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SLA Classroom Research and EFL Teaching Practices of Oral Skills

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Abstract—Second language acquisition studies have been significantly impacting the field of language learning and teaching and constantly informing EFL/ESL teachers with the best practices and implications for their language classes. The present study, therefore, examines issues on teaching practices of oral skills that are addressed in SLA studies and their relevance and applicability to the Saudi EFL situation in higher education. It highlights issues such as, the importance and limitations of the negotiation of meaning in group-work and pairs, the effect of training of interaction strategies on learners' oral development, the importance of predicting intonational prominence, providing appropriate feedback and the use of authentic materials. The present paper will further provide some recommendations on how EFL teachers may initiate interactive speaking activities in the EFL classroom and how that would aid learners' second language development.

Index Terms—SLA studies, negotiation of meaning, authentic materials, appropriate feedback, SLA speaking activities

I. INTRODUCTION

Teachers should always consider and value their students' willingness to speak the target language and teach accordingly. Failing to support students in their attempts to produce output will consequently and consistently deter them from present and future opportunities to speak the language they are learning.

Yet, speaking in the target language is not an easy task and requires sustainable efforts on the part of teachers as well as learners. Bailey and Savage (1994) stated that "Speaking in a second language is the most demanding of the four skills ... for many people, speaking is seen as the central skill" (p. 7). Golebiowska (1990) claimed that speaking is, "...the major and one of the most difficult task confronting any teacher of languages" (p. 9). Luoma (2004) pinpointed that,

"The ability to speak in a foreign language is at the very heart of what it means to be able to use a foreign language. Our personality, our self-image, our knowledge of the world and our ability to reason and express our thoughts are all reflected in our spoken performance in a foreign language (p. 9)

Organizing systematic ways to teach spoken English is a goal worthwhile to achieve taking into account that we have to strike a balance between what we like in a perfect world and what can be done in the real world. However, it seems that in many Saudi EFL classes speaking does not actually receive a major concern either by teachers, students or the administration. The main objectives of the degree course, though addresses speaking goals are lacking realistic implications that are supposed to match students' levels, needs or the learning contexts where no such contact with members of the target group is available.

Although, clearly specified outlines for teaching speaking would be of great help to EFL teachers, there are many obstacles that inhibit the enhancement of oral production skills of Saudi EFL learners. For instance, EFL large class is one of the main hindrances that teachers may encounter. A negative effect on both learners and teachers is always present in such an environment. The majority of learners lack their interest in learning as they may rarely have the chance to speak in the classroom. Teachers, on the other hand, tend to master the scene as to save time and efforts and to have good control over a massive number of students that could be up to one hundred students in one class. In such learning environment, students' passivity is typical and writing skills seems to be the dominant skill for determining students' achievements and language proficiencies.

What follows is a selective account of SLA literature pertaining different perspectives and practices for teaching speaking skills. The purpose is to highlight SLA oral teaching practices that could potentially update traditional teaching practices of oral skills in the EFL Saudi context, provide educators with techniques to enliven their EFL speaking classes and help exceed the existing shortcomings with the least efforts and time particularly in EFL large classes.

II. SLA CONSIDERATION ON TEACHING SPEAKING

A. Timing Teachers' Use of Language

Walsh (2002) stated that, "Teachers' ability to control their use of the language is at least as important as their ability to select appropriate methodologies" (p. 3). He conducted a study where, eight experienced EFL teachers were

requested to participate. Each teacher was asked to make 30 minutes audio-recordings of their lessons. All of them were told that their recordings should contain teacher-fronted activity with examples of teacher-learner interaction. The results showed that only some teachers were able to generate opportunities for learners to participate interactively because their use of language and pedagogic purpose are at one. That is, those teachers were aware of the necessity to make a balance between their use of the language and the pedagogical aim of the task at hand. Walsh concluded his study by confirming the fact that teachers' ability to control their language use has great implications for both teacher education and classroom practices.

Walsh's (2002) study has a clear relevance to the Saudi EFL classroom where teachers usually control the topic of discussion. In such context, teachers tend to speak all the time and most learners are merely listening and not participating. EFL learners are resultantly showing no interest to whatever their teachers talk about or ask them to do. Similarly, some teachers may also show no concern or any feelings of guilt for their students' negligence. Thus, mutual hidden mistrust is building up mostly as the result of teachers' excessive time talking and only hardly as the result of learners' carelessness.

As suggested in the above study, EFL teachers must rethink of their use of the language classroom as to whether it constructs or obstructs learners from having opportunities to use the language meaningfully and appropriately. Walsh also provided some pedagogical implications with which EFL teachers particularly those engaged in teacher-fronted activities should be concerned with:

- (1) engaging learners in the classroom,
- (2) encouraging interactional adjustment between teachers and learners,
- (3) promoting opportunities for self-expression and
- (4) facilitating and encouraging clarification by learners.

Indeed, as Walsh's recommendations implied, when EFL learners are involved even through asking for clarification, they feel they are part of the learning processes and that they share an important part of the responsibility for their own learning. If not, most learners either become uninterested or for the best they tend to concentrate on other aspects of the language such as writing and grammar.

Although, the large number of students may hamper any efforts to adjust and promote interactional strategies in EFL large classes, teachers are still capable of controlling their use of the language. A smart selection of an interesting speaking activity could bring the whole difference in the world in a speaking class. For instance, teachers can use simple activities such as "if-questions" which require students to imagine how they would react to an interesting real life situation using one sentence response. A conditional if question such as, "*what would you do if you are invisible*" would instigate many students to think, act and react.

The mutual interplay between teachers and learners is crucial in the process of L2 acquisition and production. The exchange of roles between speakers and listeners does create a productive context for both learners and teachers while learning and teaching the target language. However, prior to any expected production of output by learners, EFL teachers must guide learners on how to use interaction strategies such as, seeking information, clarifying oneself strategy, using discourse markers, fillers, etc. Learners, then, can develop a sense of involvement and commitment toward better and intelligible utterances in their oral output.

B. Interaction Practices and Strategies

Lam & Wong (2000) carried out a small-scale pilot study to examine the correlation between training of interaction strategies and the development of oral skills in ESL classroom. Fifty-eight sixth secondary students of about 17 years of age and who have been studying English for 13-14 years in Hong Kong were asked to participate. The subjects were average to above average-level. All subjects were asked to participate in a group discussion task and then the discussion was recorded on a pre-and post-training basis. The results indicated that there was not much genuine interaction among learners in the pre-training episode. However, analysis of the post-training episode revealed some sort of interactive speaking in group discussion such as seeking information, clarifying oneself strategy, which did not appear in the pre-training recording. The results also showed many instances of ineffective use of the interaction strategy while trying to participate in group discussion.

However, the process of training learners for the above mentioned interaction strategy needs to be well-planned and should take enough time to measure its effectiveness. We need to teach students interaction strategies such as, asking for clarification, seeking for more information, supporting each other's' output, and expressing thoughts and ideas before we expect them to produce meaningful stretched discourse. Such well-planned training model of interaction strategies would be of a great value to be proposed in the Saudi EFL situation where learners do lack these techniques that are necessary to sustain conversations and avoid communication breakdowns.

Teachers should teach these interaction strategies to their students and remind them to use them while they do tasks. For example, learners can be trained on using phrases and questions such as, "*pardon me*", "*I'm sorry, can you repeat that?*", "*what do you really mean?*", "*can you give me an example of that?*", etc.. Also, the use of discourse markers, such as, *well, I think, and OK* is yet an extremely useful interactional strategy. The ultimate aim for advocating the use of interaction strategies is to enable EFL learners maintain the discussion of a topic and avoid any gaps in communication.

C. Negotiation of Meaning

A great deal of research studies in SLA explored the role of negotiation of meaning in language acquisition. Mackey (1999) claimed that active participation in conversational interaction affect positively the production of more advanced structures. Nakahama, Tyler & Lier (2001) argued that conversation that takes place during the negotiation of meaning offer substantial learning opportunities at multiple levels of interaction (e.g., discourse management, interpersonal dynamics, topic continuity). De La Fuente (2002) found that learners' comprehension of L2 vocabularies, L2 receptive vocabulary, L2 production and retention were greater when they had opportunity to negotiate meaning in groups.

Pica, et al (1996) suggested that "participation in verbal interaction offer opportunities for learners to follow up on new words and structures to which they have been exposed during language classroom and to practice them in context", (p.59). She conducted a study to test student-student negotiation of meaning and how they help each other to aid their L2 learning while being engaged in negotiated interaction. Thirty two low intermediate Japanese students of English participated in her study. Participants were divided into two groups; twenty NNSs learner-learner group and 10 NSs-learner dyads. Pica found that Learners, though a limited source of modified input and modified output, can provide opportunities for feedback in a simple form. She also found that learners provided more utterances of feedback of the simple segmentation type than did the NSs. Moreover, learners provided morphosyntactically adjusted L2 utterances when they work with each other.

On the other hand, Musumeci (1996) investigated teacher-student negotiation of meaning in three content-based language classrooms. Three 50-minute lessons conducted by three teachers. The three classes contained 14, 20, 14 students respectively learning Italian. The results showed that teachers modified their language when students indicated signals of non-understanding while verbal or non-verbal. Moreover, teachers modified their speech regardless of the activity type (whole class, small groups, or one-to-one), but the students, in this study, preferred to ask for clarification only when they were in small groups or one-to-one interaction with the teachers. Musumeci stated that negotiation of meaning is crucial as it initiates modification of the input by teachers and that makes the input more comprehensible to students. Musumeci also suggested that more negotiation of meaning might result in learner-modified output which will render their speech to be comprehensible to their teachers who are native speakers. Unlike Foster (1998), Musumeci confirmed that negotiation is an important component of the learning experience and that it should not be considered as a repair of imperfect or failed communication.

Pica and her colleagues' (1996) study corroborated the influence of negotiated interaction on learners' modification of their speech while interacting with each other or with native speakers of English. Musumeci's (1996) study, on the other hand, confirmed the importance of the negotiation of meaning in the learning experience as it does not only result in the modification of the teachers' speech but also the modification of learners' language while interacting with their teachers.

However, fostering EFL learners to ask their teachers for clarification by uttering a statement like "I'm sorry! I do not understand" seems to be too difficult to be asked by Saudi EFL learners. It is culturally sensitive for Saudi learners to tell their teacher that they don't understand something particularly in public school settings. However, in higher education where EFL language educators are from different cultural backgrounds and even have more tolerance to such inquiries, teachers should let their students know that it is OK to ask for clarification or express their inability of understanding the topic of discussion. Moreover, teachers should appreciate that using self-clarification strategies is in fact an effective strategy for learners to modify their input which will in turn have potential positive impacts on their ability to speak and express themselves on the long run.

Interestingly, Foster (1998) lessened the influence of the negotiation of meaning in learner-learner interaction under real classroom conditions. She added more support to the need for greater negotiation for meaning between teachers and learners. Foster reported a classroom observation of the negotiation of meaning by EFL learners engaged in required and optional information exchange in both dyads and small groups. The subjects were twenty part-time intermediate students and from a wide age range (17-41). They were assigned to perform four communicative tasks; two by students working in dyads and two by students working in small groups. The results showed that there were very few instances for negotiated interaction whether in dyads or in the small groups. It was also observable in this study that many students did not speak at all. Foster claimed that group-work tasks designed to negotiate meaning might de-motivate learners rather than encouraging them to develop their speaking skills as they feel incompatible and unsuccessful repeating themselves while asking for clarification. She argued that when learners face gaps in communication, they tend not to use the strategy of negotiating for meaning.

This study actually hints at an important point that persists in the Saudi EFL classrooms where many students do not participate or even talk when they are asked to work in groups. That is true, however, unlike what was stated in the above study I would argue that Saudi EFL do not participate mainly because they do not have enough linguistic foundations that would help them negotiate meaning with each other or with their teachers. In this respect, I think Saudi EFL learners should not only be taught strategies for negotiating meaning through introducing them to some phrases of asking for clarification but also with activities that train them to employ their lexical repertoire, exchange information, express their thoughts and ideas and only through activities that are of interest to them.

D. The Use of Authentic Materials

Another issue that is profoundly discussed in SLA is the use of authentic materials particularly those of corpus based as they represent real spoken genre. McCarthy (1998) stated that, “learners trained to be good observers of data have taken an important step towards facilitating features of talk” (p.52). Basturkmen, (2001) argued that authentic texts could be used to raise the learners’ awareness of language use and strategies of interactive speaking through engaging learners in question-response sequences in talk.

Basturkmen examined three conventional types of description of questioning and their limitations in ELT materials; form-based focus, useful expressions focus, and no language focus. In response to the limitations of the types of questioning used in ELT materials, the author suggested a nice sample of text focused-instructions that teachers may follow to guide learners to the features of interactive talk used in their authentic texts. Some of these instructions are;

1) studying transcribed turns to identify common patterns; using a recording or a transcript to identify how speakers ask for...respond to, etc;

2) transcribing small segments from a recording of naturally occurring talk.

Basturkmen's (2001) model of questioning is guided by text focused-instructions and usually targets advanced learners. Such model can also have great implications for training beginners and intermediates in the Saudi EFL academic setting. For instance, EFL learners can be encouraged to identify common and fixed patterns, phrases or expressions of the language used in authentic texts. When learners become active observers of language use through questioning by asking for clarification or confirmation it is time then to provide them with interactive activities that drive them to initiate discussions and contribute ideas with their peers and their teachers.

E. *Suprasegmental Aspects (Intonational Prominence)*

Arabic and English phonological system vary extensively, not only in the range of the sounds each language has, but also in the relative importance of stress and intonation. The teaching of suprasegmental aspects of English is therefore crucial for enhancing Arabic learners' functional intelligibility. There is, however, a predisposition in the Saudi EFL situation to focus on the speech sounds of English, its place and manner of articulation with little concern of suprasegmental aspects of English, such as stress, intonation, and rhythm.

Levis (2001) highlighted the importance of teaching focus, or intonational prominence on functional basis so that it can be transferred meaningfully by learners into their speech. The author argued that intonational prominence, which can be predicted through word class and new-given information, is a critical part of any pronunciation course because of its crucial role in confirming the information that is important in any communicative situation. Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin (1996) argued that “intonation is an essential part of oral communicative competence that is not usually self-evident to non-native speakers”, (p. 218). The author presented some major problems associated with predicting word class and new given information. For instance, the major problem with predicting focus by word class is that it does not always work well in context as focus in context is usually related to information structure. In response to the traditional ways of teaching predicting focus, the author presented an approach to predicting focus through three functional regularities: *focus in answers to question, the correction of misinformation, and focus in repeated questions*.

Saudi EFL learners are not trained on how and where to place intonational prominence within individual words or sentences in continuous discourse. They are not aware that placing stress improperly on English words can sometimes alter its meaning and could be perceived differently. It is, therefore, valuable as Levis observed in his study, to train learners with activities that address, for instance, the *focus in answers to question* and *focus in repeated questions*. For example, the teacher can write the answers to four questions about himself/herself, marking the focus, “four YEARS”. Students in small groups try to guess what the questions are, “*How long* have you been as a teacher?” This type of activities helps learners identify the focus that is used to provide specific information in answering questions. This training, as the writer suggested will help learners benefit from the “functional uses of language that have clear focus regularities that can be readily applied during the course of speaking” (p. 54).

F. *The Impractical Use of CLT Practices*

It is noteworthy here that there is also a tendency to mechanically follow the communicative language teaching method. The speaking syllabus contains many dialogues that address issues such as asking for direction, permission, requesting, etc. Learners are usually asked to practice reading these dialogues rather than for example noticing its linguistic features that could potentially be incorporated in their oral discourse. Unless language educators adjust and adapt CLT practices to suit their learners' needs and language proficiencies, learners will never be able to participate in normal conversation.

Celce-Murcia et al (1997) called for a new perspective of communicative language teaching in the ELT classroom. They argued that CLT, though meant to enhance the learners’ communicative skills, needs to be adapted into a more specific principled approach. The authors explained that the system of language functions proposed by CLT deals mostly with ways of expressing agreeing, inviting, asking for permission, etc, and that in itself as Widdowson (cited in this study, 1978) suggested does not actually represent “the whole business of communication” (p. 9). They explained that the neglect of linguistic competence by many CLT supporters can be compensated by raising the learners’ awareness of structural regularities and formal prosperities, which will, in turn, increase the language attainment. The authors’ purpose is apparently to call for a new principled communicative approach that involves basically three main tendencies, cited in the above study, and is proposed by Dornyei and Thurrel (1994):

- (1) adding formulaic language,
- (2) raising learners' awareness of the organizational principles of language use within and beyond the sentence level, and
- (3) sequencing communicative tasks more systematically in accordance with a theory of discourse-level grammar.

This article is very valuable in that it shows how important for teachers to realize that CLT in its traditional broad form is not always the magical solution to produce oral output. Although, there is a tendency in the Saudi EFL context towards focusing on language functions such as agreeing, inviting, etc., the outcomes of such approach are not always perceptible. Saudi learners remain unable to use the language as it has been planned. As Celce-Marcia and her colleagues suggested, we are in need for a more specific principled communicative approach that provides both communicative opportunities and a logical coherent framework for teachers to apply such an approach.

G. Providing Feedback

Feedback is yet another crucial aspect that needs to be addressed in this paper with regard to the SLA literature. The literature is abundant with SLA studies that recommend teachers to not overtly correct EFL learners' mistakes while producing verbal responses or while speaking dialogues or conversation particularly in the EFL classroom where students are too sensitive to teachers' feedback (Kepner 1991; Semke 1984; Sheppard 1992; Truscott 1996).

Pica (1996) confirmed that learners' response to negative feedback did not have an immediate impact on modifying learners' production. However, feedback should be explicit and very selective as not to inhibit the learners' attempt to communicate. Truscott (1996) claimed that error correction should be altogether abandoned, stating some motives for such drastic action: (a) explicit EC can be discouraging, (b) many teachers themselves are unable to completely understand students' mistakes and therefore should not attempt to fix them, c) it is nearly impossible for a teacher to adequately balance consistency with variation to account for their students' individual linguistic and affective needs because the effectiveness of different EC techniques depends on certain characteristics of the individuals in a class (e.g., previous achievement, extrinsic motivation, and anxiety).

Hence, it could have been withdrawn that EFL learners cannot reach the level of intelligible speaking simply by giving them too much feedback. In fact, as students regularly practice using the target language they may reach a level where they may be able to notice the mistakes they commit while speaking. They may develop a sense of self-correction strategy that will help them avoid committing such mistakes, particularly, those mistakes that might repeatedly appear in similar communicative situations.

In the light of the above discussion, such pedagogical reforms necessitate plenty of time and consistent efforts taking into account that every learning context is different and that there is no single best methods that could fit into all contexts. However, we, language educators, can agree on the feasibility and usefulness of having an interactive speaking class which entails the use of carefully selected or designed authentic speaking activities, teaching of interaction strategies, providing appropriate feedback and considering students' needs and language proficiencies. Incorporating these principles in the EFL speaking classes can at least pave the road for boosting learners' communicative competencies and ensure that learners are on the right track towards better production of L2.

III. SLA SPEAKING ACTIVITIES

In designing or selecting speaking activities, EFL teachers need to consider that such activities should represent different purposes from those of written ones. Enabling learners to speak in a language is different from teaching them how to write and record events in the same language. Spoken interaction has a different mechanism including verbal and non-verbal speech behaviors and different sociocultural norms and conventions. As Burns (1998) put it out, "many classroom materials designed for the teaching of speaking are, at the least, less than appropriate, and often misleading and disempowering; they fail to provide second language speakers with depiction of conversational data or with effective strategies for facilitating spoken communication in English", (p. 106).

Nevertheless, there are many other communicative activities that could significantly prepare learners to be proficient and confident in speaking the target language. Nonverbal introduction activities are typical examples of these activities. For example, the teacher tells students that each student should introduce himself/herself to his/her partner without speaking. The students can use gestures, signals, visuals or anything nonverbal. For example, pointing at a wedding ring may indicate marriage. The students then can speak out what they have practiced as nonverbal communication.

Another activity that might be of a great value to EFL teachers who are faced with large classes is the activity of describing an event. The students are divided into several groups (3 to 5 students each). Group members can share something new and good that happened to them last week. This is a voluntary response which students can do in any order. Examples of this activity might involve a communicative structure like: "*I am proud of myself because.. ("I took the bus for the first time and I did not get lost")*".

For more advanced learners, they might be given some relevant cultural and social topics for a prepared talk. This task can be given to students as homework for the next day. Therefore, they can prepare their talk in advance. It is not suggested that teachers ask their students to hand their written prepared talks. However, students can be welcomed to discuss their talks before delivering them in the classroom. Moreover, teachers should not recommend their students to memorize their talks. Memorization should not be considered as a means to facilitate the learners attempt to speak.

Instead, learners can have key points or headlines written in a piece of paper which they can use while presenting their topics.

In addition, Lazaraton in Celce-Murcia (2001) suggested some of the major types of speaking activities that are also applicable to the EFL classroom, such as discussions, speeches, role plays, conversations, audiotaped oral dialogue journals and other accuracy based activities. He also suggested that the teacher can assign students to out-of-class learning activities, such as watching and/ or listening to an English-language film, television show, or to an English-language film, television, or radio program.

Riggenbach (1999) suggested some conversational activities that help learners understand how native or proficient speakers of English generate discussions on possible pattern of the discourse and then to raise the learners' awareness of how their talk is similar or dissimilar to native or proficient speakers' talks. Some of these activities are; turn taking, discussions, speech events, storytelling, informative talk, attitudes and assumptions, listener responses /backchannels, etc.

IV. PEDAGOGICAL CONSIDERATIONS

There are many activities out in the field of SLA and the teaching of foreign languages. EFL teachers can always have the choice to adapt or adjust these speaking activities to what could be more appropriate to their learning and teaching contexts. However, prior to teaching speaking, EFL teachers can best serve their students by evaluating their learning scenarios in terms of students' needs, students' language levels, textbooks, course objectives, other teachers' experiences, etc. The following are also some of the insights and considerations that I gained from my teaching experiences in speaking classes.

1. Teachers no matter what they do, they cannot simply make students speak. Rather, they can guide them to better techniques and practices to produce oral output.
2. Students should develop a sense of involvement and responsibility for their own learning of how, when and what to say. Teachers should help them realize that they have an important role in L2 acquisition and production.
3. Students are different when it comes to speaking. Even less hard working students can be better speakers simply because they have enough desire and willingness for speaking.
4. Many students prefer to focus more on writing while some prefer to focus on developing their speaking skills
5. Mechanical teaching and learning can also be manifested in using prescribed ESL speaking textbooks where students don't feel an immediate effect of such activities on their oral output.
6. The more you ignore students' actual specific needs for communication, the further the students detach themselves from the learning processes in speaking classes.
7. The best speaking activities ever can greatly be seen in activities that address the students' own cultural, social and everyday life situations. Things that students can understand, feel, know and talk about in their L1 before thinking about it in L2.
8. Acting role plays that students don't experience in their everyday life situations is a false start for teaching speaking.
9. Teachers should lessen the students' error phobia by not overtly correcting their mistakes.
10. Exams in speaking classes should not pose a threat on students or be considered as a criterion for passing or failing a speaking class.

V. CONCLUSION

With regard to the above SLA perspectives, practices and considerations discussed in this paper, I do firmly believe that interactive speaking cannot take place in the Saudi EFL context unless teachers control their use of language and give a space for learners to practice and express their stance. Students should feel that they are contributing to their own learning and not only satisfying their teachers' demands or final exams' requirements. Actually, teachers know what types of activities that can instigate and elicit responses from their learners. Deviating from the prescribed norms is not a sin since it would fairly benefit EFL learners' communicative needs.

Incorporating collaborative communicative tasks is a good start for enabling learners to modify their speech by asking for clarification and negotiate meaning with their peers and teachers. Through gradual instructional training for learners to exploit useful interaction strategies, learners, including weaker ones, will develop confidence for uttering other oral discourses in other communicative contexts.

In conclusion, an interactive speaking environment is doable only when EFL learners are allowed to take part in understanding, analyzing and shaping their learning developmental processes. They should be encouraged to express their needs and uncover the gaps in their interlanguage repertoire whether these gaps are linguistic, grammatical, or sociocultural. Hence, learners can realize the significance of learning in a speaking class and that it is meant for developing their oral skills rather than overwhelming them with quizzes and assignments.

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Impact of Peer Correction on Reducing English Language Students' Mistakes in Their Written Essays in PAUC and Learners' Attitudes towards This Technique*

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Abstract—This study aims at investigating effectiveness of peer correction on students' progress in their written essays at PAUC. It also aims to investigate learners' attitudes towards peer correction technique. Twenty sophomore English major students aged 19-21 years, who are taking Writing II course with the researcher, were selected to be the participants of this study. To achieve the aims of the study, the researcher used three tools: a questionnaire, a pretest-posttest and students' portfolios. The students had to correct and evaluate the essays, and respond to them during the lectures that each lasted for about 90 minutes. Results of the study showed that students have positive attitudes towards peer-correction and that most of the students were either interested or enjoyed this technique. Scores of the students in pretest-posttest showed significant progress in students' abilities in writing essays as they found more mistakes by the end of the semester. Comparison between essay number one and essay number eight showed a plummeting percentage of mistakes. It is recommended that peer correction should be applied in a modest and proper way, with the teacher's careful monitoring.

Index Terms—peer correction, learners' attitudes, the writing process, the writing product

I. INTRODUCTION

As an English Language teacher, I can say that English writing skill has been forming a real challenge to students I have taught throughout 21 years of teaching English. This belief was confirmed by (Spratt & Leung, 2000) who stated that English language learners feel uncomfortable as they write paragraphs or essays in English language. The researcher believes that this state of comfortableness can be attributed to different factors. Teachers' insistence on correcting all students' mistakes is one of these factors. Ahangari (2014) stated that the shift to self/peer correction was the concern of many linguists throughout the last decades. Therefore, the focus was directed towards students-centered approaches rather than teachers-centered approaches. The importance of providing feedback to learners' writing cannot be denied in the second language learning process. The available literature shows that there are various ways to provide feedback that are commonly used in teaching a language: teacher correction (with comments), error identification, commentary, teacher-student conference, peer correction, and self-correction. Witbeck (1976) concluded that peer correction helps students discover most of the errors that may lead to better writing. To the best of the researchers knowledge, studies conducted in Palestine neglected investigating the effectiveness of peer correction on students' improvement in writing skills and the number of mistakes committed by the learners when they -correct their mistakes individually or with the help of their course mates.

According to the Communicative Language Teaching Approach, errors are considered natural outcomes of communicative competence. Even the role of teacher is dramatically changed as they become facilitators, monitors, advisors and more tolerant towards their students mistakes. This change in teachers' role help students depend on themselves rather than on their teachers. This dependency means that students are supposed to be active participants in the whole process and they have their own responsibilities and duties to be accomplished on time. Teachers need to initiate activities and then they should urge their students to expand the activities through working in groups, pairs, projects etc. Having students engaged in activities they enjoy, leads to a higher level of motivation from the students side. All in all, the researcher believes that allowing students to take responsibility for their own work enhances their motivation. This drives the researcher to investigate the extent to which peer correction has impact on reducing the errors committed by learners and what changes in their attitudes towards this technique are. The idea of peer correction is in harmony with the saying, "Tell us, we forget; Show us we remember; Involve us, we learn". Peer correction is implemented in classrooms to enhance learner autonomy, cooperation, interaction and involvement. Moreover, peer correction may bring about significant improvement in students' writing skills. Correcting mistakes by peers does not

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only enable students to be more aware of their peers' mistakes, but it also promotes their level in academic writing in general. Students' motivation is expected to be increased when they correct themselves away from the teachers' direct intervention.

All of the above arguments in addition to my long experience in teaching have been a drive for this study to be conducted under the title of "Impact of Peer Correction on Reducing English Language Students' Mistakes in their Written Essays in PAUC and their Attitudes towards this Technique".

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Peer correction

Peer correction is a classroom technique where learners correct each other, rather than the teacher doing this. In the early methods of language teaching, teachers were considered to be the sole source of knowledge. However, the recent technique will highlight the autonomy learning in which we have active students who are really involved in the process of learning. With such a change, peer error correction will be adopted in this study instead of depending on teachers to correct students' mistakes. As a correction technique, peer correction has been backed by a lot of theories of language teaching. Paul Rollinson, 2005 (cited in Sultana, 2009) stated the following underlying principles:

1. Peer feedback is less threatening than teacher feedback because students are more comfortable with their classmates and therefore, getting corrected by own friends evokes less anxiety.
2. When correction comes from the teacher, it reinforces teacher's authority. In a traditional language class, the teacher is the authoritative figure and he/she is considered the sole source of knowledge. Students play the role of just a passive receiver of information. In contrast, the practice of peer feedback leads the classroom to be less dominated by the teacher.
3. The involvement of peers in the correction process makes the classroom atmosphere more supportive and friendlier.

Language attitude

Richards, Platt and Platt (1992) (cited in Minh (2015) have defined learners' attitudes as "the attitudes which speakers of different languages or language varieties have towards each other's languages or their own language." Moreover, Nunan and Lamb (1996) have concluded that "the attitude of learners towards the target language, the learning situation and the roles that they are expected to play within that learning situation will have an important effect on the learning process."

