as "nurturer" (as well as teacher as "devotee") is very much in line with the traditional view of a good teacher and deeply rooted in the culture (Cui and Liu, 2009). It demonstrated some culturally-unique belief such as TEACHER AS candle and gardener. Second, several student participants' beliefs about EFL teacher, revealed that English learning is a tough task involving hardship and bitterness, and even leads to the anxiety. Hardship and bitterness in EFL context might result from (a) poor early education in English, (b) adaptation to a new academic context which requires a more active and independent learning attitude than in high schools, and (c) heavy-loaded, time-consuming, unfeasible and unscientific learning tasks and assessments.

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VI. Concluding and Implications

In sum, this study clearly demonstrated that metaphors could be a rich and stimulating way for students to explain their beliefs towards EFL teachers. Even though the elicited metaphors created by participants could not cover all perspectives of their conceptualizations, they at least reported or emphasis one part of their beliefs. In addition, they make the beliefs more vivid and easy to comprehend. According to the findings from present study, suggestion listed as follows: Firstly, Students response reveals teacher dominant situation. In future, teacher could try different methodologies and transfer to student-center classroom. Communication teaching method should be adopted in college EFL classroom instead of teacher-centered teaching method, which facilitate students develop skills for the challenges of using English in academic courses and professional life. Secondly, reduce anxiety levels and create a low-anxiety classroom are essential in ELT context. Pair-work, group work, role play and other ways could be used to reduce the anxiety.

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The Plight of Contemporary Native Americans in *Love Medicine*

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***Abstract*—Louise Erdrich is widely acclaimed as one of the most significant writers of the contemporary Native American literature. Her first novel *Love Medicine* represents the lives of Chippewa Indians on the Turtle Mountain Indian Reservation. This paper intends to give a detailed analysis of the living plight of Native Americans in *Love Medicine* from three perspectives and explores the deep roots of their embarrassment. Also, the paper points out the significance of the existence and preservation of the unique Indian culture under the global multi-cultural background and gives some strategies for the survival of Native Americans.**

***Index Terms*—*Love Medicine*, Louise Erdrich, living plight, survival strategies**

I. Introduction

Native American literature has always been an indispensable portion of American literature which boasts a long history and versatile contents. Recently Native American literature has begun to attract attention partly because of the amazing popularity of novel by Chippewa writer Louise Erdrich, who is one of the most prolific and successful Native American writer in the past twenty years. She has gained unprecedented fame among readers and critics for her wonderful"North Dakota Quartets", that is, *Love Medicine* (1992), *The Beet Queen*(1986), *Tracks*(1988), and *The Bingo Palace*(1994). Her other novels like *Tales of Burning Love*(1997), *The Last Report on the Miracles at Little No Horse*(2001), *Four Souls*(2004), *The Painted Drum*(2005), *The Plague of Doves*(2008) and *Shadow Tag*(2010) are also very wonderful.

In the above mentioned novels, *Love Medicine*, as Erdrich's first work, could be considered as her masterpiece, which is a collection of stories dealing with some different protagonists in the reserved areas. The novel adopts a storytelling tone featured with conversational and indicative style. *Love Medicine*, which displays the life of Native Americans dispossessed of their land and the subsequent destinies of their following generations, is so popular both at home and abroad that it has won many awards like the 1984 National Book Critics Circle Award, the *Los Angles Times* Award for Best Novel of the year and the Janet Kaufman Award for Best First Novel.

Louise reveals the tough living condition of Native Americans under the domination of whites through all her stories. From Louise Erdrich's vivid portrayal, we can get closer to Native Americans we didn't know before. This thesis aims to analyze the survival problems of contemporary Native Americans in *Love Medicine* and explore the contributing factors to this plight from different aspects. In addition, the paper also highlights the significance of the existence and preservation of the unique Indian culture under the global multi-cultural background and gives some strategies for the survival of Native Americans.

II. The Plight of Contemporary Native Americans

It is well-known that since the end of the 15th century, the migration of European to America has result in centuries of conflict between old and new societies. Native Americans suffered a lot and have been deprived of many things: land, fortune, culture and even freedom. After the establishment of the U.S.A, their situation is still inferior and tough. Louise Erdrich presents the living plight of Chippewa Indian throughout the novel, and indicates their living plights are mainly caused by deprivation of land, loss of culture and discrimination from the white society.

A. Deprivation of Land

The predicament of Native Americans begins with the loss of land. In these Native people' eyes, land is not only something that provides them with food, but also something that links them with nature. Compared with American society, land could not be considered as a commodity but a necessary part of their life. In their opinion, land is a valuable gift from the nature, in which a sense of belonging can be found.

However, everything changes greatly after the arrival of the white, who brought terrible damages to Native Americans dramatically. Indians were driven away from their homeland by the white own to a set of unfair policies and treaties at the sacrifice of Indians' benefits. There is a policy signed by President Andrew Jackson in 1830, which is the Indian Removal Act.

The removal of the Indian tribes from the lands which they now occupy within the limits of the several states and Territories ... is of very high importance to our Union, and may be accomplished on conditions and in a manner to

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promote the interest and happiness of those tribes ... The removal of the tribes from the territory which they now inhabit ... would not only shield them from impending ruin, but promote their welfare and happiness. (Mintz, 2000, P.111-112)

These acts stipulated the tribes of southeast and what was then called the old northwest should move to the wilderness west of the Mississippi River. The government forced Native Americans to move from the fertile east to the barren west. In *Love Medicine*, Lulu felt that their miserable fate could never be changed under the control of the white, so she once complained: "How many times did we move? The Chippewa had started off way on the other side of the five great lakes. How we were shoved out on this lonesome knob of prairie my grandmother used to tell. It is too long a story to get into now." (Erdrich, 1992, P.282) It is recorded that Native Americans were deprived of 90 million acres of their land after the implementation of Allotment Act. According to Dong (2011), Erdrich also points out that the government tries all means to take land from Indians. Using muscle is the last way they may use; instead, they use money to bribe tribal council. As a result, because of the lure of money, inner conflict and clash emerge among Indians. For example, the tribal council decides to build a souvenir factory to produce things like bangle beads and plastic war clubs. Although many people do not agree with decision, they can't do anything. As a senior Native Indian, Lulu does have the right to have a voice: "Every foot and inch you're standing on, even if it's on the top of the highest skyscraper, belongs to the Indians." (Erdrich, 1992, P.221) Although Lulu struggles, she can't change the decision of the council, she can't stop the construction of this factory; she loses land and home forever, for she is just a common Native—her voice is so weak and unnoticeable.

B. Loss of Culture

Apart from allotting land, the government also set out to undermine Native Americans' religion and traditions by outlawing the practice of traditional religious ceremonies and by alienating Native American kids from their parents. That is to say, Native Americans are forced to speak English language and learn American culture. The white government set up a law to ask Indians to send their children to schools so that they can accept mainstream education from young ages. In this way, the purpose of assimilation can be realized. Teachers in schools install these Indians the advanced American culture, science and technology and tell them that their own Indian culture is uncivilized, backward and useless today. Receiving such education, Indians exposed to American culture are prone to lose their own cultural identity and become confused in the clash of two societies. Then, gradually, because of the ingressive influence placed on them, these Native Indians are naturally accepting the American culture and become what the white society wants them to be. As a result, the traditions and core values which have passed down from earlier generations will face the peril of elimination because no one can inherit those treasures any more. Flavin (1989) holds that, in *Love Medicine*, Erdrich has emphasizes several times that Uncle Eli is the only one in reservation who can hunt deer by using traps. The young generation has lost not only the ability of archery but also the knowledge of Chippewa vocabulary. Eli is hid by his mother when he is young to avoid being taken by the white school, so he receives no education. That's why he is the only one in the second generation who can't read or write. However, many years have passed, "Eli was still sharp, while grandpa's mind had left us, gone wary and wild." (Erdrich, 1992, P.19) All he gets familiar with is nature and the reservation. He is respected by his family members and neighborhoods, for he is a memorial to the past, living in an old primitive way, and immune to the influence of modern civilization. However, because he can't adapt himself into the changing society, he is living in poverty and solitary, no women want to marry him. He is also a good example to demonstrate that Indians who can't integrate into the white society will sink into loneliness.

Also, Christian church and religion contribute a lot in conquering the Indians. This point is stated concretely in the chapter named"Love Medicine". Lipsha Morrissey is born with a special ability of touch endowed by Shaman, an Indian witch doctor. He can heal people by touching their bodies. When Marie asks him to help her to gain back her husband Nector's love, Lipsha doesn't know how to pray to the Indian God, because he is affected by the Christianity from childhood. Then Lipsha turns to the church for help. He buys two raw turkey hearts and asks for the bishop's blessing but is turned down. Having no other options, he consoles himself that maybe he can bless the turkey hearts as well and gain the mysterious love medicine. Growing up in two different cultures, Lipsha is naturally influenced by them and knows the Nector eats these hearts, he will love her again. But the result is miserable, for Nector is suffocated to death. What a joke! Maybe the cultural clash is not the direct reason leading to his death, but undoubtedly that it is the love medicine that causes this tragedy. The old Chippewa specialty blessed by Christianity God does not have any magic power. Nector and other Indian people are all victims of the conflicts of two religions.

C. Discrimination from White Society

Farrell (1998) argues that the last element that contributes to the harsh living conditions is the racial discrimination in white society. In the white's eyes, all the Indian symbols like long hair, furs, archery and hunting are things uncivilized and should be civilized. To achieve this goal, the white government builds many boarding schools and asks Indian children to accept American-style education. However, the fact is that though they have received education in neighborhood schools as the government have required, Indians still have to face intense racial discrimination. Take Nector as an example, he accepts school education from a young age; after graduating from school, he once tries luck in movies but is frustrated by the fact that "death was the extent of Indian acting in the moving theater."(Erdrich, 1992, P.119) He then becomes a model for a white artist. The only thing he needs to do is "stand still" and let the old woman

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paint his picture. In the picture, Nector is "jumping off a cliff, naked of course, down into a rocky river. Certain death." (Erdrich, 1992, P.120) To these white, the only thing about Indians they are interested in is death. When Nector finds that "the greater world was only interested in my doom," he goes home "on the back of a train" (Erdrich, 1992, P.124). According to Nector's experience, it can be concluded that the white never view Indians the same as them.

Another case in point is June, the most charming woman in Chippewa Indians' eyes. June has a pair of long legs and she is praised as "Miss Indian American." After marrying her cousin Gordie, she leaves the reservation because of dissatisfaction of life there. She tries to make a name in the outside world:

When she was studying to be a beautician, she had purposely burned an unruly customer's hair stiff green with chemicals. She reported drunk for work in dime stores and swaggered out of restaurants where she'd waitressed a week, at the first wise-crack. Other secretaries did not like her. Sometimes she came back to Gordie and they made the marriage work for a while longer. Then she would leave him again. (Erdrich, 1992, P. 9)

June tries every effort to earn a living but she can't alter the existing fact of social prejudice on her. Because of her strong self-esteem, she can't bear others' discrimination and can't find her place in the white society. Thing then goes towards sorrow: "As time goes she breaks, little by little, into someone whose shoulders sagged when she thought no one was looking, a woman with long ragged nails and hair always growing from its beauty-parlor cut. Her clothes were full of safety pins and hidden tears." (Erdrich, 1992, P. 9)

From this description, it is obvious that June has become the one hit down by reality; she loses herself and relies on man to live on. Her initial ambition has broken completely. When she determines to back home, she is lured by a white man with money. They drive to a remote path. She gives herself to him. After the white man fall asleep, June makes a decision. Maybe because she can't put up with the unfair treatment or unsatisfied life here anymore, maybe because she just misses her family in reservation or maybe because she finally realizes that she can't make a name here, no matter what the reason is, she decides to go back home right now alone. However, due to her drunkenness and an unusual fierce blizzard, June is frozen to death on her way home. That's really a sad ending which reflects that the trials of Indians who want to establish themselves in the white society are doomed to end in failure.

III. Reasons for the Plight

There are several different factors leading to these American Indians' plight in survival.

A. Political Factor

First and foremost lies in the unfair policies made by the white government like the Indian Removal Act and the Allotment Policy. The government intends to turn Indians into farmers and launch its so-called advanced civilization on these Indians. Ironically, millions of Native Indians lose their original home and are forced to move to a much bleaker and remote reservations, starting from scratch. The ultimate goal of American government is to snatch all kinds of resources: forest, river, mineral substance, typically the fertile land and transfer all of these to the hands of themselves. All the things they take into consideration are the benefits and interests regardless of the tough life of the Indians after being deprived of everything.

Albertine, on behalf of Erdrich to some extent, expresses her view on this policy. "The policy of allotment was nothing but a joke. As I was driving toward the land, looking around, I saw as usual how much of reservation was sold to whites and lost forever."(Erdrich, 1992, P.11) It is quite a sarcasm that the white get tangible profits by robbing and cheating while Indians are still struggling in poverty.

B. Economic Factor

As mentioned before, most of the American Indians are sunken in the gulf of poverty. Louise Erdrich depicts the bleak condition of the present reservation of Native Americans in the first chapter of *Love Medicine*: "All along the highway that early summer the land was beautiful. The sky stretched bare. Tattered silver windbreaks bounded flat, plowed fields that the government had paid to lay fallow. Everything else is dull tan—the dry ditches, the dying crops, the buildings of towns and farms." (Erdrich, 1992, p.10)

"Beautiful" used here is ironic which attains a more impressive effect. This description reveals that the reservation the Chippewa living on is nothing but impoverish and lifeless. Although compared with primitive ages, the present living standard of Indians has been improved relatively. Most of them don't need to fish or hunt to maintain their lives. Modern facilities like cars, televisions, electronic oven and mobile phones have become indispensable parts and facilitate their lives greatly. Erdrich entitles her chapter with the "The Red Convertible". She intends to say that the Indians and the whites have to contact, that the old way and the new way have to contact, and that the uncivilized and the civilized have to contact, with the help of cars—a symbol of modernization. On the other hand, because of the penetration of white culture and the influence of ever-changing outside world, people in reservation realize the great gap between them and the white. However, they still can not catch the developing pace of the outer world. During the transformation from primitive society to modern industrial society, the average income level of American Indians is much lower than that of the white. Hence, they are usually looked upon down because they have no powerful economy to back them. June leaves reservation is

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for nothing else but to make a name and earn money in white world. So the weak economy does do harm to these Indians both physically and mentally.

C. Cultural Factor

For generations, Indians are skillful hunters, fishermen and so on. They live on their land, along with woods and rivers, not rich but harmonious. However, since the society and economic structure have been changed dramatically, they have to change their living ways no matter they are willing or not. The old generations stand for tribal Indians, whose number is reducing gradually. At the same time, a kind of urban Indians made up with the young Indians largely has emerged. They neither know how to hunter nor how to fish. Actually, they don't know how to earn a living in tribal ways, having forgotten the traditional tribal culture. So they choose to leave the land they grew up and pursue another living way in white cities. Nector, June and Beverly are among them.

According to Mintz (2000), to Native Americans, the culture and traditions they inherit from earlier generations are the roots of their life, which influence their ways of thinking and doing greatly. However, with the invasion of aggressive American white culture, the Native culture is inevitably eroded gradually. Just imagine if a Native American only speaks English, dresses in an American style and knows nothing about tribal life, how can people recognize him as an Indian? Nothing of him can prove that! In this sense, he is totally assimilated. The question is that currently millions of Indians have been or being assimilated. This fact makes us worry: what culture do these Indians belong to? They are born of Indians but now nothing of them can prove this. Can they say they are Americans? The problem is no one accepts this. How tragic it is when the new generation of Indians lose own cultural identity and stroll between two kinds of culture, finding nowhere to shelter. After losing original habitat and core culture, how do these Native people struggle to live on the land now dominated by others?

Conflicts between Indian culture and the white culture in every aspect have great impact on Indian's doing and thinking. The Indians respect nature and revere spirit while the white view their god as formidable. The Indians pursue freedom and harmony while the white attach more importance to governance and fortune. Erdrich portrays the life of Chippewa under the control of the white who exert both political pressure and religious assimilation. Under such a circumstance, the Chippewa are gradually losing their cultural identity. Lipsha's non-effective love medicine is a valid example to show the obscurity between two cultures: growing in different environment, Lipsha is confused about which spirit he should pray for. That is to say, he even doesn't know which culture he belongs to.

IV. Survival Strategies for Native Americans

After centuries of contact with American whites, Native culture has been marginalized by the white dominant culture and is facing the peril of withering away. Nevertheless, first and fore forest, for the most Native Americans, regaining the awareness of their issues is the most important thing to do.

Wang Weimin pointed out that (2011) facing the living plight, Native Indians can exist from generation to generation by adhering to their traditions and culture. One key issue is language. Native Americans are prone to fall silent in daily life and in western literature because of the ingressive English. Another reason for the withering of old Indian language is that nowadays, more than ninety percent of Indian children are adopted in non-Indian families, which will also lead to widespread culture loss. Being adopted in an English-filled environment, these Indian children have no access to their tribal Indian language or their cultural identity. In addition, keeping away from their culture, these Indians will lose encouragement and confidence to handle troubles they have met. By contrast, keeping close with their traditions will definitely give Indians a sense of belonging and fulfillment.

Having suffered a lot and been deprived almost everything from political suppression, Indians should try every effort to gain the rights they deserve. The Declaration of Independence writes that all men are created equal, that they are endowed with unalienable rights, that they are among these are life, liberty and the pursuit of happiness. However, the fact is that in America, only whites can enjoy these fascinating rights while Indians are left with poverty, oppression and discrimination, all of these are breaching of the law. So it's time for Native Americans to stand out, scream for their sake and strive for their rights the government owes them. In the novel, "Lyman's Luck" serves as a kind of ending of the "Tomahawk Factory". In this chapter, after being close to Native American culture and learning from the failed trial in the mainstream society, Lyman realizes what the government has done to Native Americans and advises his counterparts to take actions. He says:

They gave you worthless land to start with and then they chopped it out from under your feet. They took your kids away and stuffed the English language in their mouths. They sent your brother to hell, they shipped him back fried. They sold your booze for furs and then told you not to drink…It was time, high past time the Indians smarten up and started using the only leverage they had—federal law.(Erdrich, 1992, P.326)

Lyman's words reveal that the thought of Indians' rebellion and self-protection have emerged. Although their factory is closed finally, it doesn't mean that their rebellious spirit will fade. As long as they keep bearing this spirit and strive for equality consistently, the Indians' living situation will be improved gradually.

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In the process of dominating Native Americans, the white always hold that Indians are inferior to them. Hu Mengdie (2010) noted that Native American stereotype is prevailing among white society and also a key component of existing racism. So, to improve their social status and their living condition, Indians need to break this stereotype. In addition to the efforts to arouse the awareness of tradition and strive for the rights they reserve, Indians also need to identify them by other groups in the society that they are equal with the white, not inferior definitely.

To a great extent, by describing Native American's life, Erdrich has aroused much attention to the condition of Native Americans both at home and abroad. Pastore (2009) argued that only if more and more people concern about Native issues can Native people acquire more rights and opportunities to overcome their plight.

V. Conclusion

He Ling(2011) pointed out that as a prolific and prestigious Native American writer, Louise Erdrich takes the full use of her mixed blood identity to vividly describe the tough lives of Native Americans in and off their reservation. According to her portrayal, we readers can really feel the tough living conditions of contemporary Indians and can find the deep roots of their plights. Erdrich herself has admitted that your ethnic background is a shaping force of your existence, which you can't simply wake away from. Naturally, she has been a spokesman of Indians and their culture. Instead of writing directly about the Native American experience from a sharp aspect, she chooses to focus on the family connection, tribal relationship and trivial things in daily life of Native people.

Against the backdrop of multiculturalism in the world, a quest for cultural identity has been a prevailing theme. Under this circumstance, the notion of Erdrich's mixed blood identity in Native American literature has aroused the interests in the field of ethic literature both in U.S. and in China. Thus, it serves as a distinguished example for other ethnic groups on how to survive in this complicated and multi-cultural environment. By writing and publishing this novel *Love Medicine*, Erdrich expresses her own concern and advises over this issue in the ever-changing world.

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The Significance of Listening Comprehension in English Language Teaching

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***Abstract*—Listening is a significant language skill to develop in second language learning. Despite its importance, language learners consider listening as the most difficult language skill to learn. Since the role of listening comprehension in language teaching has been repeatedly emphasized, many teachers do not pay enough attention to its importance in their classes. In this paper, the researchers review some important issues concerning listening comprehension to provide a basis for developing listening skill in English language teaching. It starts with a definition of listening and listening comprehension, a brief discussion of reasons for listening, followed by reviewing listening comprehension process, the importance of listening, teachers' roles in listening comprehension, and discuss strategies, techniques, and goals of listening. The review of literature indicated that learners can improve their listening comprehension through the help of teachers, using suitable materials and activities, and practicing a lot.**

***Index Terms*—listening comprehension, reason, process, importance, role, strategies, techniques, goals**

I. Introduction

Listening comprehension is an important part of language learning. Learners want to understand native speakers and a lot of multimedia like DVDs and the Internet. Listening is a significant skill to develop in second language learning (Rost, 2001; Vandergrift, 2007; Kurita, 2012). According to Rost (2001) and Kurita (2012), a major difference between more successful and less successful learners is related to their ability to use listening as an instrument of learning.

Listening skill is very important in foreign language learning because the key to learn a language is to receive language input. According to Krashen, Terrell, Ehrman, and Herzog (1984) and Hamouda (2013) acquisition happens when learners have sufficient comprehensible input. Rost (1994) stated that listening is significant in language learning because it provides input for learners and it plays an important role in the development of learners' language.

According to Krashen (1985) and Hamouda (2013), listening skill is an important element in obtaining understandable input. Learning will not occur if there isn't any input. Hasan (2000) and Hamouda (2013) expressed that listening comprehension provides the appropriate situations for the acquisition and expansion of other language skills. Rost (2002) expressed that the development of listening is related to the attainment of proficiency in speaking. He continued that listening is the most important skill in language learning because it is the most widely used language skill in normal daily life.

Listening comprehension process provides beneficial intuitions in teaching listening. Learner may find listening comprehension skill difficult to learn and this can also provide teachers with opportunities to change their listening exercises into more effective ones. Developing listening comprehension skill helps learners to succeed in language learning to enhance comprehensible input. Since learners' self-reliance in listening comprehension will be increased, they will be motivated to have access to spoken English such as conversations with native speakers (Kurita, 2012).

According to Pourhosein Gilakjani and Ahmadi (2011), listening plays a significant role in the communication process. Ferris (1998), Murphy (1991), Vogely (1998), and Hamouda (2013) expressed that listening is the most frequently used skill in the language classrooms. Therefore, it is obvious that listening is very important for the lives of students since it is used as a means of learning at all phases of instruction. Despite its significance in foreign language learning, the instruction of listening comprehension has been overlooked in many EFL classes. According to Oxford (1990), listening develops faster than the three other language skills and it can make easy the development of the other language skills.

In this paper, important issues concerning listening comprehension were reviewed. The researchers defined the terms listening and listening comprehension, mentioned the reasons for listening, explained listening comprehension process, stated the importance of listening, elaborated teachers' roles in in listening comprehension, and discussed strategies, techniques, and goals of listening.