In brief, language attitudes can be seen as the attitudes of learners towards a language and the learning situation of that language, which express the positive or negative feelings about the language learning process. The importance of knowing learners' attitudes cannot be neglected since learners may lose their language competence easily when possessing a negative attitude. Hence, it is advisable for teachers to decrease the negative attitude of learners, and to promote their positive feeling with determination, courage and academic success.

In conclusion, there is evidence to consider peer correction as a technique which is a considerably "good thing" to do in class. Therefore, this study is conducted to acknowledge learners' attitudes towards peer correction and to find a good way to apply this technique into practice.

The writing process: In this approach, students are taught some significant strategies that enable them to follow specific interrelated steps that aims at breaking the writing process into manageable parts. Brainstorming and mind mapping are widely used in this approach to help students gradually move forward till they write the final draft.

The Writing Product: This approach focuses on the mechanical aspects of writing such as grammatical and syntactical structure. It also emphasizes correctness of the final product without taking into account the series of steps followed in the approach of writing as a process.

Pertinent studies

Irene (2015) conducted a study to investigate the attitudes of students toward corrective feedback in classroom oral errors among Kalinga-Apayao State College students. A sample of 365 students of Kalinga-Apayao State College participated in the study to supply their perceptions towards corrective feedback on classroom oral errors. The questionnaire was used as a tool to collect data. Results of the study showed that students preferred the three types of correcting techniques: teacher correction, peer correction and peer correction.

Minh (2015) conducted a study that aims at investigating elementary learners' attitudes towards peer correction in English writing at VUS center by using a questionnaire. Findings reveal that students have both positive and negative attitudes towards peer correction, depending on the role the students are playing. For instance, when the students correct their friends' writing, they tend to feel confident and excited; however, when the students have their writing corrected by their peers, they become unsure, worried, and scared to an extent. Thus, the researcher suggests that peer correction should be applied in a proper way, with teachers' careful supervision and monitoring.

Ahangari (2014) investigated the effect of self, peer and teacher correction on pronunciation improvement of Iranian EFL learners. To achieve the purpose of this study, 45 participants were selected from among 60 English language learning students who were divided into three groups. Some picture series were given to the participants to make and then tell a story based on the scripts. In the self-correction group every participant had to correct her pronunciation errors individually, in the peer correction group the participants in pairs corrected each other's pronunciation errors and

for the third group their errors were corrected by the teacher. This process continued for 15 sessions. A pre-test and post-test were administered. The results showed that the pronunciation of the self-correction group improved more than the other two groups and peer correction group outperformed the teacher correction group.

Maryam (2013) conducted a research project which compared peer assessment of English university students' corrections. In addition, it investigated possible friendship bias in peer assessment as well as the impacts of this practice on learners' attitudes towards it. To this aim, a total of 38 university students of English who were passing their writing course took a proficiency test and filled in a pre-questionnaire. To analyze the collected data from the 26 subjects who participated in all parts of the study paired sample t-test and chi square were applied. The results revealed no significant difference between the learners' peer assessment and the teacher assessment. No friendship bias was found in peer assessment, but this practice led to the change of students' attitudes towards a positive perception on peer assessment.

Ashok (2012) presents a study that concerns with development of writing skills through peer and teacher correction technique. The purpose of the study was to investigate the progress that students show while writing essays. After the collection of data, results show improvement in students' writing in posttest than in pre-test. The peer correction and teacher correction technique was found productive in teaching writing through action research as a whole.

Jahin (2012) conducted a study that aimed to ascertain the current level of writing apprehension experienced by Saudi prospective EFL teachers and their current level of essay writing ability. It also aimed to assess the impact of peer reviewing on their writing apprehension level and essay writing ability. Data collection was carried out via two instruments: Second Language Writing Anxiety Inventory (SLWAI) (Cheng, 2004) and an essay writing test. The study sample consisted of 40 divided into two groups: Control (n=20) and Experimental (n=20). The experimental group participants were introduced to peer-reviewing essay writing sessions while the control group participants were taught through the traditional teacher feedback-based essay writing. Results of data analysis showed positive impacts of peer reviewing on experimental group participants' writing apprehension and essay writing ability.

Sultan (2009) published a paper that reviews peer correction as a 'popular' technique to be used in classroom and explores several issues regarding this. The study tries to see whether peer correction is accepted by students in the context of Bangladesh, and whether the acceptability varies between adult and the young learners. Results showed that most of the students of Bangladesh are in a similar state, where they still view teacher correction to be the only way of providing feedback.

Ganji (2009) conducted a study to investigate the impact of Teacher-correction, Peer-correction, and Self-correction on the performance of Iranian advanced students on IELTS writing test. The sample of the study was 54 students out of 75 IELTS candidates. Results of the study showed that there was a significant difference between teacher correction and self-correction groups, between teacher-correction and peer-correction groups, and between self-correction and peer-correction groups. The findings suggested that peer-correction and self-correction were much more effective than the teacher-correction, and peer-correction was shown to be the best method of giving feedback.

III. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aims at finding answers to the following research questions:

1. What are the learners' attitudes towards using peer correction in writing essays?
2. Does peer correction help PAUC English language students find out their mistakes in their written essays?
3. Does peer correction help students reduce mistakes in their writing skill as they progresses from the first essay to the last one?

IV. STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

In Palestine, our students face serious difficulties in expressing themselves even after studying English for 12 years. They come to universities with significant weakness in all aspects of the language especially in writing. Although teachers do their best to promote and develop students' level, they still suffer a lot when they write in English language. They still have made variety of mistakes when writing. Consequently, PAUC students are not exceptional ones. During the last three years, I have noticed that many of PAUC students are suffering from serious weakness in the writing skill. Although English language teachers have made an effort to minimize students' mistakes in their writing, teachers still notice many problems in students' writing. However, when we discuss this phenomenon, my colleagues in most of the universities say that it is so difficult to correct all students' essays as it consume much time and need much effort. Consequently, they lessen the number of assigned assignments so that they conform their time and ability. So, teacher become more aware of the importance of using peer correction technique as it contribute in overcoming the aforementioned restrictions.

V. AIMS OF THE STUDY

The study aims to investigate effectiveness of peer correction on progress of the students in their written essays at PAUC. It also aims to investigate learners' attitudes towards this type of feedback – peer correction. Then, the researcher tends to find an appropriate way to apply peer correction into practice for better quality of learning that may bring about a positive change in students' ability to be successful and able writers.

VI. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

There is considerable significance of this study in the English writing teaching activity at PAUC. Firstly, teachers of English are expected to have a better view on learners' abilities and attitudes towards peer correction. Secondly, this study will help the teachers of English decide whether to use this feedback technique in teaching writing or not. Thirdly, it is expected that this study will be one of the references for other researchers in the same field to explore more deeply about learners' attitudes towards peer correction. Moreover, results of this study are supposed to bring about a dramatic change in teachers and students' position towards the use of peer correction technique. We might find in the near future more teachers adopting this technique in correcting their students mistakes. This study may also show benefits of adopting student-centered approach in the process of teaching and learning.

VII. SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study is carried out at PAUC, Bethlehem City, Palestine. It only focuses on the effectiveness of peer correction and students' attitudes towards this type of feedback in English Writing II course. Hopefully, the findings of the study will reflect the actual situation and help the researcher find out effective approaches to teaching English writing, using peer correction.

VIII. OVERVIEW OF WRITING PROCESS

Process writing is an approach to writing in which learners adhere to some logical steps they need to follow in this process of writing. By the end of this process they have the target product. In this study, the researcher adopted the following stages throughout the manipulation (Oshima, 1998).

- **Prewriting stage:** In this stage students need to brainstorm their mind to generate as many ideas as possible using mind mapping or outlining.
- **Composing / drafting:** In this stage students start writing their essays referring to the outline written in stage one.
- **Revising:** In this stage learners have to revise their work using peer correction technique focusing in all components of well-organized essays.
- **Rewriting:** In this stage students need to rewrite their essays once again correcting all mistakes found during stage three.
- **Responding:** In this stage students negotiate meaning, structure and all other components of essays with the teacher and the peers.
- **Evaluating:** As a result of the previous discussion in stage five, the teacher give marks for each essay.

IX. METHODOLOGY

Before initiating the writing process, students were informed that a study will be conducted throughout the spring semester to investigate the effectiveness of using peer correction. All students showed their agreement without any objection. Then the researcher trained students on the effective ways of correcting mistakes and how they should cooperate in order to get the highest benefit out of this technique. The researcher provided each student with a correction symbols that include codes with their meanings in addition to examples (correct & incorrect ones). Students were asked to concentrate on mechanics of writing, subject verb agreement, tense, verb forms, parts of speech, the structure of the sentence, the content, use of transitions and the organization of the essay.

Data Collection

In conducting this study, the researcher used the mixed approach based on a designed questionnaire, a portfolio and a pretest-posttest design to collect data needed. All students had been practicing peer correction for the whole period of the second semester of the academic year 2015/2016 in PAUC with the instruction and assistance from the researcher – the instructor of Writing II course.

Data Analysis

Since the statistics needed for this study is not complicated, the researcher used descriptive statistics which includes figures and percentages displayed in tables and graphs.

Participants and procedure

Twenty sophomore major students aged 19-21 years, who are taking Writing II course with the researcher, were selected to be the participants of this study. To start, a pretest was given to the group. After that, the participants were asked to write their essays according to the instructions, writing guidelines and criteria they had already received (appendix 3, Oshima (1998) & Ganji (2009). The experiment was run over a four-month period with group receiving peer feedback. The students were assigned to write 8 essays on topics chosen by the researcher. In fact, the writing process was conducted in subsequent stages: First students were asked to write their essays after getting the title from the teacher and brainstorming the topic. Second, as soon as they finish their first draft, all essays are to be mingled so that each student can revise his peer's essay. Third, after peer review, each pair should meet in order to discuss the mistakes in their essays. At this stage, the research's intervention sometimes occurs especially when there is a kind of disagreement. Finally, each student is to rewrite his/her essay correcting all mistakes found by his classmate.

Participants were also asked to respond to a questionnaire (Appendix 1) that aims at recognizing students attitudes toward the use of the peer correction technique throughout the whole semester. Finally, at the end of the course, participants were given a posttest to find out the change in mistakes number discovered by the students compared to the number of the mistakes found in the pre-test. This pretest-posttest contains a paragraph with many mistakes through which students were asked to read it carefully so as to find as many mistakes as possible.

Research tools

Pretest-posttest: In this study there is only one group and all of them are in the experimental condition. The reason the researcher run a pretest-posttest (Appendix 2) experiment is to see if the manipulation, peer correction, has caused a change in participants ability in identifying their mistakes as a crucial element of self-development. Students were asked to read an essay with many mistakes to test their ability in finding out as many mistakes as possible. This essay was given to students twice as a pretest-posttest conducted before and after the treatment.

Questionnaire: The questionnaire aims at investigating students attitudes towards using peer correction on developing writing skills. It was of two main parts: the first part consists of 11 items that students needed to respond to by ticking one of the four-Lickert scale options (agree, strongly agree, disagree and strongly disagree); the second part consisted of two questions that subjects can respond to by choosing one option or more from the choices provided.

Portfolio: The Portfolio focuses on students' accumulated work from the beginning of the term till the end. This aims to recognize the progress in students' performance from the first essay till the last one. This portfolio included 8 essays.

Validity and reliability of instruments

In order for the tools to be reliable and valid, the following were done:

The questionnaire and the pretest-posttest were administered to a number of academic staff specializing in relevant fields to evaluate and judge it. Some recommendations and adaptations were suggested by the jury. Their recommendations and adaptations were taken into account by the researcher.

To guarantee the reliability of the questionnaire, the researchers used Cronbach's Alpha test. Its results can be seen in the table below.

TABLE (1):
RESULTS OF CRONBACH'S ALPHA TEST.

Cronbach's Alpha	No. of items	Sample size
0.914	13	20

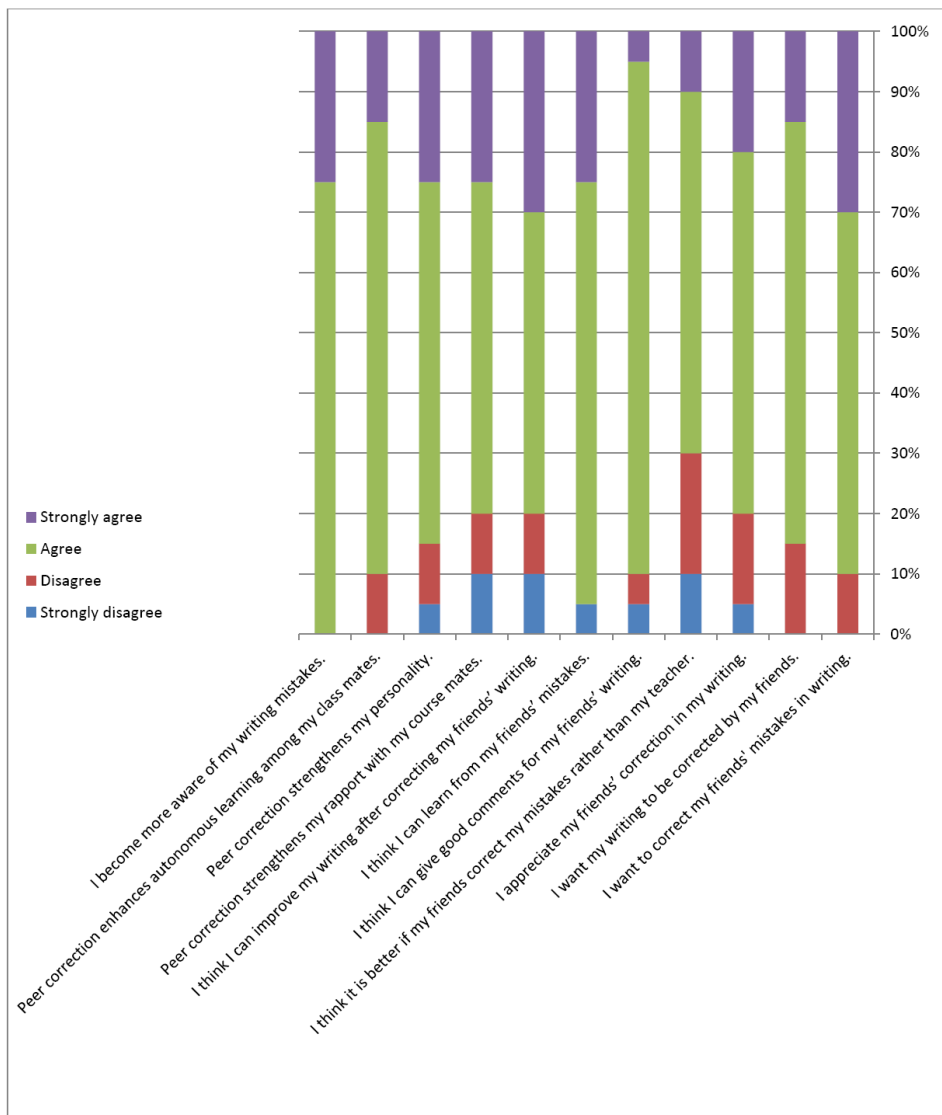
As seen in the above table, this percentage (0.91) shows a high degree of reliability and this is acceptable according to the standards of scientific studies.

X. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Question One: What are the learners' attitudes towards using peer correction in writing essays?

To answer this question, the researcher calculated the numbers and percentages of all subjects' responses on items 1-11 of questionnaire. graph (1) below shows percentages of students responses for each of the four options of Lickert Scale (1=strongly disagree, 2= disagree, 3= agree and 4= strongly agree). Results are shown in graph below (1).

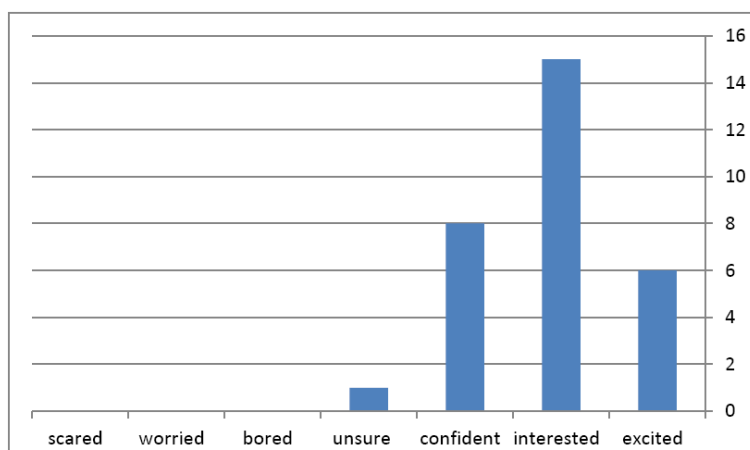
Graph (1) below shows that (90%) of students showed their agreement on correcting their friends' mistakes in writing, and 30% of them were strongly agreed. In response to the item (I want my writing to be corrected by my friends), 75% of the subjects showed their agreement, and 15% were strongly disagreed. 80% of respondents were either agreed or strongly agreed on the item (I appreciate my friends' correction in my writing). The item (I think it is better if my friends correct my mistakes rather than my teacher) obtained 60% of students' agreement and 10% of students were strongly agreed. 90% of students believed that they can give good comments for their friends' writing while about 10% showed opposite responses. About 95% of the subjects thought that they are likely learn from their friends' mistakes. Moreover, 80% of subjects said that they can improve their writing after correcting their friends' and that Peer correction strengthens their rapport with their course mates. 80% of the students declared that peer correction has strengthened their rapps with their classmates. The item "Peer correction enhances autonomous learning among my class mates" was agreed upon by 90% of the subjects. Finally, students showed 75% of agreement on the item " I become more aware of my writing mistakes" with 100% of students who were either agreed or strongly agreed.



Graph (1): Percentages of students' responses on the items(1-11) of the questionnaire.

Item 12: When I correct my friends' writing, I feel:

Graph (2) shows the learners' attitudes when they correct their peers' writing. 15 participants felt interested, and the same number of students were either confident or excited. Only one student was unsure of his attitude towards peer correction. From the result presented, it can be concluded that when the learners had to correct their friends' writing, most of them had positive attitudes, such as excitement, interest, and confidence.

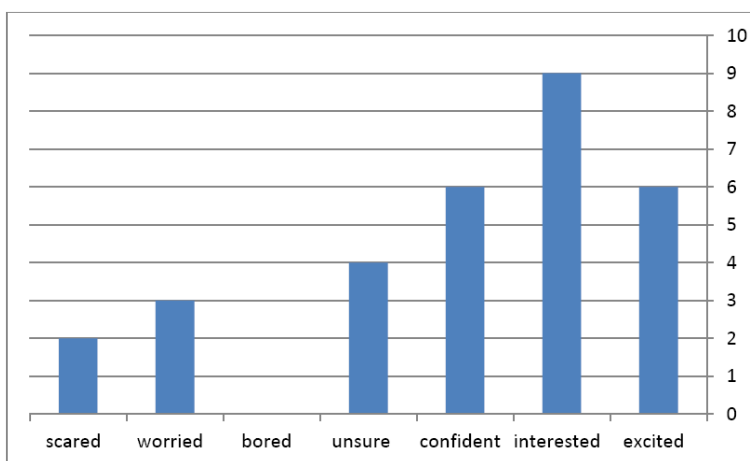


Graph (2): Students' responses on the item " When I correct my friends' writing, I feel....".

The most significant result is that none of the students was bored, worried or scared when correcting their peers' writing.

Item 13: When my friends correct my writing, I feel:

Graph (3) shows the learners' attitudes when they had their writing corrected by peers. 9 participants felt interested, and 6 of them were confident and excited respectively. 4 students were unsure of their attitudes towards having their work corrected by peers. However, 3 of the participants were worried and 2 of them were scared. From the result presented, it can be concluded that when the learners had to be corrected by their friends, results are a little bit different from those of graph one. Although most of the students were either interested, excited or confident, some of them showed their worry and scare. But still most of them had positive attitudes, such as excitement, interest, and confidence. When the students had their writing corrected by their peers, a smaller number of them had such positive attitudes as interest and confidence. However, None of the students felt bored when being corrected by their classmates. At the same time, few of them felt more worried and scared. These results agree with the results of Minh's (2015).

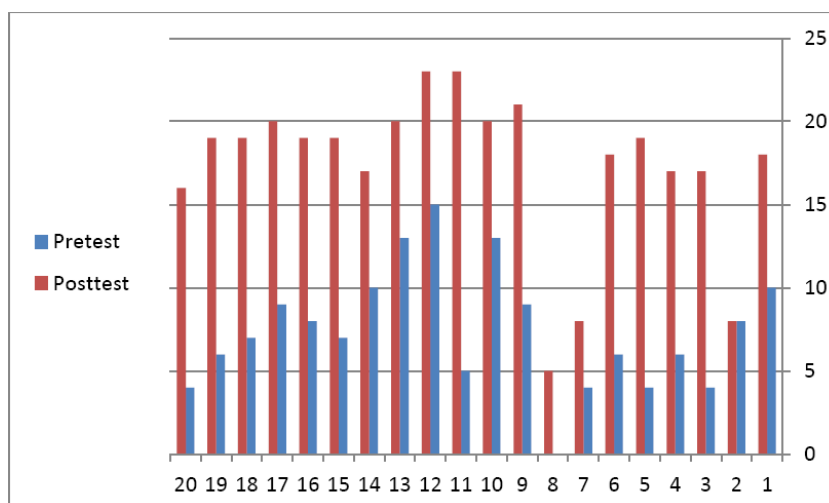


Graph (3): Students' responses on the item " When my friends correct my writing, I feel....".

These results were in accordance with Minh's study as it can be concluded that the participants in this research felt more confident when they corrected their friends' writing than being corrected by their course mates. When they had their work checked and corrected, some learners felt more unsure and scared. From this result, the researcher feels that teachers who want to apply peer correction need to give careful instructions to the learners in a detailed way.

Question Two: Does peer correction help PAUC English language students find out their mistakes in their written essays?

To answer this question, the researcher runs a pretest-posttest to see if the manipulation, peer correction, has caused a change in participants ability in identifying their mistakes as a crucial element of self-development. Students were asked to read an essay with many mistakes to test their ability in finding out as many mistakes as possible. Graph (4) below shows results of the pretest-posttest.



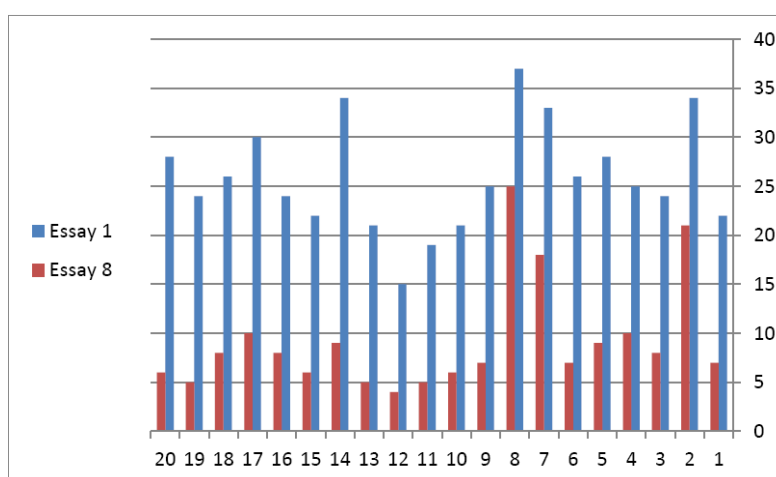
Graph: (4): Results of pretest-posttest

As seen in graph (4) above all students showed significant change in their abilities in finding out mistakes in the assigned essay of the test. It can be noticed that 17 students found 16 mistakes or more out of 24, except for three

students, who failed to find more than 8 mistakes out of 24. They are the same students who failed the Writing II course in this semester. 6 students managed to find 20 mistakes or more, while only 3 of them managed to find more than 20 mistakes. In general, all students showed progress to a great extent in writing skills.

Question Three: Does peer correction help students reduce mistakes in their writing skill as they progress from the first essay to the last one?

To answer this question, the researcher referred to the portfolio to hold a comparison between the first essay and the last one of each student. All mistakes were calculated to see whether students' mistakes show a plummeting rate or not. The number of mistakes in the first essay was compared to that of the last essay (no.8). Graph (5) below shows results of this comparison.



Graph (5): Number of mistakes in essay 1 & essay 8.

Results of the above graph shows that students' mistakes were decreased as they progressed from the first essay to eighth essay. For example, all students showed progress in their writing abilities in essay 8 which has few mistakes compared to essay 1. Having a look at graph(4), one can notice that four students (2, 7, 8, and 14) had more than 30 mistakes in essay 1 while in essay 8 these mistakes were nearly below 20 and even below 10 for student number 14. To exclude students number 2, 7 and 8, who failed the course, all students' mistakes were decreased to become less than ten and even less than five mistakes in essay 8.

XI. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

As mentioned above, the main concern of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of peer correction on promoting students' level in writing skills at Palestine Ahliya University. Some general conclusions can be drawn from the findings of this study. Firstly, As stated by Maryam (2013), attitudes towards peer correction were positive. The participants' attitudes are so similar when they were the correctors or were corrected by others. However, the learners had a tendency to feel more positive when they correct their friends' writing; but few of them felt scared and worried when they were corrected by peers. Similar results were revealed in that of Minh (2015). Secondly, the study showed that most students enjoyed the process that positively affected their product. Moreover, a significant development and change was observed in their writing skill. Ashok (2012) also concluded that peer correction and teacher was found productive in teaching writing through action research as a whole. These results were also supported by that of Shokrpour (2013) who stated that peer correction is supposed to motivate students as they enjoy this way of having feedback from peers. They also have genuine audience with who they feel comfortable and relaxed. Thirdly, peer correction enhances students' higher thinking levels as they learn during this experience how to be self -reflected. Learners also gain other skills such as critical thinking away from jealousy and negative competition. Therefore, students are more willing to be involved in the process of learning from others and being a source of knowledge for their mates. Results also indicated that students became more autonomous in writing and were able to write more frequently and accurately. The findings also show that peer correction affects students' writing ability. This was highlighted by the results of the study mentioned earlier. Students has profited from peer feedback to reduce mistakes in their composition.

With regard to students' attitudes towards this technique, results of the study showed a significant positive change in the subjects attitudes towards using peer correction in writing their essays. This means that when teaching and learning process shifts from teacher-centered approach to student-centered approach, the whole environment becomes more enjoyable and interesting. Hence, students motivation is raised and they do like activities and tasks as they became more persistent till they accomplish the mission.

It is recommended that teacher should use peer correction in addition to self and teacher correction so that students feel that they are active participants in the process of learning. This creates a feeling of being responsible of some duties

which may lead to better leaning and achievement. But teacher should make it definitely clear to students as for how to correct peer's works and teachers need to keep alert all time so as to offer help when needed. The researcher thinks that conducting this type of studies on larger population and different places of students of different proficiency levels is highly recommended.

APPENDICES

Appendix (1): The questionnaire

Dear students,

This questionnaire is a tool that aims to identify English Language learners' attitudes towards peer correction in English writing II course at PAUC, Spring 2015/2016.

Please read the instructions carefully and choose your answers. There are 13 questions in this questionnaire. It should take you about 10 minutes to complete. Your answers and data will be used only for the purpose of the study. Confidentiality is highly reserved. I would highly appreciate your cooperation.

Part one: Please read the questions carefully and choose your answers.

No.	Items	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1-	I want to correct my friends' mistakes in writing.				
2-	I want my writing to be corrected by my friends.				
3-	I appreciate my friends' correction in my writing.				
4-	I think it is better if my friends correct my mistakes rather than my teacher.				
5-	I think I can give good comments for my friends' writing.				
6-	I think I can learn from my friends' mistakes.				
7-	I think I can improve my writing after correcting my friends' writing.				
8-	Peer correction strengthens my rapport with my course mates.				
9-	Peer correction strengthens my personality.				
10-	Peer correction enhances autonomous learning among my class mates.				
11-	I become more aware of my writing mistakes.				

Part two: Please read the questions carefully and tick (.....) your answers. You can choose MORE THAN ONE answer.

13. When I correct my friends' writing, I feel:

- a. excited b. interested c. confident d. unsure
e. bored f. worried g. scared

14. When my friends correct my writing, I feel:

- a. excited b. interested c. confident d. unsure
e. bored f. worried g. scared

This is the end of the questionnaire. Thank you for your cooperation

Appendix (2): Pretest-posttest

Dear students,

Read the following essay then correct the mistakes.

Hint: There are 24 mistakes.

Name: _____

Lockers for Everyone

What you would think if you have to put your person belongings in a crate, and every time you turn around something of yours were stolen? This is why I think students should have lockers. To protect their things, keep their things somewhere clean, and so they won't have to complain from carrying everything at once.

Students should have lockers because it will stop people from steal their stuff. For example, the children won't have to worry on their books, homework assignments, and personal belongings being stole. The reason for this is that the children will have their own lockers plus their own locks, which only they have the combination to. This will reduce cases where things are being stolen.

Students also should have lockers so they will have a clean place to put their books, What I mean by this is that many desks are rust and have gum stuck under it. Also, if you put your stuff into a crate then it is easily collecting dust. This connects to my argument because their stuff will be kept very clean in a neat environment, if students are given lockers to use.

My final reason why I think students should have lockers is so students won't complain about caring everything at once. The things that they may be caring everyday are very heavily. This is importance because students may suffer health problems from having to carry all their stuff everywhere. Why carry books everyday why you can eliminate the

pain by having a locker to store the things you don't need? Also, they're always whining about having to carry all their books. If we had lockers everyone would be happier.

In conclusion I think students should have lockers. If we have lockers stealing in school would go down, it would create a safe and clean place for students to put his things, and students would complain less and be healthiar. If we had lockers, the school would be a happier place for everyone. If you don't want your things stolen, contact your principle and demand lockers for your school.

Good Luck

Appendix (3): Correction Symbols

Codes	Meaning	Incorrect	Correct
P.	Punctuation	I live. and go to school here Where do you work.	I live and go to school here. Where do you work?
O	Word missing	I working in a restaurant.	I am working in a restaurant.
Cap.	Capitalization	It is located at main and baker streets in the city.	It is located at Main and Baker Streets in the city.
V.t.	Verb tense	I never work as a cashier until I get a job there.	I had never worked as a cashier until I got a job there.
Agr.	Subject-verb agreement	The manager work hard. There is five employees.	The manager works hard. There are five employees.
s.p.	Spelling	The maneager is a woman.	The manager is a woman.
Pl.	Plural	She treats her employees like slave.	She treats her employees like slaves.
X	Unnecessary word	My boss she watches everyone all the time.	My boss watches everyone all the time.
w.f.	Wrong word form	Her voice is irritated.	Her voice irritating.
w.w.	Wrong word	The food is delicious. Besides, the restaurant is always crowded.	The food is delicious. Therefore, the restaurant is always crowded.
Ref.	Pronoun reference error	The restaurant's specialty is fish. They are always fresh. The food is delicious. Therefore, it is always crowded.	The restaurant's specialty is fish. It is always fresh. The food is delicious. Therefore, the restaurant is always crowded.
w.o.	Word order	Friday always is our busiest night.	Friday is always our busiest night.
RO	Run-On	Lily was fired she is upset.	Lily was fired. so she is upset. Lily was fired; therefore. she is upset.
CS	Comma Splice	Lily was fired, she is upset.	Because Lily was fired, she is upset. Lily is upset because she was fired.
FRAG	Fragment	She was fired. Because she was always late.	She was fired because she was always late.
T	Add a transition	She was also careless. She frequently spilled coffee on the table.	She was also careless. For example, she frequently spilled coffee on the table.
S.	Subject	is open from 6:00 P.M. until the last customer leaves.	The restaurant is open from 6:00 P.M. until the last customer leaves.
V.	Verb	The empolyees on time and work hard.	The employees are on time and work hard.
Prep.	Preposition	We start serving dinner 6:00 P.M.	We start serving dinner at 6:00 P.M.
Conj.	Conjunction	The garlic shrimp, fried clams, broiled lobster are the most popular dishes.	The garlic shrimp, fried clams, and broiled lobster are the most popular dishes.
Art.	Article	Diners expect glass of water when they first sit down at the table.	Diners expect a glass of water when they first sit down at the table.
Del	Delete	She told to me her answer.	She told me her answer.
>	Insert	He is listening music.	He is listening to music.
Rep	Repetition	She is a famous and well-known singer.	She is a famous singer.

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The Effectiveness of Caricature Media in Learning Writing of Argumentation Paragraph

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Abstract—The research aimed to describe the effectiveness of the use of caricature media in learning writing of an argumentation paragraph in the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The research design was an experimental research by using quasi-experimental research design. The research subjects were the tenth grade students of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto in 2015/2016 academic years which consisted of 131 students. They were divided into four classes. The data were analyzed by descriptive and t-test inferential statistics. The results showed that there was a significant difference between the learning writing of an argumentation paragraph by using the environment media and the writing ability of argumentation paragraph by using the caricature media, which was effective to be used as a learning medium to write an argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. Therefore, it can be concluded that the caricature media were effectively used in learning writing of argumentation paragraph.

Index Terms—writing, paragraph, argumentation, and caricature media

I. INTRODUCTION

In the formal education, the writing skill has a very important role, particularly in the essay writing of argumentation, exposition, description, narrative, and persuasive. To achieve that, the students must be guided and given the ability and skills to write well. The writing skill in learning of Indonesian language is one of the important skills that should be mastered by every student, because in some studies always emphasize the writing essays that are officially able to use Indonesian language properly compared with other aspects of language skills. The writing is the most difficult skill mastered by the students. Hence, it is not surprisingly that there were not many people who have the ability to write well. Practicing in systematic, continuous, and disciplined is the strategy that is always advised by skilled practitioners to be able to write. Writing is a skill that requires a process (Tarigan, 2008: 8), it means that the writing skill will not come by itself. This proves that writing is a mysterious process. But it is an art that can be taught, particularly in language learning in schools.

The learning writing of argumentation paragraph has been taught starting at Elementary Schools to Senior High School level. In this case, the researcher will more focus on the senior high school level. Learning writing skill of an argumentation paragraph at secondary school is part of the learning of Indonesian language. The overall objective of learning writing of argumentation paragraph is that the students are able to develop imagination, ideas, and opinions, as well as they have a penchant for writing. With this skill, students will be able to develop their ideas, opinions and creativities. One way to attract attention and accelerate students' understanding of language skills in the learning process is the use of media or visual aid. For example, in learning writing of argumentation paragraph, a medium that can be used is the caricature media. In this learning process, the students will observe a caricature drawing. After that, the students are expected to foster their creativity in expressing ideas, thoughts, and opinions by written language as a tool in writing learning process, especially writing of argumentation paragraph.

Based on the interview and observation of the teachers of Indonesian language subject at SMAN 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto, it was known that the teachers and students were difficult in learning writing of argumentation. The difficulty faced by teachers is the use of media and techniques that are not appropriate. While, the problems faced by students in learning writing, are such as lack of students' interest in writing, the difficulty to develop ideas, thoughts and the difficulty of word choice and spelling is one cause of the tendency of the students to work procedurally, as well as understand the writing materials of argumentation without reasoning.

The failure of the learning process was happening because teachers more emphasize on the individual learning (Muhsin. M. Arief, 2016). The content, which is presented by the teachers, is not fully accepted by the students. The learning process was begun with a lecture that is conducted by teachers and listened by the students, and then teachers gave assignments to the students to make an essay. This made teaching and learning process in the classroom tends to

run passive; hence, it causes the students to feel bored, be less creative in generating ideas, be slow in the writing process, students were difficult to describe an object, etc. Therefore, the way that was implemented by the teachers in the learning process of argumentative writing shows that results are not optimal. This was due to the learning implementation is less effective because it does not use the media that can give encouragement or learning motivation to students. In fact, the students' ability in learning writing skill can be developed optimally, if the teachers can use the appropriate media in the learning process.

One media that can be applied to improve students' argumentation writing skills is the use of caricature media. The caricature media is the media that uses images to stimulate the students' imagination. Caricature is one form of the simple and effective visual communications in delivering the message. In caricature, there are elements of intelligence, humoristic, critical thinking accuracy, expressive in response to the social life phenomenon, and it contains the fact that readers are stimulated and encouraged to create their own interpretation in response to what is disclosed in their creation. The use of caricature media in the learning writing process enables students to write the systematic argumentation paragraph based on the drawings and able to sharpen the students' intellectual thinking and imagination.

This research is basically same with some previous researches. The similarities are in terms of (1) the learning aspect that is used is writing and the use of caricature media, (2) most of the materials are same, and (3) there are two researches which are the experimental research. The differences with the previous researches are (1) the use of different media, models and methods; (2) there are the different content materials; (3) there are action researches, while the researcher conducted an experimental research; and (4) the different school (subject).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Writing

Writing is a communication activity in the form of delivering a message to others (Suparno, 2008:29, Crossley, S. A., & McNamara, D. S., 2011). Writing is devoted chart symbols depicting a language that is understood by a person, so that others can read the chart symbols if they understand the language and the sort description. Writing is used to report or inform and influence the goals and objectives that can only be achieved well by people, who can organize their thoughts and states them clearly; the clarity depends on the mind, organization, words use, and sentence structure (Morsey in Tarigan, 2008: 4, Uysal, H. H., 2008, and Graham, S., & Perin, D., 2007).

Dalman (2014: 3), Deatline-Buchman, A., & Jitendra, A. K. (2006) states that writing is an activity in the form of delivering written message (information) to others by using the written language as a tool or medium. Writing activity involves several elements, namely the writer as delivering messages, writing content, channel or media, and readers.

Based on the definitions above, it can be concluded that writing is a process carried out by someone to express ideas or thoughts in written form.

B. Paragraph

According to Rahardi (2009: 158), Godó, Á. M. (2008), and Helms-Park, R., & Stapleton, P. (2003), visually paragraph is marked by two things, namely the first line is written protrudes into as many as five beats from the left margin and always started with a new line. Paragraphs are part of essay writing, which form an integral thoughts or ideas.

Furthermore, Keraf (2004: 69) states that the paragraph is not a conventional division of a chapter that consists of sentences, but the deeper meaning of cohesive sentences. The paragraph is a unity of mind, a unity that is higher or wider than a sentence. It is the set of related sentences in a series to form an idea.

It can be concluded that the paragraph is a series of interconnected sentences which are arranged logically and systematically, therefore, it forms a unity of ideas.

C. Argumentation

Argumentation is a rhetorical form that seeks to influence the others attitudes and opinions in order to believe and act as intended by the writer or speaker (Keraf, 2004: 3). Argumentation is a discourse that proves the truth or untruth of a statement. In the argumentation text, the writer uses a variety of strategies or rhetorical devices to convince the readers about the truth or untruth of the statement (Alwasilah in Efendi, 2015, Fluitt - Dupuy, J., 2001, and Nussbaum, E. M., 2008).

Based on the explanation above, it can be concluded that the argumentation is a type of paragraph which is used to express an opinion and tried to convince others towards the truth of that opinion.

D. Media

In Arabic, media means an intermediary or an introductory message from the sender to the receiver (Arsyad, 2011: 3, Moran, M., Seaman, J., & Tinti-Kane, H., 2011, and Cao, Y., Ajjan, H., & Hong, P., 2013). Learning media is anything that can be used to stimulate the students' mind, feelings, concerns and willingness in order to encourage the learning process for students. The media should be manipulated, can be seen, heard and read (Sadiman, 2009: 113).

E. The Caricature Media

The caricature is derived from the word of caricare (Italian) which means that giving extra charge or additional. The caricature is a messaging media which is drawn in a simple and easy to understand.

Rohani (1997: 79-80), Parry, B., & Powell, M. (2011), d Ju, B. A. I. (2011) states that the caricature is a form of image that is cliché, satire, criticism, and funny. The caricature is the expression of someone's feelings which are expressed to be known to the public. Caricature as a communication media contains messages, criticisms or satires without many comments, but it simply contains fiction images that are funny and implies the caustic meaning. In the instructional communication, caricature can be used as an instructional media, which means that the caricature media will demand learners' creativity, as well as to train critical thinking and have a sensitivity or social awareness, sharpens the students' intellectual thinking and imagination.

III. RESEARCH METHOD

A. Type of the Research

Based on the research's title, which was "The Effectiveness of the Caricature Media in Learning Writing of Argumentation Paragraph at the tenth class of SMAN 1 Bontoramba, this research was classified into the experimental research. The experimental research can be interpreted as the research method used to find a particular difference in treatment to the others in the uncontrolled conditions. (Sugiyono, 2012: 107).

B. Research Variables and Design

1. Research Variables

The variable is the research object or what is the focal point of a study (Arikunto, 2013: 161). This research used two observed variables, namely X variable and Y variable. The application of the caricature media and the environment media in this research was categorized as independent variable, or the instructional media of caricature as X1 variable and the environment media as X2 variable. Meanwhile, the students' writing skill of the argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba was as dependent variable or as Y variable. Y1 was an experimental class, the pretest of experimental class was Y1.1, the posttest of experimental class was Y1.2, the pretest of control class was Y2.1, and the posttest of control class was Y2.2.

2. Research Design

This research used a quantitative approach; the research design was a quasi-experiment design. Both of these classes were each given a pretest to determine the initial state that was there any difference between the experimental and control class.

Referring to the description above, the research design was conducted with the following pattern.

TABLE 3.1
RESEARCH DESIGN

Class	Pretest	Treatment	Posttest
A	Y _{1,1}	X ₁	Y _{1,2}
B	Y _{2,1}	X ₂	Y _{2,2}

Furchan (2007: 395)

Notation:

A= Experimental class

B= Control class

Y_{1,1}= Pretest of Experimental class

Y_{2,1}= Pretest of Control class

X₁= Treatment by using caricature media

X₂= Treatment by using environment media

Y_{1,2}= Posttest of Experimental class

Y_{2,2}= Posttest of Control class

C. Operational Definition of Variables

As explained previously that the research variables consisted of two variables, namely the caricature and environment media and the writing ability of argumentation paragraph. Hence, these variables are defined as follows:

1. The caricature media is the teaching instructional media in the form of images-laden humor with the human objects or objects that contain a specific meaning for readers.

2. The environment learning media is an understanding of a particular symptom of behavior of the object or scientific observation of the things that are around us as the teaching material for students before and after receiving materials from the school by bringing experiences and discoveries with what they encounter in their environment.

3. The argumentation is a form of the opinion that seeks to influence the others' attitudes and opinions in order to believe and act as intended by the writer or speaker.

4. The writing of argumentation paragraph is a type of paragraph used to express an opinion and tried to convince others towards the truth of the opinion.

D. Population and Sample

Population is a set and the whole objects to be investigated. The population of this research was the whole tenth grade classes of SMAN 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto totaling of 133 students, which were divided into four classes.

The sample is representative selected from the population and serves as the research subject. The sample in this research was taken by using purposive sampling technique or intended sample, namely the technique to determine the sample with the certain considerations in accordance with the desired purposes. The researcher considered these second classes that would be taken as the research subject by looking at the characteristic of homogeneous students. The research sample was assigned that X2 class consisting of 32 students as the control class and X1 class consisting of 32 students as the experimental class.

E. Research Instrument

The instrument was used as a data collection procedure. In this research, the instrument used was the description test. The test form referred to this research instrument was the writing task of argumentation paragraph through the use of caricature media for the experimental class and the environment media provided to students in control class. This test was used to collect data in the form of the writing skill score of argumentation paragraph which was obtained by the students, both of pretest and posttest scores. The instrument used was firstly tested for its validity. The validity test was intended to determine that a suitable instrument test used to test the students' writing ability in the argumentation essay writing. The validity test used the experts' validity test in the education field. The experts, who were validated the instruments, were Prof. Dr. Achmad Tolla, M.Pd. and Dr. H. Akmal Hamsa, M.Pd.

F. Data Collection Technique

The data collection technique used in this research was assigned tasks to the two classes, i.e., experimental and control class. The tasks given to the students were making argumentation paragraph. These tasks were used to obtain the data of the students' achievement both of experimental and control class. In this procedure, the students were assigned to write the argumentation paragraph with the basic competence of Educational unit level curriculum (SBC) for the tenth class in the second semester.

G. Data Analysis Technique

The data analysis technique used in this research was descriptive and inferential statistical analysis, consisting of:

1) The descriptive statistical analysis

The descriptive analysis seeks to analyze the data through a general description of the findings obtained. The steps were conducted with the descriptive analysis, such as:

- a. Making the list of raw score
- b. Making the frequency distribution

The data obtained from the correction process, generally was still in uncertainty results. For facilitate the analysis, it is needed to arrange the frequency distribution which can be easy for further calculation.

- c. Making the histogram of the frequency distribution

The usefulness of the histogram was to determine the data distribution/dissemination; therefore, it was obtained more information from the data and it would make easier to obtain conclusions from these data.

2) The inferential statistical analysis

The inferential statistical analysis was used to test the research hypothesis by using t-test. However, the normality test was firstly conducted before testing the hypothesis. To determine whether the sample taken from the research population had the same variant and did not show a significant difference between one another. To test the sample's homogeneity, it was needed to conduct t-test of pretest for the writing ability of argumentation paragraph both of experimental and control class. Furthermore, to determine the effectiveness of the caricature media, the hypothesis testing was conducted by using t-test and calculation of gain score. This test was analyzed by using the computer program of SPSS version 21.

IV. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

A. The Results of Data Analysis

This subsection presents the detail data of the research results on the effectiveness of caricature media for argumentation paragraph writing at the tenth class of SMA Negero 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The data were collected based on the research data collection procedure that was the use of media caricature for experimental class and the use of environment media for control class.

The data used in this research were the data of the writing skills score of argumentation paragraph both of pretest and posttest score in the control and experimental class. The data of pretest and posttest were obtained from the argumentation writing test.

1. The Comparative Statistics of Pretest and Posttest of Argumentation Paragraph Writing Ability in Experimental and Control Class

The comparison of the highest score, lowest score, the mean and median on the pretest and posttest is presented in the following table.

TABLE 4.1
THE COMPARATIVE STATISTICS OF PRETEST AND POSTTEST OF ARGUMENTATION PARAGRAPH
WRITING ABILITY IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL CLASS

Data	N	Highest Score	Lowest Score	Mean	Median
Pretest of Experimental Class	32	70	50	59.64	60.75
Pretest of Control Class	32	73	43	58.64	57.75
Posttest of Control Class	32	73	48	61.64	60.75
Posttest of Experimental Class	32	76	61	67.98	68.00

Table 4.1 shows a comparison of the highest score, the lowest score, mean and median between the control class and experimental class both of pretest and posttest. Based on the results in Table 4.1, it can be concluded that there is an improvement in the experimental and control class in the learning writing of argumentation paragraph. The improvement of the experimental class is more significant after giving the treatments by using the caricature media.

B. The Test Requirements Analysis

The normality test in this research was conducted on the students' scores of writing ability of argumentation paragraph in pretest and posttest both of experimental and control class. The following Table 4.2 figures out the distribution data of normality test which were calculated by using SPSS version 21.

TABLE 4.2
THE RESULTS OF NORMALITY TEST DATA DISTRIBUTION OF THE WRITING ABILITY OF ARGUMENTATION PARAGRAPH

No	Data	Asymp. Sig (2 – tailed)	Description
1	Pretest of Experimental Class	0.200	Asymp. Sig (2 – tailed) > 0.05 = normal
2	Posttest of Experimental Class	0.200	Asymp. Sig (2 – tailed) > 0.05 = normal
3	Pretest of Control Class	0.200	Asymp. Sig (2 – tailed) > 0.05 = normal
4	Posttest of Control Class	0.200	Asymp. Sig (2 – tailed) > 0.05 = normal

The results of SPSS 21 analysis showed that the data distribution in this research was normal. The results of the normality test of the data distribution in pretest and posttest for the argumentation paragraph writing ability both of experimental and control class revealed the normal distribution. Therefore, the data had been qualified to be analyzed.

C. The Results of Hypothesis Testing Analysis

1. The Result of First Hypothesis Testing

The first hypothesis in this research is "there is no difference between the classes which are given the treatments by using caricature media and the treatments by using non caricature media in learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMANegeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto." The hypothesis was the null hypothesis (H₀).

In calculating or testing, H₀ should be changed to H_a (alternative hypothesis) that became "there is difference between classes which were treated by using the caricature media and by using non caricature media in learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto."

2. The Results of Second Hypothesis Testing

The second hypothesis in this research is the caricature media is effective to be used in the learning writing ability of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The result of the second hypothesis testing obtained from the t-test calculation was analyzed by using a computer program of SPSS version 21. The requirement of the significant data is revealed by the consideration if p value is less than 0.05. The use of Gain score was also conducted to prove the data analysis in order to determine the effectiveness of the use of caricature media in the learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The use of caricature media for the experimental class was revealed that to be effective when the normalized gain average of the experimental class was higher than the normalized gain average of the control class.

3. The Hypothesis Testing

The hypothesis testing was conducted after the analysis data by using t-test. Hence, it was revealed that the hypothesis testing results were presented as follows.

a. The first hypothesis

H₀: null hypothesis. There is no difference of the learning writing of argumentation paragraph between the class which is treated by using the caricature media and the class which is not treated by using the caricature media at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. **It was rejected.**

H_a: alternative hypothesis. There is difference of the learning writing of argumentation paragraph between the class which is treated by using the caricature media and the class which is not treated by using the caricature media at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. **It was accepted.**

b. The second hypothesis

H₀: null hypothesis. The caricature media is not effective to be used as an instructional media in the learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. **It was rejected.**

H_a: alternative hypothesis. The caricature media is effective to be used as an instructional media in the learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. **It was accepted.**

D. The Discussion of the Research Results

This research was conducted in SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The population in this research was the tenth class, with a sample of 64 students. The sample was taken by using purposive sampling of intended sample, which is the technique of determining the sample with the certain considerations in accordance with the desired purposes. Based on this technique, it was obtained that the X2 class as the control group which was not treated by using the caricature media and the class X1 as the control group which was treated by using the caricature media in the learning writing of argumentation paragraph. This research aimed to determine the effectiveness of the caricature media when it was used for learning writing of argumentation paragraph at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto.

The learning writing of argumentation paragraph by using the caricature media can help students to discover and develop their ideas and opinions. Besides, students will better understand about the argumentation paragraph by using the caricature media.

V. CONCLUSION

A. Conclusions

Based on the research results and discussion that had been presented in the previous section, it can be concluded that first, there were differences in writing ability of the argumentation paragraph writing between class which was given treatments by using the caricature media and the class which was not given treatments by using the caricature media at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The differences of writing ability of the argumentation paragraph could be proved by the final t-test results of the experimental and control class. T-test was calculated by using SPSS 21 program. The calculation result showed that the t-value was 4.968, with degree of freedom was 62 and p value was 0.000. It was revealed that the p -value was less than 0.05 ($p < 0.05$). The t-test analysis result showed that there were significant differences between the experimental class which was given the learning writing of argumentation paragraph by using the caricature media and the control class which was given the learning without the use of the caricature media.

The second, the results showed that the use of the caricature media was effective to be used as an instructional media in learning of the argumentation paragraph writing at the tenth class of SMA Negeri 1 Bontoramba Jeneponto. The difference in the effectiveness of the argumentation paragraph writing was described by t-test results on the pretest and posttest for control class obtained the t-value of 5.697 with the degree of freedom of 31 and obtained p -value of 0.000. The p value was less than the significance level of 5% ($0.000 < 0.05$) which stated that the learning in control class was effective. The pretest and posttest of experimental class were obtained t-value was 5.159 with degree of freedom of 31 and p value was 0.000. The p value was less than the significance level of 5% ($0.000 < 0.05$) which revealed that the learning in experimental class was effective. The use of caricature media is effective if the mean normalized gain score of experimental class is higher than the mean normalized gain score of control class. The result of gain score calculation showed that the value of gain score in the experimental class was 6.50, while in the control group was 2.21. Therefore, it can be concluded that the caricature media was effective to be used in the learning writing of the argumentation paragraph.

B. Suggestions

Based on the research results and discussion, it can be put forward several suggestions. These suggestions are addressed to several parties, such as:

1. For teachers, they should be more creative in selecting instructional media, for example, using the caricature media. Hence, the learning process becomes more attractive and does not make learners feel bored. Technically, the results of this research can be used as reference by teachers of Indonesia language subject in teaching argumentation essay writing. The use of appropriate media will help to achieve the objectives and the target of leaning achievements.
2. For schools, they should recommend to the teachers of Indonesian language subject to use more variety of media in learning process and fully support the teachers to create fun learning situation.
3. For students, they should be more active in the learning process in the school and always be serious to follow the learning process although it is in a relaxed situation. Besides, the students also have to practice more to improve their writing ability, because writing skill requires sustainable training.

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The Frame as a Special Type of Structural and Substantive Concept

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Abstract—The article investigates the frame as a special type of structural and substantive concept. It states that the term frame is correlative to the notion of the concept. The differences between the terms of the frame and the concept is analysed by the author as well. Investigating the sources the author claims that these two objects don't have significant differences between themselves. The frame is expected to show certain extend of the sphere, though the concept shows the image presented in the area of historical and cultural identity. The concept is realised in the minds of the humans, and they are associated with tokens. The author also refers to the opinion of F.de Saussure about the language and points out the distinguishing features of signifier and signified. F.de Saussure considered those two terms as ideal entities; and he spoke the perfect nature of signified than the signifier. Investigating these notions the author ties to find out some connection between those notions and the notions of the frame and the concept. The author uses various linguistic sources for to prove her opinion about the peculiarities of the concept. The reliable sources have been referred to in the article by the author.

Index Terms—frame, concept, notion, brain, structure, substantive, framework

I. INTRODUCTION

In the complex and relatively stable cognitive discourse of modern linguistics the term "frame" is correlative to the notion of "concept". Very often, as a result of analysis of the literature, it seems that these two concepts do not show significant differences among themselves. Meanwhile, the frame is substantially certain extent of the sphere, while the concept is way of phenomena, the image presented in the area of historical and cultural identity. In our view, the frame corresponds with the concept, but it is not correct to put an equal sign between them.

The term "concept" in science is not new. It was widely used in European philosophy in the Middle Ages. Under the term of concept is generally understood the content of the concept, "its semantic content abstracted from the concrete linguistic form of expression." In philosophy the logical content of the concept is opposed to its volume. V.F. Asmus points out that "each concept in addition to the idea of its content, i.e. its essential characteristics, also comprises the idea of the totality of the subjects that are covered by the concept. The collection of objects imaginable in the concept is called the volume of this concept" (Asmus 2001, p.92).

The logical understanding of the content and scope of the concepts is traditionally reflected in linguistics. Thus, the meta-language linguistics includes terms such as the extension and the intension. The first term refers to the words of the content, the second - the correlation of words with individual objects. In philosophy, the concepts form the conceptual framework that characterizes the content of a particular concept, the doctrine.

II. METHODOLOGY

The doctrine gains harmony due to the fact that within concept sphere each concept corresponds to a clear definition that reflects its content. Thus, it forms a logical sequence and coherence of concepts which provides clarity and internal consistency of concepts and theories in general.

The term concept in modern linguistics means something different. It is believed that this new understanding of the concept, widely used today, goes back to the works of the Russian philosopher of the last century, S. A. Askoldov. In 1928, in the collection of articles "Russian Speech", issued under the editorship of academician L.V. Scherba, the article by S. A. Askoldov "The Concept and the Word" was published. S. A. Askoldov notes that the nature of the concepts has interested the scientists for a long time, but for some reason, this question still remains open (Askoldov 1928, p.28-44). Here we can immediately notice a discrepancy that the concept is the content of the concept. If it was true, there would be nothing unclear or unsolved for us concerning the concept. The meaning of the concept consists of the essential features of things combined into a single logical class. Due to that, the frame is a special type of structural and substantive concept. S. A. Askoldov himself points out that the concept of medieval terminology corresponds to the "universals." Something else is unclear as well.

III. ANALYSIS

S. A. Askoldov notes that the general concept as well as the content of the act of cognition is still quite a mysterious

value - almost imperceptible flickering of something in mental horizon occurring during rapid utterance and understanding of words such as "justice", "law", "right" and the "like" (Askoldov 1928, p.28-44).

It is difficult to understand why the general concept remains a mysterious value. It is clear that these general concepts or universals are based on inductive experience of man's knowledge of the surrounding world. Observing the phenomena of the same class, the human brain learns to allocate them as significant and essential and to distinguish it from the secondary. These essential features that combine things in a single class make the content of the concept. The words "content of a concept, a universal, general concept, or a concept" in medieval terminology is related by virtue with the fact that exactly the kind of universals or content of a concept constitute significatum of the lexical meaning or intension. All dictionaries of the world's languages contain just this kind of universals. It is clear that the specific objects enable to highlight the specific features that are relevant to their content. In contrast, the relatively abstract concepts are difficult to be categorized. No matter who and how uses the terms "the concept and the notion", they are correlative. Moreover, the whole paradigm of correlative terms, characterizing the modern discourse about concepts and conceptual content, are correlative as well. On the one hand, the problem is the distinction between the word and the concept. At the first sight it may seem that this area is clear. However, relatively deep penetration into the essence of the problem reveals a lot of inaccuracies. For example, speaking of these or other concepts we call them words. Therefore, in our mind the concepts are associated with tokens. Both are mental in nature. Here it is useful to recall the fact that de Saussure considered the language as an entire mental phenomenon. As we remember, speaking of the sign structure and distinguishing between the signifier and the signified, Saussure pointed out that both the signifier and the signified are ideal entities. He added that, of course, the signified possesses more perfect nature than the signifier. The value of the notion is really devoid of the material expression. The point of disagreement with the founder of structuralism is usually the thesis of the ideality of meaning, i.e. the form. The fact is that for F.de Saussure the form of the word is not an audible range but an acoustic image of the sound series, or an audio set. Consequently, the form in the language possesses an ideal character as well. With this provision of the Saussurian theory one can either agree or to argue. As it is known, Russian linguists such as L. V. Scherba, V. V. Vinogradov, S. D. Katznelson did not recognize fully the nature of the ideal language (Katznelson 1986, p. 36). It was mostly rejected at the Soviet period which is very clear and explained by ideological considerations.