II. Definition of Listening

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Listening has been defined by many researchers. Thomlison (1984) and Hamouda (2013) defined listening as the ability to recognize and understand what others are telling. This process includes understanding a speaker's pronunciation, the speaker's grammar and vocabulary, and understanding of meaning. Morley (1972) said listening involves auditory discrimination, aural grammar, selecting necessary information, remembering it, and connecting it to the process between sound and form of meaning (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

Bowen, Madsen, and Hilferty (1985) demonstrated that listening is understanding the oral language. Students hear oral speech, divide sounds, classify them into lexical and syntactic units, and comprehend the message (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). Listening is a process of receiving what the speaker says, making and showing meaning, negotiating meaning with the speaker and answering, and creating meaning by participation, creativity, and empathy. Listening is a complex process of interpretation in which listeners match what they hear with what they already know (Rost, 2002 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

According to Goss (1982), listening is a process of understanding what is heard and organizing it into lexical elements to which meaning can be allocated (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). According to Purdy (1997), listening is the process of receiving, making meaning from, and answering to spoken and/or nonverbal messages. Rost (2009) told that listening is an active and important mental ability. It aids us to understand the world around us and is one of the necessary elements in creating successful communication (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

III. Definition of Listening Comprehension

There have been different definitions of the term "listening comprehension." Rost (2002) and Hamouda (2013) defined listening comprehension as an interactive process in which listeners are involved in constructing meaning. Listeners comprehend the oral input through sound discrimination, previous knowledge, grammatical structures, stress and intonation, and the other linguistic or non-linguistic clues (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016).

Nadig (2013) defined listening comprehension as the various processes of understanding and making sense of spoken language. These involve knowing speech sounds, comprehending the meaning of individual words, and understanding the syntax of sentences (as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Sabouri, 2016). According to Brown and Yule (1983) and Hamouda (2013), listening comprehension is an individual understanding of what he has heard and it is the listener's ability to repeat the text despite the fact that the listener may repeat the sound without real comprehension.

IV. Reasons for Reasoning

According to Bouach (2010), listening comprehension is useful for learners' pronunciation. That is, when learners are more exposed to spoken English, they can more know and get used to its pitch, intonation, stress, redundancy, and clusters. Wilson (2008) mentioned some other reasons for listening such as information gathering, enjoyment, unanimity, evaluation, and criticism. In addition, the other reason behind listening is to improve the speaking skill by improving pronunciation.

There are a lot of reasons for listening. There are five main reasons for listening like to engage in social protocols, to exchange information, to enjoy yourself, to share emotions, and to exert control (Hedge 2000). Underwood (1989) expressed that teachers should prepare their students for the following situations:

a. Attending a lesson. The purpose of this activity is to comprehend the major ideas and to recognize the main information.

b. Listening to announcements, news, and weather forecast. The main goal of listeners is to obtain pertinent information.

c. Listening to plays, watching TV, or listening to a radio for entertainment. The objective of this activity is to amuse oneself.

d. Listening to someone delivering a speech. In this situation, the listener is interested in opinions and attitudes of the speaker.

e. Following the instructions. The goal of the listener is to perform the function successfully.

V. Listening Comprehension Process

Schemata are the guiding structures in the comprehension process. The schema is a data structure for showing the general concepts stored in memory. Schema means an abstract textual structure that the listener uses to understand the text. The listener uses linguistic and situational cues about the new input to extract schemata. When a schema is extracted, it becomes a guiding structure in comprehension. If there is harmony between incoming information and the schema, the listeners will understand the text. The schema results in three basic modes of information processing: bottom-up processing, top-down processing, and interactive processing (Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

A. Bottom-up Process

Bottom-up processing is activated by the new data. The data pass into the system through schemata. Schemata are formed from the most specific at the bottom to the most general at the top. In this process, listening decodes the sounds

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from the meaningful units to complete texts. Therefore, phonemic units are connected together to make words, words are connected together to make phrases, phrases are connected together to make utterances, and utterances are connected together to make complete and meaningful text. Certain incoming sounds precipitate schemata formed in a listener‘s mind like the phonological knowledge, the morphological knowledge, and lexical and syntactical knowledge. The listener uses his knowledge of words, syntax, and grammar to work on form in the bottom-up processing (Rubin, 1994 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). This process is closely associated with the listener‘s linguistic knowledge.

B. Top-down Process

Top-down processing uses background knowledge for understanding the meaning of a message. Top-down processing constructs general predictions based on general schemata and then looks for information to fit into these schemata. The listener actively constructs the original meaning of the speaker using the new input. The listener uses previous knowledge of the context within which the listening happens to comprehend what he/she hears. Context includes knowledge of the topic, the speaker or speakers, and their connection with the situation and with each other and previous happenings. If the incoming information is unfamiliar for the listener, it can‘t extract his schemata and he can only depend on his linguistic knowledge in listening comprehension. Thus, only depending on top-down processing may leads to the failure of comprehension (Carrell & Eisterhold, 1983 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

C. Interactive Process

According to the interactive processing, top-down and bottom-up listening processing should be combined to each other increase listening comprehension. The application of background knowledge information, contextual information, and linguistic information makes comprehension and interpretation easy. When the content of the material is familiar to the listener, he uses his background knowledge to make predictions which is proved by the new input. If the content of the listening text is unfamiliar to the listener, he can only use his linguistic knowledge, particularly the lexical and syntactical knowledge to understand information (Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

Comprehension involves perception, parsing, and utilization. Perceptual processing is the encoding of the auditory or written message and it includes chunking phonemes from the continuous speech). A person pays particular attention to input and the sounds are kept in memory. While the input is in memory, the analysis of the language code begins and encoding process changes the input into meaningful representations (Anderson, 1995 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

In the parsing process, words are changed into the mental representation of the combined meaning of words. Proposition is the main unit of listening comprehension. In parsing, a meaning-based representation of the original words can be kept in short-term memory and this representation is an abstraction of the original word sequences that can multiply the original sequences or their planned meaning. The size of the unit processed depends on the learner‘s language knowledge, general knowledge, and way of presenting information. The purpose of segmentation is meaning that can be indicated syntactically, semantically, and phonologically. Listeners can have some difficulties in comprehending spoken language by native speakers if they are not familiar with the rules for segmentation (Anderson, 1985 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

Memory span for target language input is shorter than for native language input. Complex input materials can be difficult to understand in a second language because they require combining of parsed segments in comprehension process and putt an extra burden on short-term memory which can already be burdened with un-encoded parts of the new input (Call, 1985 as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011).

Utilization process involves connecting a mental representation of the auditory meaning with existing knowledge. Existing knowledge is maintained in long-term memory as propositions or schemata. Connections between the new input meaning and existing knowledge occur through which knowledge in long-term memory is activated so that it is connected with the new meanings in short-term memory. Perception, parsing, and utilization processes are closely connected to each other and can take place simultaneously in listening comprehension. According to Coakley and Wolvin (1986, as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011) listening comprehension involves a listener who brings previous knowledge of the topic, linguistic knowledge and cognitive processes to the listening activity, the aural text, and the interaction between the two.

VI. The Importance of Listening

Listening comprehension needs more concentration and a quick understanding is also required. When listening, a lot of factors should be specifically paid attention. They are context, facial expressions, and body gestures that are very important for the listeners to facilitate the understanding of what is conveyed by speakers (Ziane, 2011).

According to Rost (1994) and Ziane (2011), listening comprehension is very important because it is a process through which we get input and without its comprehension learning does not happen. Doff (1995) and Ziane (2011) represented that listening has a significant effect on developing speaking. That is, we cannot develop our speaking ability unless we develop our listening skill. If a learner has a good listening ability in English language, it would be

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very easy for him to listen to the radio, to study, watch films, or communicate with foreigners. Learners should have a lot of practice and exposure to English in order to develop this ability. There is a relationship between listening to a language and learning it. If we compare two learners; one is living in a country where the target language is the first language and the other is living in a country where English is only spoken in academic places. The difference is that the first learner can acquire English more easily, effectively, and rapidly than the second one. Consequently, learners need as much exposure to English language as possible.

According to Hedge (2000), listening has an important role in everyday life and when people are engaged in communication nine percent is spent to writing, 16 percent to reading, 30 percent to speaking, and 45 percent to listening which shows the significance of listening in the communication process. Lundsteen (1979) expressed that listening is the first skill to appear. He continued that children listen before they speak. Hedge (2000) indicated that modern society likes to change from printed media towards sound and its members. Therefore, the significance of listening cannot be ignored. He emphasized that listening is of great importance in English language classrooms.

VII. Teachers' Role in Listening Activities

Teachers have a major responsibility in their classes and they can have a great effect on their students to create friendly atmosphere. Harmer (1991) and Macháčková (2009) said that there are eight main roles for teachers:

A. A teacher as an Organizer

In this role, teachers should explain what their students want to do, give clear instructions, and give a useful feedback to their students. Teachers also prepare the listening lesson and give obvious guidance to their learners.

B. A Teacher as a Controller

A teacher performs the whole lesson. It is a teacher's duty to arrange what students do, when they should speak, and what language they should use. Teachers also determine what students should do in the listening phases.

C. A Teacher as an Evaluator

Teachers evaluate their students and give them a feedback on their performance. They should evaluate the level of their students.

D. A Teacher as a Resource

In this role, teachers give their students the necessary advice and help them to solve their difficulties specifically unknown vocabulary or grammatical patterns.

E. A Teacher as a Tutor

Teachers act as a coach and a resource and help their learners to develop ideas. Teachers assist their learners in every stage and should help them towards predicting missing information.

F. A Teacher as an Investigator

Teachers observe the activities in their lessons and assess their leaners' performance. They evaluate the advantages of listening activities.

G. A Teacher as a Prompter

Teachers urge their students and give recommendations toward activities that are carried out by their learners. Teachers should support their students during every stage of listening activity so that they can be successful.

H. A Teacher as a Participant

Teachers take part in the listening activities and must be aware of leading in these activities. They can improve the classroom atmosphere. They participate in pre and post listening activities like discussions and role plays.

VIII. What Are the Strategies for Developing Listening?

Chamot and Küpper (1989), Henner Stanchina (1987), Murphy (1985), O'Malley and Chamot (1990), and Ak (2012) have been interested in strategies for listening comprehension. Listening suggests are the skills raise strategies and can be divided into two groups; bottom-up strategies and top-down strategies. Bottom-up strategies concentrate on linguistic features and urge students to analyze individual words for their meaning or grammatical structures before gathering the meanings to form propositions. Top-down strategies concentrate on the overall meaning of phrases and sentences and motivate students to use real world schematic knowledge to develop expectations of text meaning.

According to Vandergrift (1999) and Ak (2012), listening strategies are metacognitive strategies, cognitive strategies, and socio-affective strategies. Metacognitive strategies are mental activities for managing language learning which involve planning, monitoring, and evaluating one's understanding. They involve thinking about the learning process like selective attention and comprehension monitoring. Cognitive strategies are mental activities for using the language

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to do a task that includes using particular techniques to the learning task like explanation and deduction. Socio affective strategies include cooperating with other learners or the teacher for explanation, and using particular techniques to reduce apprehension. They involve activities such as questioning for clarification, cooperation, decreasing worry, and self-encouragement. Mendelsohn (1995) and Ak (2012) expressed that it is very important for learners to use appropriate listening strategies in order to develop their own listening skills. It is significant for learners to use specific strategies based on their own learning needs.

A study was done Abdelhafez (2006). It was about the impact of specific strategies on developing listening skills. The results of this study indicated that training in metacognitive strategies helped learners develop their own listening skills. In many other studies the findings indicated that more-proficient listeners used strategies more often than less-proficient listeners According to Chao (1997), Moreira (1996), Murphy (1987), O'Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989), Rost and Ross (1991),Vandergrift (1997), Berne (2004), and Ak (202) more skillful listeners use a lot of strategies and can activate their existing linguistic knowledge to understand better.

IX. What Are the Techniques for Developing Listening?

Rixon (1986) and Rubin (1995) stated that different techniques should be used in the classrooms like authentic materials and technology. McBride (2009) and Rost (2007) expressed that the use of technology can promote the expansion of listening comprehension by providing students with interesting materials. Authentic materials involve songs, TV serials, movies, and documentaries and technology includes videos, computers, and the Internet. Authentic materials and technology are closely interrelated to each other since technology is required to operate authentic materials.

Jansen and Vinther (2003), Mc Bride (2011), Robin (2007), and Zhao (1997) and Ak (2012) indicated that the use of technology while using authentic materials can solve difficulties encountered with authentic materials. Many studies have been done concerning the impacts of technology and authentic materials into the classes on listening comprehension. Özgen (2008) examined the impacts of captioned authentic videos on listening comprehension. The results obtained from this study represented that learners watching the videos with captions scored significantly higher than the ones watching the videos without captioning. A study was carried out by Hayati and Mohmedi (2011) towards the effect of videos with subtitles on listening comprehension. The researchers identified three groups: L1 subtitled group, L2 subtitled group, and without subtitle group. The results revealed that the group with English subtitles outperformed the other groups.

Different language skills should be used by learners to increase the development of each skill. It is illogical to detach skills when doing an activity in a specific lesson. The use of different skills can make the activities more meaningful, motivate learners, and create interesting contexts. According to Fotos (2001), Hinkel (2006), Murphy (1991), Snow (2005), and Ak (2012) listening can be used to improve other skills such as reading or speaking skills in all classes and listening can gain from specific skills such as pronunciation. Gilbert (1995) and Nunan and Miller (1995) emphasized that developing listening skills with pronunciation is an effective strategy that should be used in English classes. In this way, it is recommended that teachers instruct and improve listening by mixing it with pronunciation.

X. The Goals of Listening Comprehension Lessons

According to Paulston and Bruder (1976, as cited in Pourhosein Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011), listening comprehension lessons have certain goals and all teachers and learners should be aware of these goals. They are as follows:

1. Listening comprehension lessons should be carefully and gradually planned. Listening activities progress from simple to more complex while learners get in language proficiency.
2. Listening comprehension lessons should demand active student participation. Student participation is his/her written answer to the listening comprehension material and immediate feedback on performance that can keep students' concern and motivation.
3. Listening comprehension lessons should provide a communicative necessity for remembering to develop concentration. These two factors are very important in recalling and can be done by giving the students the writing task before listening to the material.
4. Listening comprehension lessons should focus on conscious memory task. One of the aims of listening is to reinforce learners' recall to increase their memory capacity. 'Listening is receiving, receiving needs thinking, and thinking needs memory. It is impossible to separate listening, thinking, and remembering.
5. The focus of listening comprehension lessons is on teaching not testing. The aim of checking learners' responses is just feedback that is a way of helping learners to know how they did and how they are advancing.

XI. Conclusion

In this paper, the researchers reviewed some important issues towards listening comprehension in English language teaching. Listening is very important in language because it provides input for the learners and without comprehending input, they cannot learn anything. Listening comprehension is a complex skill that should be developed consciously. It

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can be developed with practice when learners consider the process of listening without the threat of assessment. The use of listening activities to test students' comprehension results in worry and nervousness which stops the development of listening comprehension strategies. The positive and effective use of strategies affects learners' self-concept, beliefs, and attitudes towards listening comprehension. This paper indicated the significant roles of teachers, listening strategies, and techniques on improving the learners' listening comprehension. Through this paper, the researchers believed that if learners want to improve their listening skill, they should practice it a lot in the target language. The review of literature indicated that learners should be provided with appropriate materials and activities in which they can learn how to understand the English language. Teachers should give learners the opportunity to listen to native speakers' speech, should choose listening texts that are uttered by non-native speakers so that they can develop their listening skills and do not get disappointed. When learners have developed their listening skills to a specified level, teachers can choose texts spoken by native speakers as teaching materials and activities. Suitable teaching in listening comprehension can decrease listening apprehension and provide a good basis for becoming independent learners who can effectively use the listening process for learning. Finally, it can be concluded that guiding learners in the process of listening provides them with the knowledge by which they can successfully complete a listening activity and puts them in control of their learning.

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From Blood Intimacy to the Birth of Self-consciousness in *The Rainbow*

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***Abstract*—The opening chapters of Lawrence's *The Rainbow* is modeled on the Bible in terms of its narrative discourse and profound implication. The novel begins with a pastoral portrayal of the Marsh Farm where mankind forms a blood-intimate and reciprocal relationship with the natural world. But driven by man's own eagerness to pursue knowledge and pushed by the development of industrialization, man's unconscious closeness with nature gradually gives way to the birth of self-consciousness which alienates him from the natural world, thus thrusting him into an ontological existence.**

***Index Terms*—D. H. Lawrence, *The Rainbow*, pastoral, self-consciousness, blood-intimacy**

I. Introduction

In his essay, "Pan in America", D. H. Lawrence nostalgically comments on the Pre-Christian era: "In the days before man got too much separated off from the universe, he *was* Pan, along with all the rest." (2000, p.72) Man in those days enjoyed a living relationship with nature which is described by Lawrence as the "Pan relationship." But with the coming of the Christian era, this living relationship gradually began to disintegrate and human beings, having lost his close ties with nature, cannot return to the primitive life again. This process can best be artistically and symbolically revealed in Lawrence's *The Rainbow*, which starts with a pastoral depiction of life on the Marsh Farm. Lawrence's reminiscent portrayal of a primitive relationship between man and nature makes the beginning of the novel resonant with strong pastoral beauty. However, the organic, blood-intimate relationship between man and nature on the farm soon disintegrate; being alienated from the natural world and thrust into the industrial age, man has to construct his own identity and achieve his own self-fulfillment.

II. Pastoral Portrayal of the Marsh Farm

Pastoral as a type of literature originated from the Greek poet Theocritus whose pastoral poems represented the simple and peaceful life of those Sicilian shepherds. In imitation of Theocritus' pastoral poems, the Roman poet Virgil created *Eclogues*, and from then on pastoral has been established as an important type of literature. Pastoral was at first confined to poetry writing, and later pastoral was also adopted in the creation of drama and fiction. M. H. Abrams (2004, p.202) in *A Glossary of Literary Terms* defines pastoral as "a deliberately conventional poem expressing an urban poet's nostalgic image of the peace and simplicity of the life of shepherds and other rural folk in an idealized natural setting". Jonathan Bate points out that "What, then, are the politics of our relationship to nature? For a poet, pastoral is the traditional mode in which that relationship is explored" (Bate, 2000, p.170). Pastoral writing is mainly concerned with describing harmonious life in the countryside, while occasionally it would highlight a contrast between rural life and complicated urban life so as to sing the praises of a harmonious life in the countryside. In pastoral life, man and nature exist in a reciprocal relationship which is characterized by harmony and abundance. More importantly, pastoral life is celebrated for man's loyalty to his nature. Pastoral works written by modern writers sharply convey people's nostalgic recollection of the harmonious rural life in the past, and also people's pursuit of peaceful and harmonious life.

Lawrence's poetic portrayal of life on the Marsh reveals the author's strongly nostalgic recollection of the past rural society in England. The Brangwen family has lived on the Marsh Farm for generations and they have formed a reciprocal relationship with the land. There on the farm "intense apprehension of the unity of life" (Leavis, 1955, p.117) is the foremost impression one could catch in the vivid and lyrical language. The idyllic life has never been interrupted till Alfred Brangwen's age. The Brangwen men lead a peaceful, carefree and self-sufficient life on the farm and they are deeply rooted in the soil of the farm. The whole farm is an organic community. A vigorous relation of blood-intimacy, as Lawrence himself puts it, is formed between men and the place they live in. The living energy flows from the soil, the sun, the trees, etc. to men and vice versa. Differently put, men enjoy a "living relationship" with their circumambient universe as the soil is alive, the tree and the sunshine all alive and the people have an intimate relationship with the natural world. The poetic rhythm of the language contributes a lot to the organic beauty of the Marsh Farm. The farmers work diligently only because of the necessity of life, and the soil produces what they have sowed in abundance. Men and the environment form an organic connection based on reciprocity. When they milk their cows, they could feel the pulse and the blood of the udders sending waves into their own hands. From spring to winter, they could feel their own blood flowing in rapport with the natural rhythm. "The owner and the owned flowed in unison as part of an organic

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structure" (Sipple, 1992, p.73). Thus, their limbs and bodies are impregnated with the day, with the energy of cattle, earth, crop and sky, all of which they frequently communicate with in their own way.

The men, in a way, are crude, trusting not the mind or intelligence, "their senses full fed, their faces always turned to the heat of the blood" (p.4). They care only for their own exchange and interchange with earth and sky and beast and green plants. They always "faced inwards to the teeming life of creation, which poured unresolved into their vein" (p.5). Their vision is confined to the living relationship between everything on the farm. They work hard because the blood in their veins produces boundless energy. Lawrence's obsession with blood and senses in depicting these men's life goes along with his reputation as "the prophet of the Dark Gods — the partisan of instinct against intelligence, the humane, and the civilized" (Leavis, 1955, p.117). Lawrence, through his emphasis on the blood, tried to naturalize human beings by giving prominence to men's instinct and senses, which are more close to nature than intelligence. Lawrence advocates in his essay "Nathaniel Hawthorne and The Scarlet Letter" that "Blood knowledge, instinct, intuition, all the vast vital flux of knowing that goes on in the dark, antecedent to the mind" (2003, p.82) and "every time you 'conquer' the body with the mind…you cause a deeper, more dangerous complex or tension somewhere else" (2003, p.84).

The Brangwen men live their life according to the natural rhythm manifested both in their own heart and in the natural world. In the daytime they are busy with intense life communicating with everything on the farm, while in the evening they sit by the fire, their brain inert, and they seem to indulge in their own mystic communication with their blood. They are one with nature, belonging to nature, and all their activities are just the necessity for a harmonious life. Yet they are not conscious of the reciprocal relationship between men and nature. They take it for granted that this is what life is like and they enjoy it. They remain unconscious of their own self and embrace no individuality.

III. The Birth of Self-consciousness

On the pastoral Marsh Farm, mystically a reminder of the Garden of Eden, the Brangwen men and women, like Adam and Eve in the Old Testament, live a harmonious yet unconscious life quite concordant with the rhythmic pattern of nature. Things, however, are going to change. As the society develops, propelled especially by the occurrence of Industrial Revolution, the gap between cities and rural areas, between the rich and the poor, between the crude and the civilized, begins to widen. Though the Brangwens are not poor, the Brangwen women still perceive something different in the Vicar and the curate, a sort of higher being. The Vicar is elegant and knowledgeable, while their husbands are dull and appear to be inferior to the Vicar. Through the Vicar, the Brangwen women are gradually awakened to vague consciousness of their own identity. What are the differentiating qualities which make the Vicar seem refined and noble? They decide that it is education that makes a higher being in the Vicar, and they are determined to give education to their own children.

Though the Adam-like Brangwen men, so content with their own intense life on the farm, always concentrate their attention on the heat of the blood, the Eve-like Brangwen women strain their eyes to see the far-off world because there is the temptation of a different world and they are easily seduced. Jiang Chengyong (2005, p.7-17) argues that Adam and Eve's commission of original sin represents human beings' inherent aspiration to pursue wisdom, culture and civilization, while the culture they create serves not only for the benefit of mankind but also as fetters upon man's freedom and his healthy relationship with the natural world. Likewise, the Brangwen women's imagination of the outside world and their determination to give their children education represent human beings' efforts to gain knowledge and wisdom. This pursuit ruins human's original intimate relationship with nature because their knowledge makes them realize consciously the objective existence and the function of nature in relevance to mankind. Thus, the separation of man from nature in consciousness gives birth to the anthropocentric vision which places human beings at the centre of the universe. Since nature has been deprived of its original unity with mankind, the central task for man will be how to define his own being.