For us it is important that the material form of the word is pronounced, even if this kind of manifestation is manifested not in the language but speech. The concept is seen as an entirely ideal mental phenomenon. If so, then in the language the concept does not exist as a unit. The concept is a unit of mental vocabulary, the mentality. The concept in the language can only be verbalized. If we recognize the concept as a cultural-historical phenomenon, and thus the system of representations that characterize the national mentality, it is much bulkier than the language units.

IV. DISCUSSIONS

The concept is verbalized; other ways of its representation do not exist. But the concept does not fit in the lexical-semantic system of the language. However, the key to the concept is exactly the word, a lexical unit, as there is no other representation of the concept in the language. The word is the name of the concept, although the content of the word is not equivalent to the content of the concept. For example, there is a set of ideas about "honor" in the mind of the Azerbaijani people. This is very serious for the concept of Azerbaijanis. The concept of "honor", characterizing the Azerbaijani mentality, can not be reduced to the lexical meaning of the words that somehow relate to its content. However, some word should be a key to this concept, and such a word in the Azerbaijani language is the word "qeyrət". However, the relationship of the concept and the word is not limited to this. Since the meaning of the word is a complex phenomenon, it is related to the concept and the level of significance. At the level of form, as already noted, the word is a sign that signals the conceptual space, the key. Just as the key has no relation to the content of the room, so the word itself is not related to the conceptual content. Meanwhile, even the names of many works in modern linguistics suggest that researchers often simply do not distinguish between the concept and the word or token. In this regard, it is necessary to emphasize that the word and the token also tend not to be delimited. For example, N.A. Kulchinskaya called the article "Frame as the Type of Lexical Concept." It follows that the concepts can be lexical and not lexical. In addition, analysis of the name clearly shows that N.A. Kulchinskaya considers the frame as the kind of lexical concept (Kulchinskaya 1986, p.36).

The term lexical is uniquely correlated with the word. The word, if to ignore the theoretical difference between the token and the word, is a non-separable sound complex, in the flow of speech released by the breaks from two sides and correlative with the image of the object, phenomenon, action, sign, etc. So the word is concrete and it is the only reason that it can serve as the denotation of a huge, almost infinite number of things. Nothing else, i.e. no other linguistic or extralinguistic phenomenon, in our opinion, can take on such a definition as "lexical". Only the sign can be lexical. It is a complex of mental entities such as the concept of a class of objects, the object image, and attitude to denoting objects. There is a lexicalization, i.e. turning the notion into the word. This is mainly due to the acquisition of independent lexical meaning. In the past, as we know, the term lexicalization was used in relation to the process of formation of phraseological units. The researchers proceeded from the assumption that the phrase in the process of losing by its components of their meaning, acquires the semantic autonomy of global importance, integral value, without breaking up into separate meanings of its components. If the phrase, according to them, becomes globally important, it is lexicalized,

i.e. it turns into a word, a lexical sign. At the same time they are not bothered by the fact that the idiom targeted by lexicalization sign, keeps the outer formal identity with the phrase. The components of phraseologism, losing semantic independence, do not merge. If they are merged formally, then only on the basis of free word combinations form a compound word. In fact, of course, legitimate lexicalization could only be called a process.

In itself globality of the nomination of phraseologism with external separateness does not give ground at a theoretical level to regard this process as lexicalization. However, as noted above, such representation existed, and most distinctly they are represented in the works of one of the most prominent representatives of Russian and Soviet linguistics of the twentieth century A.I. Molotkov. The author of the famous "Phraseology of the Russian Language", A.I. Molotkov in his monography, and the dictionary persistently calls value phraseologism lexical meaning. For example, in a theoretical introduction to the dictionary in the "Lexical Meaning of the Phraseologism" section, he writes that "lexical meaning of phraseologism is one of its categorical, or defining, features". The same is observed in the book "Fundamentals of Phraseology of the Russian language". The third chapter is called "The semantics of phraseological units", and the first paragraph of this chapter is "General and Particular Lexical Meaning of Phraseologism" (Molotkov 1977, p. 82).

In Azerbaijan linguistics the cases of ignoring the categorical features of the word also occur. For example, a well-known Azerbaijani linguist H. Mirzoev believes that phrases like *xəbər vermək*, *arzu etmək*, *iş görmək* etc. are not phrases, but words, referring to the factors of semantic matching. For example, *xəbər vermək* is the same as *xəbərləmək*, *arzu etmək* - *arzulamaq*, *iş görmək* - *işləmək*. We can say that these phrases differ from conventional free phrases by their resistance, which, of course, is motivated by a high degree of semantic fusion of the components. H. Mirzoev also keeps this opinion and does not refer them to the phraseology. The bottom line is that the components of these phrases semantic retain independence (Mirzoev 1986, p.20).

Furthermore, semantic analysis of these phrases and the corresponding words shows that they do not exhibit a maximum identity. Even at the level of invariants it is quite possible to identify their features. At the level of the context and situational variation one can not insure against the detection of nuances. A word or lexical sign, in our opinion, is the most specific language unit, and there is no reason to mix it with the other language units. If we talk about the unity of the word, it is necessary to take into account all its categorical attributes. It is not correct to come only from the content and ignore the form. These principles do not give grounds to speak about the lexical concept. In our opinion, the very expression of the lexical concept is a kind of an oxymoron. In numerous studies on cognitive linguistics the fundamental difference between the token and the concept are highlighted. In our opinion, the most important difference is the fact that the concept does not possess a semiotic nature, as opposed to words. Therefore, the phrase lexical concept is erroneous, for the reason that it makes an attempt to bring the concept to the semiotic level.

In this context, in our opinion, it is better to consider another aspect of the ratio between the concept and the word. So, it would seem possible to hold the demarcation line between the word and the concept, based on the fact that the concept is entirely mental categories, while the word has a material expression. In our usual notions the word realizes itself according to three parameters, and if the content is ideal, the form is materially expressed. The form of words is associated with the complex of sounds, and the sounds are a natural phenomenon. As for the function of speech, it is in some way a duty of the language system. In this case, the function of naming, or the nominative function is considered. The function is not materially expressed objectivity either, but rather realizes the relation between the objects. For example, the function of the object A is a representation of the object B. Therefore, the object A is the subject of the denotation of B. It is assumed that the object A is materially expressed, while the object B is implied, i.e. it is ideal. It is no accidental in the history of linguistics that there have been so many attempts to determine the meaning of words through the real objects, which they are called by.

Modern linguistics, even today is associated with the name of Ferdinand de Saussure basing on the fact that everything is ideal in the language. The fact is that the form of words in this case is not the complex of sounds, but only the acoustic image of this complex of sounds, "image acoustique". As we know, this was due to the general semiotic concepts of Saussure and his fundamental dichotomy of language and speech. We also know that many (even outstanding) linguists have hardly accepted the contents of the main dichotomy in Saussurian concept. The problem was, on the one hand, in the perception of such a phenomenon as a collective way of thinking, which was declared as natural heritage of language. On the other hand, apart of the semiotic system of the collective memory is meant.

In particular, texts stored for centuries in folk memory were withdrawn outside the language, because they were not relevant to the system, being just the direct implementation of its features. The fact of memorability and reproducibility could not serve as a basis for the inclusion of the vast amount of texts, for example the folk ones, into the language. It is known that some scientists such as academician L.V. Scherba did not recognize Saussure's attitude to language, assuming that all reproducible texts also refer to the language. According to Ferdinand de Saussure's linguistic concepts, the language system comprises only the signs of a semiotic nature, the relationship between the marks, as well as functions that perform a linking role between the signs and those phenomena of thought and material reality, which are designated by semiotic systems (Saussure 1977, p.16). These facts referred to as natural languages. Nothing else is included into and is associated with the system of language. This point is very important because it carries out a fundamental and principal border between the different views on the nature of language. As already mentioned, during the rule of undivided system-structural paradigm there existed a different perspective on language, which did not separate it from the collective memory that stores the text fundamental for ethnic groups. In this case, the language

combined in itself above mentioned characters, their relationships and functions with the texts. The essential point, uniting this view with a pure Sossûrian view was the fact that the systems of language and texts were the heritage of ethnic memory, i.e. mental in nature (Saussure 1977, p. 20). Contemporary cognitive linguistics also understands the theoretical postulates that language is directly connected with thinking, mentality and memory. The special role here is played by the texts, i.e. cognitivism assumes that the texts reflect in themselves the results of cognitive activity of ethnic thinking. Moreover, the text is between the individual and the world. This understanding of the key concepts of modern language opens new studies of all these categories, including "notion", "concept", "gestalt", "token", "significance", "denotat" and finally the frame. For example, if we consider natural language-based texts and concepts-mental entities represented in the texts, then it is logically quite right to consider the concepts as the fact of language systems. It should also be noted that this view of the nature of the concept of language as a linguistic reality also implies the consistency, but in this case we have to consider the consistency of the texts that are remembered, stored and reproduced. As the concept is the idea about things, objects and phenomena of the external world that characterizes the national mentality, these representations should be manifested and become apparent. The only space in which they may occur is the language. But if the text is considered a linguistic fact, the concept becomes the fact of the language. It only remains to find out the features of the form, content and function of the language units or entities. If they are facts of the mental dictionary, the form should be considered as just the system of texts, in which they are implemented, or manifested, or verbalized. As a matter of fact, nothing changes depending on the use of various terms. However, the actual ratio for this context of notions reveals that our misunderstanding is associated mainly with the tokens of the frame and concept. However, these concepts are quite amenable to delineate. In our view, a lexeme (word) intersects with both the concept and the frame, and intersects at both formal and meaningful level. It can be supposed that token and concept are intersected at a functional level. At the formal level, the word as the title relates to the concept of reality, for the simple reason that in terms of the conceptual content it is the key word to that, and there are not any other keys. It should be absolutely clear that the lexical meaning of the word (lexical content) is not the same as the content of the concept. Moreover, they do not match, neither quantitatively or qualitatively. The word most neutrally and generally represents and labels the concept, but meaningful relation in no way discloses it.

V. CONCLUSION

With regard to the concept, it is verbalized in the whole system of language units but denoted only in the key word. The frame and the concept relate to the level of mental image and are linked with the facts (Whorf 1956, p.90). It is quite difficult to distinguish between the frame and the concept. Of course, it can be assumed that the concept includes the full amount of beliefs about a particular phenomenon, constituting a significant fragment of the world. As for the frame, it includes not only view, but also a complete picture of the actions, constitution or constitutional system, which includes everything that is associated with this concept.

For example, if you analyze such a fundamental concept of human mentality as "food", the significance of the lexical meaning of the word "food" in the Russian language, "yemək" in Azeri, "food" in English -it can be defined as "what is served as meals. Significance of the lexical value does not change from culture to culture, from language to language which is clear and beyond doubt. But it is evident that the concept changes from culture to culture. So, "food" is different for Azerbaijanis (as synonymous with traditional Azerbaijani cuisine), for Russians is quite another, and has a completely different associative mechanism for Englishmen. Equally differentiating the perceptions of the traditional feast, one concept ("food") moves into another ("feast"), manifests a systematic linguistic picture of the world. The concept of "feast" mentally-associatively and linguistically shifts into the concept "hospitality", etc. Such transitions and their mechanism are carried out at the expense of not only of the concepts but also frames. The frame in this case turns out to be a better concept, since it covers the associations of various concepts. Thus, the only real difference from the frame is that the concept turns the output of all sorts of associative chain. It is clear that such associations can be associated with the images of things, phenomena, action signs, peculiarities of situations, stereotypical actions. It is the way how the internal form of the term "frame" is realized. "Frameness" primarily means completeness. The idea of finality is quite rightly regarded as the coverage of all associative chains of the frame semantics. But as the frames are also treated and evaluated by us as mental entities, we have to consider the possibility of verbalization of the frames. It is clear that this verbal system of the frames will vary from language to language.

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Effect of Homonymous Set of Words Instruction on Vocabulary Development and Retention of Young Female Elementary Learners in Iranian EFL Context through Metalinguistic Awareness

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Abstract—Vocabulary learning is indispensable in the process of second language (L2) learning and plays a pivotal role in this regard. At the heart of this issue is the homonymous conflict, which is more problematic and very difficult to deal with. Therefore, the current study was undertaken to cast a little bit of light on homonyms instruction in the area of learners' L2 vocabulary development and retention. In this vein, four intact classes of Iran Language Institute (ILI) comprised of 46 young female EFL learners aged from 9-10 years old enrolled in the present study whose English proficiency level was elementary. Signing the Assent form, the participants were given a proficiency test for homogenizing. They were divided into two groups of experimental and control. The former group favored the explicit, simultaneous and concurrent homonymous set of words instruction; however, the latter one encountered the accidental and incidental homonyms instruction through various texts. The results obtained from vocabulary achievement test indicated that in the vocabulary development phase, both methods appeared to be significantly effective in the short run, but the participants in the experimental group revealed a better performance. Moreover, after administrating the delayed post-test, the analysis elicited that homonyms instruction significantly hindered the vocabulary recovery and retention of the learners just in the Experimental group three weeks later. Hence, the outcome of this piece of study provided various remarkable implications for teachers to reinforce learners' vocabulary repertoire through context, and led to give some insights into homonyms instruction via metalinguistic awareness.

Index Terms—homograph, homonym, homophone, metalinguistic awareness, vocabulary

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary is a core component of language proficiency (Richards & Renandya, 2002). Communication will break down when people do not use the correct and right words (Allen, 1983). Meanwhile, it should be noted that “vocabulary instruction is a vital focus for teaching at the elementary level” (Punch & Robinson, 1992, p.403).

Homonyms are more problematic in this area and they are worth investigating. In basic term, ‘homonym’ stems from the Greek word ‘homo’, which means same, and ‘nym, onym’, which means ‘word, name’. Considering the fact that definition of homonym is an eristic issue, it is surprising to see that there are various opinions about defining that. It is defined in some dictionaries (such as Merriam Webster & Longman Advanced American Dictionary) as strictly a word that is spelled the same ‘and’ sounds the same as another, but is different in meaning or origin. Like *bear* (noun: animal/ verb: tolerate). Some other dictionaries (such as Concise Oxford Dictionary, Cambridge Dictionary, Macmillan Dictionary, Collins English Dictionary, & Oxford Advanced American Dictionary for learners of English) define homonym as a more general term according to which homonym is a word that is spelled like another word (‘or’ pronounced like it), but has a different meaning. In this definition homonyms are multiple meaning words which generally include two categories of words: *homophones and homographs*. In this line, ‘Homophones’ (homo= same; phone=sound) are a kind of homonyms that are pronounced the same, but differ in meaning. They may or may not have the same spelling, as in *son/sun, see/sea, to/two/too*, and etc. ‘Homographs’ (homo=same; graph=spelling) are also a kind of homonyms that are spelled the same, but differ in meaning. They may or may not be pronounced on the same way. Like *bank* (the side of river/ a place to keep money) or *read* (present tense/ past tense).

All in all, to the researchers, this definition of Concise Oxford Dictionary better fits the term. Therefore, it defines ‘homonym’ as each of the two or more words having the same spelling and/or pronunciation or different spelling and/or pronunciation, but different meanings and origins. While multiple-meaning words may cause confusion for native language speakers, this phenomenon is often very difficult for English language learners too (Readence, Baldwin, & Head, 1986).

It is of extreme importance that discovering effective ways of teaching vocabulary such as metalinguistic awareness would be beneficial in this regard. Metalinguistic awareness is defined as the ability to manipulate and focus on the formal properties of the language; particularly, the ability to analyze, think about, talk about, or even play with language as an object which is separated from its meaning, which is in or out of the context (Roth, Speece, Cooper, De La Paz, 1996). It is also an important cognitive process in helping students learn to decode words and to comprehend various texts.

In this line, the instruction of lexical set of words such as homonyms would affect learners' vocabulary development, as well as, vocabulary retention and recall. In this respect, Hoshino (2010) examined the relative effect of five set of word lists such as synonymous, antonymous, categorical, thematic, and arbitrary word lists on learners' L2 vocabulary learning. Based on the findings, he concluded that presenting new vocabularies through categorical lists promoted learners' vocabulary learning. Also, Hashemi and Gowdasiaei (2005) suggested that presentation of words in lexical sets facilitated word learning and it was because learners could form a kind of association between their newly and already learned words. Therefore, instruction of lexical set of words aided learners to set a lexical domain and it was more likely to learn the other counterparts of that domain. On the other hand, some scientists believed that presenting words in categorical lists did not enhance vocabulary learning (Tinkham, 1993; Waring, 1997). Also, the ability to derive the correct meaning of new words in context may be inhibited in homonym cases (Mazzocco, 1997).

Hence, the critical point is that vocabulary learning is an important aspect of second language learning and most learners have a lot of problem in this regard. In the case of homonyms, it is more difficult to cope with, because similarities in pronunciation or spelling and lack of knowledge in this respect may cause learners to encounter a lot of complication. Therefore, finding a solution to remove this problem is very considerable especially for children. Consequently, the current study concerned whether previous research findings, which were nearly all about learning vocabulary, in general, could be replicated in the case of homonyms as a specific subject matter or not. It also tried to investigate the role of explicit homonymous set of words instruction on young female learners' vocabulary development and vocabulary retention.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this section, the importance of vocabulary in L2 learning, and the role of lexical set of words instruction such as homonyms, as well as, various lines of research on homonyms instruction were proposed in detail.

Laufer (1997) argued that vocabulary learning is at the heart of any language learning and language use. It is a "promising area of inquiry" (Ellis, 1990, p.214). As Richards and Renandya (2002) claimed, it provides much of the basis for how well learners are in four skills of language involving reading, writing, listening, and speaking.

In the case of homonyms, their nature is so odd and complicated that sometimes the most obvious ones may be missed. For decades, many researchers have implied that both native speakers and nonnative L2 learners may encounter some difficulties with their reading comprehension and it is as a result of lacking knowledge of words such as homonyms, homophones, and homographs (Hawkes, 1972; Hudelson, Poyner, & Wolfe, 2003; Readence, Baldwin, & Head, 1986). In this regard, it is worth considering that homonym counterparts can be taught simultaneously. Therefore, students can compare and contrast words within various contexts or supplementary texts that the teacher incorporated into the curriculum (Foster, 2003; Rog & Kropp, 2004).

Much of evidence indicated that there are two opposing views on homonyms instruction, which are undertaken into the instruction of this kind of words. These two opposite views are the end product of the related debates on explicit homonyms instruction.

a.) Homonyms instruction facilitates learners' vocabulary learning by decreasing the amount of new information in the mind so that there is one lexical form for two or more semantic representations and meanings. Therefore they are easier to learn and retain.

In this vein, some of the researchers such as Storkel and Maekawa (2005) examined the performance of thirty-two 3-4 year-old learners on identifying lexical representations. They were exposed to novel words and homonyms through a story with visual support. Results manifested that responses to homonyms in the picture-naming task were more accurate than responses to novel words because common sound sequences are easier to name for the students. Also, Zipke, Ehri, and Cairns (2009) contemplated 23 third graders from a variety of cultural backgrounds. They were given an active homonym learning program in four sessions of 30-45 minutes each, utilizing riddles and other ambiguous reading texts taken from *Amelia Bedelia* series of books in order to identify multiple meanings of homonyms and analyze ambiguous sentences. Students learned to determine the intended meaning of words and detect inconsistencies in text since meaning is dependent on context. On the other hand, the Control group was composed of 23 other participants received readings and discussions without any metalinguistic awareness. Obtained findings confirmed that metalinguistic ambiguity instruction was effective so that the performance of the students in the experimental group revealed improvement, and the scores were significantly better than the Control group in their reading comprehension.

b.) Homonyms instruction hinders learners' vocabulary learning by increasing the cognitive demands. On an acquaintance with a new homonym pair, both meanings are activated, but just one member of the homonym family is correct and fits the context. So. Finding the appropriate referent associated with the corresponding lexical form requires

more external support, evidence or context clues. Therefore, correct decision latency in the homonym cases and identifying multiple meanings of them take more time and will be longer than the novel words.

In this line, some other scholars like Mazzocco (1997), Mazzocco, Myers, Thompson & Desai (2003), and Doherty (2004) affirmed that when 3-9 year-old children were exposed to the 'secondary meaning' of a homonym, they have some problems in creating a semantic association between pair of homonyms and they were not successful in providing a correct interpretation of the homonyms accurately. This view manifested that the concurrent and simultaneous introducing of the homonym mates or homonym families led a kind of interference and it inhibited learners' vocabulary learning. According to Cairns, Waltzman, and Schlisselberg (2004), however, first grade students may have metalinguistic awareness in order to detect homonyms in isolation, but they can benefit from a kind of 'explicit homonyms instruction' to enhance their comprehension, and to verbalize their burgeoning awareness, as well. In this regard, after testing toddlers, preschoolers, second graders, fifth graders, and also college students Mazzocco (1997) found that it is not until fifth grade that students are able to make interpretations on contextually based readings. These studies indicated that although many beginning readers have a kind of metalinguistic awareness in order to recognize the possibility of words with more than one meaning, their interpretation skill to reprocess the information and substitute the alternate meaning of the homonym have not yet developed. Hence, homonyms instruction seems to be more beneficial in this regard.

Having reviewed many articles, the researchers found that most previous research studies considered vocabulary learning as a general subject matter. But, not much research had been done especially in the case of homonyms. Therefore, what is under-researched is investigating the effectiveness of lexical set of words instruction such as homonyms as a specific subject matter. Consequently, the major consideration of the present research was to discover the nature of different methods of homonyms instruction amongst young female EFL learners.

III. OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The results of this study led to give some insights into the effectiveness of homonyms instruction and also gave some tips and points on L2 lexical learning and vocabulary development. It also made an attempt in the area of learners' vocabulary retention and recall.

Research Questions

Corresponding to the mentioned problems, the present study was guided by the following research questions:

1. What is the effect of homonyms instruction on vocabulary development of Iranian young female elementary EFL learners through metalinguistic awareness?
2. What is the effect of homonyms instruction on vocabulary retention of Iranian young female elementary EFL learners through metalinguistic awareness?

Research Hypotheses

Accordingly, related to the above mentioned research questions, two following null hypotheses were formulated and derived, which are as follows:

H₀₁. Homonyms instruction does not have any significant effects on vocabulary development of Iranian young female elementary EFL learners through metalinguistic awareness.

H₀₂. Homonyms instruction does not have any significant effects on vocabulary retention of Iranian young female elementary EFL learners through metalinguistic awareness.

IV. METHODOLOGY

In this section the design and methodology of the current research were presented. It included some essential data on participants, measuring instruments, and procedure employed in this research to indicate how the study was set up and how research questions were answered.

Participants

The sample group was comprised of 64 Iranian young female EFL elementary learners aged from 9 to 10 years old whose English proficiency level was elementary. They were selected from one of the branches of Iran Language Institute (ILI), children department in Isfahan, Iran. They consisted of four intact classes who had passed seven semesters successfully. They were divided into two groups of Control and Experimental one (N=32).

Measuring Instruments

To implement the research successfully, a set of instruments such as a proficiency test, as well as a vocabulary test were used.

The written part of the English Unlimited Placement Test (*UPT*) was administered as the proficiency test of the present study. It was given from Cambridge university press made by Luisvoid (2010) to homogenize the participants based on their L2 general level of language proficiency.

A kind of researcher-made Vocabulary Achievement Test (*VAT*) was used as the pre-test and post-tests in order to find out the effects of homonyms instruction on vocabulary development and retention of the learners through metalinguistic awareness. The post-tests, the immediate and delayed ones had the same content as the pre-test; while the

order of the alternatives and options were changed. The VAT included thirty items: a) Ten matching items (ten points), b) Ten fill-in-the-blank items (ten points), and c) Ten two-alternative items (twenty points).

Through the 'pilot study', the VAT was run before implementing the treatment to thirty students similar to the sample group in order to investigate the reliability and validity of the test. The *validity* of the VAT was affirmed by asking three professors, and English teachers to give their insights on the content of the test. The *reliability* of the VAT items was also substantial with Cronbach's Alpha of 0.861 which indicated that the internal consistency of the test was adequate. Also, according to the pilot study, the sufficient time allowance designated to answer the VAT was twenty minutes.

Procedure

Prior to the study, as all of the subjects, as well as their parents filled out the *Assent Form*, three treatment sessions were administered after the usual time of the class. Preliminarily, the UPT was run as the proficiency test in order to homogenize them. Based on the associated rating levels chart, those whose score were between 20-40 were considered as the young elementary EFL learners of this research and selected for the current study. Also, regarding the fact that participating in the research was completely voluntarily, two of the students who were not interested in taking part did not sign the assent form and eliminated from the study. They could attend the class but their scores were ruled out of the study. In the next step, the subjects were divided into two groups of Experimental (N=15+17) and Control one (N=14+18).

Sixty-seven sets of homonym families comprised of of sixty new words (twenty ones in each session) were proposed to the learners in the Experimental group in three sessions, each session taking about forty minutes.

Learners in the **Experimental** group favored the metalinguistic awareness through explicit and concurrent homonyms instruction, as both or more meanings of the homonym family was introduced simultaneously to the students. Their instruction relied on plain and printed texts and the learners exposed to the new words through teacher's explanation, guided drills, practice exercises, repetition, as well as its equivalent translation on their mother tongue; Persian. However, the **Control** group provided with incidental homonyms instruction through various texts. New words were introduced to the learners, completely accidentally or by chance and without any special and specific focus or even straight emphasis on the homonym pairs. Some substitution drills were provided for them, as well to remove the compensation time.

A test in the area of homonyms was held in advance to identify the knowledge of the learners before starting the instruction as the pre-test, and once immediately after implementing the methods as the immediate post test. The delayed post-test was also established three weeks after the last instruction session in order to identify learners' vocabulary retention.

V. RESULTS

In the current chapter, the results of the study were tabulated and analyzed in detail. The data was submitted to the statistical analysis in order to test the hypothesis of the study. They compared through SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) Version 22.0 based on the obtained scores across the mentioned two groups. Throughout the whole analyses, the amount of certainty of the results is 95%, and the margin of error or the minimum Alpha for confirmation of the research hypothesis was set at 0.05. If the significant level given in the table was less than 0.05 ($\text{sig} < 0.05$), so the null hypothesis is rejected, otherwise if it was larger than 0.05 ($\text{sig} > 0.05$), the null hypothesis will be accepted.

Descriptive Statistics

In the statistical analysis descriptive statistics were applied for getting primary information of the scores.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PROFICIENCY TEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	32	21	38	29.50	5.759
Experimental	32	20	34	28.59	3.241
Total	64	20	38	29.05	4.658

According to the above table, all the scores of the learners in the proficiency test were between 20 and 38, which based on the associated rating levels chart of the UPT, the participants were considered as the students with elementary level of English proficiency, and were in the same mean-level. Table 2 also demonstrated the primary data of pre-test, post-test, and also delayed post-test of the Control and Experimental groups.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE SCORES IN VAT

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Control	Pre-test	32	16	31	21.75	3.860
	Post-test	32	16	34	24.06	4.340
	Delayed Post-test	32	14	31	22.78	5.059
Experimental	Pre-test	32	13	29	22.50	4.143
	Post-test	32	18	38	30.81	5.855
	Delayed Post-test	32	14	38	24.41	5.079

Level of the students in the Pre-test

Regardless of the results obtained from the proficiency test, the homogeneity of the participants was also determined before implementing the treatment.

TABLE 4.
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST, RANKS & TEST STATISTICS

	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Control	32	29.78	953.00
Experimental	32	35.22	1127.00
Total	64		
Mann-Whitney U	425.000		
Z	-1.174		
Sig. (2-tailed)	.240		

The non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test demonstrated that there was not any significant difference between pre-test mean scores of the Control group ($Mdn=21$), and Experimental one ($Mdn=22.5$), $U=425$, $P=.240$. Therefore, at the preliminary stage and before implementing the treatment sessions, all the subjects of the study were at the same level of English proficiency.

Analysis of the Research Questions

First Research Question, Learners' Vocabulary Development

In order to consider the first research question, and also according to the normality, a series of non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for the Control group, and parametric Paired Samples t -test for the Experimental one were administered on the pre-test and post-test scores in each group separately.

TABLE 5.
CONTROL GROUP, WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST, RANKS & TEST STATISTICS

Post-test, Pre-test of Control	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Negative Ranks	8a	11.44	91.50
Positive Ranks	23b	17.59	404.50
Ties	1c		
Total	32		
Z	-3.080		
Asymp. Sig.	.002		

- a. Posttest < Pretest
b. Posttest > Pretest
c. Posttest = Pretest

Because the pre-test scores of the learners in the Control group were non-normal, a non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was run and the output implied that post-test scores of the learners were statistically significantly higher than the pre-test ones, $Z= -3.08$, $p = .002$.

TABLE 6.
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Posttest - Pretest	8.313	9.298	31	.000

The Paired Samples t -test manifested a significant difference, a meaningful increase, between pre-test mean scores ($M=22.50$, $SD=4.14$) and post-test ones ($M=30.81$, $SD=5.85$) of the learners in the Experimental group; $t(31)= 9.29$, $p = 0.00$.