The development of industrialization further separates human beings from the natural world, as the construction of the canal and the railway brings surprising change to the Marsh Farm and coalmining rather than farming becomes the dominant industry. The construction of the canal is a symbol of the encroachment of the industrial civilization. Modern industry now pushes its invasion forward into this peaceful and pastoral farm. More and more men are employed in the mining industry. In Lawrence's own words from *The Rainbow*, "the invasion was complete" (p.7). Because of the business of collieries, the town grows rapidly and the Brangwens almost become tradesmen in producing supplies. The harmonious continuity between human beings and nature is gradually being cut off. Though the Marsh Farm remains still remote and original, industrial civilization has encircled the farm and the farm could no longer remain impenetrable to industrialization.

It is at this uproarious age that Tom grows up and becomes new master of the Marsh Farm. His mother determinedly and forcibly sends him to a grammar-school in Derby. But Tom fails to fulfill his mother's expectation, and like his male ancestors he is quite a sensitive man, ready to experience his emotion and passion, but "helpless when it came to deliberate understanding or deliberate learning" (p.11). He returns to the Marsh after he leaves school. Yet the influence from the outer world and his education prevents him from living the same blood-intimate life as his forebears. Though he is glad of the smell of the land and feels "a very strong root which held him to the Marsh, to his own house and land" (p.19), he dreams of something foreign, something unknown, and wants "something to get hold of, to pull himself out" (p.19). His encounter with a foreigner in a hotel kindles his desire to know the outside world, as he meditates, "There

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was a life so different from what he knew it. What was there outside his knowledge, how much?" (p.18). His yearning for knowledge and different experiences results from his awakening consciousness of identity. Tom wants to establish himself in relation to the unknown world, that is to say, he wants to discover himself in light of the other world, rather than the traditional pastoral life on the farm. Unable to get away from the confined life on the farm, he turns to wine for solace, hoping to extinguish his desire and emerging consciousness.

IV. The Need for Self-adjustment and Self-fulfillment

Faced with his awakening consciousness of identity, Tom sees the opportunity of self-fulfillment when he meets a Polish widow, Lydia, the daughter of a Polish landowner, who is completely an embodiment of the unknown, the "foreign", to Tom Brangwen. Tom falls in love with this foreign woman immediately after his first encounter with her. However, their marital life is not in harmony at first. Tom glorifies Lydia because she is the embodiment of the unknown, and she is a lady. And the shadow of the past misfortune still weighs on Lydia, who can not get free totally. So she is not quite competent to receive Tom's strong passion. Thus Tom has to resort to other outlet for his passion and he finds Anna, who can divert some of his passion. Tom gradually forms an intimate relationship with Anna. He unconsciously hopes to find his own identity through the unknown, symbolized in his wife. However, he can not understand and get hold of the reality of the unknown, which makes him painful. Only when he is immersed in nature can he feel comfort and elation, "whether his wife were strange or sad, or whether he craved for her to be with him, it did not matter, the air rang with clear noises, the sky was like crystal, like the bell, and the earth was hard" (p.59).

Tom's vision of the world at the evening when his wife is in labour indicates his shrinking away from individual fulfillment. Tom takes Anna to the barn to quiet her crying and, after feeding the cows, they "sat still listening to the snuffing and breathing of cows feeding in the sheds communicating with this small barn" (p.65). Tom consciously feels the interchange of everything in the barn. At this time, "All outside was still in the rain. He looked down at the silky folds of the paisley shawl. It reminded him of his mother" (p.65). The outside world is still, unchanging. Later in that night Tom "went downstairs, and to the door, outside, lifted his face to the rain, and felt the darkness striking unseen and steadily upon him", and "The swift, unseen threshing of the night upon him silenced him and he was overcome. He turned indoors, humbly. There was the infinite world, eternal, unchanging, as well as the world of life" (p.66). The outside world is not distinguishable, yet still and infinite. It is not easy to grasp the outside world, the unseen, the unknown. So why should he be so persistent in inquiring for the unknown. Lydia, in the birth of the child, "seemed to lose connection with her former self" (p.67), which paves the way for their future reconciliation. Tom also begins to learn to subdue himself, and to divert his desires and passion, though it is painful. Later, through Lydia's positive effort to make a balance between them, Tom gradually achieves a balanced relationship with Lydia. And Tom recognizes that his marriage is the central reality of his life: "What had he known, but the long, marital embrace with his wife! Curious, that this was what his life amounted to! At any rate, it was something, it was eternal…she was still his fulfillment…" (p.106) Tom's perception implies that only his marital relationship matters to him and his search for the unknown is doomed to be a failure. However, this new state of relationship is achieved through a reduction of Tom's self. He puts away his past, for "What was memory after all, but the recording of a number of possibilities which had never been fulfilled?" (p.79). He is unable to learn from the past experiences in order to further his exploration. He "let go his hold on himself. He relinquished himself, and knew the subterranean force of his desire to come to her…to find himself in her" (p.78). He ceases to pursue his individual fulfillment because he thinks that Lydia is his fulfillment. Thus, Tom is often aware of something he has missed, and "he was *not* satisfied" (p.106). Only he does not know clearly what he wants other than his marital life. It is his unformed self or individuality that keeps Tom unsatisfied. He wants to pursue his identity through a "creative life with the girl" (p.107), Anna. He finds that his wife "did not want any more the fight, the control" (p.106), while he still wants to "share the rapid life of the youth" (p.106). But he has no choice but to admit that he has his fulfillment through his wife, then what else should he want. He suspends his pursuit for the unknown, because his relationship with Lydia engenders a state of equilibrium, which makes him secure and reluctant to go any further.

Though not fully satisfied, Tom's marriage with Lydia is nevertheless a harmonious one. They return to pastoral life as Tom's forebears have led. They are at one with the farm, deeply rooted in nature and their small land. Tom still speaks the local dialect as his speech at Anna's wedding suggests. And the Brangwen family is "a curious family, a law unto themselves, separate from the world, isolated, a small republic set in invisible bounds" (p.84). Their secluded life prevents them from active participation in the broad context of the industrialization. Thus, "on the farm with her, he lived through a mystery of life and death and creation, strange, profound ecstasies and incommunicable satisfactions" (p.85) and "He did not want to have things dragged into consciousness" (p.86). He remains content with a blood-intimate relationship with the land and his wife, as his meditation at Anna's wedding shows, "He felt himself tiny, a little, upright figure on a plain circled round with the immense, roaring sky...How rich and splendid his own life was, red and burning and blazing and sporting itself in the dark meshes of his body…" (pp.111-112) Tom continues leading such a pastoral life according to the rhythm of nature till he is drowned when a flood sweeps the Marsh Farm.

An emerging consciousness of identity can be perceived in the first generation, especially Tom. Terry Gifford (2002, p.61) claims that "for those, like Wordsworth, who sought a connectedness with nature, consciousness remained a source of alienation from the rest of nature…However, with consciousness comes conscience and the exercise of choice

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to reverse some of our alienating conceptions…" Lawrence also attempts to suggest that the birth of upper mind (man's self-consciousness) embodied in man's education is similar to the fall from grace in the Garden of Eden, and for Lawrence the conscience concerning nature is how to strike a balance between nature and man. The actual fall begins with the introduction of the mechanical rhythm in the Erewash Valley and the construction of a canal across the Marsh Farm, as Sipple (1992, p.78) points out, "The Fall is the introduction of the machine which competes with the natural rhythm". The construction of the canal is a symbol of the encroachment of the industrial civilization. It is this canal that later releases its flood, which sweeps across the Marsh Farm. The canal embankment is torn a huge gap by the rising water and the flood drowns old Tom Brangwen. The flood, through Lawrence's ingenious contrivance, is compared with the Flood in the Bible. Tom Brangwen is heavily drunk when he drives home in the night and the rain is pouring down. In his drunkenness, Tom talks to the mare:

Oh my heart, what a wetness in the night! There'll be no volcanoes after this. Hey, Jack, my beautiful young slender feller, which of us is Noah? It seems as though the water-works is bursted. Ducks and ayquatic fowl'll be king o' the castle at this rate, dove an' olive branch an' all. (p.204)

The embankment is an embodiment of the corruption of industrialization. The flood bursts the embankment and inundates the farm. Tom perceives in the heavy rain a biblical world where Noah is stranded in a boat and the dove would come back with an olive branch to announce a new world. The Flood in the Bible is a curse from God to punish the corruption on earth. Tom's association of the Biblical Flood indicates that the flood on the farm is also a curse upon the corruption of the industrialization and "a symbolic sweeping away of the marks of the Fall" (Sipple, 1992, p.79). The flood, however, does not eliminate the corruption. On the contrary, the development of industrial civilization brings about more corruption, which can be detected in the life of the later generations.

V. Conclusion

Under the influence of the industrialization and the education Tom receives, the traditional Brangwen closeness with nature and the blood-intimacy with the Marsh are in the process of disintegration. Man needs to find his self, his identity in order to establish his own being. Tom chooses to project his self through the foreign, or the unknown, the reason of which partly lies in that the world is changing so fast that man always encounters the unfamiliar. They are turned into strangers in their own land and they begin to feel alienated. Tom's effort to establish his identity does not go far because his union with Lydia attracts his attention from the outside to their marital life.

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Appraisal Theory in Functionalism and Translation Evaluation*

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***Abstract*—The function of language is to communicate, so meaning is the most important concept. In the field of translation, the convey of meaning is the only goal. To transfer the meaning in a more scientific way is the topic many translators and translation theorist try to explore. This study is using theories in functionalism to explore the subjects of translation criteria and translation evaluation. Using the theories in functionalism, the study of translation theories appears more scientific.**

***Index Terms*—functionalism, intention, appraisal theory, evaluation**

I. Introduction

Communicative situations are settings in which people communicate with each other. Communication is thus a kind of interpersonal interaction. The different roles in the interaction play a significant part and thus very important in the translation process. The people involved in the communication have their own functions and roles. Those roles are interconnected in a very complex network. The understanding and analyzing of these roles are very important. So sometimes action theory may be able to explain certain aspects of translation process. According to action theory, action can be defined as the change from one state of the affairs to the other, mostly intentionally. In most cases, human interaction can be defined as change of a state of affairs affecting two or more people or agents. Within the same cultural background, the sender and the receiver have already formed the particular rules, so they have no difficulty in understanding each other. But when senders and receivers belong to the different cultural and language background, they need an intermediary agent to bridge them. The intermediary agent needs not only the language knowledge of the source and the target language, but also the communication rules and communication settings of both cultures.

II. Translating as a Form of Translational Interaction

A. The Role of Translator

Of course, the role of the translator is vital in the whole translating process, for the translator should be responsible both for carrying out the meaning of the source language to the target language, and ensuring the result of the process. So in the process of translation, the translator first is a receiver of the source language, and then perform a translational action, which may present a short summary of the source text according to the communication setting of the target language. Translator can be compared with a target-culture text producer expressing a source-culture sender's communicative intentions. When doing the translation process, most of the times translators have to take receivers of the target text into consideration since the addressees of the translation is a deceive factor in the production of the target text.

B. Intention and Function

The prime principle determining any translation process is the purpose, in other words, the function of the target text is crucial to determine the word choice and tone of the translation. From the point of the sender, the author or the speaker of the source text wants to achieve a certain purpose, which can be called intention (Catford, 1965). But the intention of the original source text may not achieve the ideal result, especially in the situation where the sender and the receiver are quite different. In translation, in order to achieve the function of the target text, the receiver of the translation, the purpose of the target text are the important factors to consider.

It is important to distinguish intention and function, since the sender and receiver usually belong to different cultural and situational settings. And because of these differences of the sender and receiver, intention and function have to be analyzed from the two different perspectives. The function of a particular translation task may require a free or a faithful translation, or sometimes a translation between these two extremes. According to Vermeer, "every cultural phenomenon is assigned a position in a complex system of values, it is evaluated. And every individual is an element in a system of space-time coordinates. If this is accepted, trans-cultural action or communication across culture barriers has to take account of cultural differences with regard to behavior, evaluation and communicative situations" (Vermieer, 1990, P.29). Two different cultural factors may be different in form, but the different forms may have the same function. The

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translation process involves comparing cultures. Readers who never experience the foreign cultural factors themselves have to compare the foreign culture with their own cultural in order to have an understanding. So the concept of the target language culture acts as the touchstone for the conception of other cultures.

C. Text Classification

According to Reiss, text typologies help the translator specify the appropriate hierarchy of equivalence levels needed for a particular translation Skopos. Usually text types are divided according to the function the text wants to achieve, and sometimes linguistics characteristics or conventions are also important. Based on the standards, there are usually three types of texts, which are informative, expressive or operative.

In informative type, the main function of the text is mostly to tell the readers about a certain subject or phenomena in the real world. The choice of words and phrases and the stylistic forms are all subordinate to this function. In translation of such informative type, the correct and complete representation of the source text's content is essential, and the stylistic choices should be guided by the norms of the target language and its culture.

In expressive type, the aesthetic meaning is somehow more important than informative meaning. The stylistic choices made by the author have an aesthetic effect on the reader. When translating, translators have to take this aesthetic effect into consideration, trying to present a kind of translation which can express the same interpersonal meaning in the original one.

In operative texts, both content and form are not so important compared to the extra-linguistic effect that the text is attempted to achieve. In order to bring about the same reaction to the readers or audience, sometimes the content and the stylistic features of the original text might be changed (Bassnett, 1991).

Each text type is assumed to have many kinds of text genres, but one text genre does not always correlate with the only one text type. For example, a lover letter might be of the expressive type, a business letter would be informative, and a letter talking about complaint may belong to the operative type. So text genres are divided by conventional features, and their classification is very important in functional translation.

D. Appraisal Theory

Appraisal theory put forward by Matin is the new achievement in functional linguistics. The theory has great impact on linguistics and translation field both home and aboard. In recent years, there are lots of papers about the appraisal theory in seminars both home and aboard.

In *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, Halliday has pointed out the relation between language and its function. The field of discourse, tenor of discourse, and mode of discourse control the ideational function, interpersonal function and textual function respectively (Halliday, 1985). Halliday put more emphasis on the grammatical level such as mood and modality. Matin also points out that lexical expressions are also the important symbols of interpersonal meaning. It is important to recognize the connection between the grammatical expressions and the lexical expressions. Usually, the lexical expressions are more concrete, since they talk about the meaning of a word or phrase in a certain context. The grammatical expressions are usually general, since it sums up the grammatical usages of mood and modality. Such as the indicative mood is used to exchange of information. The imperative mood is used to exchange of goods and services, and the mood mostly talks about the probability and usuality. The research about lexical expressions has a very wide range, since every word can be the research object, while the research about the grammar is comparatively smaller, since the research objects in grammatical field are limited. But the information conveyed by the grammatical expression is much more than the information conveyed by vocabulary.

The appraisal theory is developed on the basis of functional linguistics. The most significant meaning of it is the study of interpersonal meaning in lexical level. The study of lexical expressions made up the limit of research only about grammar. The appraisal theory not only expanded the range of interpersonal meaning in functional grammar, but also has a great influence on language teaching, especially on the improvement of students writing ability. The study about lexical expressions also provides the guidelines for the choices of words in translation. Translators can be guided when they are doing the translation work, and the translation work can be judged by the theory.

To evaluate translation, the ideational and interpersonal meaning should be analyzed. Whether the translation is good or not depends on the transfer of the ideational meaning and interpersonal meaning. Because the translation would certainly be influenced by the features and the cultural background of the target language, the organization of textual meaning sometimes is different with the source language. Because the quite different two systems, the difference in organization of textual meaning sometimes is necessary and this alone cannot be used to criticize the unfaithfulness of the translation.

According to theory of functional linguistics, the language unit should be discourse. Translation, as the transfer of languages between cultures, is no exception. To describe or explain the translation process, the suitable way should take the perspective of discourse as well. The quality appraisal system of translation, which can be used to judge whether the translation is equivalent from the perspective of function, should base its theory on the discourse.

How do we judge if the target language has achieved the equivalence in ideational meaning and interpersonal meaning? According to the analysis of language behavior in functional grammar, the language people use to communicate with each other is a framework composed by form, function and context. The relation among the three is: the context determines the form, and the form becomes a kind of context as well. The form expresses function and

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meaning, so the function and meaning are carried out by form. The analysis of language should start from context, so does the evaluation of translation. To evaluate translation, the first step is to analyze the context and form of the source language. In this way, the meaning of the source language can be clear. Using the same way, the context and meaning of the source language can be analyzed. Then if the translation is equivalent or not with the original one is clear.

Since textual meaning is much stressed in the translation process, the central problem translation criticism focuses on the transfer of the discourse meaning of the original language, so the other minor factors that may also affect the transfer of meaning might be overlooked. In fact, faithfulness not only refers to the meaning of the source language, the target language, translation motivation, the application of the translation and the readers of the target language should also be the factors that are taken into consideration when evaluating the translation. If translation analysis is only based on the translation alone, in other words, to compare source language and target language statically is very likely to fall into a closed mechanic criticism mode, and the criticism would be not persuasive. The analysis of translation process from the perspective of form, function and context and put the translation into the framework of all the communication factors, then the evaluation would be more reasonable. To judge whether the translation is faithful or not depends not only on textual meaning, but also the minor factors such as the features of target language, the social and cultural environment. On the basis of these analyses, the number of places in the translation that are not equivalent can be calculated, and these data is the basis to judge whether the translation is faithful or not. The analysis based on the data is more scientific and can provide concrete way to conduct the evaluation of the translation. From another perspective, translators can follow these guidelines to do the translation process. While doing translation work, translator always bear in mind that the minor factors such as the features of target language, the social and cultural background are all the elements to be taken into consideration to present an ideal translation work.

Any text consists of uncountable units of information, and these units of information are in different levels. They are different in their position. And different languages have different language construction modes and different cultural background, so it is quite difficult to transfer the one hundred percent meaning from the source text to the target text. In other words, equivalence is impossible to achieve. The problem that translation theory needs to solve is to let the information reduction to its lowest point. If information is not lost from the process of translating or lost as little as possible, then the meaning is transmitted to its utmost, and the translation should be the ideal one.

Since the information units are not at the same level in their importance, translators' most important task is to guarantee that the main information unit that is carried by the original should be transmitted to the target language. Even if the other information units that are in the unimportant position cannot be transmitted totally, the main information unit should be transferred clearly. In order to achieve this aim, translators must put emphasis on the whole textual meaning, instead of paying much attention to the equivalence of every word and sentence. Sometimes translators can omit, combine or reconstruct some information units that are impossible to translate. So the equivalence of the source text and the target text can be classified into two types. The first type is the necessary equivalence, that is to say, the translation must transfer the equivalent meaning in the target language, otherwise it will not be called translation. The second is the optional equivalence, the equivalence that translators choose according to the context. Which aspect should achieve equivalence, or which aspect cannot or there is no need to get the equivalence can be in the hands of translators. Because of this, different translators, different translation context will cause different choices. Contextual factors are so important to evaluate any translation. Only on the basis of contextual factors can the evaluation be scientific and persuasive.

E. Translation Criticism

Translation criticism is one of the central subject of study in translation theory research field. Since translation evaluation is the basis of translation criticism, the research about the translation evaluation appears more important. Researchers can choose the different aspects and interest to begin their study. Such as from the research on the principles and approaches about translation theory, researchers can make a summary about the present study in this field and arrive at the conclusion on the level of philosophy. On the other hand, researchers can choose a certain type of text and make evaluation just on this certain type. This can be classified into the study of translation practice rather than the study of theory. But to make scientific study, both the theory and practice field are important. However, some of the parameters in the book are not so scientific and the procedures are too simple, and the whole assessment system has only the upward direction. Moreover, her study is based on the translation of English to German. To apply it in the translation of English to Chinese is not so reasonable.

Since too many factors have to be taken into consideration to evaluate translation work, it is very hard to render a scientific and comprehensive system. To construct a comprehensive and scientific and practical evaluation system is even more difficult. Although there are many studies about this field, the result is not that satisfying. In German Translation theorist House's *Translation quality Assessment*, She used the theories on functional linguistics and discourse analysis to analyze the eight types of English to German translation. She presented a set of comparatively scientific system and procedure. It is the first translation assessment system and started the research in this field.

Taking equivalence as her basis, Reiss develops a model of translation criticism based on the functional relationship between source and target texts. According to Reiss, the ideal translation would be one "in which the aim in the target language is equivalence as regards the conceptual content, linguistic form and communicative function of a source language text. She refers to this kind of translation as integral communicative performance.(Nord, 2001,P.9)

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Because Reiss herself is an experienced translator, having finished many translations from Spanish into German. From her own translating experience, she found that real life sometimes gives situation where equivalence is not possible, and in some cases, the equivalence is not desired. In many situations, it is impossible for translators to offer the same amount and the same kind of information as the source-text can produce. Translators will use another form to offer another kind of information. Translators have their own assumption of the readers or audiences need, expectations, or the knowledge they already have, and so on. The new assumptions made by the translators must be different from those made by the original writers, since the source language addressees and the target language addresses are in quite different cultures and language communities. So equivalence is definitely not the only and feasible standard to do the criticism in translation work. This view directly challenges the traditional concept of equivalence as the standard of translation. For the occasion that equivalence is not desired, the reason is that the target text is intended to achieve a purpose or function other than that of the original. Such as adapting a prose text for the stage, translating Shakespeare's plays for foreign-language classes, or providing word-for-word translations of an Arabic poem intended to serve as a basis for a free rendering by an English poet who does not know the source language. A further exception is when the target text addresses an audience different form the intended readership of the original.

F. Intentionality, Acceptability and Informativity

Communication has certain intention to achieve. The speaking and writing in its context convey kind of intention the speaker or writer wants to fulfill, such as making an order or request, expressing certain feeling, etc. This is called intentionality in the discourse level. From the relation of function and form, different function requires different form to convey the meaning. Such as greeting, making a declaration, or presenting a speech have quite different forms. On the other hand, from the perspective of the relation between textual structure and intentionality, the differences are apparent. The relation between discourse structure and intentionality in instruction pamphlet, patent book or legal regulations is more direct, while in some literary style, such as in poems, the discourse structure and the intention the poet wants to express is not that clear. From the perspective of communication process, language realize its function through the code and decode between the sender and the receiver and intentionality is the term from the angle of speaker or writer. To understand the intentionality would certainly help the better transfer of meaning in translation.

Acceptability is a term from the angle of the receiver. If the intention of the speaker or writer wants to express in the original text cannot be decoded and accepted by the receiver, then the communication will fail. So in order to make the communication smooth, the discourse made by the sender must be acceptable and can be decoded by the receiver. Although sometimes because of the complexity of context and social differences, the intention accepted by the receiver may not the same as the intention the sender wants to convey.

Informativity is another important nature in discourse analysis. Informativity means the content, information and knowledge the discourse conveys. If the content in the discourse is totally new to the receiver, then the degree of informativity is high, and the receiver may have greater interest, otherwise, the interest may be low. But if the informativity is too high, that is to say, the receiver has a lot of difficulty in understanding it, then the readability is low. Translator should take this into consideration . To make the translation which has high informativity readable and understandable, translators have to add some explanation in the notes or provide the reader some background information.