Hence, according to the mentioned results and based on the VAT scores obtained from pre-test to the immediate post-test time, the analysis indicated that simultaneous lexical set of words instruction was as accurate as accidental and incidental method of instructing homonyms. Here, although both groups significantly improved in their vocabulary

development in the short run, students in the Experimental group revealed a better performance. Thus, the first null hypothesis was rejected.

The below figure depicts the significant effect of homonyms instruction on vocabulary development of the learners in both groups of Control and Experimental. Different English letters demonstrated the significant difference.

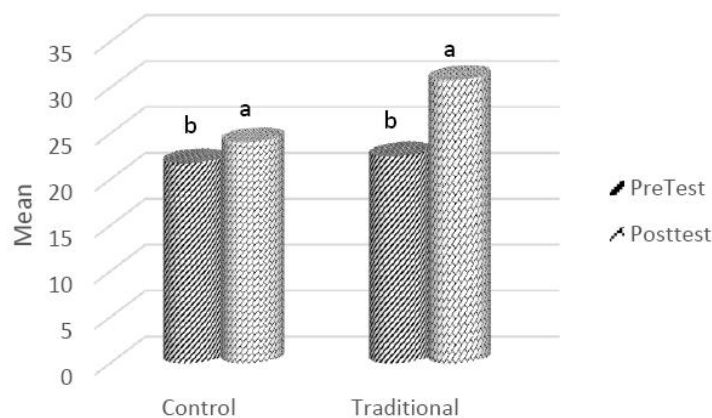


Figure 1. Vocabulary development.

Second Research Question, Learners' Vocabulary Retention

In order to respond to the second research question, and also based on the normality, a number of non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for the Control group, and parametric Paired Samples *t*-test for the Experimental one were conducted on immediate post-test and delayed post-test scores of the learners in each group separately.

TABLE 7.
CONTROL GROUP, WILCOXON SIGNED RANKS TEST, RANKS & TEST STATISTICS

Delayed Post-test, Post-test of Control	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Negative Ranks	19 ^a	14.84	282.00
Positive Ranks	10 ^b	15.30	153.00
Ties	3 ^c		
Total	32		
Z	-1.399		
Asymp. Sig.	.162		

a. Delayed Posttest < Posttest

b. Delayed Posttest > Posttest

c. Delayed Posttest = Posttest

Based on non-parametric Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test, the results did not elicit a statistically significant difference between mean scores of the Control group learners achieved from their immediate and delayed post-tests, $Z = -1.39$, $p = 0.16$.

TABLE 8.
EXPERIMENTAL GROUP, PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Delayed Posttest - Posttest	-6.406	-6.795	31	.000

The results obtained from the paired Samples *t*-test indicated a significant difference, a meaningful decrease, between the post-test mean scores of the learners ($M = 30.81$, $SD = 5.85$) and delayed post-test ones ($M = 24.41$, $SD = 5.07$) in the Experimental group; $t(31) = -6.79$, $p = 0.00$.

Hence, according to the above results and based on the VAT scores gained from post-test to delayed post-test time, in the case of learners' L2 vocabulary retention, results suggested that homonyms instruction significantly hindered the recovery of the vocabulary in the Experimental group three weeks later, but not in the control one. Hence, the performance of the learners in the Experimental group significantly decreased in their vocabulary retention. Consequently, the second null hypothesis was rejected in the case of Experimental method in long-term retention.

The below figure demonstrates the effect of homonyms instruction on vocabulary retention of learners in both groups. Different English letters indicated a significant difference; whereas, the similar English letters suggested that there was not any significant difference.

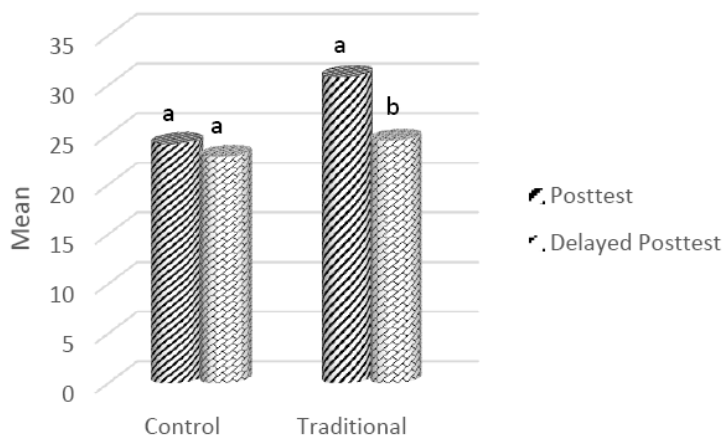


Figure 2. Vocabulary retention.

Accordingly, the adjusted vocabulary pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test scores of the three groups were illustrated as follows:

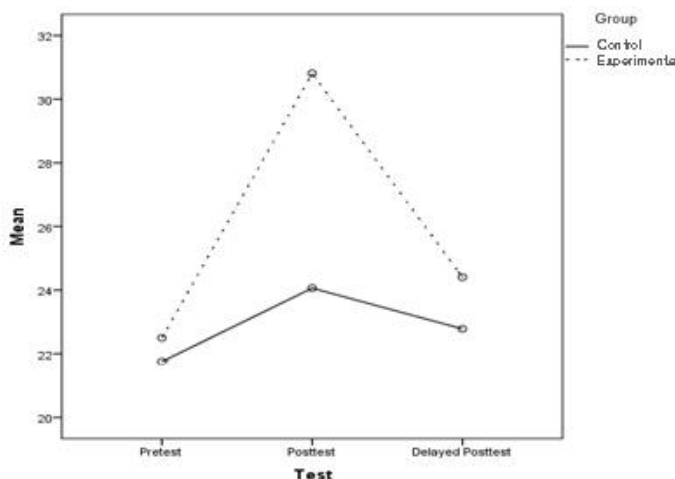


Figure 3. Adjusted VAT scores.

VI. DISCUSSION

The discussion of the obtained findings was fully dealt with in the current section through comparing them with the findings of other previous studies and existing literature.

Regarding the obtained results, this study made it clear that homonyms instruction significantly led to better vocabulary development and progression of the learners in both groups in the short run, but the participant in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control one. Also in the vocabulary retention phase, the analysis implied that, as expected, forgetting took place in both groups. Here, despite the significant decrease in vocabulary retention of the learners in the Experimental group, there was not a significant difference from immediate to delayed post-test time in the Control one.

All in all, the findings of the present study contradicted with the results obtained by Zipke et al. (2009). In the Zipke et al.'s study, the experimental group was composed of the participants who had to determine the meaning of ambiguous sentences through an active homonym learning program employing riddles and other ambiguous texts; however, the control group was comprised of the participants who received the lessons without any metalinguistic ambiguity instruction. The post-test results indicated the superiority of the trained students to the control group ones on their reading comprehension. This view supported the claim that active homonyms learning program remarkably reinforce students' perspicuity in understanding the vague and obscure meaning of ambiguous sentences in the context. Therefore, the short period of homonyms instruction was effective; while in the current study both groups revealed a significant improvement.

However, the findings of this study were in line with the obtained results by the below research studies:

According to Hoshino (2010) or Hashemi and Gowdasiaei (2005), introducing new vocabularies through categorical lists or lexical set of words aided learners foster their vocabulary learning. In the case of Cairns et al. (2004), they investigated the first-grade students in order to detect homonyms. They concluded that although the learners have

metalinguistic awareness to detect homonyms in isolation, the explicit homonyms instruction could reinforce learners' reading comprehension. Therefore, according to Foster (2003), Rog and Kropp (2004), they suggested that homonyms instruction can be incorporated into the curriculum so that the students can compare and contrast words within various texts. Also Mazzocco (1997) after investigation of toddlers, preschoolers, second and fifth graders, as well as the college students affirmed that explicit homonyms instruction was beneficial and had positive effects on learners' interpretation skill in order to reprocess the information and substitute the alternative meaning of the homonyms.

In spite of the fact that explicit homonyms instruction was effective in the short run, it caused some confusion in learners' long-term recall, especially in the Experimental group. Therefore finding other strong techniques to reinforce learners' vocabulary knowledge in the long-term period of time would be helpful in the process of second language teaching and learning.

VII. CONCLUSION

This piece of research study turned the spotlight on the area of learners' vocabulary development and retention through different methods of teaching lexical set of words named homonyms.

Contemplating the fact that homonymic conflict and clash of vagueness in identifying the correct meaning of a homonym, as in homophones or homographs will take place under any condition or circumstances, it seems to happen inevitably. Hence, in the light of mentioned and discussed results obtained from the current study, we came to this conclusion that explicit, simultaneous and concurrent homonyms instruction may lead to learners' metalinguistic awareness and will be fruitful and beneficial in the short run; however, it is the context that can be helpful and aid us in avoiding any obscurity and complication in guessing the correct meaning of a word. So, in many cases, the context can work as a disambiguating factor through which no interference is likely to happen and no real confusion will arise.

In a nutshell, the outcome of this piece of study proposes several remarkable implications for teachers, learners, as well as material developers and syllabus designers. It will be fruitful for *teachers* to provide learners with a context in order to discriminate and differentiate multiple meanings of a homonym through various interactive games or via creating innovative methods of teaching vocabulary to make the class and learning time enjoyable and much more interesting. The findings will be efficient for learners to foster their lexical knowledge through their acquaintance with two or more meanings of a homonym simultaneously. Besides, the obtained results will be beneficial for *material developers* and *syllabus designers* who are dealing with foreign language teaching and providing L2 curricula in a way that they can put the obtained results into a meaningful learning and relevant tasks in order to engage learners in the class activities.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

List of Homonyms Covered in the Three Sessions
(Twenty new words in each session are shown in blue color.)

	Session 1	Session 2	Session 3
1	ball	bawl	ate (q+10) eight
2	bee	be	aunt ant
3	blue	Blew (q+10)	for four
4	buy	by	by
5	deer	dear	hour our
6	flower	flour	knight night
7	hi	high	left
8	letter		made (q+10) maid
9	meet	meat	male mail
10	no	know	new knew (q+10)
11	I	eye	piece peace
12	nose	knows	present
13	hear	here	read (q+10) reed
14	rose	rows	so sew
15	red	read (q+10)	watch
16	pear	pair	pare
17	see	sea	whole hole
18	some	sum	won (q+10) one
19	sun	son	
20	sight	site	
21	to	two	too
22	wait	weight	
23	weather	whether	
24	wood	would	
25	write	right	

B.) Fill-in-the-blank questions with the correct homonym.
Choose the correct homonym to complete these sentences. (10 points)

- Today Yesterday
-
- I can play _____ the sea shore. (buy/ by).
 - The _____ is very nice today and there are no clouds in th blue sky. (whether / weather)
 - Please _____ the sand in your pail. (pour/poor)
 - Mary got a letter in the _____ box. (mail/ male)
 - Sara is my _____ friend. (dear/ deer)
 - The _____ is a kind of big animal. (bear/ bare)
 - The mouse went into the _____ . (whole/ hole)
 - The cat _____ at the mouse. (stares/ stairs)
 - John _____ the race. (one/ won)
 - The _____ of two and two is four. (sum / some) $2 + 2 = ?$

APPENDIX B

Vocabulary Achievement Test
A.) Read and match. Note: There is one extra word. (10 points)

Blew		Night
Night		Hare
		Son
Horse		Flower
		Sun
		Hair
		Deer
Knight		Knight
		Flour
Ant		Ant

C.) Two alternative questions:
Choose the correct answer for the following questions. (20 points)

- I will (right/ write) a story in your notebook with my (right/ write) hand.
- I like to (read/ reed) fairy (tails/ tales).
- We can (here/ hear) with our ears, and (sea/ see) with our eyes.
- The (be/ bee) read the book in an (hour/ our).
- The (mite/ might) ate the (hole / whole) apple.
- I (knew/ new) that Lisa would wear her pretty (knew/ new) dress.
- I don't (no/ know) which (weigh/ way) I should turn.
- The boy (road/ rode) a beautiful white (hoarse/ horse). It is for sale.
- There are seven (daze/ days) in a (week/ weak).
- We can (by/ buy) (sum/ some) bread and butter from the store.

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Problems in Transforming EGP Teachers in China's Universities into ESP Teachers

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Abstract—Because of the significant cultural and economic shifts in China along with a turn toward student-centered instruction in Universities, there was an insufficient number of English for Specific Purpose (ESP) Teachers in Chinese universities. As a result English for General Purpose (EGP) Teachers had to be transformed into ESP Teachers. The study uses 65 of the converted ESP teachers to determine the difficulties teachers had in making this transformation. Some measures used to determine the problems related to the transformation of these teachers are presented in the paper.

Index Terms—ESP teachers, EGP teachers, transformation, difficulties

I. INTRODUCTION

With the globalization of the world economy and the specialization of most professions, one of the directions for the reform of undergraduate English teaching in China is that English for General Purposes (EGP) teaching needs to gradually transform into English for Specific Purposes (ESP) teaching. The important difference between ESP teaching and EGP teaching is that in ESP, the teaching is directed toward communicating with a set of professional skills and particular profession-related activities. University English teaching reform has meant that ESP teaching has been a challenge for English teachers since they were originally only engaged in teaching English for general purposes. They now have to reflect on their professional development and try to determine the way to meet the new demands of the situation. This study plans to explore the difficulties ESP teachers have faced and the way they prepare to make these changes.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

ESP emerged as a single field in the 1960's. The flowering period of ESP has been closely tied to the rapid expansion in science, technology and commerce. The ESP teaching movement resulted from the English language needs of the learners to connect their learning to their professions and job description. Up to now, ESP has undergone five main development phases: (1) to include analysis of sentence grammar; (2) to promote rhetorical or discourse analysis so as to understand how sentences were combined to produce meaning; (3) to promote target situation analysis believing that the ESP course design process should proceed by first identifying the target situation and then carrying out a rigorous analysis of the linguistic features of that situation; (4) to emphasize the phase of skills and strategies that are needed to look below the surface and consider not the language itself but the thinking processes that underlie language use; (5) to see ESP as a learning-centered approach (Hutchinson and Waters, 2002).

A generally accepted definition of ESP is that its courses are those in which the aims and the content are determined, principally or wholly, not by criteria drawn from general education, as when English is a school subject, but by functional or practical (job related) English requirements of the learner (Strevens, 1977). Hutchinson and Waters (2002) define ESP as an approach to language learning that is based on learners' needs. What they mean is that ESP not only includes a particular kind of language, teaching material, or methodology, but also involves the learners, the language required and the learning context.

According to Freeman (1989), ESP teaching is a process of making decisions on the basis of knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness. "Knowledge" and "skills" are the foundation of teaching while for Freeman "attitude" and "awareness" are its roots. "Knowledge" mainly refers to the subject matter and the students' background information. More specifically, the former refers to the knowledge of both English and teaching methods, and the latter involves background information about students' English proficiency, their learning strategy and personality or their individual differences. "Skills" refers to a teacher's ability to use appropriate methodology and to deal with its textbooks, class organization and management using student-centered instruction. "Attitude" means how teachers think of themselves, their students as well as the relationship between the two and the whole manner of teaching. "Awareness" is the capacity to recognize and monitor the attention one is giving or has given to some aspects of teaching (Freeman, 1989).

This study will focus on the difficulties ESP teachers may encounter as they address knowledge, skills, attitude and awareness.

In terms of ESP teachers' professional development, Perry (1980) believes it means the growth in their teaching career, including the increase of confidence, enhancement of teaching skills, extension and consolidation of subject knowledge, and reinforcement of the awareness used in their teaching. Jia Aiwu (2005) argues that foreign language teachers' development is composed of two dimensions. The first is teachers' psychological growth in their teaching, including their attitude, subject knowledge and competence, and subject teaching ability. In the first dimension, attitude level refers to strengthening of professional belief and values; level of subject knowledge and competence indicates the extension and deepening of subject knowledge; level of subject teaching ability focuses on enhancement of teaching skills and awareness of enriching ability with colleagues. The second dimension lies in their development gained in in-service training or education. ESP teachers' professional development in this study refers to changes in the teacher's attitude, knowledge, skills and awareness.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Research Design*

In modern tertiary education the new role of foreign language education is to develop interdisciplinary talents with solid and broad knowledge. ESP which is designed for specific learners according to their academic and professional needs clearly meets this demand. Because some EGP teachers have transformed into ESP teachers, this study intends to determine the difficulties those teachers face and propose some effective ways to avoid them. More specifically this thesis aims to address two important questions:

1. What difficulties do these teachers encounter during their teaching?
2. What are effective ways to foster ESP teachers' development?

B. *Research Method*

The participants in this research study include 65 English teachers from 8 science and engineering universities and colleges. Because the number of ESP teachers was insufficient many EGP teachers were transformed into ESP teachers. But because of the advancement of science, technology, and economics, teachers need more understanding and better command of both specialist knowledge and skills.

C. *Data Collection*

Two different sources of data, the questionnaire survey and the semi-structured interview, were used to seek the information to answer these questions. They are introduced in the following section.

D. *Instruments*

(1) Questionnaires

In the literature review mentioned above, the questionnaire contains several items that deal with ESP teachers' teaching attitudes, knowledge, skills, and awareness. A total of 65 questionnaires were given to ESP teachers, of which 56 were fully completed. The data was collected through e-mail or paper responses. The rate of completion was 86.15%. The Survey used SPSS 16.0 analyze the data.

(2) Semi-structured Interviews

In order to understand why participants did not respond to all of the questions an in-depth semi-structured interview was given to 10 teachers who did not finish the questionnaires. The semi-structured interviews were conducted separately through phone calls or QQ (Tencent Instant Messenger) contacts using a set of questions to attain more clear, authentic, and abundant information. The researcher made detailed notes about the interview results.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this part of the research, the results of both the questionnaires and the semi-structured interviews are presented, followed by discussions of issues relevant to the better preparation of ESP teachers.

A. *Teachers' Attitude*

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TOWARDS ESP TEACHING

Item	Options	Numbers	Percentage
Would I like to teach ESP?	A. strongly agree	9	16.07
	B. agree	30	53.57
	C. no idea	10	17.86
	D. disagree	6	10.71
	E. strongly disagree	3	5.36
ESP teachers should regard students as the focus of their teaching using the describing characteristics of ESP.	A. strongly agree	12	21.43
	B. agree	26	46.43
	C. no idea	11	19.64
	D. disagree	5	8.93
	E. strongly disagree	2	3.57
ESP teachers should be Language teacher, Collaborator, Course designer and materials provider, Researcher and Appraiser.	A. strongly agree	16	28.57
	B. agree	25	44.64
	C. No idea	11	19.64
	D. disagree	3	5.36
	E. Strongly disagree	1	1.79

Attitude involves teachers' stance toward the issue of "learner-centeredness" or "teacher-centeredness", and also their performance and behaviors in dealing with the matter of actual teaching. From the above table, 69.64% of participants among the 56 respondents agreed or strongly agreed that they would like to teach ESP courses. Although they have had to face many new challenges involved in daily teaching, they think it is worthwhile profession. When asked to explain the reason for this choice, the interviewees made it clear that they were aware that the purpose for college English teaching would mean an increase in social demand to cultivate interdisciplinary foreign language talents.

Learner-centeredness is defined by a perspective that combines a focus on individual learners' cultural background and their learning needs, such as the knowledge available, the effective practice, etc (McCombs & Whisler,1997). 67.86% of participants hold that they should regard students as the center of language teaching; they clearly adopted the learner-centered approach. The interviewed teachers realized that students should be responsible for their own learning. They realized that teachers must construct an optimal learning environment in which learners should be actively involved in their learning.

73.21% of participants agree that ESP teachers have to fulfill a variety of roles, such as language teacher, collaborator, course designer, materials provider, researcher and appraiser. Because of the on-going changing patterns of learners' needs, ESP teachers have to adopt multidimensional and newly determined responsibilities, such as formulating certain goals and objectives, selecting and developing effective materials, planning appropriate courses, and evaluating the learners' development.

B. Subject Knowledge

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TOWARDS SUBJECT KNOWLEDGE

Item	Options	Numbers	Percentage
How would you describe your mastery of the specific subject knowledge?	A. knowing all about it	0	0
	B. knowing a lot about it	5	8.93
	C. knowing some subject knowledge	12	21.43
	D. knowing little about	34	60.71
	E. knowing nothing about it	5	8.93
What did you do when you meet with some specialty problems? (multiple answers)	A. ask the subject teacher for help	36	64.29
	B. consult reference materials	47	83.93
	C. ask other specialties	15	26.79
	D. discuss with students	19	33.93
	E. turn to other alternatives	21	37.50
Need analysis is the basis for designing ESP syllabus and compiling teaching materials.	A. strongly agree	11	19.64
	B. agree	24	42.86
	C. no idea	15	26.79
	D. disagree	4	7.14
	E. strongly disagree	2	3.57

The subject knowledge, related to a specific discipline, is an important part of ESP teaching. Teachers need to have a basic subject knowledge in the specialist field. Better command of the subject knowledge on the part of the ESP teachers is highly favorable and an understanding of content is highly desirable. Nevertheless, 60.71% of participants admit that they know little about the required specific subject knowledge. The interviewees mentioned that they were not familiar with the ESP subject matter or did not have a good command of the vocabulary and stylistic features in a certain ESP field. The reason for this low content knowledge is that teachers who used to be EGP teachers do not belong to a subject-related discourse community. When they met with some specialty problems, they usually asked the subject teacher for help (64.29%) or consulted reference materials (83.93%). Some said that they ask specialists (26.79%), discuss this with the students (33.93%), or turn to other alternatives (31.50%). Most scholars, however, insist

that ESP teaching should foster students' language skills and their communicative competence, and that teachers need to be equipped with subject knowledge to achieve satisfying teaching results. They felt that without subject knowledge ESP teachers' authority with their students would be weakened. Jigang (2004) additionally pointed out that ESP teachers should reach a moderate level of subject knowledge as well as English language competency.

Needs analysis is one of the most important elements in an ESP curriculum and 62.50% of participants strongly agree or agree that needs analysis is the basis for designing an ESP syllabus and developing teaching materials. However, the interviewees mentioned that some colleges developed ESP courses merely by being in accordance with particular professional requirements rather than carefully assessing individual needs. Many were concerned that a poorly funded teaching system would lead to degrading students' long-term competitive advantage. They hope that ESP teaching would help meet their students' personal needs such as cultivating autonomous learning ability, fostering their social adaptability, and enhancing their comprehensive quality.

C. Teaching Skills

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TOWARDS TEACHING SKILLS

Item	Options	Numbers	Percentage
What are the teaching methods frequently adopted by the teacher? (multiple answers)	A. The grammar-translation method	36	64.29
	B. the communicative approach	29	51.79
	B. the teacher-centered method	35	62.50
	D. the content based instruction	31	55.36
Are the teaching materials appropriate?	A. strongly agree	2	3.57
	B. agree	9	16.07
	C. no idea	11	19.64
	D. disagree	26	46.43
	E. strongly disagree	8	14.29
Do you think it necessary to reorganize teaching material?	A. strongly agree	11	19.64
	B. agree	30	53.57
	C. no idea	9	16.07
	D. disagree	4	7.14
	E. strongly disagree	2	3.57

Teaching skills involves the abilities and techniques of adopting suitable teaching methods to deal with teaching materials, and design the teaching procedures, and classroom activities that are a part of teaching. From Table 3, we see that each teaching method listed was frequently adopted by ESP teachers. As we all know, the communicative approach, the student-centered approach, and content based instruction are all effective ways to develop students' comprehensive abilities, which are necessary to help students deal with various problems and emergent situations in future jobs. Although many teachers have realized that these three methods are essential to ESP teaching, they may have adopted the teacher-centered, grammar-translation method because they knew little about subject knowledge. The interviewees admitted that they were often limited to the explanation found in the text itself because they lacked a sense of its deeper meaning. They were ready to explain the language points in the texts but overlooked student's subject specialist knowledge and other matters. These limitations can make ESP teaching consume much added time with low efficiency in teaching results.

60.72% of participants believe that the teaching materials were unimportant. Some teachers mentioned that the current materials they surveyed are either too specialized, not easily available, or very outdated. The teaching material should, however, be drawn from subject-related authentic materials and serve students' future work well. Nearly all of the interviewees held that it was necessary to select, analyze, and reorganize the teaching materials by themselves as needed.

D. Teachers' Awareness

TABLE 4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF THE PARTICIPANTS' RESPONSES TOWARDS TEACHING SKILLS

Item	Options	Numbers	Percentage
What kind of ESP teacher training program has been organized by your college?(multiple answers)	A. inviting experts to give lectures	41	73.21
	B. sending teachers to receive further education	15	26.79
	C. funding cooperation teaching team	36	64.29
	D. other ways	12	21.43
How to promote teachers' professional development?(multiple answers)	A. autonomous learning	37	66.07
	B. action research	38	67.86
	C. reflective teaching	41	73.21
	D. team collaboration	31	55.36
	E. other ways	37	66.07

In teachers' professional development, awareness serves the function of triggering and monitoring teachers' attitude, skills, and knowledge. Heightened awareness helps teachers hold a positive attitude that allows them to be open to change. As can be seen from Table 4, college administrative departments prefer short-term teacher training program, such as inviting experts to give lectures (73.21%) and funding teaching teams (64.29%). In their interviews, some teachers mentioned that their colleges hadn't attached enough importance to ESP teaching and did not want to invest much money for teachers to receive further education (26.79%). No doubt teachers were eager to have the opportunity to receive full-time further education to make up for deficiencies. But due to lack of systematic pre-service and in-service training, they have to further improve the teaching quality and foster their professional development through practices such as autonomous learning, action research, reflective teaching, and team collaboration.

V. IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

Based on the analysis of the problems and the survey results, we offer four recommendations to improve the quality of ESP teachers.

A. *Fostering the Positive Attitude*

Positive attitudes and actions employed by teachers can create positive changes in the lives and professional development of their students. The survey shows that most ESP teachers have positive attitudes towards ESP teaching. ESP teachers should respond to students' various interests and needs and help them develop positive self-concepts and cooperative attitudes by listening to them speak about their future. Additionally, they should provide clear feedback for them, help them comprehend what they are going to do in classes, encourage them to develop intrinsic motivation, discover their capabilities, and take responsibility to develop special skills for learning. ESP teachers' positive attitude can be fostered by fulfilling the responsibilities of being a language teacher, course designer, material provider, collaborator, researcher, and assessor under the principles of ESP teaching.

The nature of ESP determines that its basic teaching process should be learner-centered. That means that ESP teaching should place emphasis on process rather than product, developing communicative competency, using authentic materials, and valuing collaborative group work. The classroom activities appropriate to the learner-centered approach, require students to apply knowledge in diverse and authentic contexts, to explain ideas, interpret texts, and construct arguments based on evidence, rather than focus exclusively on the acquisition of predetermined "right answers". The teaching practice should follow the principle of involving students' collaborative work and giving them support to engage in task-oriented dialogue with each other, such as role play, group work, pair work, task-oriented work, and discussion. The teacher's lectures and learner-centered classroom activities should vary with the lesson patterns and learning goals. In sum, ESP teaching in learner-centered classrooms serves to meet learners' needs, interests, experiences and lifelong development.

B. *Enriching Subject Knowledge*

ESP teaching is neither a simple language course nor a simple subject course but a closely integrated course with equal attention placed on language use and subject knowledge (Elisabet et al, 2015). It is favorable for ESP teachers to know much about subject knowledge because this enhances teachers' confidence and thus contributes to the success of their teaching. The Survey, however, indicates that ESP teachers are aware that they lack professional subject knowledge. Many teachers feel ineffectual because of the lack of subject matter knowledge they are expected to teach. Science that lacks knowledge, in particular, can be seen as dull, boring, complicated, incomprehensible, and confusing, which can only have a very negative effect on their teaching.

It is essential that ESP teachers should try to dispel the fears and hostility towards ESP subject matter. They should be motivated to accumulate every bit of subject knowledge through many different ways such as asking professional subject teachers for help and consulting reference books. Above all, ESP teachers should be eager to receive relevant training courses, and if possible, be sent to other universities at home and abroad for training. Through regular in-service training, the subject knowledge of ESP teachers will be enhanced and their comprehensive ability will be improved. However, due to limited time and inadequate funding, it is impossible for most ESP teachers to participate in different kinds of training on subject knowledge. Therefore, they have to study independently by reading related books or resources online to make up for the deficiency.

Needs analysis is the basis for designing an ESP syllabus and compiling teaching materials. Compared with EGP, the need analysis of ESP is easier to be carried out, which is a unique feature of ESP. Needs analysis involves two aspects according to West (1994). One is related to Target Situation Analysis (TSA), which centers on identifying the learners' language requirements in the occupational or academic setting. The other means analyzing learning needs which includes what kind of knowledge the learners lack, which skills learners should learn first and which ones later, and which learning strategy learners respond to best. The necessary information can be obtained through several means: administering questionnaires, conducting interviews, making classroom observations, and analyzing course documents. The information can be gathered as well from different sources: students, teachers, sponsors, administrators, program developers, and others.