G. Translation Errors

According to the theory of functionalism, the notion of translation error must be defined in terms of the intention of the text and translation process. Error means the meaning of the original text is not expressed in the target text. Errors can be classified into such types as offense against the function, or against the coherence, or against the text type or not in accordance with the cultural conventions. "A particular expression is not adequate in itself; it only becomes adequate with regard to the communicative function it was supposed to achieve" (Nord, 2001, P.73). Knowledge about error and error type can help training translators. According to the study, students make fewer linguistic mistakes if they know clearly the situation for which they are translating. If translators don't know the purpose of translating, they cannot imagine who is addressing, they will be confined to the source-text sentence structure. In other words, they have no clear direction towards the target text. The less they know about the intention of the translation, the more likely they make mistakes. Knowing the situation and cultural factors in the target language is important, the knowledge of translators own cultural background is even more important. Because if we want to translate in an adequate way, there must be certain type of comparison between the two languages an d cultures. "To do this, we have to replace our intuitive behavior patterns with conscious knowledge of our cultural specificity" (Nord, 2001, P79).

III. Conclusion

Meaning is probably the most complex term in linguistics, and because of the complexity of meaning, the nature of translation becomes difficult to define. It has been proved through the history that the theory about meaning in functionalism is more scientific than other schools. It divides meaning into the three parts and every part has its own system. This paper takes the interpersonal meaning as the subject of study.

In functional linguistics, the study of meaning serves for the analysis of discourse. A successful discourse has to

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accomplish two tasks: one is to find the right form to express the meaning. As to the interpersonal meaning, it is to choose the suitable ways to express the sentiment or attitude of the speaker or writer. The second is that the choices should be defined by the context factors. The first task is the internal requirement and the second one external requirement. The theory of functionalism is more scientific than the theory of formalism because it pays more attention to the contextual factors. Translation is closely connected to discourse, so a successful translation should also accomplish the two tasks: first, it should meet the internal requirement of meaning, and second it should also meet the external requirement of context. Translation is the transmission of language meaning in use, so the study of translation should adhere to the environment the language is in. Context is one of the crucial factors to decide the translation strategy.

The nature of translation and the nature of the functional linguistics have some agreements on their attention of context, and in recent years, many scholars have applied the theory of functional linguistics to the theory of translation. This paper also tries to connect the functional linguistics with the translation theory.

On the basis of the structure given by functional linguistics, the writer has explored the mood system and modality system of English and Chinese and finished the papers on the topics "*Typology and the Translation of Interpersonal Meaning*""*Lexical ways of expressing interpersonal meaning and translation strategy"* and "*Rhetorical Ways of Interpersonal Meaning and Translation Strategy*". By studying the interpersonal meaning in English and Chinese, the similarities and differences between the two languages can be found, and this is helpful to the translation. In the papers, the writer tries to explore the relation between typology and interpersonal meaning. It takes some styles as examples, and tries to get the conclusion that different style and different intention of the original texts have different ways of expressing interpersonal meaning, so this requires translators to fully understand the type and its intention before translating. The insight into the relationship of form and function becomes the basic procedure in the interpersonal analysis of discourse within the theory of register. Text typology involving genre analysis, which can help translators develop strategies that facilitate their work and provide satisfactory translation.

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Noun Phrase or Compound Noun? An Investigation of N + A and N + N Boundary Cases in Persian

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***Abstract*—The present study seeks to investigate the demarcation between noun phrases (NPs) and compound nouns (CNs) in Persian at the syntax-morphology interface. This objective is accomplished through the examination of two most complex nominal patterns, viz. N + A, N + N, with special focus on boundary cases, i.e. the intermediate constructs which possess some properties of both NPs and CNs simultaneously and thus demonstrate contradictory reactions to the various NP-CN demarcation criteria. The results indicate that boundary cases ensue from partial syntactic erosion of NPs through pure lexicalization, whereby NPs turn into CNs without center-switching or category change. This study also shows that almost all boundary cases have no potential for syntactic modification of their elements. It is further demonstrated that N + A and N + N boundary cases are endocentric, head-initial constructs with optional or obligatory internal inflection as well as Ezafe. Syntactic modifiability is also introduced as the most efficient NP-CN demarcation criterion in Persian since it is the first property lost in NP lexicalization process.**

***Index Terms*—compound noun, noun phrase, demarcation criteria, lexicalization, syntactic erosion**

I. Introduction

One of the differences between traditional grammars and modern linguistic theories resides in a modular approach to the study of language. This approach advocates the separation of autonomous language modules as syntax, semantics, phonology and morphology (see Chomsky, 1957, 1965, 1975, 1980, 1981, 1986; Fodor, 1983, 1989; Newmeyer, 1983). Chomsky's generative grammar, for instance, has always been faithful to this modular approach (Dabir-Moghaddam, 1999).

The autonomy of language modules, however, does not mean that the interactions and interfaces among these modules should be neglected. Each one of these modules enjoys an independent systematic structure, while retaining interfaces with other modules at the same time. Ultimately, the modules of language have mutual impacts upon one another.

When it comes to the interface between morphology and syntax, as Booij (2005) argues, one important issue that must be addressed is word-phrase demarcation. The main concern here is to determine when a multi-morphemic sequence is a word and when it functions as a phrase.

The present study deals with syntax-morphology interface in Persian as far as word-phrase demarcation in nominal constructs is concerned. An interesting phenomenon in Persian is the existence of nominal constructs which seem to have a hybrid nature, reflecting characteristics of both CNs and NPs simultaneously. This study aims to examine these hybrid constructs, referred to as boundary cases, and seeks to assess and analyze various demarcation criteria in order to provide the most effective ones to distinguish NPs from CNs in Persian.

II. Word-phrase Demarcation Criteria

Among the studies conducted on word-phrase demarcation, one can find a variety of criteria, the most important of which will be reviewed in this section.

Katamba (1993) considers compound word as a word which consists of at least two bases that can each stand as an independent word elsewhere. He explains the fact that orthographic conventions are not much helpful in distinguishing between compound words and phrases. He argues further that English spelling does not have a uniform set of conventions, so that even linguists such as Rohrer (1974), Aronoff (1976) and Bauer (1983) may differ in their spellings of the term "word formation".

Katamba also addresses phonological criteria and explicates 'accent subordination' in Bloomfield's view (Bloomfield, 1933). He maintains that accent subordination is a useful criterion; however, it does not apply to all compound words, as Marchand (1969) asserts.

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He then elaborates on the concept of 'listeme', as explained by Di Sciullo and Williams (1987), and argues that words have to be listed in the lexicon since they have idiosyncratic properties which are not subject to general principles, so native speakers have to memorize them. In contrast, syntactic phrases, which are formed and analyzed on the basis of given rules, need not be listed in the lexicon. Nevertheless, Katamba rejects 'listedness' as the one and only criterion to differentiate between compound words and phrases. Katamba then mentions the semantic criterion of 'compositionality' and states that the less compositional the nature of a linguistic form is, the more likely it is for this form to be listed.

In Katamba's view, the main distinction between compound words and phrases lies in the fact that the internal structure of compound words, whatever form it may have, is inaccessible to syntactic rules and these rules, which operate at the level of phrase, do not act on words. This approach, known as 'lexicalist hypothesis', has been adopted by Chomsky (1970), Anderson (1988) and Williams (1981) as well.

Booij (2005) asserts that the distinction between compound words and phrases is not always easy to establish owing to two reasons: the similar labeling function that both of them can perform and their close similarity as a result of the historical derivation of compound patterns from phrasal word combinations.

Booij holds that the most significant wordhood criterion is 'lexical integrity'. Following Anderson (1992), Booij defines this principle as below:

'The syntax neither manipulates nor has access to the internal form of words'

In fact, this principle appears to make a claim similar to that of 'lexicalist hypothesis' mentioned above. Now a prominent question arises as to the implications and consequences of lexical integrity. One of these implications, according to Booij, is that inflectional rules, which are governed by syntax, cannot apply to the internal elements of words. In fact, words cannot have internal inflection. Another consequence of this principle is that the elements within a compound word cannot be independently modified by means of modifiers. A third corollary of lexical integrity is the inseparability of the compound elements. Therefore, a multi-morphemic sequence is a phrase if its constituents can be separated.

Apart from lexical integrity, Booij points out the phonological criterion of stress and explains that compound words of A + N structure take the main stress on their first constituent and A + N phrases have it on their second. Booij also enumerates semantic criteria such as semantic idiosyncrasy, yet he does not consider them to be as effective and helpful as formal criteria.

In his analysis of separable complex verbs in Dutch, Blom (2005) refers to lexical integrity as discussed by Lapointe (1980) and Bresnan and Mchombo (1995) and emphasizes constituent inseparability and inaccessibility to syntactic rules on the part of compound words. He recognizes constituent separability of Dutch complex verbs as the major reason against regarding them as compound words. It seems that lexical integrity is the most crucial criterion for word-phrase demarcation in Blom's view.

Haspelmath (2002) also mentions the criterion of lexical integrity, but discusses the challenges and counterexamples as well. Under the topic of noun incorporation, he maintains that in some languages like Southern Tiwa verbs agree with the incorporated nouns. Agreement is a syntactic rule, so this case exemplifies the intrusion of syntactic rules into word boundary. He also points to some other languages like Greenlandic Eskimo, in which the incorporated noun has unincorporated modifiers.

In a number of studies in Persian, the issue of word-phrase demarcation has been addressed directly or indirectly. Bateni (1994), who employs the Scale and Category framework in the description of Persian, first provides a structural definition of NP. It is in the explanation of NP constituents that he is confronted by the problem of NP versus CN. Bateni states that it is sometimes difficult to distinguish between prefix + base and pre-modifier + head constructs because they lie somewhere between the two poles. He then proposes a continuum with the two constructs at the extreme points and intermediate instances in between.

Afrashi (2010) examines morphosyntactic constructs in Persian at the syntax-morphology interface. She regards these constructs as morphological units of compound or derived-compound type which have a syntactic relation between their constituents. Each such construct is named after its syntactic head. Subjective, objective, Ezafe, attributive, appositive, complement, adverbial, conjunctive and numerical compounds are described as different forms of morphosyntactic constructs.

Meshkatod Dini (2002) defines compound word as a word composed of two lexical morphemes. He then attempts to present various compounding patterns in Persian. He also explicates the structure of different phrases. However, he does not elaborate on the demarcation of compound words and phrases.

Shaghaghi (2012) lists four differences and five similarities between compound words and phrases. The first difference relates to the constructional restrictions on compounding. It is not possible to form compounds with all potential bases. Such limitations do not exist in the case of phrases. The second difference has to do with lexical integrity. Shagaghi explains that no syntactic or inflectional elements can be added between bases in compound words. The third one pertains to the feature of compositionality in case of phrases, while compounds do not enjoy such a characteristic. The last distinction is connected with the concept of head. She claims that compounds may lack head and if there is one, it takes all the derivational and inflectional affixes. In a phrase, however, there is always a head which takes inflectional affixes.

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As to the similarities between compounds and phrases, Shaghaghi asserts that both have constituent structure, which means a new constituent can be added to the old ones. The second similarity concerns the relation between elements in a compound and a phrase. Head-modifier and verb-argument relations as well as coordinate structure can be found in both compounds and phrases. As the third one, Shaghaghi maintains that compounds and phrases both consist of two or more simple or complex words. The fourth likeness relates to the fact that some compounds may enjoy the feature of compositionality just like phrases. The final similarity in Shaghaghi's view is that endocentric compounds have heads like phrases.

III. NP-CN Demarcation in Persian

In Persian, there exists a multiplicity of patterns forming a large number of nominal constructs which are unambiguous in nature as they exhibit consistent results when NP-CN demarcation criteria are applied to them and thus are undoubtedly either CNs or NPs. However, there are boundary cases which react inconsistently to demarcation criteria and entail either ambiguous or even contradictory results.

In this section of the present study, we shall address ourselves to the demarcation of N + A and N + N NPs and CNs in Persian, the distinction of which is not always easy to establish, and the evaluation of the relevant criteria described in the literature. In doing so, particular attention will be paid to boundary cases and the theoretical implications thereof. In the forthcoming discussion, the morphological criterion of lexical integrity, the phonological criterion of stress and the semantic criterion of listedness as well as semantic idiosyncrasy will be considered. The authors will also propose other criteria, some of which are exclusively applicable to Persian.

N + A and N + N are the most complex nominal patterns as they can form constructs of profoundly different nature. They share the characteristic of forming both CNs and NPs. It seems that the CNs formed by these two patterns are derived from their respective NPs through the process of lexicalization, whereby NPs undergo **syntactic erosion** and lose their syntactic properties to become CNs. What contributes to the formation of boundary cases is the fact that this syntactic erosion is not always complete. **Partial syntactic erosion**, which refers to the loss of only some syntactic properties and the retention of some others, gives rise to the formation of hybrid constructs that partly enjoy the features of both NPs and CNs, hence demonstrating contradictory reactions to demarcation criteria. Through the analysis of these two patterns and the comparison of the constructs which they create, it is possible to have deeper insights into the nature of noun compounding process and the emergence of boundary cases in Persian. The in-depth investigation of the aforementioned patterns will follow.

A. The N + A Pattern

This pattern, which is very common in Persian, can create both NPs and CNs. The NPs have the structure of head (N) + post-modifier (A). The CNs, however, might be of two types: exocentric and endocentric. Each one of these structures will be reviewed in the following discussion.

1. N + A as NP

In order for N + A to be an NP, at least three conditions must hold true:

a. The existence of Ezafe between the two elements: in Persian, Ezafe (/-e/) necessarily occurs between head and nominal or adjectival post-modifiers. If N + A is to be an NP with the structure of head + post-modifier, Ezafe inevitably appears between them.

b. Internal inflection: in NPs, the head N is inflected independently of its modifiers. For instance, the plural affix (i.e. /hâ/ or /ân/) as an inflectional morpheme is directly added to the head N. In N + A NPs, only N can take the plural affix.

c. Syntactic modifiability: in NPs, both the head and its modifiers can take their own modifiers independently. For example, A as one modifier of N can have an ADV as its modifier. In N + A NPs, both elements can be expanded through their own modifiers.

In order to have a more profound understanding of the conditions above, we will analyze an instance of N + A NP in Persian. The example (1a) below is an NP consisting of N + A.

(1) a. gol-e ziba
flower-EZF beautiful
"a beautiful flower"

b. gol-hâ-ye ziba
flower-PL-EZF beautiful
"beautiful flowers"

c. *gol-e ziba-hâ

d. gol-e xošbu-ye besiyâr ziba
flower-EZF fragrant-EZF very beautiful
"a very beautiful, fragrant flower"

There is Ezafe between the head N and A, as can be seen in the phrase. (1b) is the only acceptable plural form of this phrase, where the plural affix /hâ/ is added to the N (/y/ is merely an intervening consonant that prevents the adjacency of two vowels). Note that the addition of plural affix to A leads to the ungrammatical string (1c). Also, it is possible to modify both N and A in this phrase, as in (1d).

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2. N + A as CN

Now we should consider the status of these three features (i.e. Ezafe, internal inflection, and syntactic modifiability) in the case of CNs.

a. Ezafe is a bound morpheme which occurs on the outermost layer of the word after all derivational and inflectional affixes and links a nominal or adjectival post-modifier to the head. In fact, it is found on word boundary. Therefore, CNs are not expected to have Ezafe inside them. This conclusion has some complexities, however. As will be seen in the remainder of the discussion, Ezafe shows a much more complicated behavior in the case of CNs than expected.

b. As CN is one word and must enjoy the feature of lexical integrity, the inflectional plural affix is not expected to enter its boundary. In fact, the N should not be independently pluralizable. This feature is referred to as 'no internal inflection'.

c. On the basis of the reason mentioned above with regard to lexical integrity, it is anticipated that the elements in CN will not be syntactically modifiable. This characteristic is called 'no syntactic modifiability'.

As stated before, the N + A pattern can form both exocentric and endocentric CNs. They demonstrate such distinct properties that they merit separate examination of their structure and formation. In the discussion below, each one of them will be analyzed separately.

A very common type of exocentric CNs formed by this pattern includes those cases which are generally known as 'bahuvrihi compounds'. Booij (2005) considers bahuvrihi compounds as a subset of exocentric compounds. The construct in (2) below is an example of such forms:

(2) a. češm-e siyâh (NP)
eye-EZF black
"a black eye"
b. češm siyâh (CN)
eye black
"a black-eyed person"
c. češm siyâh (CA)
eye black
"black-eyed"

The NP (2a) goes through the process of **center-switching** and is converted from an NP with the structure of head + post-modifier, which is inherently endocentric, into the N + A CN (2b), which is exocentric in this case. As a result of that, it loses the features of syntactic modifiability, internal inflection and Ezafe. The process of **category change** also affects this form and produces the compound adjective (2c) out of its respective CN. The authors would use the term **compound lexicalization** to refer to the process of lexicalization combined with center-switching or category change. The process described above is very productive in Persian and can be adopted in forming a large number of CNs. The CNs thus produced are not expected to bear any ambiguities in NP-CN demarcation due to two reasons: first, they lack Ezafe, which is a crucial element in NPs. Second, they are exocentric, whereas NPs are inherently endocentric. Owing to these two sharp distinctions, the N + A exocentric CNs and their respective NPs are easily distinguished.

The N + A pattern also creates endocentric CNs. The example (3a) below is one such CN:

(3) a. kâr dasti (CN)
work manual
"(children's) handicraft"
b. kâr dasti-hâ
work manual-PL
"(children's) handicrafts"
c. *kâr-hâ-ye dasti
d. kâr dasti-ye zibâ
work manual-EZF beautiful
"(children's) beautiful handicraft"
e. *kâr-e zibâ-ye dasti
f. kâr-e dasti (NP)
work-EZF manual
"work done by hand"

Showing no capacity for internal inflection (3b vs. 3c) and syntactic modifiability (3d vs. 3e) and lacking Ezafe, this form appears to result from the lexicalization of the NP (3f) into a CN via the process of complete syntactic erosion.

3. N + A Boundary Cases

A large number of N + A endocentric constructs, however, display a rather unusual property, i.e. they have optional Ezafe, contrary to the expectations about CNs. This means that they can appear both with and without Ezafe. The example in (4a) represents this class of constructs:

(4) a. čerâq(-e) râhnamâ
light-EZF guiding
"traffic light"

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b. čerâq-hâ-ye râhnamâ
light-PL-EZF guiding
"traffic lights"
c. čerâq râhnamâ-hâ
light guiding-PL
"traffic lights"
d. čerâq râhnamâ-ye bozorg
light guiding-EZF big
"a big traffic light"
e. *čerâq-e bozorg-e râhnamâ

Along with this feature, they also enjoy another odd characteristic which seems to be closely connected to the status of Ezafe inside them. They have the feature of **double inflection**, which enables them to receive plural affix in two positions: between the N and the A as internal inflection, like NPs (in 4b), and at the end of the construct after the A, like CNs (in 4c). It should be noted that the N in such constructs does not have the capacity for independent syntactic modification (4d vs. 4e).

As shown above, such constructs bear contradictory features: while they exhibit optionality with regard to Ezafe and internal inflection, their elements are not syntactically modifiable. These are the boundary cases which look both like NPs and CNs simultaneously.

Still more intriguing are those endocentric constructs which appear to have obligatory Ezafe. (5a) below represents one such form:

(5) a. sag-e ʔâbi
dog-EZF aquatic
"beaver"
b. sag-hâ-ye ʔâbi
dog-PL-EZF aquatic
"beavers"
c. *sag-e ʔâbi-hâ
d. sag-e ʔâbi-ye kučak
dog-EZF aquatic-EZF small
"a small beaver"
e. *sag-e kučak-e ʔâbi

This construct must be a CN owing to semantic idiosyncrasy and listedness, but it is extremely interesting that this form, unlike other forms discussed so far, has obligatory internal inflection (5b vs. 5c). On the basis of this fact, it is expected to be an NP. On the other hand, the criterion of syntactic modifiability seems to verify its CN status (5d vs. 5e).

Such constructs form another group of intermediate structures between NPs and CNs. Whereas they enjoy Ezafe and internal inflection like NPs, they are also similar to CNs in that their elements are not apt for independent syntactic modification.

The last two types of construct (i.e. endocentric N + A forms with optional or obligatory Ezafe) seem to have derived from their corresponding NPs through the process of partial syntactic erosion, whereby only some syntactic properties are lost while the rest remain unchanged.

B. The N + N Pattern

The N + N pattern is by far the most complex pattern in terms of variety in the constructs which it forms. Like N + A, this pattern can create both NPs and CNs. The NPs are composed of head (N) + post-modifier (N). It must be noted that an N can never function as pre-modifier in an NP in Persian; therefore, the N + N NPs cannot be of the type pre-modifier (N) + head (N). The CNs formed on the basis of this pattern fall into two categories: exocentric and endocentric. What adds to the complexity of this pattern is that endocentric constructs are also divided up into two groups: head-initial and head-final. Below is a detailed discussion of the various constructs formed by this pattern.

1. N + N as NP

In order to count as an NP, a given N + N construct requires the same three conditions that were stipulated for N + A forms, namely obligatory Ezafe, internal inflection and syntactic modifiability of the constituent elements. As an instance of this pattern, the NP (6a) below can be considered:

(6) a. divâr-e ʔotâq
wall-EZF room
"the wall of the room"
b. divâr-hâ-ye ʔotâq
wall-PL-EZF room
"the walls of the room"
c. divâr-e boland-e ʔotâq-e bozorg
wall-EZF high-EZF room-EZF big
"the high wall of the big room"

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This form consists of N + N. As can be seen, there exists the element of Ezafe between the two parts, which is obligatory. The plural form of this phrase is shown in (6b), in which the plural affix /hâ/ is added to the first noun, which is the head. Both nouns in this phrase can be expanded through modifiers on their own, as in (6c).

2. N + N as CN

Just like N + A CNs, N + N CNs are not expected to have Ezafe, internal inflection and independent syntactic modifiability, owing to the same reasons elaborated on in the previous section about the N + A pattern. It was stated earlier that both exocentric and endocentric CNs might be formed based on this pattern. Endocentric CNs in this pattern are also classified into two categories of head-initial and head-final constructs. These diverse forms will be examined one by one in the following parts.

The exocentric N + N CNs all share the features of "no syntactic modifiability" as well as "no internal inflection", in accord with our expectations. However, Ezafe does not appear to act consistently in such constructs. There are exocentric CNs that may have optional or even obligatory Ezafe. To gain more profound insights into such forms, we will analyze one instance, i.e. the form in (7a).

(7) a. pomp-(e) benzin (CN)
pump-EZF gasoline
"gas station"
b. pomp-(e) benzin-hâ/
pump-EZF gasoline-PL
"gas stations"
c. *pomp-hâ-ye benzin
d. pomp-(e) benzin-e bozorg
pump-EZF gasoline-EZF big
"a big gas station"
e. *pomp-e bozorg-e benzin
f. pomp-e benzin (NP)
pump-EZF gasoline
"gas pump"

This form may optionally contain Ezafe. The phonological criterion of stress or juncture does not apply here as there is no difference between an NP and a CN in terms of these two features in this case. As far as semantic criterion of listedness is concerned, it seems that this form enjoys the characteristic of semantic idiosyncrasy and must thus be listed in the lexicon. However, Booij (2005) considers formal criteria to be superior to semantic criteria. Now we should see the consequences of the most important word-phrase demarcation criterion, i.e. lexical integrity. First, the form is tested for internal inflection. If the plural affix /hâ/ is added to the end of the construct after the second element, the well-formed construct (7b) results. However, if it is inserted after the first element, an ungrammatical string is formed (i.e. 7c). This shows that /pomp-(e) benzin/ in the sense of 'gas station' is a CN as it has no internal inflection. Apart from internal inflection, this form can be tested for syntactic modifiability. If the adjective /bozorg/ ("big") is added to the end of the construct (as in 7d), the result is grammatical; but if it is put after the first element (as in 7e), the result is an ill-formed construct, which indicates the feature of no syntactic modifiability for this form. It leaves no doubt that /pomp-(e) benzin/ meaning 'gas station' is a CN. There is a crucial point about this example that must be carefully noted. When this construct is used as an NP (i.e. 7f), it has a different meaning (i.e. 'gas pump'). In this case, both (7c) and (7d) are grammatical because they are NPs, which of course have internal inflection and syntactic modifiability of their elements. Needless to say that they do not have the meaning of 'gas station' anymore. It seems that (7a) as a CN has derived from (7f) as an NP through compound lexicalization, whereby the process of center-switching has turned this form from an endocentric NP into an exocentric CN. As we have already seen in the case of exocentric N + A CNs, this process obliterates the syntactic features of an NP all together (i.e. internal inflection and syntactic modifiability) and transforms it into a CN at once. Under such circumstances, Ezafe appears to lose its grammatical function and turn into a kind of morphological element, i.e. a linker. What remains a question, however, is the reason for the optionality of Ezafe. This issue will be addressed later in the discussion.

It is also possible to find exocentric CNs which include obligatory Ezafe. (8a) is one such form.

(8) a. marg-e muš (CN)
death-EZF rat
"raticide"
b. marg-e muš-hâ
death-EZF rat-PL
"raticides"
c. *marg-hâ-ye muš
d. marg-e muš-e qavi
death-EZF rat-EZF strong
"strong raticide"
e. *marg-e qavi-ye muš

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f. marg-e muš (NP)
death-EZF rat
"rat's death"

Semantic idiosyncrasy verifies the status of this form as a CN. Lexical integrity confirms this fact as well. This construct has no internal inflection (as seen in 8b vs. 8c) and the first element is not syntactically modifiable (as seen in 8d vs. 8e). On account of these two criteria, there is no doubt that (8a) in the sense of 'raticide' is a CN. This form seems to have gone through a process similar to that of (7a). (8a) as an exocentric CN derives from (8f) as an endocentric NP through compound lexicalization, which involves center-switching. As a result, the original NP loses its syntactic properties, namely internal inflection and syntactic modifiability, and is transformed into a CN, where Ezafe also loses its grammatical function and turns into a linker. This example indicates that Ezafe is by no means a decisive criterion for NP status and CNs might appear with the element of Ezafe. The reason for the existence of Ezafe in CNs will be investigated in a forthcoming section of the present study.

As discussed earlier, the N + N pattern can be adopted to form endocentric CNs, which are realized in two different structures, namely head-final and head-initial constructs. Head-final constructs are by no means similar to NPs since they have their heads as the second element in the structure, whereas NPs are head-initial. Consequently, it is most unlikely that boundary cases can be found among head-final constructs. Head-initial constructs, on the other hand, are similar to NPs in that both of them have their heads as the first element in the structure. Due to this close resemblance, these constructs are expected to exhibit more complexity and challenge as far as the delicate issue of NP-CN demarcation is concerned. This is the area where boundary cases are most likely to appear. In the next part of the discussion, each one of the endocentric N + N CNs will be discussed in more detail.

Head-final CNs are those in which the second N plays the part of the head. One example of such words is given below:

(9) a. ketâb xâne
book house
"library"
b. ketâb xâne-hâ
book house-PL
"libraries"
c. *ketâb- hâ xâne
d. *ketâb-e târixi xâne (/târixi/ "historical")

On account of the fact that a noun can only function as a post-modifier in an NP, but not a pre-modifier, the N + N construct can be an NP only if it is head-initial, i.e. N (head) + N (post-modifier). Consequently, the above-mentioned head-final construct can never have a corresponding phrase in syntax and thus it is not likely to be the result of lexicalization. It appears to be based on a noun compounding pattern that is morphological, rather than syntactic. In view of the arguments above, there is virtually no doubt that (9a) must be classed as CN. What confirms this conclusion further is the fact that this form lacks Ezafe, which is an indispensable feature of NPs. The criteria of internal inflection and syntactic modifiability obviously show that this construct is a CN (see 9c and 9d above). It should be noted that, on the whole, head-final N + N is a highly productive pattern for noun compounding in Persian.

In head-initial CNs, as the name suggests, the head appears at the onset of the construct. These head-initial forms correspond to N (head) + N (post-modifier) in NPs. A good illustration of such CNs is (10a) below:

(10) a. surat hesâb (CN)
statement account
"financial statement"
b. surat hesâb-hâ
statement account-PL
"financial statements"
c. *surat-hâ-ye hesâb
d. surat hesâb-e mâhiyâne
statement account-EZF monthly
"monthly financial statement"
e. *surat-e mâhiyâne-ye hesâb
f. surat-e hesâb (NP)
statement-EZF account
"the statement of an account"

As can be seen in this example, it does not have Ezafe. In this construct, internal inflection cannot be observed (10b vs. 10c). Also, this form does not have the feature of syntactic modifiability (10d vs. 10e). On the basis of the foregoing argument, it is evident that this form is a CN. It was derived from (10f) as an NP via the process of pure lexicalization involving complete syntactic erosion, in which all the three syntactic properties of Ezafe, internal inflection and syntactic modifiability vanish all together, transforming the NP into a CN.

3. N + N Boundary Cases

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Not all head-initial constructs are as straightforward as the above example. As a case in point, (11a) below can be reviewed:

(11) a. modir(-e) kol
manager-EZF general
"general manager"
b. modir-hâ-ye kol (or modir-ân-e kol)
manager-PL-EZF general manager-PL-EZF general
"general managers"
c. modir-(e) kol-hâ
manager-EZF general-PL
d. modir-(e) kol-e mehrabân
manager-EZF general-EZF kind
"a kind general manager"
e. *modir-e mehrabân-e kol
f. modir-e kol (NP)
manager-EZF general
"general manager"

It has optional Ezafe and may be equally used in both forms by Persian speakers. Moreover, this construct enjoys the feature of double inflection and plural affix might be added in two positions without any alteration in meaning (see 11b and 11c). The presence of Ezafe and the potential for internal inflection makes this form more similar to an NP. However, syntactic modifiability test in this case demonstrates that this form behaves more like a CN in spite of internal inflection and Ezafe inside it. If the adjective /mehrabân/ ("kind") is used to expand /modir/ as the first N in the construct, which would be the head if the construct were an NP, the result is ill-formed (see 11e). The only acceptable form is (11d). It is now clear that this construct is a boundary case which shows contradictory results when different NP-CN criteria are applied. The evidence discussed above indicates that this construct was derived from the NP through the process of pure lexicalization which involves partial syntactic erosion. As a result of this process, syntactic modifiability disappears entirely, but Ezafe and internal inflection become optional, leading to the characteristic of double inflection in the construct.

There are also head-initial constructs which contain obligatory Ezafe, contrary to the typical instances of CNs. One such form is (12a):

(12) a. mahd-e kudak
cradle-EZF child
"kindergarten"
b. mahd-hâ-ye kudak
cradle-PL-EZF child
"kindergartens"
c. mahd-e kudak-hâ
cradle-EZF child-PL
"kindergartens"
d. mahd-e kudak-e bozorg
cradle-EZF child-EZF large
"a large kindergarten"
e. *mahd-e bozorg-e kudak
f. mahd-e kudak (NP)
cradle-EZF child
"child's cradle"

It has Ezafe as an indispensable element without which this form can never be used. Semantically speaking, this form must be listed in the lexicon as it refers to a certain childcare facility and thus it enjoys semantic idiosyncrasy. This fact proves it to be a CN. However, lexical integrity yields contradictory results. While this construct has double inflection (12b and c), its first element does not take independent modifiers (12d vs. 12e). It seems that this construct is the consequence of partial syntactic erosion in the process of pure lexicalization of the NP (12f), which gives rise to the retention of Ezafe, the emergence of double inflection and the loss of syntactic modifiability.

An important question should now be addressed about the odd behavior of Ezafe in CNs beyond usual expectations. As mentioned in the previous discussions, Ezafe has three different states in nominal constructs: obligatory Ezafe, optional Ezafe and total exclusion of Ezafe. It was explained that NPs have obligatory Ezafe. In lexicalization, Ezafe is expected to undergo syntactic erosion and disappear entirely. Therefore, the absence of Ezafe in a nominal form means that lexicalization has been completed and a CN has been formed, as in (10a). In nominal constructs without Ezafe, internal inflection and syntactic modifiability cannot be observed (e.g. 10b vs. 10c and 10d vs. 10e). This does not always happen, however. In several cases, Ezafe remains in the construct as an obligatory or optional element. It is often argued that phonological limitations prevent the omission of Ezafe (Shaghaghi, 2012). For instance, the

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occurrence of obligatory Ezafe in /toxm-e morq/ (/toxm/ "egg", /morq/ "hen"; chicken egg) and /taxt-e xâb/ (/taxt/ "bed", /xâb/ "sleep"; bed) is due to phonological considerations in Persian and these forms are impossible or at least difficult to pronounce, so speakers either keep Ezafe or omit one phoneme to make the construct pronounceable, as in [toxm-e morq] or [tox-morq] (Shaghaghi, 2012). This is what actually happens in the case of /pomp-(e) benzin/ discussed earlier in this section (see 7a). This form is either pronounced as [pomp-e benzin] with Ezafe inside it, or as [pom benzin] without Ezafe involving the elision of final [p] in [pomp]. Here, two points should be noted, however. First, forms like (4a) and (11a), which both have optional Ezafe, are not affected by any phonological processes (e.g. elision) if they occur without Ezafe. The optionality of Ezafe in such cases indicates that the occurrence of this element cannot merely result from phonological considerations in Persian. If this were the case, Ezafe would have to appear in the construct as an obligatory element or its omission would be accompanied by the elision of a phoneme in the construct. Second, no phonological limitations are observed in some constructs with obligatory Ezafe. (5a) does not basically need Ezafe to be pronounceable since it could be pronounced as [sagâbi], instead of [sag-e ʔâbi], through the process of re-syllabification. Therefore, Ezafe is not a requisite element in this construct and could easily be removed. In spite of this fact, Ezafe is obligatory in this form. Consequently, the occurrence of Ezafe in non-NP constructs must have another reason apart from phonological motivations. Upon reviewing the data, one can easily notice the fact that such forms all have internal inflection. The interesting phenomenon here is that the state of optionality or obligatoriness of Ezafe coincides with that of internal inflection. The potential for internal inflection in these constructs shows that Ezafe has not totally lost its grammatical function and does not solely play the role of a linker, but rather a syntactic element which makes internal inflection possible. In sum, the occurrence of Ezafe in nominal constructs is determined by two factors: syntactic function and phonological limitations. That is why the interpretation of Ezafe and its behavior in lexicalization proves to be rather difficult. If there are no phonological limitations, Ezafe is closely connected with internal inflection in that obligatory Ezafe coincides with obligatory internal inflection, as in (12a), optional Ezafe corresponds with optional internal inflection, as in (11a), and the exclusion of Ezafe rules out the possibility of internal inflection, as in (10a). However, in case of phonological motivations, the occurrence of Ezafe is obligatory regardless of the state of internal inflection and its omission is possible only if it is accompanied by a phonological process like elision.

IV. Conclusion

There are several different criteria for the demarcation of NPs and CNs. Phonological criterion, semantic criterion and listedness, and the principle of lexical integrity with the axes of internal inflection and syntactic modifiability are among the existing criteria. Some criteria, such as Ezafe, are peculiar to Persian and may not be applicable to other languages.

In Persian, there are several various patterns which create a large number of nominal constructs, most of which appear to be unambiguous in their nature as to whether they are NPs or CNs because they exhibit consistent results in the application of different NP-CN demarcation criteria. However, there are boundary cases among these nominal constructs, whose real nature is rather ambiguous as they react inconsistently to the existing criteria of demarcation. N + A and N + N are two nominal patterns which create boundary cases in Persian. It should be noted that these two patterns also produce both NPs and CNs. Most CNs of these patterns are derived from their respective NPs through the process of lexicalization, which involves syntactic erosion whereby an NP gradually loses its syntactic properties and is transformed into a CN. This syntactic erosion may occur in two forms: partial and complete. In complete syntactic erosion, all syntactic features of an NP disappear and a CN with a full pack of its characteristics is formed. In partial syntactic erosion, however, only some of NP syntactic properties vanish and the rest remain intact. Lexicalization also has two types: compound and pure. The former is accompanied by center-switching or category change, while the latter is not. In compound lexicalization with center-switching, the construct turns from an endocentric NP into an exocentric CN. The process of center-switching causes the construct to lose syntactic modifiability and internal inflection all together and, in the absence of any phonological obligations, Ezafe will be eliminated, too. Therefore, compound lexicalization entails complete syntactic erosion, yet pure lexicalization may involve either complete or partial syntactic erosion. In pure lexicalization, the center of an NP will not be altered. In such cases, semantic idiosyncrasy and listedness may occur. This process leads to endocentric, often head-initial, constructs.

Boundary cases which are formed on the basis of the two aforementioned patterns seem to share certain properties. They are found where there is maximal likeness to NPs as far as syntactic properties are concerned. This close similarity stems from the process of pure lexicalization which involves partial syntactic erosion of NPs. This forms intermediate constructs on the NP-CN continuum between the two extreme points of NP and CN, which partly resemble either constructs while bearing differences with both of them at the same time. Persian data, as reviewed earlier in this study, demonstrate that boundary cases are endocentric, a feature which makes them rather more similar to NPs. In addition, these forms are all head-initial in the case of N + A and N + N constructs like their respective NPs. Furthermore, almost all boundary cases do not have the property of syntactic modifiability, like usual CNs. As to internal inflection, however, boundary cases demonstrate a different state, compared to ordinary CNs; they necessarily have either obligatory or optional internal inflection. In the former case, where internal inflection is obligatory like NPs, boundary cases appear to bear striking similarity to their corresponding NPs, with lack of syntactic modifiability being

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the only distinction between them. In the latter case, where constructs display optionality of internal inflection, the interesting phenomenon of double inflection arises, where a construct has two parallel plural forms with the same meaning and function: one similar to an NP with internal inflection and the other resembling a CN with final inflection. Another characteristic of N + A and N + N boundary cases is that they necessarily have Ezafe, whether it is obligatory or optional. This feature seems to be closely related to the presence of internal inflection: Ezafe co-occurs with the capacity for internal inflection in N + A and N + N patterns.

Among all criteria, the property of syntactic modifiability under lexical integrity can function as the most effective formal criterion for NP-CN demarcation since NPs seem to lose this characteristic in the early stages of lexicalization. Accordingly, almost all non-NP constructs share the feature of no syntactic modifiability. The test of internal inflection (pluralizability) in Persian bears only relative results since it works one-way. This means that if a form has no internal inflection, it is necessarily a CN, but no definite conclusion can be drawn if a form has internal inflection: a form with internal inflection might be either an NP or an intermediate construct on the NP-CN continuum. Ezafe has a similar status. Its absence from the construct is synonymous with the compound status of that construct, yet its presence does not prove anything as the construct might be an NP or an intermediate structure on the NP-CN continuum as well. It can even occur in a CN on account of phonological obligations. Therefore, the existence of Ezafe in a construct does not rule out the possibility of a CN at all.

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On Two Intractable English Poetic Elements*

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***Abstract*—Besides such readily acquired poetic techniques as meter, rhyme, syntactic inversion, imagery, tone etc., which are essential poetic features, a sound comprehension and appreciation of a large number of English poems also entails the proficient knowledge of screening of part of speech and semantic rejuvenation with regard to certain outwardly simple, actually capricious words residing in poems. While some flexibility is expected to exhibit in the process of deciding upon the correct part of speech of some elusive lexis shrouded in particular poetic milieu, an acquaintance with English etymology sometimes not only helps us arrive at the reasonable lexical sense, but also emanates for us a quaint and dainty poetic essence.**

***Index Terms*—transfer of part of speech, semantic rejuvenation, poetic comprehension and appreciation**

I. Introduction

Two particular cases need to be accorded special attention to in the comprehension and appreciation of English poems. i: rational transfer often occurs concerning the common part of speech of some lexis in the unusual poetic context. ii: the deciphering of some key words in poems has to trace back to their etymological senses.

II. Screening of Part of Speech

When trying to apprehend verses, due to their thin English proficiency and deficient knowledge of the multiple parts of speech characterized by some English words, some English novice tend to stick to the common parts of speech of some specific words and demonstrate little flexibility in determining the correct part of speech. More often than not, they fail to identify justifiably the right part of speech that plays a critical role in understanding poems.

A. Examples Cited from Matthew Arnold's and John Milton's Poems

"The Sea of Faith
Was once, too, at the full, and round earth's shore
Lay like the folds of a bright girdle furled" (Matthew Arnold, 1853, p67)

In the verse above, the usual roles played by "full" and "round" are modifying nouns as adjectives. Obviously, "at the full" is a prepositional phrase, so "full" here actually is a noun instead of an adjective, signifying: the maximum or complete size or amount; the highest degree or state. Likewise, it can be explicitly decided that "round" here acts as a preposition instead of an adjective.

e.g. "Me though just right, and the fixed laws of heaven,
Did first create your leader, next free choice……" (John Milton, 1667, p115)

In the two verses above, "just right" is liable to be mistaken as adverb modifying adjective. According to the concrete context, "just" should be understood as "righteous" (adjective) modifying "right"(power, noun).

B. Examples Cited from Several Keynote Metaphysical Poets' Poems

In "Air and Angels" (2002, p10) by John Donne, the most influential metaphysical poet, we read
"With wares which would sink admiration,
I saw, I had love's pinnace overfraught,
Every thy hair for love to work upon
Is much too much, some fitter must be sought;"(ibid.)

Here in "Is much too much", the first "much" is actually a noun, whereas the second "much" is an adverb modified by "too". Moreover, in "some fitter must be sought", "some" here is a pronoun instead of a determiner, which is equal to "something". Meanwhile, in this same poem, we read the following lines:

"Then as an angel, face and wings
Of air, not pure as it, yet pure doth wear,
So thy love may be my love's sphere;"(ibid.)

In the third line, the second "pure" is not an adjective as the first, it can best be understood as a noun, on a par with "purity".

Also, in "The Anniversary" (2002, p11) by John Donne, we have
"Two graves must hide thine and my corse,

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If one might, death were no divorce.
Alas, as well as other princes, we
(Who prince enough in one another be)" (ibid.)

Here "prince" in the parenthesis should be rightfully regarded as a verb, signifying "possessing the air, deportment and all the characteristics peculiar to a prince, to be princely."

In "Damon the Mower" (2002, p60) by Andrew Marvell, another keynote metaphysical poet,

"And, if at noon my toil me heat,
The sun himself licks off my sweat."(2002, p61)

Here "heat" might at first sight be mistaken as a noun. However, if restored to its normal order, the first line reads "And, if at noon my toil heat me", where "heat" should have been replaced by "heats", since grammatically, as a verb, it needs to correspond to its 3rd person singular subject "my toil". But the required rhyming scheme (Heat has to rhyme with sweat) precludes this grammatical regularity and reinforces this perceptive obscurity regarding the decision of the part of speech of "heat".

In "The Gallery"(2002, p65) also by Andrew Marvell,

"Divining thence, with horrid care,
How long thou shalt continue fair;
And (when inform'd) them throw'st away,
To be the greedy vulture's prey." (ibid.)

"Fair" here ceases to be an adjective,; instead, it functions as an infinitive, i.e. "to be fair".

Also in this poem, we have

"For thou alone to people me,
Art grown a num'rous colony;
And a collection choicer far
Than or Whitehall's, or Mantua's were."(ibid.)

"People" here apparently is not a plural noun as it used to be; rather, it is equivalent to the verb "accommodate" or "house".

In the poem "Mourning" (2002, p67) by Andrew Marvell,

"How wide they dream! The Indian slaves
That sink for pearl through seas profound,
Would find her tears yet deeper waves
And not of one the bottom sound."(2002, p68)

Instead of functioning as a noun, which may be unwarily mistaken to be, "sound" in the last line above actually represents itself as a verb, signifying "to present a particular impression".

In the poem "The Nymph Complaining for the Death of Her Fawn"(ibid.) by Andrew Marvell,

"This waxed tame, while he grew wild,
And quite regardless of my smart,
Left me his fawn, but took his heart."(2002, p69)

Instead of the usual adjectival role it plays, "tame" here should most appropriately be taken as a noun, which is equivalent to "a docile being"; likewise, "smart" here rarely functions as a noun, meaning "sharp mental or physical pain".

In Andrew Marvell's poem "Young Love",(2002, p75)

"So we win of doubtful fate;
And, if good she to us meant,
We that good shall antedate,
Or, if ill, that ill prevent."(ibid.)

"Good" and "ill" here are nouns instead of adjectives. They respectively signify "propitiousness; auspiciousness" and "ill and malicious omen".

In "A Dialogue between the Resolved Soul and Created Pleasure"(2002, p80) by Andrew Marvell,

"What friends, if to my self untrue?
What slaves, unless I captive you?"(2002, p82)

Here "captive", normally a noun or an adjective, is equivalent in function to "capture(a verb)".

In Andrew Marvell's "On a Drop of Dew",(2002, p85) we have

"How loose and easy hence to go:
How girt and ready to ascend." (ibid.)

Here the adjectives "loose", "easy" and "ready" all function as adverbs. "Loose" means "in a loose manner". "Easy" denotes "without haste or agitation", while "ready" equals to "readily".

In "Eyes and Tears" (ibid.) by Andrew Marvell,

"That, having view'd the object vain,
They might be ready to complain." (ibid.)

Here the adjective "vain" obviously functions as the adverb "vainly".