C. *Strengthening Professional Skills*

As an ESP teacher or practitioner, I've recommended, in addition to the necessary language competence and specific subject knowledge, some personal skills that are of great significance (Ellis & Mark, 2002). Grammar-Translation method still dominates ESP teaching through integrating teaching methods. This method pays great attention to grammar rules and reading, but unfortunately does not take listening, speaking and subject matter into adequate consideration. The Communicative Approach attaches importance to the needs and the role of students, but it does not pay as much attention to subject matter. A blend of Content-based Instruction (CBI) that absorbs the advantages of both the Grammar-Translation Method and Communicative Language Teaching, is more compatible with ESP teaching. This instruction has the potential to enhance students' motivation, to accelerate acquisition of their language proficiency, to make the language learning experience more enjoyable, and to fulfill the task of language learning. There are various models of CBI, among which the theme-based model, the sheltered model, and the adjunct model are very common. In theme-based language instruction, the course syllabus is based on different themes or topics which provide rich content for students to learn (Brinton et al, 2003). Within the sheltered model, the teacher uses special methods to shelter or focus on subject matter so as to make the content more accessible to learners. In another approach, the adjunct model, students with sufficient language proficiency are encouraged to participate in content activities (Stryker & Leaver, 1997).

The selection of an effective approach and use of compatible materials plays a significant role in ESP teaching. If teachers try to authenticate the language, learners can be gradually initiated into the conventions of the English language use and acquire it. The problem is that at present teachers save too little time to research and develop appropriate and useful materials. This survey shows more than 60% of teachers think the present ESP teaching materials are far from satisfactory. Therefore, it is believed that many teachers have become slaves of the published course books available. The teaching materials should come from the authentic materials used in the related workplace; teaching activities and practices designing both need to reflect the socio-cultural context of ESP. The chosen materials containing different types of exercises, activities, and tasks, should instigate communication among the students. Based on the students' needs and objectives, the materials should treat the four language skills equally. More importantly, teachers need to reorganize the range of materials and opt for the best ones based on their own classroom experience and their learners' needs, objectives, levels, and interests.

D. Enhancing Development Awareness

Awareness means that ESP teachers work to achieve their teaching objective through effective ways, that provides opportunities to promote their professional development. The survey indicates that ESP teachers have to rely on short-term training and meta-cognitive awareness to foster their professional development based on real world situations. In fact, autonomous learning, action research, reflective teaching, and team collaboration are common and effective ways to raise their awareness.

The survey found that most of the teachers rely on autonomous learning much more than the collectively organized training programs to fulfill further development. Just as Master (1997) suggests, in most cases, professional ESP practitioners train themselves, learning as they go. Teachers should have an active and critical attitude toward both national and local educational reforms, have a lifelong learning consciousness, consider the development of learner autonomy as their responsibility, and integrate professional development into teaching practice.

Action research can often be adopted to reflect systematically and critically on practice for improving teaching expertise. In this way, ESP teachers may not only improve their practice but also learn to theorize about that practice. During the process, teachers initially plan an area of interest or concern in their practice, then collect data, analyze and interpret it to look for particular patterns that exist, and finally develop an action plan designed to implement and improve the classroom/school practice. This cycle of plan, act, observe, and reflect can then be repeated and research continually developed based on a particular research topic (Kemmis & McTaggart, 1988).

Schon (1983) put forward a universal reflective teaching model based on two frameworks of "reflection-on-action" and "reflection-in-action". "Reflection-on-action" refers to occurrence before and after the action, including the course of the thinking and planning before class as well as reflections on classroom events after the class. "Reflection-in-action" refers to reflective dialogues between practitioners and the teaching situation in action. Reflective teaching can be carried out in various ways and ESP teachers should choose the ones that fit their preferences, such as diary keeping, observation, teacher assessment, video and so on.

Collaboration with professional teachers is advocated for improving ESP teaching quality and promoting the teacher's professional development. Such cooperation is usually a two-way process: the subject teacher helps the English teacher deal with subject content matter while the English teacher helps the subject teacher solve the language problems that learners experience. The effective cooperation can happen both in class and out of class. One kind of collaboration is that the language teacher and subject teacher share the instruction content with the two teachers being simultaneously present in class. The other collaboration or cooperation can take place outside the class, most typically in the production of teaching materials.

VI. CONCLUSION

ESP teachers transformed from GEP teachers have to face many challenges and prepare themselves for a radical shift in learning. What they have needed to do is to cultivate a positive attitude, enrich the existing knowledge, strengthen the professional skills and enhance their development awareness. The researchers hold the belief that only with continuous and extensive attention and studies can ESP teachers make great progress in their professional development and promote their teaching to meet the ultimate educational demands and social economic development of the country.

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A Study of the Effects of Time Lag between Learners' Errors and Teachers' Feedback on the Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge

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Abstract—The present study aims at studying the effect of immediate and delayed feedback on the depth of vocabulary knowledge. To this end, two classes were selected from Sokhansara institute of those who were studying at the intermediate level. But, to ensure homogeneity, an OPT was given based on which two groups were selected, one acting as the immediate feedback group (IFG) and the other as the delayed feedback group (DFG). In the next stage, a pretest which was adapted from Read's Word Association Test was given to assess the students' depth of vocabulary knowledge before treatment. After that, students in IFG received feedback over their lexical errors immediately in the presentation stages of the lessons, while in DFG, feedback was provided in the practice and production stages of the lessons. At the end of the semester, a parallel post test was given to assess the students' depth of vocabulary knowledge. As to the analysis of the results, a paired sample Students' T-Test was run on SPSS to compare the scores of participants in pretest and posttest within each group. An independent sample Students' T-Test was also run between the post test results to check the differences between two experimental groups. The findings of this research indicate that using delayed feedback has a positive impact on enhancing the depth of vocabulary knowledge of EFL students at intermediate level.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, dimensional approach to depth, immediate and delayed feedback, vocabulary knowledge dimensions, word association test

I. INTRODUCTION

Based on the previous research (Henriksen 1999; Nation 2001; Read 2000), it has been realized that word knowledge is a multidimensional construct with various types of knowledge components. As found in the literature, knowing a word goes beyond just knowing its different meanings in different contexts. A learner must know all kinds of associated knowledge of each word including knowledge related to its pronunciation, spelling, register, stylistic, and morphological features (Haastrop & Henriksen, 2000; Meara, 1996; Nation, 1990; Richards, 1976) as well as the knowledge of the word's syntactic and semantic relationships with other words in the language (i.e., its collocational meanings, antonymy, synonymy, and hyponymy) (Chappelle, 1994; Henriksen, 1999; Read, 2000). But, most commonly, researchers tend to view vocabulary knowledge as a dichotomy of breadth (how many words are known) and depth (how well is a word known) (Greidanus & Nienhuis, 2001; Read, 2000; Vermmer, 2001; Wolter, 2001)

As to teacher's feedback in language classroom, unfortunately, explicit teaching of vocabulary has been almost neglected and research conducted so far have been mostly in writing and speaking areas (e.g., Qian, 1999, 2002; Li, 2003). In Iran, for example, only little research has been done on the role of corrective feedback in vocabulary learning (e.g. Mollakhan, Rasouli & Karballaei, 2013, Keyanfar, & Azimi F, 2009). Mollakhan et al.'s (2013) study, also, was about using prompts and recasts as two kinds of oral corrective feedback for enhancing the learners' ability to detect and correct errors in their own speech when they are learning new vocabularies.

So, it can be said that, in the area of vocabulary teaching and learning, feedback is mostly provided on pronunciation errors, but teachers don't usually pay attention to the depth of vocabulary. What gives significance to the present study, therefore, is that it mainly focuses on feedback procedure in vocabulary development, in this case, enhancement of depth of vocabulary knowledge. Another factor which has been manipulated in this study is the time lag between learners' lexical errors and teacher's feedback, in a way that both immediate and delayed feedback conditions can be studied.

The following three research questions are addressed:

1. What is the effect of teacher's immediate feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge?
2. What is the effect of teacher's delayed feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge?
3. Is there any difference between EFL Learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge in immediate and delayed feedback conditions.

By considering the related questions mentioned above, the following hypotheses were raised:

1. Teacher's immediate feedback does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge.
2. Teacher's delayed feedback does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge.
3. There is no difference between EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge in immediate and delayed feedback conditions.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Vocabulary Knowledge Dimensions

Because of the complexity of the construct of word knowledge, it is difficult to reach a consensus on what is involved in it and how to measure it. Nation (1990) proposed that word knowledge has eight different aspects: (1) the spoken form of a word, (2) the written form of the word, (3) the grammatical behavior of the word, (4) the collocation behavior of the word, (5) the word frequency, (6) the style and register of the word, (7) the conceptual meaning of the word, and (8) the associations the word has with other related words (cited, e.g., by: Schmitt, 1998).

Chappelle (1998) also, argues that in defining the vocabulary as a trait, one should include four dimensions: (1) vocabulary size; (2) knowledge of word characteristics; (3) lexicon organization; and (4) process of lexical access (cited by, e. g., Razmjoo, Sahragard, & Sadri, 2009). From another point of view, Henriksen (1999) includes three dimensions of precision, depth, and receptive/productive knowledge in his definition of lexical competence (see, e.g., Mehrpour, Razmjoo, & Kian, 2011). Furthermore, Qian (2002) in his recent framework, proposes the following four intrinsically connected dimensions of vocabulary knowledge:

(1) *vocabulary size, which refers to the number of words of which a learner has at least some superficial knowledge of meaning;* (2) *depth of vocabulary knowledge, which includes all lexical characteristics, such as phonemic, graphemic, morphemic, syntactic, semantic, collocational, and phraseological properties, as well as frequency and register;* (3) *lexical organization, which refers to the storage, connection, and representation of words in the mental lexicon of a learner;* and (4) *automaticity of receptive-productive knowledge, which refers to all the fundamental processes to access the word knowledge for both receptive and productive purposes, including phonological and orthographic encoding and decoding, access to structural and semantic features from the mental lexicon, lexical-semantic integration and representation, and morphological parsing and composing.* (cited by: Mehrpour, Razmjoo, & Kian, 2011; Shen, 2008).

For the purpose of the present study, only depth component of the vocabulary knowledge has been further explained below.

Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge (DVK)

With all the controversies existing as to the nature of vocabulary knowledge, a common trend has been observed among a group of researchers (e.g., Read, 2000; Qian, 2002; and Vermeer, 2001) who believe that vocabulary knowledge consists of two dimensions of breadth and depth. Breadth of vocabulary knowledge indicates a person's vocabulary size or the number of words one approximately knows (e.g., Nassaji, 2004; Qian, 2002; Zareva, 2005). Depth of vocabulary knowledge (DVK), on the other hand, implies the quality of a person's knowledge of a word – "how well someone knows a specific word or set of words" (Mehrpour, Razmjoo, & Kian, 2011). The only complexity which seems to exist is that few vocabulary tests attempt to address this DVK. The only widely known test format that does make such an attempt is the Word Associates Test (WAT) (Read, 1993, 1998), which, in addition to testing synonyms, attempts to incorporate collocational knowledge of the tested words.

Word Association Test

vocabulary size is usually a measurable construct and can be gauged by different techniques, for example, by classroom quizzes or more established assessment instruments, as mentioned by Schmitt et al. (2011), for example, the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (Dunn & Dunn, 2007, cited by Schmitt et al., 2011) for L1 children and the Vocabulary Levels Test (Schmitt, Schmitt, & Clapham, 2001) for L2 learners. The measurement of vocabulary depth, however, is more problematic (Schmitt et al., 2011). According to Read (2000), depth can be measured based on developmental and dimensional approaches. In the former, a scale of, usually 5 points, ranging from no knowledge to full mastery, is used for charting the level of mastery of lexical item. One of the best known scales of vocabulary knowledge is the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale, proposed by Paribakht and Wesche, (1997), although it has, also, some serious drawbacks (see Read, 2000 and Schmitt, 2010, for detailed discussions).

The dimensional approach, on the other hand, describes the depth in terms of different components of word knowledge. This approach which has been taken from Richards (1976) sets out a number of competencies necessary for mastery of a word (see: Shen, 2008). One of comprehensive measures which somewhat tap these competencies, is word association acknowledged by researchers like Schmitt and Meara (1997) and Read (2001).

A common format for Word Association Test has been provided in www.lex tutor.ca. There are two boxes with eight probable associates for each stimulus word. The four words in the left box may help to explain the meaning of the given word, while the four words in the right box are items that may collocate with the given word in a phrase or a sentence. Test takers are asked to select four words from the two boxes that they think are relevant to the stimulus word according to the criteria mentioned above.

B. Teacher's Feedback

Long (1996), in his general views to feedback, states that language learners have access to two types of input: positive evidence and negative evidence. Positive evidence is models provided for the learners of what is grammatical and acceptable in the TL; negative evidence is direct or indirect information given to the learners about what is unacceptable. In this case, teacher may explicitly explain a grammatical point or correct an error overtly, or act incidentally in his/her error correction and use some implicit techniques such as confirmation check (p. 413).

Immediate and Delayed Feedback

There are several control issues related to the timing interval between learners error and teachers feedback. For example, Metcalfe, Kornell, & Finn (2009) showed that:

"delayed feedback was better than immediate feedback (and both were better than no feedback) when time interval to test was not controlled, but there was no difference between the delayed and immediate feedback conditions when timing to the test was controlled".

According to the study by Metcalfe (2009), in testing situation, if immediate feedback is given to the test takers' answers in the form of automatic scoring or rating, such a test shows exactly where the learners' weaknesses are and helps in eliminating those weaknesses. And this should be done without any delay; because, according to Metcalfe, if a teacher cannot answer a student's question until 48 hours, something we have in common testing methods, he is considered as inefficient" (p. 417).

As to immediate feedback, Zahorik (1987), for example, stated that when students are informed about the wrong or right of their test performances, they can change their studying style and, consequently, reach a better achievement level. Furthermore, according to Zahorik, feedback should be given without any delay because it informs the students about the quality of their performance they show during learning. If the performance is not right, the immediate feedback helps the learners to modify it and stops the same incorrect behavior to occur again. On the other hand, if the behaviors are correct, immediate feedback can encourage students to follow the same route in their future performances. In addition, feedback shows the learners how they are progressing towards their objectives (Eggen & Kauchak, 2004).

Another factor which affects the usefulness of immediate or delayed feedback is the level of task difficulty. According to Clariana (1999), in difficult tasks, immediate feedback is useful, but in easy tasks, it's better to delay the feedback (cited by Samuels & Wu, 2003). There are some other researchers who emphasize that immediate feedback which is presented combined with the information about the student's responses enhances learning and recall (Epstein et al., 2002; Epstein & Lazarus, 2002; see, also: Ciampa, 2012). The effectiveness of tutoring is also due to the immediate feedback it provides to the learner.

But, there are some who believe in the contrary (Butler, Karpicke, & Roediger, 2007). This group believes that test performance improves a great deal after delayed feedback.

III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the study is to find out the difference between the effects of teachers' immediate and delayed feedback (IF & DF) on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge. A quasi-experimental study was conducted in a pretest-posttest design with the types of teachers' feedback (immediate, delay) as the independent variable and learners' vocabulary knowledge dimension, in this case, depth of the vocabulary knowledge, as the dependent variable.

A. Participants

The number of 96 students with intermediate level of proficiency constituted the population of the present study. These participants were studying at the intermediate level determined by the institute (Sokhansara). Among these students, 24 persons were fourteen, 33 persons were fifteen and 39 persons were sixteen years old. All the students were female. For ensuring the homogeneity of the groups, however, an OPT was held and the participants whose scores were reported to be between one standard deviation above the mean and one standard deviation below the mean were selected. They were counted as 75. Among these selected participants 30 were grouped in the immediate feedback classroom and 45 in the delayed feedback classroom. The teacher's method of teaching and the condition of the two classes were approximately the same. The only difference between the two classes was the feedback method used by the teacher (explained in the following sections). The data was collected during the regularly scheduled class periods.

B. Data Collection Procedure

Before conducting the study, the researcher first talked with the administrators of the institution about the study and got the required permissions. The researcher explained the teacher about the goal of the study. The data collection procedure started from the beginning of the term. Feedback was given at different stages during normal classroom procedure.

At first, at the beginning of the study, an OPT was given to homogenize the students in terms of their language proficiency. This test included 40 multiple-choice vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension items. The reliability of this test was .71. Based on the results of this test, two intermediate level groups were selected as the sample of the study. Then, the researcher took a diagnostic test to determine which vocabulary items the students did not know before the treatment. This test which was devised by the researcher according to the test procedure description

provided in Ellis et al. (1994), contained a list of 28 vocabulary items. These items were chosen from the Four Corners and Active Skills for Reading: INTRO and some from the outside sources as irrelevant items. The participants were asked to underline the items they didn't know. After that, the unknown items (i.e., those that were underlined) were identified and the percentage of the students not knowing the items was calculated. Those items that are underlined by most of the students were chosen to be included in the pretest.

After the diagnostic test, a pretest and a post test which were an adopted form of Read's Word Association Test (1993) were used by researchers to measure the participant's depth of vocabulary knowledge before and after the treatment. These tests, which were in a multiple choice format, were parallel versions of the same test that consisted of 57 items. These items were chosen from the main words of the Four corners and Active Skills for Reading: INTRO. The associates in these tests were selected from (www.wordassociations.net). For example "friend" was chosen and some relevant words that are related to it were selected from this site, like: helper, college, people and enemy. On the other hand, some irrelevant words were, also, selected. The students should choose only the relevant words. According to Cronbach's alpha, reliability coefficients of pretest and post test were 87% and 93% respectively.

Then the classroom teaching procedure started which followed the traditional approach of Presentation, Practice, Produce (PPP). One class received teachers' immediate feedback and another class received delayed feedback. In the immediate feedback group (IFG), the feedback was given in the presentation phase, while for the delayed feedback group (DFG), the feedback was postponed until the practice phase.

After twenty four treatment sessions, a post-test which was a parallel version of the pre-test was administered. The time interval between pre-test and post-test was four weeks. The results of the pretest and posttest were compared to check the possible improvements in learners' performance resulting from the feedback procedures.

C. Data Analysis

Testing the First Hypothesis

The first hypothesis was "Teacher's immediate feedback does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge."

To evaluate the effectiveness of immediate feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge, a Students' t-test was used on IFG's pretest-post test results. This statistical test is used for testing hypotheses when the mean of a small sample is drawn from a normally distributed population (see: Britanica.com). The mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for IFG have been reported as follows:

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ASSESSMENT SCORES FOR DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE IN IFG

Scale	Step	Average	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Immediate feedback	pre test	87.62	16.17	43	91
	post test	80.105	47.23	58	125

According to Table 4.1, the mean scores of pre-test and post-test in IFG respectively are 87/62 and 80/105. The minimum and maximum scores among the pre-test scores are 43 and 91 and the minimum and maximum scores among post test score are 58 and 125.

Mean, standard deviation, t value and significance level of the test are given in Table 2. The scores obtained by the students in this group were computed to compare the pre-test with the post-test.

TABLE 2.
STUDENT'S T TEST WITHIN IFG TO DETERMINE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF IMMEDIATE FEEDBACK

scale	Pre test		Post test		t	df	Sig.
	Mean	Sd.	Mean	Sd.			
Iranian EFL Learners' Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	62.87	17.16	105.80	23.47	-5/65	44	0/01

The above table shows clearly a significant difference between the IFG's pre-test and post-test ($p < 0/05$). More precisely, the analysis revealed that the experimental group achieved a mean score of 62/87 in the pre-test; whereas for the post-test, the mean score increased to 105/80.

This result indicates that teachers' immediate feedback had a significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge. So, the first hypothesis is rejected.

Testing the Second Hypothesis:

The second hypothesis was "Teacher's delayed feedback does not have any significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge."

For this stage, the scores obtained by DFG in the pretest and posttest were compared to ascertain the difference between the mean scores. The results are shown in Table 3 below.

Descriptive statistics' mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for DFG have been reported as follows:

TABLE 3.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ASSESSMENT SCORES FOR DEPTH OF VOCABULARY KNOWLEDGE IN DFG

Scale	Step	Average	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Delayed feedback	pre test	80.45	89.13	33	80
	post test	60.155	28.9	143	174

According to Table 3, the mean scores of pre-test and post-test for delayed feedback respectively are 45/80 and 155/60. The minimum and maximum scores among the pre-test scores are 33 and 80 and the minimum and maximum scores, among post test score are 143 and 174.

To evaluate the effectiveness of delayed feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge a paired-sample Students' t-test was used. Mean and standard deviation and t value and significance level of the test are given in Table 4.

TABLE 4.
STUDENT'S T TEST FOR TWO GROUPS TO DETERMINE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF TREATMENT WITH DELAYED FEEDBACK.

scale	Pre test		Post test		t	df	Sig.
	Mean	Sd.	Mean	Sd.			
Iranian EFL Learners' Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	80.45	89.13	60.155	28.9	60.-23	29	0/01

As shown in Table 4, the t value was -23.60 and the significance was 0/01. The difference between the pre- and the post-test was significant ($p < 0/05$). Hence, the second hypothesis which assumed that the scores in the post test in this group are not different from the pretest scores is rejected.

Testing the Last Research Hypothesis:

The last hypothesis was: "There is no difference between EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge in immediate and delayed feedback condition." The scores obtained by both groups after treatment were compared using independent Student t-test statistical procedure to check whether the mean scores of both groups were the same or different. The results of the analysis for question three are presented in Table 5 below.

TABLE 5.
STUDENT T –TEST MEASURING THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN POST TEST SCORES IN IFG & DFG

scale	Delayed feedback		Immediate feedback		t	df	Sig.
	Mean	Sd.	Mean	Sd.			
Iranian EFL Learners' Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge	60.155	96.8	80.105	93.22	30.11	73	0/01

The results showed that the mean scores of the IFG ($M = 105/80$, $SD = 22/93$) was significantly different from the DFG's ($M = 155/60$, $SD 8/96$). Also the minimum and maximum score in IFG are 58 and 125 respectively while in the DFG the minimum and maximum score are 143 and 174. In other words, the DFG outperformed the IFG on the post-test. That is, delayed feedback strategy was effective in enhancing the depth of vocabulary knowledge.

According to the results of the study, therefore, the third hypothesis stating that there is no difference between EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge in immediate and delayed feedback conditions, is rejected with $P < 0/05$.

IV. DISCUSSION

A. Answer to Question One

The initial question the study answered is about the effect of teacher's immediate feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge. The study clearly showed a significant difference between the IFG's pre-test and post-test ($p < 0/05$). According to Table 4, in the IFG, the mean of the students depth scores on the pre -test is (62/87) much lower than the post- test (105/80). This result indicates that teachers' immediate feedback had a significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge.

The result reported here is in line with Metcalfe's study (2009). Butler and Roediger (2007b) and Butler, Karpicke, and Roediger (2007) also reported the same results; the processing of feedback after correct responses is quite important, and conditions should be arranged so as to maximize it.

B. Answer to Question Two

The second research question was "What is the effect of teacher's delayed feedback on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge?" According to the statistical analyses, the overall evaluation of the current study indicated that teacher's delayed feedback has a significant effect on EFL learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Generally, most of the previous research showed the same results as to the positive effect of delayed feedback. The advantage of delaying feedback is a type of spacing effect, one of the oldest and most robust findings in the literature (for review see Cepeda, Pashler, Vul, Wixted, & Rohrer, 2006). There are several control issues related to the timing interval between learners error and teachers feedback. For example, Metcalfe, Kornell, & Finn (2009) showed that "delayed feedback was better than immediate feedback (and both were better than no feedback) when time interval to test was not controlled, but there was no difference between the delayed and immediate feedback conditions when timing to the test was controlled".

The finding of the present study is against the views provided by Kulik and Kulik (1988). They concluded that delayed feedback is generally superior in laboratory studies, whereas immediate feedback is more effective in applied studies in actual classroom settings. Butler & Roediger (2008), also, pointed out that representing learners with their initial errors as part of the delayed feedback message does not impede later memory for the correct information. In addition, "learners are often quite good at remembering their errors" (e.g., Peeck & Tillema, 1979), and "remembering an initial error can actually facilitate error-correction under some circumstances" (Butler, Fazio, & Marsh, 2011).

C. Answer to Question Three

The third research question asked "Is there any difference between EFL Learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge in immediate and delayed feedback conditions?"

The findings of the present study, as mentioned before, showed that the delayed feedback group had higher gain scores on the post-test than the students in the immediate feedback group. In other words, the results of Student t-tests indicated that there is a significant difference between the delayed feedback group and immediate group in depth of vocabulary knowledge.

Anyway, the positive effects of delayed feedback has received some empirical support (Andrew C. Butler, Jeffrey D. Karpicke, & Henry L. Roediger III 2007; Andrew et al., 2007), although there are many findings that argue against it (Metcalf, Kornell, & Finn, 2009).

To sum up, the study indicated that delayed feedback was significantly more successful than immediate feedback in increasing the depth of vocabulary knowledge. Therefore based on the findings of the study, it can be stated that teachers' delayed feedback are more successful than teachers' immediate feedback.

V. CONCLUSIONS

This result indicates that the immediate feedback has improved depth of vocabulary knowledge. The difference between the pretest and posttest was significant ($p < 0/05$).

The findings of this study also, indicated that delayed feedback had a positive impact on depth of vocabulary knowledge of EFL students because based on the results, the researcher gained and analyzed (Table4), there is significance different between the pretest and posttest of DFG ($p < 0/05$).

Moreover, a according to Table 5, there is a significant difference ($P < 0/05$) between mean scores of two groups, immediate feedback and delayed feedback. The mean of the post-test scores of delayed feedback is larger than immediate feedback, so the effect of delayed feedback is more than immediate feedback.

Regarding the fact that almost none of the previous research in feedback area was conducted on depth of vocabulary, the results suggest that to increase the depth of vocabulary knowledge, teacher's feedback is essential, either delayed or immediate. But, in order for the learners to know the words completely with all their collocates and associates and to broaden their word nets, it's better to give them some times to practice with the words and even use them in their production and then, direct their attention to their errors. If the learners' vocabulary errors are addressed immediately when the words are newly presented to them without enough practice and use, the feedback will be less helpful in deepening their vocabulary knowledge.

The greater effectiveness of delayed feedback in this study can also be indicative of the complexity of depth construct. Depth of vocabulary knowledge has some inherent layers that cannot be enhanced by the sole correction of errors upon presentation of the words; it needs further practice and production which should be later on accompanied by teacher's feedback.

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Views of English Language Teachers in Private Colleges Regarding Microteaching

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Abstract—Since the Economy Opening-up policy in China, English has become a compulsory component in curriculum from primary school to university. Studies on ELT teachers in China are abundant, however, they tend to gaze at the ELT in government- sponsored units. With more and more private institutions commenced to provide ELT course for diverse levels and for various purposes, there emerges a relative unfamiliarity with these teachers working in private sectors. This mixed-method study aims at understanding their perspectives and experiences of micro-teaching as measures of their professional development. Current study demonstrates that teachers from private institutes in China are aware of different aspects of microteaching, but some of them, due to their leaders' and schools' respective contexts and culture, deem the function and influence of microteaching recommended by researchers from western world are not adequate to improving teaching in a Chinese context.

Index Terms—microteaching, reflective practice, ELT teacher professional development

I. INTRODUCTION

Reflective practice has become a major instrument for teacher training (Pollard, 2008). It has even been incorporated into teacher training guidelines in many countries (Maaranen & Krokfors, 2007). Wallace (1991) raised microteaching as a pathway to facilitate reflective practice that has since caught many people's attention. However, teacher training in private colleges in China is not yet satisfactory (Kuai, 2005); literature on implementing microteaching as a reflective practice in private institutions is relatively limited.

Since the Economy Opening-up policy, English has become a compulsory component in curriculum from primary school to university. Studies on ELT teachers in China are abundant, however, they tend to gaze at the ELT in government- sponsored units. With more and more private institutions commenced to provide ELT course for diverse levels and for various purposes, there emerges a relative unfamiliarity with these teachers working in private sectors. This mixed-method study aims at understanding their perspectives and experiences of micro-teaching as measures of their professional development

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

My area of interest is the views of English language teachers in private colleges regarding the use of microteaching as a reflective practice for professional development. In China, after the 'opening-up' policy, the number of private tuition centres increased rapidly. However, due to lack of governmental supervision and encouragement, teachers' professional development programmes are not particularly rigorous (Kuai, 2005). In this review, I argue that one approach to teacher training which would be useful and possible in private colleges, is the use of reflective teaching as training. Reflective practice falls within the mainstream of professional development and claims have been made that it is important for improving teacher's professionalism (Schon, 1983). Maaranen and Krokfors (2007, p. 362) note that reflective teachers become competent professionals and that they see reflective teaching as a "requirement set for future teachers".