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Also in this poem, we have
"But finds the essence only showers,
Which straight in pity back he powers."(ibid.)
Apparently "powers" here denotes "empowers".
In "The British Church" by George Herbert, still another accomplished Metaphysical poet,
"I joy, dear mother, when I view
Thy perfect lineaments, and hue
Both sweet and bright."(2002, p112)
"Joy" here functions as a verb, meaning "take great pleasure, rejoice".
In George Herbert's "Lent",(2002, p115) we have
"True Christians should be glad of an occasion
To use their temperance, seeking no evasion
When good is seasonable;"(ibid.)
Here "good" is a noun, meaning "goodwill or good intentions".
In "The Odor"(2002, p131) by George Herbert,
"That I might find
What cordials make this curious broth,
This broth of smells, that feeds and fats my mind." (ibid.)
The word "cordial", generally behaving as an adjective, is here used as a noun, meaning "a stimulant or a liqueur"; likewise, the usual adjective or noun "fat", is here used as a verb, meaning "to make or become fat".
Also in this poem, we have
"This breathing would with gains by sweet'ning me,
As sweet things traffic when they meet,
Return to thee;" (ibid.)
Normally functioning as a noun, here"traffic"transforms itself into a verb, meaning "exchange commercially, trade".
In George Herbert's poem "The Collar" (2002, p133), we have
"I struck the board and cried, No more!
I will abroad
What? Shall I ever sigh and pine?" (ibid.)
The seeming adverb "abroad" actually functions as a verb here, it means "not strike on target, strike in error".
Also in this poem,
"Have I no harvest but a thorn,
To let me blood, and not restore." (ibid.)
Here the noun "blood" equals to the verb "bleed".
In "The Flower"(2002, 134) by George Herbert,
"How fresh, O Lord, how sweet and clean
Are thy returns! Ev'n as the flowers in spring,
To which, besides their own demean," (2002, p134)
Here the verb "demean" actually functions as a noun, it is equivalent to the noun "demeanour(deportment)".
Among the most influential Metaphysical poets, we also have Richard Crashaw.
In his poem "Wishes to His Supposed Mistress"(2002, p150), we have the following lines:
"Joys that confess
Virtue their mistress,
And have no other head to dress;" (2002, p152)
Here the part of speech of "virtue", normally a noun, is emphatically transformed into a verb, denoting "possess their mistress with virtues".
In the next stanza, we have
"Fears, fond and flight
As the coy bride's when night
First does the longing lover right."(ibid.)
Here the adjective "fond", as its context commands, should here be taken in its noun form: fondness.
Henry Vaughan, still another well-famed Metaphysical poet, wrote in his poem "The Search", (2002, p167)
"He heaven'd their walks, and with his eyes
Made those wild shades a paradise,
Thus was the desert sanctified
To be he refuge of his bride;
I'll thither then; see, it is day,
The sun's broke through to guide my way."(2002, p168)
In the first line of the verse above, "heaven", a permanent noun concerning its part of speech, was here improvised by the poet to function as a verb, which means "to make their walks heavenly or sacred or holy; to sanctify their walks."

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Moreover, in the last line but one, "thither", normally an adj. or adv., plays here the role of a makeshift, i.e. a verb, hence, "go thither".

In the "Regeneration"(2002, p169) by Henry Vaughan, we have

"It was high spring, and all the way

Primrosed and hung with shade;"(2002, p170)

Grammatically, "Primrosed", is a past participle (Primorse should here be conveniently comprehended as a verb), functioning as a predicative, modifying its subject "all the way", with the predicate verb---"was" omitted.

In the second stanza of this poem,

"Stormed thus, I straight perceived my spring

Mere stage and show,

My walk a monstrous and mountained thing,

Rough—cast with rocks and snow;" ibid.)

Likewise, "mountained" is also a pp., used as an adj., modifying "thing". Here "mountain" is offhand perceived as a verb, whereas this line could be paraphrased as "My walk is just like a hard, painstaking and dangerous mountain—climbing, a veritable ordeal."

In Henry Vaughan's "They are All Gone into the World of Light" (2002, p180), we have

"What mysteries do lie beyond thy dust,

Could man outlook that mark!" ibid.)

Here "outlook" should be regarded as a verb, meaning "transcend,; look beyond".

In "Peace" ibid.) by Henry Vaughan,

"My soul, there is a country

Far beyond the stars,

Where stands a winged sentry

A skillful in the wars;" ibid.)

Here in the 4th line above there is a void noun "armyman" which is modified by the adjective"skillful", therefore the incomplete expression "a skillful" actually stands for "a skillful armyman" who is proficient about the expertise of warfares.

In "Wonder"(2002, p181) by Thomas Traherne, who is considered the last of the metaphysical Poets, we have

"For property itself was mine,

And hedges, ornaments,

Walls, houses, coffers, and their rich contents,

To make me rich combine." 2002, p183)

Here the verb "combine" is transformed into a noun: combination.

In order to shed more light on this poetic feature, we might as well interpret it as FUNCTIONAL SHIFT, which is very frequently employed in modern English. Words such as garden, fear, paper, salt, price, smoke, dawn, wash, contact, and base, to mention only a few, are shifted about freely in ordinary usage from noun to verb to adjective and vice versa, merely by changing the grammatical devices. The three "gardens" in the following sentence illustrate this kind of shift:

We shall garden with garden tools in the garden.

III. Semantic Rejuvenation

Veteran poets often compel their readers to engage themselves in the etymological task as part of the aesthetic experience. It may be said, in fact, that etymology is one of the devices by which readers are now called upon to share in the creative art. The enormous influence of English metaphysical poets of the seventeenth century on modern writers--notably the influence of Donne, has accentuate this etymological awareness. The etymological genesis of a word induces a new lexical experience on a conscientious reader. Sometimes only the archaic literal sense is intended, or it may be that both the physical and the metaphorical are to be caught simultaneously.

It's often the case that when a practitioner encounters a seemingly familiar word in his poetic exploration, he may feel at a loss if he takes it for granted that the word's most current and frequent meaning should be aimed at and exploited, because such a lexical decoding leads him nowhere so far as the reasonable comprehension of the related verse is concerned.

A. Examples Cited from Several American Poets' Poems

To illustrate the point, an exemplary etymological use of "express" will be found in Emily Dickinson:

"Essential oils are wrung;

The attar from the rose

Is not expressed by suns alone,

It is the gift of screws."(1924, p87)

On close examination we perceive that "express" can by no means be interpreted as "to make known or set forth in words". Its very context instantaneously restores its etymological meaning, "to press out".

In "The love song of J. Alfred Prufrock" by T.S. Eliot (1920, p114), we read

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"Streets that follow like a tedious argument
Of insidious intent
To lead you to an overwhelming question…." (ibid.)

The poet wishes you to remember that "intent" means a thing that is taut and stretched for action, and that "insidious"(" sitting or lurking within") means "ambushed" against an enemy. At the same time the literal metaphor of warfare is merged in the image of a verbal argument. In "preludes"there is another figure of the many he evokes from the streets of a city:

"The conscience of a blackened street
Impatient ot assume the world."(ibid.)

Here it is necessary to remember that "assume" means "to take on" and hence "to play the part of".

In Hart Crane's poem

"Remember, Falcon-Ace
Thou hast there in thy wrist a Sanskrit charge
To conjugate infinity's dim marge
Anew…!"(1920, p62)

Here "conjugate" is to be understood in its root meaning "to put a yoke on" rather than "to inflect a verb", thus, the general sense of the verse is the paranormal power of dominating the horizons of infinity.

In "Garden Abstract"(Hart Crane, 1924, p54) the opening lines are

"The apple on its bough is her desire,--
Shining suspension, mimic of the sun."(ibid.)

Here the abstract word "suspension" is to be interpreted as "the thing which is hung."

B. Examples Cited from Several Important Metaphysical Poets' Poems

In "The sun rising" by John Donne(2002, p4), we read

"Saucy pedantic wretch, go chide
Late schoolboys, and sour prentices,
Go tell court-huntsmen, that the King will ride,
Call country ants to harvest offices;"(ibid.)

The above several lines are where a concentration of semantic rejuvenation reside.

The adjective "saucy" here is not to be understood in its current colloquial sense: "sexually suggestive" or "impudent", rather, to capture its nuance in sense in this particular context, its archaic meaning has to be restored, i.e. "causing hurt pride or feelings, stinging". In the same vein, "wretch" here does not mean "a miserable or contemptible person", situated in this milieu, it represents "an unhappy person". Thus, we can visualize such that a learned schoolteacher is scolding angrily a group of naughty pupils who are late for class, who might burst into tears out of grievances or humiliation by their teacher's relentless reproaches. Again in this verse, "sour prentices" poses a dilemma in interpretation. "Sour", which signifies "bitter, sharp, off or bad in taste, flavor or smell", constitutes a seemingly awkward collocation with "prentices". "Sour prentices"? it sounds unimaginably queer, doesn't it? In order to rationalize this absurdity, why not audaciously and justifiably invoke its original meaning "young, raw and inexperienced" to decipher "sour"?

In John Donne's poem "A valediction: of weeping" (2002, p14)

"A globe, yea world by that impression grow,
Till thy tears mixed with mine do overflow." (2002, p15)

"Impression" here traces back to its etymological meaning: the effect, mark or imprint made on a surface by pressure. The information provided by the few lines above is rather concise and limited, nonetheless, they evoke a lively and valid train of associative thoughts in the readers' mind: a pair of intimate schoolmates, upon their graduation from school, are immersed both in the sweet retrospection of their past schooldays and apprehensive anticipation of their future embarking on the outside world. The globe, symbolically and tangibly artificial, which is employed in the geographical course, epitomizes their tower of ivory time; whereas in anticipation of their future, they are not without some misgivings. With one step outside the nest--like campus and into the actual sophisticated world that abounds in hard-edged competitions , the professional career they envisage is filled with ups and downs, uncertainties and adversities, tribulations and frustrations, just like the concaves and convexes, reliefs and depressions on a man--made globe. Therefore, their overflowing tears occasioned by these contemplations and meditations are mingled with happiness and sadness.

In "The flea" also by John Donne,(2002, P15)

"Yet this enjoys before it woo,
And pampered swells with one blood made of two,
And this, alas, is more than we would do." (ibid.)

Here the poet intends you to understand "pampered" in its root archaic meaning
"to indulge with rich food; glut."

In "The mower to the glowworms" by Andrew Marvell, (2002, p59)

"Ye glowworms, whose officious flame

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To wand'ring mowers shows the way,"(ibid.)

Here "officious" goes back to its archaic meaning: eager to render services or help others.

In "The unfortunate lover" also by Andrew Marvell, (2002, p63)

"A numerous fleet of corm'rants black,
That sail'd insulting o'er the wrack,
Receiv'd into their cruel care
Th' unfortunate and abject heir:
Guardians most fit to entertain
The orphan of the hurricane." (2002, p64)

Here "insulting" does not mean "speaking or treating in an insolent or contemptuously way." Instead, it adopts its obsolete sense: making an attack upon.

In Andrew Marvell's poem "The nymph complaining for the death of her fawn", (2002, p68) we have

"Though they should wash their guilty hands
In his warm life-blood, which doth part
From thine, and wound me to the heart,
Yet could they not be clean: their stain
Is dy'd in such a purple grain."(2002, p69)

"Grain" here adopts its archaic meaning: color, or tint.

In Andrew Marvell's poem "Daphnis and Chloe", (2002, p71) we have

"But with this sad news surpris'd,
Soon she let that niceness fall;" (2002, p72)

"Niceness" here restores its obsolete meaning: affected modesty; coyness.

Apparently the verse quoted signifies that some negative information was revealed to "her" and she was bewildered by it; consequently, being disillusioned, she shook off her unnecessary coyness and exhibited her real nature.

In "The picture of little T.C. in a prospect of flowers" by Andrew Marvell, (2002, p76)

"Prospect" in the title above exhibits its old-fashioned sense: sth. presented to the eye; a scene. Moreover, within the poem, we have

"In the green grass she loves to lie,
And there with her fair aspect tames
The wilder flow'rs, and gives them names:" (ibid.)

"Aspect" in "her fair aspect" also brings back its ancient meaning, hence "her fair complexion; her overall charming appearance".

The verse above indicates that, possessed with the unrivaled beauty, she (the heroine in the poem) is the queen who dominates the nature.

Furthermore in the same poem, we have

"O then let me in time compound,
And parley with those conquering eyes"; (ibid.)

"Compound", together with and the same as its old-fashioned counterpart "parley", meaning: to discuss sth. with sb. in order to solve a disagreement.

In "A dialogue between the resolved soul and created pleasure" by Andrew Marvell (2002, p80),

"Chorus
Earth cannot show so brave a sight
As when a single soul does fence
The batteries of alluring sense,
And Heaven views it with delight."(2002, p82)

Here the verb "fence" assumes its archaic sense: to defend or ward off. Thus, these lines present us with a spectacularly valiant scene: a single person, with eloquent oration and sound and impeccable reasoning, successfully resists the wave—after—wave storming of his opponents' verbal arguments, in spite of all the pomp and pageantry of their offensives. Consequently, his insurmountable courage even wins the favors from the Heaven.

In Andrew Marvell's "The coronet",(2002, p87)

"But thou who only couldst the serpent tame,
Either his slipp'ry knots at once untie,
And disentangle all his winding snare,
Or shatter too with him my curious frame:" (ibid.)

Here "curious" restores its obsolete sense: accomplished with skill or ingenuity.

Thus, the readers are aware of the fact that since the serpent--tamer has been located and the serpent has been made docile and no more harmful, all the traps to capture the serpent are disarmed, including an advanced implement ingeniously engineered by me.

In "An Horatian ode upon Cromwell's return from Ireland" by Andrew Marvell, (2002, p87)

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"Where, when he first does lure,
The falc'ner has her sure."(2002, p90)
Here the adjective "sure" actually equals to "surety" or "sureness".
In this eulogy, strongman Cromwell's confidence and determination are highly prized.
In Andrew Marvell's "Upon Appleton house", (ibid.) we have
"Whose columns should so high be rais'd,
To arch the bows that on them gaz'd." (ibid.)
Here "arch" is used as a verb, meaning: to cause to form an arch or similar curve.
In "Upon Appleton house" by Andrew Marvell,(ibid.) we furthermore have
"More by his magnitude distress'd,
Than he is by its straitness press'd"(ibid.)
Here "distressed" assumes its archaic meaning: to constrain by harassment. Quite apparently, a dramatic irony resides in these two lines: instead of being comfortable with his spacious house, he is constrained by it, more so than by its hypothesized narrowness.
In George Herbert's "Easter wings", (2002, p114) we have
"For if I imp my wing on thine,
Affliction shall advance the flight in me." (ibid.)
Here "imp" is used as a verb and adopt its archaic meaning: to furnish with wings. The implication conveyed by the two lines makes this manifest: even if one's superiority is lost or removed for whatever reason, the adversity or suffering incurred will all the more motivate him to strive for more success.
In "Man" by George Herbert, (2002, p119)
"Since then, my God, thou hast
So brave a palace built, O dwell in it,
That it may dwell with thee at last!" (2002, p120)
Here "brave" represents its archaic meaning: excellent.
In George Herbert's "Affliction",(ibid.) we have
"Thus thin and lean, without a fence or friend,
I was blown through with ev'ry storm and wind." (2002, p21)
Here "fence" rejuvenates its archaic sense: a means of defense; protection.
In "The Windows" by George Herbert, (2002, p130)
"Doctrine and life, colors and light in one,
When they combine and mingle, bring
A strong regard and awe; but speech alone
Doth vanish like a flaring thing,
And in the ear, not conscience, ring."(ibid.)
Here "regard" assumes its obsolete sense: appearance or aspect.
In "Wishes to his supposed mistress" by Richard Crashaw, (2002, p150)
"Sidneian showers
Of sweet discourse, whose powers
Can crown old winter's head with flowers;"(2002, p152)
Here "discourse" adopts its archaic meaning: the process or power of reasoning.
From these forceful lines we can imagine that the well-known showers that frequent Sidney are descending fully and delightfully whose quasi—preternatural might and rhythmical sound are so overwhelming and sensuous respectively that they can even transform a dreary winter into a flower—blooming spring.
In Richard Crashaw's "Music's duel",(2002, p153) we have
"Close in the covert of the leaves there stood
A nightingale, come from the neighboring wood,
The sweet inhabitant of each glad tree,
Their muse, their siren, harmless siren she;" (2002, p154)
Here "glad" assumes its archaic meaning: of a cheerful disposition. The vivid description in this stanza brings forth a joyful happy scene. We naturally visualize that the carefree nightingale is enjoying itself with abandon amid the dense clusters of leaves by alighting and perching from one twig personified to another while warbling charmingly and alluringly.
In "Music's duel" by Richard Crashaw, (ibid.)
"Heaves her soft bosom, wanders round about,
And makes a pretty earthquake in her breast." (2002, p155)
Here "pretty" assumes its archaic meaning: elegant; fine. Thus, we envisage a consummately round female breast that bounces rhythmically and elastically and temptingly.
In Henry Vaughan's "Peace", (2002, p180) we have
"Leave then thy foolish ranges,

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For none can thee secure
But one who never changes,
Thy god, thy life, thy cure." (2002, p181)
Here "foolish" restores its archaic sense: insignificant, worthless.
In "Poverty" by Thomas Traherne, (2002, p188)
"A painted cloth there was,
Wherein some ancient story wrought
A little entertained my thought,
Which light discovered through the glass." (ibid.)
Here "entertained" assumes its archaic meaning: continued with; maintained.

From the lines above we envision such an image: the sunrays shone through the window of an obscure tavern inside which hung a worn-out curtain where some literary quotation was finely written; I, who patronized the pub, chanced to view these exquisitely—written lines, which aroused some mental associations in my lackadaisical mind drowsed in the sunlight.

The instances illustrated above have evidenced how readily an acquired skill in etymological rejuvenation will transform into an enabling prowess for us to interpret poems.

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A Study of *The Call of the Wild* from the Perspective of Greimas' Semiotic Square Theory

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***Abstract*—Algirdas Julien Greimas is the most influential French structural linguist. He puts forward the profound semiotic square, which has been widely used in the research of literature to reveal the implied meanings and relationship between complex things. *The Call of the Wild* written by the American naturalistic writer Jack London is his representative work. It has been studied by a lot of scholars from different perspectives since its birth. This thesis applies semiotic square theory, further classifying characters in this novel: Buck is the X; Trafficker is the Anti X; Spitz is the Non X; John is the Non anti X. By the use of the comparative analysis method and the textual close-reading method this thesis analyzes the plot and the deep structure of *The Call of the Wild*. The result of this thesis is as follows: the relation between Buck and the traffickers is oppression and resistance; the relation between Buck and Spitz is competitor; the relation between Buck and John Thornton is protective and grateful. Through classifying the action elements, readers can see the narrative structure of this novel, which is not stated flatly but with its own unique tortuosity and complexity and it is conducive to deepening their understanding about the artistry and profundity of this novel, and help readers better understand the Superman image of Buck, the main character in *The Call of the Wild*, and provide them with the effective example in appreciating Jack London's other literary works.**

***Index Terms*—semiotic square, narrative structure, comparative analysis, Buck, superman image**

I. Introduction

A. Problem Statement

This thesis mainly focuses on finding out how to apply the semiotic square theory in *The Call of the Wild* to analyze the deep structure and the implied thoughts in Jack London's novel *The call of the wild* by the use of the semiotic square theory invented by Greimas, the famous French structural linguist. In *The call of the wild*, Buck is the most important protagonist, who plays a crucial rule in the development of the plot and character's building. By using of the semiotic square theory this thesis also tries to find out who should be the X, the Anti X, the Non X and the Non anti X. After defining their identity, this thesis will discuss what is the relation between X and the Anti X, the relation between X and the Non X and the relation between X and the Non anti X. Finally, the superman image of Buck will be given.

B. Significance and Innovation

This research is valuable both practically and theoretically. Practically speaking, semiotic square, as a theory, can be used to analyze novels like *The Call of the Wild*, which gives researchers and scholars new angles to make researches and help readers see the conflicts between various contradictory forces, and the deep structure behind different forces. Through classifying the action elements, readers can see the narrative structure and author's thoughts of this novel, which is conducive to deepening their understanding of the art of fiction and profundity, and help readers better understand the Superman image of Buck, the main character in *The Call of the Wild*. Theoretically speaking, the research can help us better understand the semiotic square theory and give researchers and scholars new angles to make researches on other works, which provides them with theoretical support.

C. Methodology and Arrangement of This Paper

Two methods are mainly used in this research, namely comparative analysis method and textual close-reading method. Through contrast between different characters with Buck, a much better understanding of the superman image of Buck can be seen. By carefully reading, readers can understand how semiotic square can be applied in this novel.

There are four parts in this paper. The first part is Introduction, mainly divided into three sub- parts: problem statement, significance and innovation and the last part is methodology. The second part is the literature review and brief introduction about Jack London, *The Call of the Wild* and Algirdas Julien Greimas' semiotic square. The next part is the concrete application of semiotic square in *The Call of the Wild*, namely, the relation between Buck and traffickers Manuel, Judge Miller's helper, for instance, the relation between Buck and Spitz, the dangerous rival of Back and the relation between Buck and John Thornton, a man who saves Buck from dying. The last part is conclusion.

II. Literature Review and Brief Introduction about the Author and the Book

A. Literature Review

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As one of the most legendary novelist of the 20th century, Jack London has always been remembered for his short stories dealing romantically with the overwhelming power of nature and the struggle for survival. Those high adventurous stories were in view of his experience on water or in the dols and companies of California. Because of this, his writing style is very unique and instructive. His works are very popular both at home and abroad. Many scholars put their interests in studying himself and his novels from different aspects. *The Call of the Wild* is one of them. "According to the survey of the United National Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, Jack London was the most popular writer whose works were translated into most languages in Europe, and The Call of the Wild was the most of them."[1]

As a classic novel, *The Call of the Wild* was very popular both at home and abroad, which tells the story of Buck, who begins as a tamed dog in the sun-kissed Santa Clara Valley but eventually ends as a sled dog in the primitive north after being through all the trials and tribulations. In China, this novel was published in 1919 for the first time and had at least 32 versions since then. Literature review of this novel is mainly divided into two parts: the studies abroad and the studies at home.

Firstly, *The Call of the Wild* has been analyzed a lot by American and foreign critics. At the very beginning, Liu Ningning (2009) mainly concentrates on the theme of this novel. Jack London is a naturalistic writer. In this novel he applies Darwin's survival of the fittest theory to emphasize the theme of this novel. In order to survive in the wild north, Buck has to fright for everything, food, water and leadership even at the risk of his life. He must be stronger and stronger so that he can avoid being killed in the north. As the time goes by, some scholars focus on the image of the protagonist Buck. When Jack London wrote this novel, he added some human features to a dog. Mark Seltzer (1992) analyzed the superman image of Buck. As is a special dog, Buck is courageous, persevering and very loyal. He is a fast learner who can accommodate himself in any tough situations. He is grateful to John Thornton, his beloved master and willing to protect him from harm at any cost even losing his life. Cai Yigan (2009) holds that this shows Buck's image as a superman. As the famous biographer Irving Stone said "Nietzsche had a great emotional effect on Jack London. He found the theory man in Nietzsche's works. Jack felt that superman philosophy was his taste because he thought he was a superman who could conquer any barriers" (Stone Irving, 1999, p23). In addition, Peter Schmitt (1964) thinks that atavism in this novel is also frequently on the lips of critics. The term atavism means that some organism has inclined to return the characteristics of a more primitive type or the ancestral type. Buck in this novel was first a civilized dog who lived in the sun-kissed south and led a carefree life. Not until he became a sled dog after being treated by the law of club and fang on the way to the wild north, did he hear the call of his ancestor. Gradually, Earle labor (1994) thinks that his ancestor's characters were back to him, such as crafty, bravery and tenacity. Finally, some critics also use Humanism to analyze this novel.

Secondly, there are some features on the study of *The Call of the Wild* when it comes to the study at home. To begin with, the research methods are varied, mainly from the traditional artistic techniques to social background and psychoanalysis, from single method analysis such as, ecology, narrative skill to the analysis with different methods together. Besides, Bert Bender (2004) makes research on the meaning of the novel has turned to cultural and ecological field, and Jiang Chenghe (2010) paid much attention to the relationship between humanity and wildness. Thirdly, the change form separate study of the novel *The call of the wild*, to the use of comparative integrated research to analyze Jack London's other novels. Finally, Zhang Yan (2004) saw this novel in the aspect of naturalism. Following are works related to it: On Naturalism Elements in Jack London Works Yang Renjing in American Literature in the Twentieth Century holds that *The Call of the Wild* revels the tenaciously fight over enemies for survival, and at the same time revels the writer's naturalistic ideas of law of the jungle.

In conclusion, researches on *The Call of the Wild* at home or abroad make readers have a better understanding about this novel. However, there are still some limitations among them, which are seldom of them analyzes the relation between different characters by the use of the semiotic square theory. This makes my research worthwhile.

B. The Brief Introduction of Jack London and The Call of the Wild

Jack London is an American novelist, short story writer, journalist, essayist, dramatist and autobiographer. He is also a popular Naturalist. Jack London lived a special life that was "the era of the millionaire and manufacturer and speculator, when Darwinian evolution and the survival of the fittest seemed to sanction the sometimes unethical methods of the successful business tycoon." (Kathryn & Vanspanckeren, 2004, p160) In less than two decades of writing career, this prolific and diligent writer created a lot of marvelous works, including 152 short stories and articles, 19 novels, 8 autobiographies, plays and many reportage, essays and papers. Among all of his writings, his short stories occupied a very high reputation, which created a new era for the modern American literature.

The Call of the Wild, the masterpiece *of* Jack London's novels, which tells the story of Buck, who begins as a tamed dog in the sun-kissed Santa Clara Valley but eventually ends as a sled dog in the primitive north after being through all the trials and tribulations. "This is by far the best piece of work which has come from this gifted author This book rises above mere storytelling and possesses elements of the best in literature –scope, vitality and fullness" (James Lundquist, 1900, p.102). Although it is a story of a dog who is expelled from civilized world, in some way, it is a story of human being as well. By using personification and other rhetorical devices, London draws a vivid picture of animal world.

[1] Wang Nuo. (2003). *Ecological literature in Europe and America*. Beijing: Beijing University Press.

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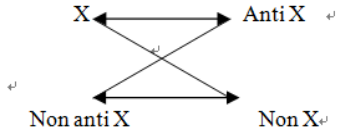
After suffering a lot of tribulations, he is saved by John Thornton, a kind-hearted man. Unfortunately, John Thornton is murdered by Yeehats. Therefore，Buck makes up his mind to take revenge for his host. After revenge, he lived in the forest with some real wolves.

C. The Brief Introduction of Greimas' Semiotic Square

Semiotic Square is put forward by Algirdas Julien Greimas, the most influential French structural linguist. It is used to analyze the deep structure of novels. Stories originate from the opposition between X and anti X, in the process of plot development, new factors are introduced, namely, non X and non – X. When these factors are unfolded, the story is completed. The basic method of using Semiotic square is as follows:



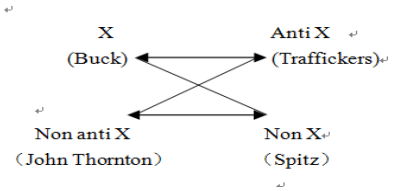
The first step is to determine the X. Based on careful reading version of the story; X is the most basic elements of the story. This step determines the success or failure of the quality of the whole analysis. In addition to relying on the literary perception ability, there are some methods. That is, the key elements in the text often appears repeatedly, we need to carry on the careful inspection to measure whether it is enough, as the leading the whole X. Sometimes the key elements don't appear repeatedly, but they can appear combined with multiple images and this requires a process.

Secondly, we need to analyze the narrative structure. In order to make all elements of the narrative text clear, what we need to do is to study the whole story structure, plot, ending the initiation, evolution based on these basic elements. We can also use the narrative structure to figure out the author's implied meanings, such as Buck's superman image and capitalistic thoughts in this novel. We need to ultimately conclude that the story has its own unique structure and developing order. If everything is what it seems, it doesn't need to use the chaos theory. In other words, this is because of the existence of this theory, each person's personalized, diversified understanding can find their own according to the meaning.

III. GREIMAS'S SWMIOTIC IN *THE CALL OF THE WILD*

According to this chart and the plot of *The Call of the Wild*, the relation between Buck and the traffickers is oppression and resistance. Secondly, the relation between Buck and Spitz is competitive. Both of them want to survive in the law of club and fang, they have to fight each other for the leader of this team, which makes them competitors. Thirdly, the relation between Buck and John Thornton is protective and grateful. John Thornton saves Buck from being harmed and Buck regards him as his new loyal master. He is willing to do anything for John. Therefore, through analyzing the semiotic square, readers can better understand the deep structure which is not stated flatly but with its own unique tortuosity and complexity of the novel. Also, it will give readers some hints on Buck' superman image.

Now, let's look at how Semiotic square is exactly used in this novel.



A. The Relation between Buck and Traffickers (X and anti X)

Buck is the most important character in *The Call of the Wild*. Apparently, Buck is the X. Characters who are contrary to X are defined as anti X, thus the anti X is the traffickers. The relation between Buck and those traffickers is oppression and resistance. On the way to the north, Buck uses his wisdom to fight against oppression from those traffickers. The process of resistance is a process of Buck's image shaping and self-growth.

Analyzing the novel carefully, a conclusion can be drawn that there are three anti X, that is to say, Manuel, the man in red sweater and Hal. At the very beginning, Buck is a very big dog with strong muscles who lives a very comfortable life in Judge Miller's place, the sunshine area of Santa Clara Valley. He is not a pet dog or a captive dog. The whole realm is his. "Among the terriers he stalks imperiously, and Toots and Ysabel he utterly ignores, for he is the king, ---king over all creeping, crawling, flying things of Judge Miller's place, human included" (Jack London, 2010,p32). This showed that Buck can control everything around him; he was the king in his territory. However, Buck didn't read the newspapers, for human, exploring in the darkness of Arctic, had discovered a yellow coherer, and because carriages and men emerge in large numbers. They needed dogs, the dogs they needed were those who were strong and had furry that can protect them from the cold. It is this background that promotes traffickers to sell dogs everywhere.

The first anti X is Manuel, Judge Miller's helper who was also a greedy gambling lover. Lucking of money for

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gambling, he got himself in kidnapping Buck. But Buck didn't know this was happening. When Manuel doubled a piece of stout rope around Buck's neck under the collar, he didn't fight or struggle at all, because he had got to know that he must trust in men he familiar with , and to give them the wisdom and strength they want. Buck's superman image here is loyalty and trust. This was the beginning of Buck's tough life.

The second anti X is the man in the red sweater, who tortures Buck using the club. Under the law of club and fang, Buck was not broken but learned to adapt himself in the wild life as soon as possible. He understood, no matter how, he had no chance to fight against a man with a rod. He had absorbed in what he learned, and in all his life he would remember it. That rod was powerful. Then he understood the so called primitive law. Gradually, he learned that if one wants to survive he has to give up civilized behaviors and fight against evil with evil. The man in the red sweater gives him a chance to watch other dogs pass under the dominion of the man. Once more, as he saw these ruthless actions, the lesson was driven back to him: a man who had a rod was a lawgiver, a host to be submitted himself to. On the Dyea beach, life was nightmare; Buck had to bear the beat of club and knew that every moment life and limb were in peril. The man in the red was savage, knowing no law but the law of club and fang. That was why Buck had to be very clever. He had to be a fast learner so that he would not be beaten by the club. Buck swiftly lost the fastidiousness which had characterized his old life. He became clever, cunny, strong in body and fast in action which is a clever malingerer and thief. All this was taught by the man in the red sweater. Buck's superman image mainly reflected in his fast learning under the threat of club and fang, easily accommodating himself to the new mode of life and knowing survival of the fittest. This experience helped him know the rule of living in the north.

The last anti X is Hal, another seller, who bought Buck from Francois. Hal, as the new owner, was a bad tempered and cruel man who always used a whip to push Buck forward. "Again Hal's whip fell on the dogs. They threw themselves against the breast bands, dug their feet into the packed snow, and got down low to it was an anchor. After two efforts, they stood still, panting. The whip was whistling savagely" (Jack London, 2010, p52).This shows how cruel Hal was. The sled was too heavy to be carried by those poor dogs, but Hal didn't care, and treated them as slaves. Hal's principle, which he acted on other people, was that one must be tough. He had begun drilling this so called principle into his sister and brother –in –law. Dogs were perambulating skeletons. They fell down one after another. They were stiff and in pain; their muscles ached, their bones ached; their very hearts ached. Buck was still in the front of this team, but no longer forcing himself to obey the roles, turning a blind eye to weakness and follow the trail by his unwilling feet. Because of Hal's cold-blooded beating on Buck, he was badly sick, very hungry and without any spirit at all; bones were the only things breakable on Buck; in his very strong suffering, he had no feeling to the bite of the smash or the hit of the rod, and saved by John Thornton. This shows Buck is very tough and can bear any difficulties.

In conclusion, after analyzing this three anti X, we see they have different roles in Buck's growth. Firstly, Manuel, Judge Miller's helper, a greedy gambling lover. Lucking of money for gambling, he gets himself in kidnapping Buck. Secondly, the man in the red sweater, because of him Buck knows the law of club and knows how to survive under the club law. Thus, this made him realize that he had no opportunity to fight against a man with a rod. He had taken in the lesson he learned from being beaten by the men with a rod, which he would never forget. Buck gets the chance to meet John Thornton, the man who saves him from disaster. All the three men play an important role in developing the plot of this novel and shaping Buck' s superman image such as loyalty, hardworking and strong in self-adaptive ability.

B. The Relation between Buck and Spitz (X and –X)

On the way to north, traffickers bought a lot of dogs. Some of them were as strong as Buck, Spitz, for instance. Some of them are very tender, such as Dave and Billee. Some of them got well along will Buck, while some of them didn't, they were competitors because they have to fight for leadership of the team. Buck, the big and strong dog was seen as the most important rival by Spitz. –X is the one who has confilts with X but don't opposite with X. Therefore,-X is Spitz. The relation between Buck and Spitz is competitive. They are rivals. During his fight with Spitz, Buck was very cunny, brave and clever. At the beginning, he knew that he was new to the team and not familiar with the rules of living in the wild, so he chose to avoid fights with Spitz. He knew he has to learn and adjust. However, when the time was right, he pick up the fight with Spitz to win the leadership.

Spitz was the leader, likewise experienced who had the bitter hatred situation with Buck. Spitz was a dog with evil spirit who can't bear anyone that is sronger than him. He also knew the survival of the fittest. Therefore, Spitz spared no effort to fight against his dangerous rival Buck. Besides, possibly because he treated Buck as a dangerous competitor, Spitz tries to use every opportunity of revealling his power. He even tries every was to bully and threat Buck, striving form time to time to start a war which could only has one survivor. A lot of wars happened between them. But at first Buck was too busy adjusting himself to the new life. Therefore, he did not want to start a war and he avoided him whenever it is possible. Because he knew that he had to be strong in the first place. He was not given in the imprudent action; though provoked by Spitz, he tried to stay calm down until oneday he really could not bear it. However, one night, when Buck was exhausted, Spitz thought it was his opportunity. He bited on Buck, and his teeth entered into his unresisting enemy time and time again and ripped and lancinated the body to the bone,but this fight was stopped by Francois. Since then on it was war between them.

After he adapted himself to the new life, it was unavoidable that the fight for leadership should come. Buck was desirous towanted it, because of his nature, because he had been caused physical and mental suffering by that coultless, incomprehensible of the trail and trace. He openly threatened the other's leadership. The insidious resistance of Buck

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has destroyed the unity of the team. It was no longer like a dog in a trace. Buck encouraged the rebels to fight which led them to buck all sorts of pretty misdemeanors. Sptiz was no longer a leader greatly to be afraid of. The fear before left, and they were equal to challeng Sptiz's authority. He did it deliberately, andhad a quality that was for great imagination. He fought by nature, and he could fight by his body power as well. When one night began, his time had come. It was the only one can live fight. As they surrounded about, snarling, ears laid back, carefully watchful for the chances. Spitz was a practised fighter. He never nake a rush to fight till he was well prepared to do it; never fight till he had first chance to defend that fight. Therefore he tried to knock him over, then repeated the trick and broke the fore leg. He had no chances to survive. Buck was ready. when he was well prepared, he was cruel and mercyless. Buck practiced for the final rush. Soon Spitz disappeared. Buck looked on and seeked for him, the successful championand the brutal beast who had made his kill and found it very irritative. Then Buck had the leadership and he earned it.

In conclusion, as a –X, Spitz taught Buck to learn how to fight and envoked his wildness. In order to get the leadership, which Buck wanted, because of his nature, because he picked the fight by that countless, incomprehensible of the trail and trace, he tried to threat the other's leadership openly. He did whatever he could to fight and beat others who stood in the his way. He did it deliberately. At the very beginning, Buck didn't fight for it, just bear whatever happened to him. However, at last, Spitz force him to fight, to find out his wildness. The –X, Spitz, made Buck, better understand himself and envoked his nature. Thus Spitz was necessary in shaping Buck' characteristics and promoting the development of the plot. Spitz and Buck could't co-exist with each other, which caused the fight between them. Because of the fight between Bck and Spitz, Buck finally got the leadership and found out his wildness and nature.

C. The Relation Between Buck and John Thornton（Xand –anti X）

Before Buck met John Thornton, he was experiencing his hardest time since being kidnapped in the wild North. With the very heavy sled on his back and without any food to eat, Buck was very tired and hungry and almost was dead but had to bear the beating by Hal. So greatly had Buck suffered, so far gone was he, that the blow did not hurt much. He didn't want to go even with club on his body. He feel numb about it. The last sensations of pain left him. He no longer felt anything. Under this situation, "Suddenly, without warning, uttering a cry that was inarticulate and more like the cry of an animal, John Thornton sprang up on the man who wielded the club. Hal was hurled backward, as though struck by a falling tree. Mercedes screamed. Charles looked on wistfully, wiped his watery eyes, but did not get up because of his stiffness. John Thornton stood over Buck, struggling to control himself, too convulsed with rage to speak and said If he striked that dog again, I will kill you. John Thornt saved him from being beaten to death. John Thornton was his protector, the role of –anti X. The relation between Buck and John Thornton is protective and grateful. John Thornton saves Buck from being harmed and Buck regards him as his new loyal master. He is willing to do anything for John.

Under the care of John Thornton, Buck 's wounds healed. He shared the kindness and generousity of John Thornton. As Buck grew stronger he lured Buck to all kind of funny games, in which John Thornton himself could not bear to be part of it; and in this fashion Buck jumped through his kindnesss and into a different kind of life. Love was here for him for the first time, which he had never experienced at Judge Miller's house. "Love that was feverish and burning, that was adoration, that was madness, it had taken John Thornton to arouse" (Jack London, 2010,p83). Buck enjoyed the time he spent with John Thornton. Life was comfortable and carefree again as used to be. John Thornton saved his life,which was a good thing and he was the perfect host. Others see the welfare of their dog from the sense of responsibility and the commercial interest. John Thornton saw to the welfare of dogs as if they were his own children, because he was kind and his human nature cause that.

Buck was older than the days he had seen and the breaths he had drawn. Influnced by soft human civilizing, the spirit of the primitive, which the Northland had spied on him, styed alive and active. Faithfulness and devotion were his nature too; He was a beast, from wild to sit in the John Thornton's fire, in soft Southland stamped with modern civilization symbol, a special dog. For his very great affection to John, he could not pilfer from this man, but from other man, in other camp, he did not hesitate to do so. To show his very great love to for John,Buck in return did something for his him. Firstly, he saved his master form being beaten by the drunk Burton. When he saw the fight, Buck jumped on Buton's throat and almost bited him to death. This is because he cann't bear anyone to fight against his beloved master. Secondly, Buck saved John form being drowned by flowing water. In the fall of the year, John and his partner were lined with a narrow strip of polarized jet under a bad streatchof jet at forty miles of Greece. Suddenly, John fell into the water. On seeing this, Buck was very worried and jumped into the angry water. Buck could not catch his own, and swept down, desperately struggling, but unable to win back. John's partners tried to save Buck, for the current was too strong. Buck was half drowned. But Buck couldn't give up. Once again,he jumped into the water with a rope. By the help of this rope John and Buck were out of the water, but almost suffocating and with three broken ribs on Buck. He can sacrifice himself to save his master's life. Thirdly, Buck help John Thornton pay for his debt by pulling 1000 pounds load and made it possible for his master to go to the East after a fabled lost mine. Fourthly, one night, Buck was playing out of his place. Yeehats destroyed his home and killed the man he loved most. After seeing that scene, Buck roared and terriblely. For the last time in his life he allowed passion to burst out and it was because of he was thankful for John Thornton that made him lose his head. Being a evil spirit, he killed lots of Yeehats, but could not find his master. He knew that John Thornton was dead. He killed a man, as the intelligent part of the universe people killed him in the club before him. It was the call, the many –noted call, sounding more luringly and compellingly than ever before.

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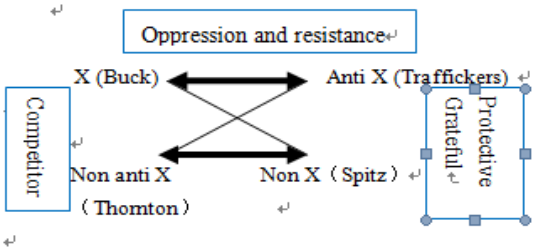
John Thornton was dead. The last bond was broken. Man and the so called speeches of man no longer tie him. Buck was back to the forest and lived with real wolves. But every summer, Buck will visit the place where his beloved man died. He will stand for a time, howling once, long and mournfully, ere he departed.

In conclusion, the relation between Buck and John Thornton is protective and grateful. John Thornton, the man Buck loves most, give him a life he has never experienced before. He loves him. Love was crazy and burning, that was worship, it was crazy, and it took John Thornton to evoke. Buck enjoyed the time he spent with John Thornton. Life was comfortable and carefree again as used to be. Thornton saved his life, this was something and he was the ideal master. Others saw the welfare of their dog from the sense of responsibility and the commercial interest. Thornton treated him as if Buck were his own children, because he could not help it. The –anti X, John Thornton, becomes the most important man in Buck' life. Because of John Thornton's death, the last tie was broken. Man and the claims of man no longer bound him. Therefore, Buck returns to live in the forest. All the four things he did to John showed his very great love to John. They were more than dog and master; they were friend and family.

IV. Conclusion

The Call of the Wild is the epitome of London's own struggling story. Tracing of his own life can also be revealed from Buck's rejection of civilization and returning to nature. This thesis uses the semiotic square theory to analyze the narrative structure and the plot development of this novel so that readers can have a better understanding about Buck' relation with other characters and Buck' superman image. A conclusion can be drawn that the structure of this novel is not stated flatly but with its own unique tortuosity and complexity.

As a theory, semiotic square can be used to analyze novels like *The Call of the Wild*, which gives researchers and scholars new angles to make searches and help readers see the conflict between various contradictory forces, and the deep structure behind different forces. Besides, the research can give researchers and scholars new angles to make searches on other works, which provides them with theoretical support. According to the chart and the plot of *The Call of the Wild*, the relation between Buck and traffickers is oppression and resistance. Secondly, the relation between Buck and Spitz is competitive. Both of them want to survive in the law of club and fang, they have to fight each other for the leader of this team, which makes them competitors. Thirdly, the relation between Buck and John Thornton is protective and grateful. John Thornton saves Buck from being harmed and Buck regards him as his new loyal master. He is willing to do anything for John.



In conclusion, through analyzing the semiotic square and the different relations in this novel, readers can better understand the deep structure which is not stated flatly but with its own unique tortuosity and complexity of the novel. Through The Call of the Wild, we see the author's outlook on human society which was very much influenced by his own life experience. As a beast fable, this novel points to something with humanity—the everlasting mystery of life itself. People should fulfill their highest possible destiny themselves as Buck does. Buck's world is also an epitome of human's society. We are experiencing exactly the same feeling as Buck, feeling abandoned, feeling crises, even feeling cruel in the end. In this novel, Jack London tells not only a cruel story of one dog, but also of human beings. The turning of Buck from dog to wolf, from civilization to wildness shows the very history of human beings who, being driven by selfish purpose, strive to compete with, to hurt and to kill each other without any mercy. Also, it will give readers some hints on Buck' superman image. Loyalty, hard-working, perseverance, strong in adaptability and grateful to his master, all of them is Buck's superman images.

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The Effect of Native Model Writing on the Vocabulary Richness of Iranian EFL Learners' Written Text in a Four-stage Writing Task

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***Abstract*—Vocabulary is a main part of English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own thoughts. "A repeating inquiry in the historical backdrop of language teaching research has been that of how vocabulary can be best organized for learning "(see McArthur 1998; Howatt and Widdowson 2004 for historical reviews). The present study investigated a group of Iranian EFL students' knowledge for vocabulary learning and their vocabulary size. This study aimed at investigating the role of native-like writing in enhancing learners' writing ability by sensitizing them to select more native-like terms and expressions through improving their vocabulary knowledge. For this purpose the researcher used native models in two revisions of story in four-stage writing task that consisted of output, comparison, and two revisions. The question that researchers asked was whether giving native models later turns into better performance. At the end it is concluded that the 4-satge native model of writing helps L2 learners to write a well-formed English narrative and make use of better terms and expressions as well as helping teachers understand the formulation problems of EFL writers and what the students notice. That is, the gap between the way that they write and the native models to which they compare themselves.**

***Index Terms*—vocabulary size, vocabulary knowledge, output, vocabulary errors**

I. Introduction

The notion of language abilities is grounded based on the idea that language comprises of four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing (Cook, 2001). Out of these four skills, listening and reading are regarded as as receptive skills whereas speaking and writing are considered as productive skills. Writing is a fundamental skill on advancing learners' knowledge. This is mainly due to that writing involves the structure of new meaning from new ideas and existing facts in which sentences have notable relationships to each other (Dietsch, 2000).

Axelrod and Cooper (1988) emphasize that writing in a straight line linked to the way one learns. This is mostly because this skill supports students to be dynamic thinkers and learners through direct envelopment in the creation of new meaning. Hughey et al. (1983) argued that the skill of writing helps students to strengthen vocabulary skills as they look up for the suitable words required in their writing task. Correspondingly, grammar forms are also enriched by writing as when learners write, they ought to make correct choices on the proper syntactic forms, discourse markers and registers to be exploited so as to transfer their opinions and ideas successfully. In terms of Iranian context, writing has gained importance because of the particular stress given to it together with reading in most ESP programs at tertiary levels (Saffarzadeh, 1988; Tajadini, 2002). Intrinsically, it is compulsory on language teachers especially TEFL trainers to master the frequent and often complex patterns that underpin the writing module so that they can convey such knowledge efficiently to prospective students of the language (Tajadini, 2002). However, the overall mastery of intricate syntactic patterns by Iranian learners in English is open to debate as numerous previous studies (Tajadini, 2006; Keshavarz, 2003) emphasized that most learners apply a diversity of communications strategies to overcome the implementation of challenging patterns.

It is incontrovertible that native speakers have intuitive knowledge of idiomatic expressions (Coulmas, 1981), linguistic competence (Davies, 1991), appropriate vocabulary size, collocations, and even nonverbal cultural features (Coulmas, 1981; Davies, 1991).Moreover, there is evidence that presenting an appropriate model of native-like writing is more facilitative in the learners' learning process than explicit error correction and feedback (Qi & Lapkin, 2001). Recognizing this, this study aimed at investigating the role of native-like writing in enhancing learners' writing ability by sensitizing them to select more native-like terms and expressions through improving their vocabulary knowledge.