Reflective teaching may be a corrective to more traditional craft modes of professional development, where "the young trainee learns by imitating the expert's techniques and by following the expert's instructions and advice" (Wallace, 1991, p. 6). This traditional teacher training approach (Stone & Morris, 1972) has undergone criticism from many authors, e.g. Kumaravadivelu (2006). In recent years countries have listed reflective practice as one of principles guiding teacher education; e.g. England, Scotland, Northern Ireland (Pollard, 2008) and Finland (Maaranen & Krokfors, 2007). Reflective teaching is an important approach to professional development because it requires practitioners to reflect critically on their experience, their personal contexts and also to interrogate and evaluate their daily professional practice (Pollard, 2008). Therefore, reflective teachers can learn from their own experiences and improve (Schon, 1983). There is not as yet a single clear definition of reflective practice. One important reason for this is that the theory is

developing; authors are acting from different angles and contexts to offer new understanding and interpretation of the practice. Dewey (1933) is usually cited as the basis of theories regarding reflection (Pollard, 2008, p. 14). Dewey claimed that reflective thinking would stop people performing routinised behaviour and allow them to be more insightful in seeing things they could change and improve in their practice. However this theory did not receive the attention it deserved until the 1980s, when Schon (1983) suggested that professionals implement “reflection-in-action” and “reflection-on-action” within their own problem setting. This had the advantage of utilising past experience and tacit knowledge in order to prepare for uncertain changes and complexity, as well as to enhance their professionalism (Schon, 1983, p. 133-156). Schon’s work aimed to provide a new form of professional development.

Other authors built on Schon’s work and incorporated their own understanding of reflection into theory building. For example, Killon and Todnew (1991) further developed Schon’s ‘reflection-in-action and on-action’. They added ‘reflection-for-action’ to compliment these as part of the reflection cycle. Rogers (2002, p. 851) interpreted Dewey’s reflective thinking theory as a “stream of consciousness, invention and belief” and developed a different cyclical structure of reflection: “presence to experience, description of experience, analysis of experience and intelligent action”. However, more recently, reflective practice as a theory has been challenged. Main stream criticism has come from those who argue that reflective theory is over individualistic and has failed to make a connection with “social dimensions” (Kotzee, 2012). Kotzee (2012) stated that reflective practice should not merely be confined to the domain of introspection. Likewise, Kumaravadivelu argued that it should have a connection with “learners, colleagues, planners and administrators” (2003, p. 16). Furthermore, it has been criticised for ignoring the importance of the implicit influence of social rules on practitioners’ behaviour (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; Kotzee, 2012). Kumaravadivelu (2003) defined reflective practice as a pathway whereby teachers can become intellectually transformed, linking reflective practice closely with the social dimension. Various other authors then gradually began to pay attention to the notion of sharing and cooperation between teachers. Pollard (2008) stressed that reflective teaching could be strengthened through learning with colleagues. However, when reflective practice became a common subject in publications of professional education, authors such as Bradbury *et al.* (2010) began to feel that reflective practice as an approach for mainstream professional development had lost its critical edge (Kotzee, 2012).

At a practical level, many authors have defined specific methods by which to implement reflective practice. Proctor (1993) suggested that reflection could be employed as a tool for evaluation. Francis (1995) suggested using a reflective journal. Elliott (2007), on the other hand, stresses the importance of performing action research to reflect on classroom practice. Wallace (1991) developed a reflective model, which included microteaching as an element aimed to boost trainees’ experiential knowledge. According to Wallace (1991), microteaching equips teachers with broader schemata from other colleagues, which, together with teachers’ own schema, influence teachers’ behaviour in class. Many researchers report the progress teachers made after adopting a development approach involving micro teaching e.g. Golightly (2010), Ismail (2011). However, reflective practice as an idea is also subject to critical scrutiny. As more authors begin to select their best method by which to instigate reflective practice, Galea (2012) points out that reflective practice is increasingly in danger of being so systemised and stereotyped that teachers’ own mode of reflection is being lost. Despite the above controversies, reflective practice has evolved from an individual idea to a range of principles and methods; from merely reflecting on practitioners’ own teaching, to reflecting on peers’ work and the wider social context.

In the light of the above studies, it may be that reflecting on peers’ microteaching is an option for developing reflective practice for private college teachers. This is due to the nature of microteaching and its appropriateness for authentic situations. Microteaching, as defined by Wallace (1991), allows trainees to achieve experiential knowledge as a resource for reflection. The procedure normally requires trainees to teach and critically evaluate the teaching session, then re-teach each other. Not only does having teachers micro teach connect them with each other allowing more social support, but it also enables them to more readily share educational resources. Based on this research background, I would like to examine whether reflective practice, and in particular microteaching, could be a useful part of professional development for English language teachers in Chinese private colleges. There are a number of issues, which may affect this, one of which is the views of the teachers on the idea, since reflection requires the co-operation and commitment of the individuals (Wallace, 1991). Indeed, the research into teachers’ perceptions and background suggests that this has significant implications on the way they teach (Foley, 2010).

Therefore, to investigate views of English language teachers in private colleges on the use of microteaching as a reflective practice for professional development, the following research questions were formulated:

RQ1. What are the views of English language teachers within private colleges in China regarding the idea of microteaching?

RQ2. To what extent do English language teachers within private colleges in China think microteaching could effectively improve their own teaching?

RQ3. Do English language teachers within private colleges in China think the potential exists to adopt microteaching to their professional settings?

III. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A mixed-methods approach was used. Skype-based semi-structured interviews with 13 questions were undertaken with five teachers. On-line questionnaires were made via using Survey Monkey. The questions were mostly closed. The interview participants were chosen purposively, according to their position and the questionnaire respondents were recommended by the interviewees, based on snowball sampling. In order to mitigate bias thus produced respondents were guaranteed that their information would be kept anonymous and that their personal data would not be released. Thematic coding was proposed for analysing the qualitative data and Excel for the quantitative data. During the research planning stages, an interview and questionnaire were piloted and some modifications subsequently made. Ethical issues were considered: informed consent forms were sent to interviewees and announcement of intent to guarantee the anonymity of the respondents' data was added at the beginning of questionnaire. Research participants' names were to be coded; the data only being handled by me, and protected on my PC. Methodological triangulation, member checking, audit trails and asking other translators to recheck the translated interview transcripts was intended to maintain research validity. In terms of dissemination, the research results will be shared and checked with the interviewees.

In the design stage of the research, a mixed-methods approach was used. The researcher began with the qualitative interviews (Skype-based semi-structured interviews with 13 questions were undertaken with five teachers) as a basis for the online questionnaires: the opinions from the five interviewees were used to produce choices in questionnaires. Mixed-methods research can improve methodological triangulation (Bush, 2012), and can bring meta-inference to bear on the research findings (Hibberts & Johnson, 2012). I have chosen to use mixed-methods in order to enhance the research and maximise validity. Firstly, research into the views of private institute teachers on microteaching in China's private colleges is rare. Thus, a qualitative approach would seem appropriate as it can cover nuanced data and provide a thick description (Duff, 2006). Secondly, the positions and backgrounds of the interviewees differ (one school principle, one teacher trainer, two experienced teachers and one novice teacher). As a result, each is likely to have different perspectives. While they may hold similar views about microteaching, their reasons for this are likely to vary. I have also used a quantitative research method (questionnaire) to collect more data about views of micro teaching in private colleges as there is a lack of research on this subject and a survey is likely to provide a wider perspective. Quantitative data is more rigorous, and so to some extent may compensate for the "lack of methodological rigour" involved in qualitative research (Dornyei, 2007, p. 41).

I used purposive sampling for the selection interviewees. According to Teddlie and Yu (2007) (cited by Cohen *et al.* 2011, p. 156), purposive sampling is undertaken with the aim of "achieving representativeness" and "enabling comparison". This may appear to be limited by the small sample of the study, however, owing to their varying backgrounds the interviewees' understanding of micro teaching is anticipated to be different, which is likely to add depth to the research. Being in the UK limits my ability to contact a large number of teachers in China, thus, on-line questionnaire participants will be selected based on recommendations by interviewees. This is snowball sampling, whereby friends introduce friends and acquaintances recommend acquaintances (Browne, 2005). Snowball sampling could be used to access populations that would otherwise be difficult to approach (Cohen *et al.*, 2011). Nominated sampling was used in cooperation with snowball sampling technique to select questionnaire respondents, in order to increase the response rate. According to Morse (2004, p. 885), 'nominated and snowball sampling is particular useful when groups are hard to identify or may not volunteer or respond to a notice advertising for participants'. On the other hand, by nominating respondents from different provinces and cities in China, we could collect more ideas and improve respondent triangulation (McFee, 1992). As a result, fifty questionnaire answers were collected: a response rate of 77%.

Faced with the large and diversified interview data in this study, codes and categories need to be concluded and compared for conclusions. These are the functions of content analysis concluded by Cohen *et al.* (2011). Instead of manually analysing qualitative data, Nvivo9 was used. Onwuegbuzie and Leech (2007) claim that Nivivo is strong in analysing comparative data from subgroups in hierarchy. In this study the hierarchy, though small in number, is consisted of school leaders, teacher trainers, teachers, interns and others. Moreover, it has strong functionality in transcribing and doing matrix queries. Quantifying qualitative data is recommended by Chi (1997) as a good way to analyse complicated data. SPSS is recommended by many authors (e.g. Newby, 2010) to analyse quantitative data. I used SPSS to calculate Chi-square in order to test if the frequencies of choices of different groups in question 7 were achieved by chance (Thomas, 2009) and whether each group is different from others in terms of their choices (Newby, 2010).

IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS

A. Participants' Views and Experience of Microteaching

All five interviewees held common views of the purpose, process, and frequency of microteaching. Although the interviewees all stated that one purpose of microteaching was professional development, they had different views about other purposes. Headteacher B thought microteaching should concern 'the position he wants to take', assisting in the recruitment of new teachers. Two respondents thought microteaching should be a salary evaluation system. Headteacher A claimed: 'we link this (microteaching) to their (teachers') salary to make it more serious.' Similarly, Teacher B said 'microteaching is connected with salary.' Some schools even consider microteaching to be a supervision system. For example, teacher B claimed: 'Thursday is a chance for school leaders to check and supervise if teachers' lessons have

been prepared well.' The respondents' consensus was that microteaching should include teachers teaching and getting feedback on their teaching. However, their assumptions about processes differ: separating new and experienced teachers, arranging workshops, seminars, impromptu demos, or using a grading system. Although all the interviewees implied microteaching should be a consecutive activity, they suggested frequencies were as different as weekly, monthly and even three-monthly.

The interviewees did not hold the same opinions about the focus of microteaching. However, both headteachers highlighted that one of the focuses of microteaching was to nurture teachers' teaching skills. For example, according to Headteacher A, 'for those in the first level, they need to learn from microteaching. Without microteaching, new teachers cannot improve much'; Headteacher B claimed that 'progress could be made only through repetitive practice and suggestions.' Colleagues who served in the School C implied that microteaching should focus on equal and friendly communication. For example, Headteacher B stated 'old teachers can also take this chance to share some of their troubles in teaching to let others realise and offer help'; teacher C claimed 'It increases the internal communication.' Besides these similarities, they had their own suggestions for focus, including supervision, motivation and correction.

The questionnaire was based on the consistent answers in the interviews about purpose, focus, frequency and process. An open question was added to collect data about ideal microteaching models. As the statistics show, besides the choice 'others', each of the remaining five choices were supported by at least 70% of respondents. 80% of respondents agreed with the School C teachers' consensus: that the aim is 'to communicate and share' equally and friendly. Three respondents provided details to the choice 'others': 'microteaching should contain records of each teachers' teaching for future sharing'; 'it should include a competition regulation' and 'it should include a session for colleagues to increase their mutual trust'.

B. The Effectiveness of Microteaching

a. The perceived strength

Interviewees perceived that the strengths of microteaching were in three groups: enhancing school management and development, cooperation with curriculum and courses, and teacher learning. The two headteachers emphasised the amplified functions of microteaching when combined with a fixed course and curriculum. In terms of the strengths of microteaching in school management and development, Headteacher A and Teacher B believed it could succeed in the form of school leaders' supervising teachers, and teacher B also claimed that microteaching could help the school 'reach a highly unified standard in teaching'. The perceived strength for teachers' learning is where interviewees mostly agreed. However, their answers covered a variety of points: motivating teachers, sharing and communicating, reflecting, practicing teaching skills, chances to observe and receive feedback, inspiration by others' strengths, familiarizing environment and regulation, enhancing foundation, combining theory with practice, building up confidence and accumulating experiences. In the questionnaire results, each of the perceived strengths was to some extent agreed upon. Among all these choices, 'share and communicate with each other' and 'learn from others' strengths and get inspired' were mostly agreed upon. 70% agreed that microteaching offered a good opportunity to reflect on themselves, identifying microteaching as a reflective activity. Only one participant provided answers to the 'others', which was that 'microteaching can improve the fellowship and partnership experienced by teachers in one specific department'.

b. The perceived weakness of microteaching

The weaknesses of microteaching could be grouped into five points: the innate problems of microteaching, negative effects of feedback and suggestions, psychological stress, abilities that microteaching cannot nurture, and that microteaching cannot represent the whole picture of teacher training. The items listed are general and nebulous categories associated with weakness, and each item contains a variety of sub points. As shown in the questionnaire, each of the items was supported to some degree. However, 64% opined: 'the negative effect of feedback and suggestions' should be phrased as microteaching weaknesses. Only 18% of participants supported 'abilities microteaching cannot nurture'. Questionnaire respondents' ideas regarding specific stress, innate problems of microteaching, activities to integrate with microteaching, abilities microteaching cannot nurture and other weakness of microteaching were also collected as supplementary for interviews.

c. The potential of microteaching

All the interviewees agreed on the necessity to develop microteaching. Some of them even gave preconditions and some highlighted the importance of microteaching. While in the questionnaires, only 4% thought it was impossible, 50% agreed that it was promising and 46% insisted it was promising unless the preconditions were fulfilled. A 5×3 Chi-square analysis showed that the statistical significance of participants' position and their agreement and recognition of the potential of microteaching was at $p < 0.05$ level with the $\chi^2(8, 50) = 18.689, p = 0.017$.

d. The perceived constraints

The constraints perceived by respondents appeared to fall into two general categories: hardware and teachers' own reasons. In terms of teachers' own reasons, two head-teachers emphasised that teachers' preparedness could be constraints. Another reason given by head-teacher B and Teacher A was the negative competition between teachers. In terms of hardware constraints, five sub groups were extracted from the nodes: facility and fund, number of teachers, professionalism of supervisor, support and emphasis from school, and whether it was combined with other activities. In the questionnaires, 68% agreed on 'personal reasons': teachers' competition, and teachers' preparedness. By

comparison, regarding hardware reasons, 50% and 52% respectively supported 'the support from school' and 'the professionalism of supervisors', while the remaining items were not largely supported. Only one respondent chose 'others' and suggested 'the stereotypical mode of the process.'

V. DISCUSSION

A. *What Are the Views of English Language Teachers within Private Colleges in China Regarding Microteaching?*

a. *Microteaching in different contexts of private colleges*

Besides the consensus, there are different interpretations by each interviewee in microteaching. One of the examples introduced indicated the 'purpose of microteaching': in the contexts of Headteacher A and Teacher B, microteaching as both a salary and a supervision related system, while for Headteacher B, microteaching can be a tool during the recruitment process. The difference requires consideration of the type of school and the characteristics of human resources: Headteacher A and Teacher B serve School A and School B respectively, both of which typically employ full-time staff, therefore, microteaching is a useful management device as a way of determining salary and of guaranteeing some level of supervision. In contrast, the teachers of the domestic examination department at School C, where Headteacher B works are mostly part-time teachers, hence using microteaching as part of the process for interviewing new teachers is a beneficial use of time and human resources. Microteaching is well suited to all these processes and contexts. This is a finding consistent with that of McGarvey and Swallow (1986, p. 3), who claimed that microteaching was symbolised by its remarkable flexibility and capacity to 'be varied as desired to suit local needs and conditions'.

b. *The component of microteaching in the eyes of English language teachers*

Together with the five interviewees' shared view of microteaching, Teacher A and Teacher C who had undertaken postgraduate study in the UK thought it would be better to arrange a tutor modelling session prior to microteaching. These results are reminiscent of Wallace's (1991, p. 93) division of microteaching into the 'briefing', 'teaching', 'critiquing' and 're-teaching' stages. Differing from once a week (Wallace, 1991), teachers A and C claimed that microteaching should be fortnightly, monthly or even three-monthly, to allow teachers time to digest and practice what they have learned.

c. *The mixed-approach feature of microteaching in private colleges in China*

Microteaching was thought by 46% of the respondents as teachers practicing their teaching skills. To some extent this suggests that teachers regard microteaching as beneficial for the acquisition of skills (McGarvey & Swallow, 1986). 90% of respondents felt that microteaching could help them reflect. Reflection and evaluation of teachers' own teaching is what McIntyre et al. (1977) reported as a cognitive structural approach to microteaching. 34% of respondents thought that microteaching could help teachers relate theory to practice, which is what Morrison and McIntyre (1969) claimed as symbolic of the social psychological approach to microteaching. Furthermore, Guelcher et al. (1970) claimed that a dynamic skills approach of microteaching could also be seen in what Headteacher A and B advocated: combining microteaching with a fixed curriculum. In Teacher B's context, as mentioned in group activities some classroom management skills were taken into consideration in microteaching, thus it can be seen as a feature of Sydney's Micro skills (Turney, 1973).

B. *To What Extent Do English Language Teachers within Private Colleges in China Think That Microteaching Could Improve Their Own Teaching?*

Research participants believe to different degrees that microteaching could improve their teaching. However, the participants also agreed that it is problematic in five respects, as the results show. Interestingly, some participants agreed that microteaching could make them feel uncomfortable, contradicting Wallace's (1991) original intention: that microteaching is less stressful than a real class setting. The participants think that there should be other activities accompanying microteaching, which is consistent with Wallace's (1991) assumption. However, he argued that all the activities should be arranged in a spectrum from low risk and cost to high, while the data in this research shows that teachers mentioned activities like reading, brainstorming and even having dinner together. Some of the participants claimed that microteaching does not help nurture abilities like communication with pupils' parents, and some claimed it does not improve teachers' charisma. These comments are probably related to private school culture in China: in some schools like School C, teachers' personal charisma is considered to attract students; some private schools specialises in primary and secondary education in order to keep their pupils well supervised, parents may request teachers to text-message or telephone them.

C. *Do English Language Teachers within Private Colleges in China Think the Potential Exists to Adopt Microteaching in Their Professional Settings?*

According to the research findings, only 4% of the questionnaire respondents do not think microteaching has potential. This result is significant at $p < 0.05$ level. Regarding constraints, there are some points worthy of explanation. To understand the point 'self protection and negative competition among teachers', the specific culture needs to be considered: in some private schools, the number of classes and the level of payment for each period is determined by

students' satisfaction rate and the extent of students' progress as shown by their midterm grade and their final exams; teachers in such competitive circumstances always work hard to maintain their competitive edge.

VI. CONCLUSION

Current study demonstrates that teachers from private institutes in China are aware of different aspects of microteaching, but some of them, due to their leaders' and schools' respective contexts and culture, deem the function and influence of microteaching recommended by researchers from western world are not adequate to improving teaching in a Chinese context. More means of communication, such as conferences and associations related to private institutes might address this issue. Furthermore, research into the relationships between microteaching, teacher comfort and accountability are indicated.

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Investigating the Relatedness of Five Different Operationalizations of Explicit Knowledge of English Morphosyntax: A Levels of Processing Approach

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the relatedness of five different operationalizations of explicit knowledge of English morphosyntax within the framework of levels of processing. Two groups of university students, majoring in English translation at BA level, participated in the study. For the purpose of the study, five different operationalizations of the explicit knowledge of English morphosyntax were drawn from the literature and two metalinguistic knowledge tests were constructed. The two measures were piloted; the one with 52 items showed strong overall internal consistency ($\alpha=0.98$) and the other one with 30 items showed an acceptable overall internal consistency ($\alpha=.70$). The data analyses using Pearson correlation revealed that there is no high correlation between the five variables, and therefore no serious covariation problem was detected. Moreover, the results of repeated-measures ANOVA showed that there was a significant within-group difference between the performances of each group on the metalinguistic test. The results of the study are discussed within the level of processing (LoP) framework and implications are offered.

Index Terms—levels of processing, metalinguistic knowledge, explicit knowledge, English morphosyntax

I. INTRODUCTION

In the process of second language acquisition, besides acquiring the implicit knowledge of language, learners can develop a kind of explicit knowledge which enables them to reflect on the language and its use intentionally through an element of reflexivity, called metalanguage, which helps talk about the language itself (Berry, 2005). As such, language acquisition remains far from complete after its initial acquisition as long as its metalanguage is not acquired because it plays a fundamental role in the development of a language (Robinson, 2005).

There are two main approaches to the construct; metalanguage as knowledge and metalanguage as awareness (Berry, 2005). On the one hand, the former, broadly speaking, refers to the explicit knowledge that language users have about a language (Roehr & Gánem-Gutiérrez, 2009). The explicitness of the knowledge denotes transferability into awareness, consciousness, potential verbalizability, declarative knowledge, imprecision and inaccuracy, controlled processing and unlimited learning (Ellis, 2009). This kind of knowledge as Kaufman, DeYoung, Gray, Jiménez, Brown and Mackintosh (2010) have asserted, involves “the conscious, deliberate, and reflective learning processes” (p.322).

On the other hand, metalinguistic awareness is the other approach to the study of metalanguage in its own right. Masny (1987, p.59, as cited in Elder, 2009) obviously defined metalinguistic awareness as “an individual’s ability to match, intuitively, spoken or written utterances with his or her knowledge of language.” As the term intuition implies in the definition, metalinguistic awareness involves implicit knowledge, “the knowledge of a language that is typically manifest in some form of naturally occurring language behavior such as conversation” (Ellis, 2001, p. 252), and therefore, implicit learning, which is “typically characterized by a set of automatic, associative, nonconscious, and unintentional learning processes” (Kaufman et al., 2010, p.322).

Despite a bulk of research into metalanguage, ranging from the investigation of the relationship between metalanguage and language proficiency to the levels of metalanguage in good language teachers, to students’ reactions to the metalanguage in one area of English grammar and the sources of those reactions, to the construct validity and unidimensionality of the metalanguage test and to the component analysis of metalinguistic knowledge (Alderson, Clapham & Steel, 1997; Andrews & McNeill, 2005; Berry, 2004; Elder, 2009; Roehr, 2007; Tokunaga, 2010; Wistner, 2010), the relatedness of different operational definitions of explicit knowledge of English morphosyntax has not been investigated within the levels of processing (LoP) framework for memory research (Craik & Lockhart, 1972).

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. *Implicit and Explicit Knowledge of Language*

While dealing with explicit knowledge, we cannot avoid making a reference to implicit knowledge given the controversy over the interface between them; as a result, there are three different positions in this regard. The “no interface hypothesis” (Krashen, 1981, 1982) holds that implicit knowledge and explicit knowledge are totally separate as they result from different processes. The “strong interface hypothesis” (DeKeyser, 2007) claims that “explicit and implicit knowledge are not fundamentally distinct but, rather, extremes on one continuum” (De Graaff & Housen, 2009, p.734). The “weak interface hypothesis” (Ellis, 2004, 2005) purports that “implicit and explicit knowledge are two separately coexisting knowledge systems and L2 knowledge ideally starts out as implicit knowledge...through the use of instructional tasks that facilitate noticing.... Explicit knowledge can be promoted by means of awareness-raising tasks” (De Graaff & Housen, 2009, p.734).

As a result of the abovementioned differing opinions on the two types of knowledge, Ellis (2004, 2009) decided to make a tradeoff and characterized explicit knowledge as a kind of knowledge which is “conscious”, “declarative”, “imprecise and inaccurate”, broad and deep, “accessible through controlled processing”, exploited as a tool while failing to intuitively judge grammaticality and “learnable”, refuting the claims that explicit knowledge is an attitude, a practice or an activity or a pedagogic construct.

B. *Levels of Processing (LoP): A Framework for Investigating Metalanguage*

Craik and Lockhart (1972) developed a framework for the processing levels in the memory, arguing for the hierarchical analysis of stimuli in a series of stages or levels. In their words, the “conception of a series or hierarchy of processing stages is often referred to as “depth of processing” where greater “depth” implies a greater degree of semantic or cognitive analysis” (Craik & Lockhart, 1972, p.675). They suggested that the processing in the memory could be classified under two types: “Type I processing (or maintenance rehearsal) maintained processing at the same level of analysis, whereas Type II processing (or elaborative rehearsal) involved deeper or more extensive processing of the stimulus” (Lockhart & Craik, 1990, p.88). For them, the second type of processing is expected to lead to an enhancement in memory if mnemonic performance is a function of the depth of analysis.

Lockhart and Craik (1990) asserted that humans’ hierarchically organized cognitive system processes incoming stimuli at different levels of analysis, “with the products of early (or shallow) sensory analyses serving as the input to later (or deeper) semantic analyses” (p.88). They assumed that the deeper the analysis, the more attentional resources are required, and therefore, the more durable memory trace will be recorded. They thought of the memory trace as a record of such normal cognitive processes as “comprehension, categorization, or discrimination”, not as a by-product of a memory-encoding process only committed to memory.

Reviewing the literature shows that the levels of processing framework has crossed the borders of memory research such domains as brain hemispheres (e.g., Bitan, Lifshitz, Breznitz & Booth, 2010), cognitive deficits (e.g., Froger, Taconnat, Landré, Beigneux & Isingrini, 2009), educational psychology (e.g., Chew, 2010), reading and prose comprehension (e.g., Nassaji, 2003), attentional system of language (Talmy, 2007, 2008) and selective attention (e.g., Andersen, Müller & Martinovic, 2012).

Hence, it is clear that assessing the metalinguistic knowledge of morphosyntax within the framework of processing levels may have implications for how we should teach and evaluate grammatical knowledge and translation performance on the following grounds:

Firstly, the distinction between implicit and explicit knowledge of linguistic competence entails that language pedagogy and testing should require performance on such tasks that requires L2 learners to demonstrate their explicit knowledge of grammar as an asset, let alone as a potential source of construct irrelevance variance in discrete-item grammar tests. L2ers may resort to three types of knowledge described as “Other Knowledge, Explicit Linguistic Knowledge, and Implicit Linguistic Knowledge” (Bialystok, 1978, pp.71-72). As Bialystok (1978) postulated elsewhere, “These are, of course, hypothetical constructs ..., and ... each is considered to contribute in some unique way to the attainment of language proficiency...” (p.72). In the same paper, Bialystok defined explicit knowledge of language as “all the conscious facts the learner has about the language and the criterion for admission to this category is the ability to articulate those facts” (p.72) and assigned three functions to it:

1. A “buffer” for information about a language, presented in an explicit situation, such as new syntactic or morphological forms in a classroom
2. A “store” for explicitly represented information such as the case in which even native speakers consciously attend to distinguish “lie” from “lay” (example adopted from Bialystok, 1978)
3. An “explicit articulatory system” whereby the implicitly represented linguistic knowledge may be made explicit by noticing structures and their constraints

Secondly, the framework may be used to develop criteria for the evaluation of different levels of morphosyntactic metalanguage at which second language learners can “understand and produce both the morphological and syntactic forms of the language,” “...interpret and express meanings from inflections..., derivations..., syntax ... (e.g., subjunctive mood) or show focus, emphasis or contrast (e.g., voice and word order)”, “...identify the direct language function associated with language use” and “...encode a wide range of pragmatic meanings” (Purpura, 2004, p.94).

Thirdly, processing metalanguage may involve data-driven processing (DDP) or conceptually driven processing (CDP) (Jacoby, 1983); the former refers to “simple maintenance rehearsal of instances of input in memory, and the later to the “elaborative rehearsal and the activation of schemata or higher-order relations from long-term memory” (Robinson, 1995, p.299). DDP, as Robinson (1995) put, requires “accumulation and rehearsal of instances encountered with input in the memory and may lead to the development of simple patterns of association between co-occurring items” (pp.301-302) and CDP demands “the elaboration of input following activation of the schemata” (p.302). Accordingly, in the process of instructed second language acquisition and translation as well, besides the data-driven implicit knowledge of language, learners can, to a greater extent, develop a kind of conceptually-driven elaborative knowledge which enables them to intentionally reflect on the language and its use through metalanguage.

In view of the gap in the literature regarding the processing levels of English morphosyntactic metalanguage, this study, as part of an ongoing project, is an attempt to answer the following research questions:

RQ: Is there any statistically significant within-group difference between English translation students’ performance on five different types of English morphosyntactic metalinguistic question, viz, error explanation, error correction, grammatical function identification, rule use justification and rule explanation?

III. METHOD

A. Experiment 1

1. Participants

The participants were 30 university students, majoring in English translation. The students’ language proficiency was not taken into account since all participating students had passed compulsory English courses at high schools 2 hours a week for four consecutive years as a requirement of Iranian high school curriculum, and passed the entrance university exams, held nationwide for admission purposes. Moreover, they all had passed two compulsory four-credit grammar courses at the university where they received explicit instruction on English grammar. At the same time, language proficiency measures have been found to be uncorrelated with metalinguistic knowledge tests (Alderson et al., 1997)

2. Variables

The variables of the study were five qualitatively distinct types of question which expected test-takers to explicitly show their knowledge of English morphosyntactic metalanguage by explaining why an ill-formed sentence is ungrammatical, correcting grammatically erroneous sentences, identifying the grammatical function, justifying the use of grammatical structures and explaining the function that rules play in sentences. In line with Craik (2002), the measure of depth of processing involved in performing the five orienting questions would be the numerical output from functions that test-takers apply to the processes involved in performing them; thus, level or depth of processing is “appropriately thought of as the end product of research, not the starting point” (Craik, 2002, p.92).