For the present study, a writing task was designed to provide the participants with the opportunity to (1)) in order to find out how reach is their vocabulary size (Appendix A) (Stage 1), (2) notice gaps between their inter language forms and target forms based on a comparison of their original draft with two native-speaker models (Appendix B) (Stage 2), (3) revise their original text based on what they knew (Stage 3), and (4) revise their original text again after an interval

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of over two months (Stage 4). Two models were used in this study to reduce the chance of the participants' mindless copying from a single model text, and to increase the chance of providing solutions to the problems that the participants incidentally noticed (Hanaoka, 2007). As we know Iranian learners of English at tertiary level often encounter difficulties in writing, hence, the research questions posed in this study included the following:

1. How well L2 learners use English terms and words while composing a narrative? (stage1)
2. How do sample texts of native speaker models of writing affect L2 learners' composition? (stage 2)

II. Literature Review

Writing is a complex linguistic capability that needs years of practice in order to be mastered. As a matter of fact, it is an ability that can never be fully acquired. By and large, writing has been considered as a support skill which was previously done to reinforce the grammar acquisition, support the memorization of language structures and emphasize, lately, on even oral proficiency as in grammar-translation, audio-lingual and communicative methods respectively (Homstad & Thorston, 1994).

"An understudy's writing is not just used to assess her/his English capability, but also to assess her/his comprehension of different subjects such as social studies, law, economics, and physical and natural sciences. Writing is additionally viewed as significant piece of all college level courses" (Rezaei & Lovorn, 2010, p.2).

Kellogg (1996) states the writing procedure in terms of an interaction of three processing systems in which each processing system is made up of two sub-systems comprising formulation, which is made up of planning and translating; execution, which is comprised of programming and execution; and monitoring, which consists of reading and editing and provides detailed data about what goes on in every system and how the systems interact with each other. In this model, ideas and languages are already determined at the detailing stage. Then the ideas and languages become the input to the execution system where most straightforward decisions for author how to execute them. Once they are executed, the monitoring system looks for a discrepancy and an answer in conjunction with the formulation system. The formulation system starts again for new ideas or language to determine the discrepancy detected in the previous system.

Ferris (2002) maintains that notwithstanding the fact that issues and skills related to writing process are important, we must be aware that problems and also disorders of grammar can have negative impact and impression on the general quality of student's writing. Because of this, writing teachers need to help students expand their editing as well as their composing skills.

A. Theories Related to ESL Writing

In the investigation of ESL composing history, Silva (1990, as cited in Mu, 2005) approximately partitioned ESL writing guideline into four stages stamped by the four most compelling approaches: the controlled approach, the current-traditional rhetoric approach, the process approach and the social approach. The primary stage was overwhelmed by the controlled or guided methodology which was affected by structural linguistics and behaviorist psychology. This approach specifies learning to write as an exercise in habit formation. Understudies were prepared to practice sentence designs and vocabulary by method for composing. The major approach in the second stage of ESL writing guideline was the current-traditional rhetoric approach with the effect of Kaplan's theory of constructive rhetoric. It viewed figuring out how to make as stage of ESL composing instructing was the procedure approach. According this approach, learning to write was developing efficient effective writing strategies.

The social approach in the fourth stage announced that instruction to write was a part of becoming socialized to the discourse community finding out what is expected and trying to approximate it.

In continue in relation to the writing area, learning vocabulary is also an area that should not be neglected .The increasing awareness of vocabulary's significant contribution to language acquisition has given birth to the growing development of vocabulary testing in writing. Vocabulary is fundamental to English language teaching because without sufficient vocabulary students cannot understand others or express their own thoughts.

B. Vocabulary

Vocabulary learning by far plays a very important role in learning another language. Learning a second or foreign language mostly includes learning the sound system, grammar, and vocabulary of that language.

According to Seal (1990), to the non-language specialist, the practical judgment skills perspective for how languages are learned is that you substitute the words in your first language for relating expression in the second language. . In reality, there is usually a positive correlation the middle of one's information about vocabulary and his/her level of language proficiency.

Words are recognized as the building blocks upon which knowledge of the second language can be built. "Simply put, Individuals with huge vocabularies are more proficient readers than those with restricted vocabularies. There are many features to vocabulary learning and acquisition. Although some teachers may think that vocabulary learning is not difficult but learning new vocabulary items has always been challenging for the learners. "Language trainees are searching productive ways of increasing the chance of storing new words into their long-term memory but forgetting is a common and big problem among them. They often worried that they can't remember words soon after learning them."(Rahimi & Shojaee, 2008, p.1).

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Learning vocabulary from context or 'incidental learning' versus 'direct intentional learning' need two distinctive approaches of learning vocabulary which identify with short-term and long-term memory. In Iranian high schools, even university most English teachers try to teach vocabulary items using L1equivalents; however, a few others criticize translation-based learning and they try to teach English words in context. The knowledge of vocabulary is tested in regard to their ability to use such knowledge in context, although they focus on translation while teaching. It should be mentioned that most English vocabulary items used in both midterm and final exams request the students either to finalize the sentences using given words or they are required to complete the sentences using their own vocabulary knowledge.

C. Vocabulary Learning

A frequent topic in the study of language and specially writing skill teaching "has been that of how vocabulary can be best structured for learning in better writing" (see McArthur 1998; Howatt and Widdowson, 2004).

The justification for this line of query back to three possible notions: first, learners want to pay attention to vocabulary learning explicitly. Second, the massive number of the vocabulary means that most students will never learn more than a small part of the words in the language. Third, some vocabularies are possibly to be more emphasized for communicative purposes than others. The chief goal of study in this area is to prioritize words to be learned to guarantee that learners have the maximum possible communicative achievement with the inexorably limited set of words they obtain.

Awareness in outlining a targeted word list is chiefly "strong in the field of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), where inadequate vocabulary competence is recurrently cited as a major source of problems" (Evans and Green, 2007; Berman and Cheng, 2010; Evans and Morrison, 2011; Wu and Hammond, 2011). Studies on vocabulary frequently stated that it should not be the role of EAP classes to teach technical words, which is argued to be both outside of EAP teachers' knowledge and somewhat unproblematic for learners (e.g. Cowan, 1974; Farrell, 1990).

Studies into vocabulary competence consistently showed that the productive connection from meaning to form is more problematic to create than the receptive link from form to meaning (Schmitt, 2008); furthermore, "while knowledge of a form-meaning connection is satisfactory to empower active reading, actual implementation of words in context is also dependent on a more affluent knowledge of register and the grammatical and collocational links of words. For this reason, productive vocabulary may need more explicit investigation than receptive. Additionally, strategies, such as dictionary usage, concluding meaning from context, and avoiding unknown words, are more possible to allow learners to deal efficiently with deficiencies of knowledge in receptive than in productive vocabulary. Thus, it is essential to spread out our knowledge of academic vocabulary further than receptive requirements"

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The participants were 14 Iranian students in two ability-based sophomore classes at Arastu institute. One class was the most advanced class in one department, and the other class was an intermediate level class in another department. For convenience, the former class will be referred to as Class A and the latter class as Class B. The data to be analyzed for this study come from a total of 14 students (7 students from Class A and 7 students from Class B) who completed all the stages of the writing task.

B. Procedure

Following the procedures of Hanaoka (2007), at first, the students wrote a story in response to a picture prompt (see Appendix A) in order to find out how reach is their vocabulary size. The advantage of picture prompt was that the propositional content of the story that the students wrote could be controlled. Throughout the task, instruction was given in Persian and the students also took notes in Persian. The students were provided with Sheet 1, Sheet 2, and the pictures in the Stage 1 writing task. On Sheet 1, they wrote a narrative and on Sheet 2, they took notes on whatever problems they noticed as they wrote on Sheet 1. The directions were written at the top of Sheet 2 with the following specific examples of note-taking in Persian: 'I don't know how to say X in English', 'I wrote X, but I'm not sure if this is correct', 'what is the past tense of X?' and 'I'm not sure whether the picture is describing X'. This stage took 15 minutes in Class A, and 18 minutes in Class B. At the end of the Stage 1 task, the students were told that they would now receive native speaker models. They were then asked to indicate at the top of Sheet 2 how eager they were to read them on a scale of 1 to 5 (1 being 'Not at all' and 5 'Very much'). Then, Sheet 2 was collected. The students kept their original text (Sheet 1) and the pictures for the Stage 2 task. In the Stage 2 task, which immediately followed the Stage 1 task, the students received Sheet 3 and two native-speaker models (see Appendix B). One of the models was written by an American person, and the other was written by a Canadian person. For ease of reference, the two models were titled (A) and (B) respectively. The students were required to perform an immediate revision of the story on Sheet 3 based on the vocabulary they remember of what they had understood.

This task took around 10 minutes in every class. Toward the Stage 2, the native-speaker models and Sheet 3 were gathered. The students kept their original content (Sheet 1) and the pictures to be used in the Stage 3 revision task. In the Stage 3 task, the students were asked to rewrite their original text on Sheet 4. This task took 15 minutes in Class A,

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and 13 minutes in Class B. The Stage 4 task was conducted more than two months later after the summer break. The students had not been informed of the task in advance. For this task, they received their first draft (Sheet 1) and were asked to rewrite it on Sheet 5 to understand how well they learn to use native vocabulary and specific expressions. This task took about 15 minutes in each class. In addition to a qualitative investigation of the data, a one-way within-subjects analysis of variance was used to compare the students' vocabulary knowledge at different stages.

IV. Result and Discussion

This study examined the effect of native model writing on the students' vocabulary richness. A one-way repeated measure ANOVA (table 1) was conducted to determine whether the students' vocabulary knowledge changes significantly in different stages.

TABLE 1.
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Stage	Sphericity Assumed	138.857	3	46.286	33.035	.000	.718
	Greenhouse-Geisser	138.857	1.448	95.886	33.035	.000	.718
	Huynh-Feldt	138.857	1.582	87.778	33.035	.000	.718
	Lower-bound	138.857	1.000	138.857	33.035	.000	.718
Error(stage)	Sphericity Assumed	54.643	39	1.401			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	54.643	18.826	2.903			
	Huynh-Feldt	54.643	20.565	2.657			
	Lower-bound	54.643	13.000	4.203			

The factor (stage) had four levels (1, 2, 3, and 4), and the dependent variable was scores on vocabulary knowledge. The results for the 14 individuals showed that the scores between the first stage (M = 13.57, SD = 1.3), the second stage (M = 15.42, SD = 1.5), the third stage (M= 16.57, SD= 1.2), and the fourth stage (M= 17.85, SD= .94) were statistically different [F (3, 39) = 33.35, $p < .05$, partial $\eta^2 = .718$].

Follow-up post hoc analyses (table 2) were conducted using Bonferroni. The results indicate that the scores at stage one (M = 13.5, SD = .374) are significantly lower than average at ages two (M = 15.42, SD = .416), three (M = 16.57, SD = .34), and four (M = 17.85, SD = .254). In addition the post hoc tests indicated that the students' performance in stage one and two was not statistically different (p= 056); however, the students' performance in stages three and four had improved and the results were significant.

TABLE 2.
POST – HOC PAIR WISE COMPARISONS

Measure: MEASURE_1

(I) stage	(J) stage	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.[b]	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-1.857	.610	.056	-3.752	.038
	3	-3.000*	.602	.002	-4.871	-1.129
	4	-4.286*	.539	.000	-5.960	-2.611
2	1	1.857	.610	.056	-.038	3.752
	3	-1.143*	.275	.007	-1.996	-.290
	4	-2.429*	.291	.000	-3.333	-1.524
3	1	3.000*	.602	.002	1.129	4.871
	2	1.143*	.275	.007	.290	1.996
	4	-1.286*	.125	.000	-1.675	-.896
4	1	4.286*	.539	.000	2.611	5.960
	2	2.429*	.291	.000	1.524	3.333
	3	1.286*	.125	.000	.896	1.675

Based on estimated marginal means
*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.
b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

The difference between stage one and two was not statistically significant (p= .056).

In continue of this part and first stage some samples of tabulated data are sorted out in Table 3.

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TABLE 3
THE PROBLEMATIC AREAS AND CORRECT VOCABULARIES USED BY LEARNERS

Problematic	Correct vocabulary
Go to work by bike	Ride the bike to work
Go to her work	Go work
Moved early	Wake up early
Vehicle	Car or bike or bus
Some of the people	Some people
The air was fresh	Nice day
Nice weather	Nice day
Heavy traffic	Huge traffic jam
causes me to be active	motivates me to be active
Stuck	Be stuck or get stuck
In time	On time
Full breakfast	Balanced breakfast
Crowded day	Busy day
Stressful	Stressed
Continue to riding	Keep on riding
Move hand	Wave hand
arrange your suitcase	pack your suitcase
in an off day	on an off day
regular people	ordinary people
On hurry, hurriedly	In hurry
Bike	Ride a bike
It's a topic of girls	It's a girl thing
Border	Board
a lot of efficient	a lot of effective
Speech room	Presentation room
Some else	Someone else, another one
early hours	Extra early
in an off day	on an off day
Accuse for	Accuse of
Anxious for	Anxious about
Travel with the train	Travel by train

Most of the students have problems identifying the right tense, the following examples illustrates their mistakes:

Most of the students has problem identifying the correct grammatical tense and they started their writing using past tense and continue using present tense, so the sentences in their paragraphs do not seem connected:

I was supposed to get there so I *decide* to go…..

It was a really nice weather and bright sun *shines*

It was going to take place an important meeting and jack was *supposed to* have…..

Everybody *get* angry

At stage 1 the students were asked to write the problems they face while writing and most of them are listed below:

I don't know how to say" گیر کردن در ترافیک
I don't know how to say ساعات اولیه صبح
I don't know how to say فروش ماهیانه
I don't know how to say یکی از همکاران جان
I don't know how to say تاخیر
I don't know how to say احساس شرمندگی
I don't know how to say ترافیک سنگین
I don't know how to say اتاق جلسه
I don't know how to say یک مسیر
I don't know how to say ورزش صبحگاهی
I don't know how to say ماشینهای چسبیده بهم
I don't know how to say دوچرخه سوار
I don't know how to say صورت پر از خشم

For the next stage the students were then immediately given two native-speaker models to read and were asked to write on a new sheet of paper to find out how well they make use of the vocabulary and if they correct their mistakes in this sheet of paper and reply to see if the given text help them to write better. By analyzing the students' second writing it was concluded that they significantly use the words and the terms of the given texts and their paragraphs were well-formed. The terms that were use more are listed in Table 4.

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TABLE 4.
THE TERMS USED BY LEARNERS DURING SECOND WRITING

Terms
Extra early
Brilliant day
Ride bike
Be stuck
Wave cheerful
Annoyed as she passed by
No sign of Adams
Made it with plenty of time to spare
Mumbled an apology
Stickler for time keeping
He looked frustrated
The traffic was at a standstill
Got the room for set up
Different from
Full of
Glad about
Good at
Leave for a place
Proud of
Prefer to
Similar to

For final stage students performed another version two months later, for this task, they received their first draft (sheet 1) and were asked to rewrite it on a new sheet. The researcher speculated that having the respondents take notes while writing allowed them to engage in metalinguistic reflection and thereby enhanced the vocabulary size. I felt it may have amplified the positive effects of what they wrote while writing and in turn may have improved retention of the written features.

The first research question posed in this study was: How well l2 learners use English terms and words "while composing a narrative? On their own, the answer to this question was that the students perceived overwhelmingly lexical problems. The second research question was: How do sample texts of native speaker models of writing affect l2 learners' composition? (The answer to this question was also that a large majority of student perceiving was lexical. It should be pointed out as well that in this stage the participants knew more features than in Stage 1 and that content features accounted for nearly 35% of the participants' perceiving. This amplifies the role of native-speaker models in promoting learners' level of perception and specifically in drawing their attention to the content of what they wrote.

It was found that in Stage 1 and 2 of writing process participants perceived lexical deficiency in their interlanguages through output. Moreover, it was shown that this perceived need for vocabulary was conducive to a lexically oriented search for solutions in the two models presented later (Swain, 1998). Overall, these results indicated that 'learners focus, above all things, on words' (Williams, 2001, p.338). The following possibilities also need to be recognized, however.

The first possibility is that lexical features were simply easier to express and report than grammatical ones. The physically demanding note-taking may have caused this. Second, the directions given to the participants *when* they took notes may also have inflated the proportion of lexical problematic features perceived from stage 1. With respect to the perceiving function of output (Swain, 1995; Swain and Lapkin, 1995), it should be noted that during the Stage 2 task, the participants noticed some new problems with their original output while studying the TL models" (Hanaoka, 2007). After analyzing the learners' initial output, that is, before presenting them to the native-like writing sample, the researchers found some linguistic problems recognized and reported by the learners, especially in the application of the vocabulary. Then, after exposing them to native model, they could recognize their problematic areas better and sought to improve them in their second writing which was the chief finding of this study.

These two types of problem recognition may be distinguished from each other. In the case of the former, the learner typically wonders, 'How can I write (say) this?' while in the latter case, the learner may say, 'I should have written (said) it this way.' In this regard, those problems that the participants encounter during output, or 'holes' (Swain, 1998) may represent proactive recognition of problems, whereas those problems that they know for the first time during the comparison stage without being preceded by perceiving of holes may be characterized by reactive recognition of problems (Hanaoka, 2007).

V. CONCLUSION

The findings of this study indicated an important progress of Iranian EFL learners in their writing ability to choose more native-like terms and expressions. The participants, regardless of their proficiency level, noticed their respective linguistic deficiency, autonomously found solutions in the models in their writing, and integrated them in subsequent revisions. Lexical features of the models pertinent to the participants had faced through output were integrated at a higher rate and were also retained longer than unrelated features. This means that output had a positive domino effect on learning. This supports the idea that output plays a main part in both helping learners identify the linguistic features they need and facilitating subsequent learning of these features. Focus-on-form activity in L2 writing, which permits

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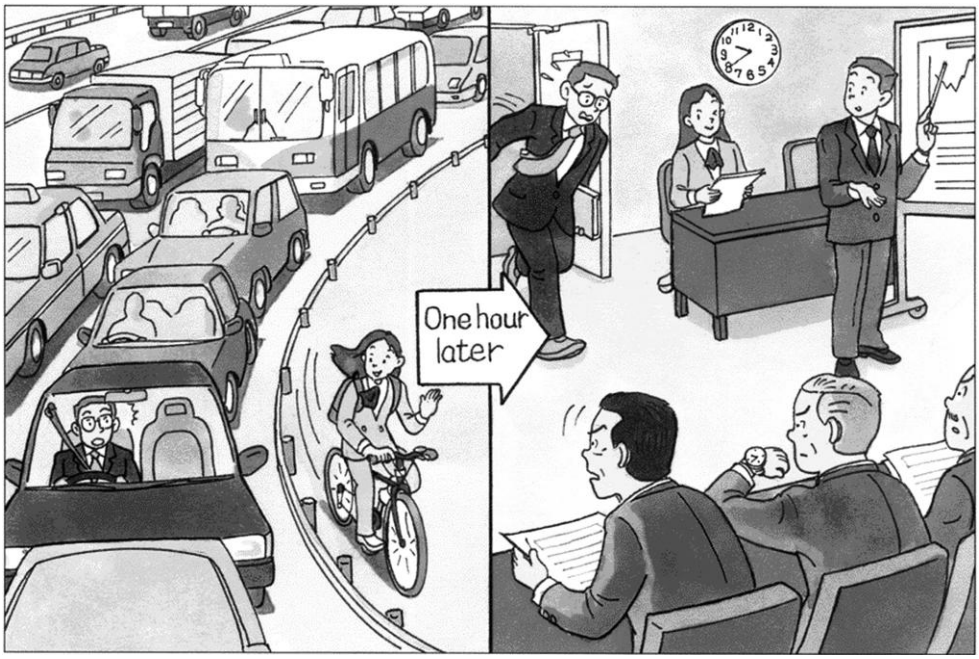
learners to choose target forms based on their own respective needs, might have a strong motivational advantage (Hanaoka, 2007) in learning. When L2 learners were asked to write on their own at stage 1, they couldn't find and use adequate terms and expressions and also they make some grammatical mistakes such as tense- ignorance.

Nevertheless, when they were equipped by native models at stage 2 significant improvements were expected on their composed sheets and as a result, the amount of mistakes was reported less than what they did before. In conclusion the 4-satge native model of writing helps L2 learners to write a well-formed English narrative and make use of better terms and expressions. In summary, in spite of the fact that vocabulary is basically important to comprehension, there has been very little experimental research in the previous 25 years that researches the development of vocabulary in language minority students acquiring English as a societal language. Besides, there is a need to test the effectiveness of specific methods of vocabulary education with this population. We hope that this article will help guide and stimulate additional research on vocabulary development further, this is our hope that, with sound involvements to expand vocabulary and comprehension in ELLs, more students will be recognized as learning disabled, based on less production in this scope.

APPENDIX A. THE PICTURE PROMPT



APPENDIX B. THE TWO NATIVE SPEAKER MODELS

A) Alyssa woke up extra early and decided today would be a brilliant day to ride her bike to work. She made herself a balanced breakfast and proceeded to get ready. The weather was superb. Alyssa got a pleasant head start to work. She took in all the gorgeous scenery and enjoyed every sight. On her way she saw a huge traffic jam. Cars were not going anywhere anytime soon. Alyssa kept on riding so she would not be late and giggled at the sight of one of her co-worker's car. It was Adam Hayes.. He was stuck among all the other cars. Alyssa smiled and waved cheerfully to Adam as she passed. Adam was completely shocked and looked a little annoyed as she passed by. Alyssa proceeded to work and made it with plenty of time to spare. Was she ever so pleased she rode her bike to work. Alyssa walked into the presentation room where an important meeting was to take place. Alyssa checked her watch, "No sign of Adam.", she thought. The meeting started to take place without Adam. About an hour later Adam burst through the door and was clearly out of breath. Everyone was not very amused with such a loud disruption. Adam mumbled an apology and proceeded to take his place. Alyssa couldn't help but smile.

B) I decided to buy a bike and ride to work each day. It isn't too far from my house to the office, only about half and hours ride. Cyclists have their own lanes and so it makes it a lot easier and a lot safer. In my office where I work, they are sticklers for time keeping! And my, to be late is like a criminal offence! Gary my colleague too is very good at time keeping, but one day he didn't do so well. Sometimes he rides to work with me, but last Friday he wasn't there at our usual meeting place to ride together, I wondered if he was all right. But when I was in the cycle lane, the traffic was at a standstill and I saw him in his lovely black car, he looked totally frustrated and stressed. Our office had a special meeting on that day and all the Board were there for a 9 am presentation. I was happy to get there early and got the room set up for the meeting. Gary was supposed to present the latest sales charts to the Board, but at a few minutes to

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nine, his colleague Mark, decided to do the presentation for him. Wow it was a good job that Gary had left all the presentation material in the office the night before! At 9.40am Gary charged through the door making an unceremoniously entrance! He was so stressed, the poor guy. The Board, who are grumpy at the best of times showed their disapproval and annoyance by scowls on their faces, looking at their watches and just generally creating an atmosphere that you could have cut with a knife! I felt sorry for Gary, but Mark had things in hand and when the Board meeting finished, and after Gary apologised profusely. The Board were apologetic too about their actions when they found out that he had to take his wife to hospital for an operation and had forfeited being with her for the Board's report. And to top it off there had been an accident on the road! Poor Gary!

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