3. Instrument

A metalinguistic knowledge test was developed by the researchers. To that end, 10 TOEFL tests released by the ETS were selected from which the researcher randomly selected 50 structures on which participants had received instruction. The test of English morphosyntactic metalanguage knowledge (Henceforth called MMKT) was to assess the test-takers’ explicit knowledge of English morphosyntactic metalanguage. The test-takers were allowed to complete the test in 100 minutes.

In a non-balanced design, 15 items were allocated to error explanation (subtest 1), 15 items to error correction (subtest 2), 11 items to identification of grammatical function (subtest 3), 8 items to rule explanation (subtest 4) and 3 items to justification of rule use (subtest 5). The types of question were based on the differential operationalizations of the construct of English Morphosyntactic Metalanguage in the literature. Each section contained ten multiple-choice items. Each item will be worth one point. All items will be in multiple-choice format so that they can be objectively scored. As explicit linguistic knowledge can be viewed as an analyzed knowledge (Bialystok, 1994), discrete-point tests with separate-and-explicit or selected-response tasks may be useful for assessment purposes (Rea-Dickins, 2001). The measure was piloted, showing strong overall internal consistency ($\alpha=0.98$).

4. Results

The results of the descriptive statistics, calculated for the data set, showed that the distribution of scores on four subtests is approximately symmetric as the skewness values fell well within the range of $-/+1.00$ (Table I). However, the subtest 4 did not meet the assumption of normality (skewness = $+1.807$), which may be due to its difficulty level, and therefore depth of processing. However, the transformation was not done since it usually increases the difficulty of the interpretation of the data and may alter the results of the study (Leech, Barret, & Morgan, 2005).

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FIVE SUBTESTS OF MORPHOSYNTACTIC METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Subtest 1	30	.3867	.15403	-.350	.427	-.727	.833
Subtest 2	30	.4267	.19777	-.190	.427	-.734	.833
Subtest 3	30	.2259	.16110	.811	.427	.384	.833
Subtest 4	30	.1542	.23370	1.807	.427	2.869	.833
Subtest 5	30	.3111	.33828	.565	.427	-1.039	.833
Valid N (listwise)	30						

Then, to check for the collinearity problems by highly correlated subtests, the relationships among the scores on the subtests were explored as correlations. Table II shows the results of correlations between the subtests of the MMKT. The subtest 1, the explanation of ungrammatical structures subtest, was moderately correlated with the subtest 2, the error correction subtest ($p < .01$, $r = .64$), and partially with the subtest 3, the identification of grammatical function subtest ($p < .05$, $r = .39$). Moreover, subtest 4 was moderately correlated with subtests 3 ($p < .01$, $r = .59$) and 5 ($p < .01$, $r = .55$).

TABLE II
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FIVE SUBTESTS OF MORPHOSYNTACTIC METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

Subtests	1	2	3	4	5
Error explanation	-				
Error correction	.641**	-			
Grammatical function identification	.393*	.237	-		
Rule use justification	.099	-.030	.595**	-	
Grammatical function explanation	.038	-.243	.283	.554**	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Although there was no highly correlated pair of variables in the data set, the degree of correlation coefficient decrease by controlling for the subtest 1 was larger than that of correlation decrease by controlling for any other variable, meaning that the subtest 1 affected the relationship between the subtests (Table III). Nevertheless, the partial correlation matrix shows that the subtest 2 (i.e., the error correction subtest) had negative relationship with all other four subtests.

TABLE III
PARTIAL CORRELATION BETWEEN FOUR SUBTESTS OF ENGLISH METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

Control variable	Subtests	1	2	3	4	5
Error explanation	Error explanation	-				
	Error correction	-.141	-			
	Function identification	.049	-.021	-		
	Rule use justification	.022	-.122	.608	-	
	Grammatical function explanation	.087	-.349	.291	.553	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Then, a repeated-measures ANOVA, recommended for "one independent variable with two or more levels that are repeated measures" (Leech et al, 2005), was run to assess whether there were significant difference among the performances of test-takers on the five levels of the morphosyntactic metalinguistic knowledge test. Table IV shows that all four multivariate tests of the within-subjects effect were significant, $F(4,26) = 8.67$, $p < .05$. It indicates that there was a significant difference in how the subtests were answered. The Mauchly test of sphericity was significant, thus the data violated the sphericity assumption of the univariate approach to repeated measures analysis of variance (Table V).

TABLE IV
MULTIVARIATE TESTS

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's Trace	.582	9.034 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.582	36.137	.997
Wilks' Lambda	.418	9.034 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.582	36.137	.997
Wilks' Lambda	1.390	9.034 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.582	36.137	.997
Roy's Largest Root	1.390	9.034 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.582	36.137	.997

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

c. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: MMKT

As such, the Greenhouse-Geisser test, a commonly recommended F-test, was used for drawing conclusions about the within-subject effects. Even with Greenhouse-Geisser adjustment, the within-subjects effects of performance on the subtests were significant, $F(1.99, 57.6) = 9.24, p < .001$. This means that the test-takers' performance on the five subtests were significantly different (Table IV). Thus, the null hypothesis is rejected by all multivariate tests.

TABLE V
MAUCHLY'S TEST OF SPHERICITY

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^a		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
MMKT	.130	55.913	9	.000	.497	.533	.250

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized transformed dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.

a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.

b. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: MMKT

TABLE VI
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared			
						Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a		
factor1	Sphericity Assumed	1.513	4	.378	9.240	.000	.242	36.961	.999
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.513	1.987	.761	9.240	.000	.242	18.361	.970
	Huynh-Feldt	1.513	2.133	.709	9.240	.000	.242	19.707	.977
	Lower-bound	1.513	1.000	1.513	9.240	.005	.242	9.240	.836
Error(factor1)	Sphericity Assumed	4.748	116	.041					
	Greenhouse-Geisser	4.748	57.625	.082					
	Huynh-Feldt	4.748	61.850	.077					
	Lower-bound	4.748	29.000	.164					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Then, the polynomial contrast was chosen on the assumption that the subtests can be ordered according to the hierarchical level of processing. Despite a significant linear trend, $F(4,116) = 9.24, p < .05, \eta^2 = .24$, this trend was not documented over and above an exploratory venture since more proofs are needed to evaluate the fit of the trend. Given that the population effect size were not known, the observed power computed by the SPSS software was not taken into account since it was a function of significant criterion, sample size and population effect size.

B. Experiment 2

1. Participants

The participants were 30 bachelor students, majoring in English translation and English language teaching, from two universities in Iran. The students' language proficiency was not taken into account for the reasons explained in the first experiment. The Test-takers demonstrated their explicit morphosyntactic metalanguage by answering five qualitatively distinct types of question like in Experiment 1.

2. Instrument

Another metalinguistic knowledge measure was developed by the researchers. To that end, 30 structures were randomly selected from 10 TOEFL tests released by the ETS. Test-takers were allowed to complete the test in 60 minutes. In a non-balanced design, 7 items were allocated to identification of grammatical function (subtest 1), 7 items

to the error correction (subtest 2), 6 items to error explanation (subtest 3), 6 items to rule explanation (subtest 4) and 4 items to justification of rule use (subtest 5). The question types were based on the same operationalizations of the construct in the literature. Each item will be worth one point. All items will multiple-choice so that they could be objectively scored. The measure was test-piloted and showed acceptable overall internal consistency ($\alpha=0.70$). The reduction in reliability can be attributed to the decrease in the number of items or the non-balanced design of the measure.

3. Results

First, the data were subjected to descriptive statistics. The skewness for all subtests was well within the range of $-/+1.00$ (Table VII), meaning the distribution was approximately symmetric. Then, to check for the collinearity problems created by highly correlated variables, bivariate correlations between the subtests of the MMKT were calculated (Table VIII).

TABLE VII
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR FIVE SUBTESTS OF MORPHOSYNTACTIC METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis		
	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Statistic	Std. Error	Statistic	Std. Error
Subtest 1	30	.5238	.25260	.105	.427	-.654	.833
Subtest 2	30	.6571	.17835	.155	.427	-.074	.833
Subtest 3	30	.6278	.20846	.248	.427	-.072	.833
Subtest 4	30	.4111	.26527	.312	.427	-.304	.833
Subtest 5	30	.4583	.23747	.096	.427	-.206	.833
Valid N (listwise)	30						

As the correlation matrix indicates, the subtest 1 (i.e., the explanation of ungrammatical structures subtest) was partially correlated with the subtest 2 (i.e., the error correction subtest) ($p < .05$, $r = .40$) and moderately with the subtest 4, (i.e., the justification the use of grammatical structures subtest) ($p < .01$, $r = .53$). At the same time, the other subtests were not correlated.

TABLE VIII
CORRELATION BETWEEN THE FIVE SUBTESTS OF MORPHOSYNTACTIC METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

Subtests	5
Error explanation	-
Error correction	.406*
Grammatical function identification	.088
Rule use justification	.535**
Grammatical function explanation	.253

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

TABLE IX
PARTIAL CORRELATION BETWEEN FOUR SUBTESTS OF ENGLISH METALINGUISTIC KNOWLEDGE TEST

Control variable	Subtests	1	2	3	4	5
Error explanation	Error explanation	-				
	Error correction	-.295	-			
	Function identification	.187	.329	-		
	Rule use justification	-.053	.182	.196	-	
	Grammatical function explanation	.236	.048	.333	.011	-

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Despite the lack of any highly correlated pair of variables in the data set, the results of partial correlations demonstrate that the degree of correlation decrease by eliminating the subtest 1 was larger than that of correlation decrease by eliminating any other subtest (Table IX).

Then, as recommended by Leech et al. (2005), a repeated-measures ANOVA was run to assess whether there were significant differences among the performances of test-takers on the five subtests of the morphosyntactic metalinguistic knowledge test.

TABLE X
MULTIVARIATE TESTS^c

Effect	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's Trace	.571	8.667 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.571	34.669	.996
Wilks' Lambda	.429	8.667 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.571	34.669	.996
Wilks' Lambda	1.333	8.667 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.571	34.669	.996
Roy's Largest Root	1.333	8.667 ^a	4.000	26.000	.000	.571	34.669	.996

a. Exact statistic
 b. Computed using alpha = .05
 c. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: MMKT

Table X shows that all four multivariate tests of the within-subjects effect were significant, indicating that there is a difference in how the subtests are answered, $F(4,26) = 8.67, p < .05, \eta^2 = .57$. The Mauchly test of sphericity was not significant, thus the data did not violate the sphericity assumption of the univariate approach to repeated measures analysis of variance (Table XI).

TABLE XI
MAUCHLY'S TEST OF SPHERICITY

Measure: MEASURE_1

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	Sig.	Epsilon ^a		
					Greenhouse-Geisser	Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
MMKT	.667	11.113	9	.269	.835	.957	.250

Tests the null hypothesis that the error covariance matrix of the orthonormalized dependent variables is proportional to an identity matrix.
 a. May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance. Corrected tests are displayed in the Tests of Within-Subjects Effects table.
 b. Design: Intercept Within Subjects Design: MMKT

TABLE XII
TESTS OF WITHIN-SUBJECTS EFFECTS

Measure: MEASURE_1

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^a
factor1	Sphericity Assumed	1.346	4	.337	8.759	.000	.232	35.034	.999
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.346	3.341	.403	8.759	.000	.232	29.265	.996
	Huynh-Feldt	1.346	3.829	.352	8.759	.000	.232	33.534	.999
	Lower-bound	1.346	1.000	1.346	8.759	.006	.232	8.759	.816
Error(factor1)	Sphericity Assumed	4.458	116	.038					
	Greenhouse-Geisser	4.458	96.898	.046					
	Huynh-Feldt	4.458	111.032	.040					
	Lower-bound	4.458	29.000	.154					

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Nonetheless, both multivariate tests and Greenhouse-Geisser F-test were used for drawing conclusions about the within-subject effects. Even with Greenhouse-Geisser correction, the within-subjects effects of performance on the subtests were significant, $F(3.34, 96.90) = 8.75, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$, as all four multivariate tests suggested the rejection of the null hypothesis (Table XII). The polynomial contrast was chosen on the assumption that the subtests can be ordered from the deepest to the shallowest level of processing. Despite a significant linear trend, $F(1,29) = 37.1, p < .05, \eta^2 = .56$, this trend is not documented for the same reason mentioned for the first experiment. Moreover, as power figures may be misunderstood, the observed power calculated is not taken into consideration.

IV. DISCUSSION

Based on the results of the statistical analysis, there are statistically significant differences in how the five qualitatively different types of metalinguistic questions in both experiments were answered. The results of correlational analyses in both experiments showed that the variables of the study were not highly correlated. Nevertheless, the first subtest (i.e., error explanation) was moderately and partially correlated with subtests 2 and 3 (i.e., error correction and grammatical function subtests), in the first experiment and partially and moderately correlated with the subtests 2 and 4

(i.e., error correction and rule use justification subtests) in the second experiment. When Subtest 1 was controlled, none of the variables were correlated. It can be assumed in instructed second language acquisition, the ability to explain grammatical errors may help “refine ... schemata ...” (Frank & Wilson, 2000, p.9).

Regardless of the strength of correlation coefficients, in the first experiment the ability to correct errors was negatively correlated with all other variables, while in the second experiment it was not. In line with Yonelinas and Levy (2002), it may be argued that that in experiment 1 the subjects induced their implicit metalinguistic information about the morphosyntactic structures for recognition and correction, whereas in experiment 2 the subjects recollect explicit morphosyntactic metalanguage about the underlined part of a sentence and choose from among four distracters one of which is the correct. These results may conform to a dual-process recognition memory model for metalinguistic knowledge (Yonelinas & Levy, 2002).

In view of the results, the first subtest influenced the way other constructs were correlated, and when it was controlled, the correlation coefficients decreased so that none of them were significant anymore. It seems that explanation promotes “learning, beyond simply memorizing or passively encoding” (Williams & Lombrozo, 2010, p.777). In fact, the results are consistent with the research findings that suggest attempts to explain may lead to greater learning as compared with such strategies as receiving feedback without explanations and thinking aloud (Amsterlaw & Wellman, 2006). As such, when asked to explain grammatical rules, learners need to interpret them in terms of their linguistic schemata and the constructed explanatory information result in the “explicit recognition of generalizations that underlie what is being explained” (Williams & Lombrozo, 2010, p.778).

Given the significant correlation coefficients before calculating partial correlations in both experiments, it seems that the ability to explain errors may involve the L2 mental representations that may influence performance on other task. This finding seems to confirm Frank and Wilson (2000), who stated that engaging in explanation may lessen “cognitive dissonance” or increase the compatibility and coherence of mental representations, besides solving internal anomalies.

Finally, all four multivariate tests suggested the test-takers’ performance on the five subtests were significantly different. Based on the within-subjects effects and significant linear trend by the polynomial contrast, it can be concluded that the subtests demand the schemata that may be ordered hierarchically (Craik & Lockhart, 1972). However, more proofs are needed to evaluate the fit of the trend because the observed power is a function of significant criterion, sample size and population effect size. Therefore, it might be misleading to discuss the power observed by the ANOVA as O’Keefe (2007) has argued, power analysis is “a useful supplement to *p* values and confidence intervals, but only when based on population effect magnitudes of independent interest” (p.295).

V. CONCLUSION

The development of metalinguistic knowledge is different than that of the primary linguistic skills since it is acquired later than the primary linguistic skills (Kuafman et al., 2010). The metalinguistic knowledge, and the ways in which it is manifested are dependent on the second language learner, and on the experiences that s/he brings with her/him to the SLA process. Put this way, metalinguistic behavior is broad-range, covering much more than merely language about language.

For that reason, the term metalinguistic should be applied to “a set of problems which share certain features” (Bialystok & Ryan, 1985, pp.230-231). By forming propositional networks of explicit knowledge of language, L2 learners can connect the different properties of structures and enhance their L2 proficiency. Hence, any type of elaboration is better than none for encoding and retrieving information; however, some elaborations are ... better than others” (p.156). Accordingly, explaining why a sentence is ungrammatical, why a certain grammatical structure is used and what the function of a structure is may help in different ways build the schemata the explicit knowledge of language. Moreover, specifying what the grammatical function of word(s) is and what syntactic relations exist between linguistic units help metalanguage knowledge be organized, and therefore, be retrieved more effectively.

Accordingly, developing morphosyntactic metalanguage through different explanatory tasks may help learners notice and remedy the gaps or holes in their interlanguages. It is because the level of processing influences the extent to which metalinguistic knowledge is encoded in the memory (Robinson, 1995), and by focusing L2 learners’ attention on different aspects of metalanguage, language learning may, therefore, improve in different ways since “familiarity with basic metalinguistic principles for describing structural patterns and structural analogies would probably aid hypothesis testing by directing attention to relevant features of the input to be noticed” (Robinson, 1995, p.320).

Considering the limitations of this study, further research should be done in order to find the standard questions whose processing levels are more obvious, and even more tasks can be identified to recruit other levels. Future researchers need to consider the effect of contextual probabilities of structures, their recency, frequency and salience as remembering the metalinguistic knowledge may be a function of variables such as teaching method, metalinguistic rhetoric used by the teacher, L1 use, types of analysis, and teachers’ language awareness. Finally, the future theories or models of pedagogical grammar would be required to consider both the metalinguistic and the mental processes underlying them.

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Ellipsis and Cognitive Semantics

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Abstract—Ellipsis and cognitive linguistics are closely related to each other, which have been accepted by many linguists. Ellipsis has been described as the omission of some words which have been repeated for many times in the same context. In a broad sense, ellipsis is prevalent in human language. Theories of ellipsis have evolved not only across disciplinary boundaries but also through time. This paper is mainly about the universality of ellipsis among different sentence constructions and the detailed process of ellipsis cognition. From a historical point of view, the popularity of ellipsis comes from the so-called historical turn to simplicity. This paper discusses different constructions of ellipsis by analyzing prominence theory. Although typical examples of ellipsis have been analyzed by the processes of prominence theory, the purpose of this paper is to analyze each individual ellipsis case from the perspective of cognitive linguistics.

Index Terms—ellipsis, cognitive linguistics, prominence

I. INTRODUCTION

Ellipsis, understood as the absence of information, is based on context and cognitive common sense extension. To answer what ellipsis is, different people have different opinions. This is mainly because people explain ellipsis from different perspectives. According to traditional linguistics, ellipsis is the grammar means that avoids repetitions, abandons the old information, highlights key words, and makes the context connected tightly. At the same time, its usage is also stressed that saving words is an important rhetorical principle.

People have conducted a large of researches on ellipsis generation, form and reason. It is found that ellipsis has a lot of common characteristics, such as the universality of ellipsis, the complexity of ellipsis and the jumpiness of ellipsis and so on. Ellipsis is considered as a grammatical device to achieve the coherence of a text. In all forms of discourse, no matter whether it is daily language and literary language, there is the existence of ellipsis. It can be said that ellipsis exists in all forms of discourse. The universality of ellipsis indicates the research on the nature of ellipsis is necessary (Langacker, 1999).

Ellipsis phenomenon is common in language, and it has already existed in ancient Chinese literature. At that time, however, ellipsis studies were mainly shown when the scholars made notes for the scriptures, and they called the ellipsis phenomenon in the book as words omission. We broaden the concept of this ellipsis to include both syntactic and semantic omission. Researches are not systematic, only with sporadic descriptions and fragments. The research purpose is only to translate the classical works, or how to write, read books, but not to analyze ellipsis itself. Therefore, this stage belongs to the research period of logical semantics, and the relevant studies of ellipsis are only kept in the notes of these books.

In recent years, along with the introduction of transformational-generative grammar, discourse linguistics, text linguistics and systemic functional grammar, the research on ellipsis are prosperous.

After surveying some definitions of ellipsis from different perspectives, we have worked out our own definition which in our opinion is more appropriate and elaborated. Ellipsis also called default information is an universal language phenomenon, it refers to the omission of information in the discourse of language communication. In the following sections our brief review on the study of ellipsis will start from the cognitive view. A further concept that adds to the flexibility of ellipsis is the notion of weak ellipsis. In this paper we use the term weak ellipsis to account for the possibility to unify ellipsis and cognitive linguistics. Weak ellipsis analysis was spurred on by the development of Cognitive Semantics. The sense of an ellipsis is the lexical component, viewed as an algorithm which transforms default information into the form of zero. In weak ellipsis, the missing words cannot be found in the context. Since traditional grammar has not given adequate accounts for the process of ellipsis, this paper expounds the metonymy between ellipsis and weak ellipsis from the perspective of Cognitive Linguistics (Langacker, 1987).

II. CATEGORIES OF ELLIPSIS

Ellipsis can be divided into strong ellipsis and weak ellipsis. The default information of strong ellipsis can be found in the discourse. The definition of “weak ellipsis”, as we have analyzed thoroughly here, does not refer to a newly proposed cognitive or pragmatic term. Instead, it seems to be a useful notion to refer in a summarizing way to the default information based on common sense or background information instead of discourse. the description of “ellipsis” as well as “week ellipsis” differ greatly among scholars, and research into the impact of discourse in ellipsis has only begun. Concerning default semantics, the default semantics theory is widely known for its account for similarity-creating understandings of the same default information but it does not analyze exactly how the new

similarities can emerge, nor does it clarify what constrains the cognitive process. Weak ellipsis mainly means the omitted part can only be derived according to information, and then the omitted content can be realized. This aspect of the ellipsis mainly includes semantic association ellipsis and cultural cognition ellipsis.

In 1950s, Chinese Grammar Textbook nearly includes all of ellipsis of the previous works, and ellipsis can be divided into eight categories: dialogue ellipsis, self-report ellipsis, bringing-forward ellipsis, caring-backward ellipsis, generalization ellipsis, judgment ellipsis, habit ellipsis, preposition ellipsis.

Some scholars divided ellipsis into three categories, including semantic ellipsis, grammatical ellipsis and pragmatic ellipsis. Meaning omission belongs to the scope of semantics. Structural omission was called grammatical ellipsis, belonging to the scope of syntactic. Communicational omission is called pragmatic ellipsis, belonging to the scope of pragmatics. The ellipsis on the different levels should be distinguished, otherwise it will cause the confusion of understanding.

Clipping is a kind of ellipsis in word formation. It refers to the language phenomenon that some parts of a word are omitted. Shortening belongs to clipping such as flu from influenza. This kind of Clipping can be described in details in terms of morphological units named morphemes.

There are many reasons entail ellipsis. There are “avoiding repetition”, “language emergency”, “structural vacancy”, “information default”, etc. The means of ellipsis analysis are various, including traditional grammar, descriptive grammar, structural grammar, functional grammar and cognitive grammar, etc., have different descriptions of ellipsis. The complexity of ellipsis shows the study of ellipsis content has great significance (Lakoff & Johnson, 1980).

Grammatically incorrect omissions usually occur in cross languages of unskilled language learners. It is the improper leaving out of syntactic elements which is not grammatical. Ellipsis can be used in all aspects of discourse, such as syllable missing on the aspect of pronunciation, truncated method or acronym on the aspect of vocabulary, various composition ellipses on the aspect of grammar, semantic connotation on the semantic aspect, dialogue ellipsis on the pragmatic aspect, etc. Omissions may be strictly described as grammatically correct omission, in contrast to some ungrammatically correct omissions which occur also on syntactic level. Ellipsis is a structural vacancy but the language form in the meaning. So we may say that ellipsis includes syntactic ellipsis, which is grammatically correct, and the improper omissions of syntactic elements, which is grammatically incorrect. In the following discussion we will name ungrammatically correct omission as non-grammatical omission.

Ellipsis can appear in discourse with different forms and different styles, written or spoken discourse, practical style, such as telegraph, advertisement, couplets, science and technology text, official text, news, letter, etc., or literary genres, such as poem, novel, drama, dialogue, monologue, etc. No matter what the style of discourse is, there is the existence of this kind of language phenomenon, ellipsis.

Ellipsis is one of the main language points, which is not only reflected in written form, but also very common in spoken English. Language originates from life, and reflects life, service life. And also it is a part of life, and always changes with the change of the society, so the result is that sentences tend to be simplified and more concise, which is mainly due to ellipsis. All redundant information or secondary information in discourse is eliminated to avoid duplication and highlight the key words, which is a compulsory lesson for disclosure organizer. A fewer words are used to express rich content and improve the efficiency of communication, which is the goal that each communicator pursue.

III. ELLIPSIS AND CONTEXT

Context may help to identify specified meanings when ellipsis form is general. Metonymy, which also plays an irreplaceable role in the mechanism of ellipsis, has been attached great importance. The relation between ellipsis and metonymy is a new topic for cognitive linguistics, since more and more scholars realize the fact that metonymy has a strong impact on ellipsis, and metonymy plays a irreplaceable role in the interpretation of ellipsis like PART FOR WHOLE. Context is not easy to describe, some characterization of context seems critical unless one wants to claim that context is whatever in background information. Without doubt, the operational mechanisms should associate with other aspects, such as rhetorical, semantic and syntactic.

We will survey the previous accounts of ellipsis in this paper. As long as ellipsis does not damage the grammatical structure, or produce ambiguity, the words that can be omitted shall be omitted. Structural linguistics holds that ellipsis is a kind of structural vacancy. Psychological linguistics focuses on the generation process and mode of ellipsis, and the activation of brain neurons to knowledge. Critical linguistics holds that the choice of language form depends on the consciousness, and the use of ellipsis in discourse implies a speaker's intention. Cognitive linguistics explores ellipsis from the cognition of the world.

Ellipsis is embodied in the form, and constructed in the discourse. Ellipsis is a kind of cohesive devices, and the discourse construction is the purpose of cohesion. They are the relation between form and content, means and purpose. Discourse achieves a variety of functions by ellipsis, and ellipsis is the important element of the discourse construction. Therefore, studying ellipsis in the discourse is one of the important tasks of discourse linguistics.

By using ellipsis, people can spend less effort in saying a sentence. Writers can write quickly by using abbreviation of words. Semantic association ellipsis is a form of ellipsis that the realized item does not appear in the discourse, causing the disconnection of cohesive tie, and decoders can realize the omitted content only by association. This kind of ellipsis cannot make use of the information provided by discourse to find out the omitted content but judge the omitted

information or composition according to the association or deduction, therefore, the ellipsis produced by semantic association is also called recessive ellipsis. This kind of ellipsis exists in both in English and Chinese.

IV. ELLIPSIS AND DEFAULT SEMANTICS

Recent research in ellipsis has proposed the term default semantics which was formerly associated with semantics to apply to a number of default information instances in the study of oral language in which there is mismatch between the semantics of a syntactic frame and the semantics of lexical items found in it. The default semantics arouses a lot of scholar's interest. Most of the scholars try to analyze it with their own methods. Some of these instances illustrate areas which could well be expressed as extensions of boundaries in which the harmony between strong ellipsis and weak ellipsis aspect has been penetrated; others describe differences between them. Language cognition study aims to build a model to simulate the language system, and the simulation language system has the ability to process language information and grasp the process, so as to explain this language phenomenon (Warren, 1999).

For a long time, the understanding of the concept of ellipsis is always a difficult problem in the ellipsis study, especially on the aspect of the generation and interpretation of weak ellipsis. This kind of phenomenon is the reflection of non-categorization of ellipsis, which is a kind of semantic lack, and it is the words phenomenon that is unable to be accurately found from context one by one. The understanding of it must be based on "unclear knowledge", and the semantics can be perceived according to these knowledge, therefore, it must be explained accurately by cognitive linguistics. This paper advances in this direction as it links the notion of ellipsis with central terms of Cognitive Linguistics.

We should distinguish three different concepts which are easy to be confused. They are linguistic context, cognitive environment and cognitive context. Linguistic context defines the words preceding or following a certain word in the same text, while cognitive environment is the facts that the speaker and hearer can perceive. Different from cognitive environment, cognitive context refers to the cognitive information which is connected to the interpretation of the speaker and the hearer to utter and to perceive the utterances explicitly or implicitly.

Structure theory is based on the syntactic structure of the sentence, with standard sentence to judge whether it is omitted. This kind of standard sentence means the components of a sentence structure is complete, for example, the main components such as subject, verb and object are complete, so this sentence is standard. If there is absence, it is ellipsis. Essential components of the structure do not appear under the condition of certain grammar, which can be deemed ellipsis. Ellipsis is relative to non-ellipsis, and any kind of ellipsis has a corresponding complete type. In normal circumstances, if there is no corresponding complete type, it is not ellipsis.

Cognitive Linguistics assumes that the constructions of ellipsis are not just a series of missing words but are cognitive background information or common sense based. Omission is a linguistic phenomenon existing broadly in human natural language. It plays an important role in linguistic communication. Ellipsis evidence indicates that people do not necessarily analyze the different possible meanings of a ellipsis either before or simultaneous to figure out what the speaker intends. Human beings noticed omission quite a long time ago and have made a rather profound study of its structure and functions from the point of views of syntax and pragmatics. Similar or different understandings of the same ellipsis can be motivated by their already existed cognition (Leech, 1983).

Idioms in discourse are sometimes omitted. This kind of ellipsis belongs to cultural cognition ellipsis or cognitive ellipsis. The background of cultural cognition ellipsis is based on the people's knowledge structure. If there is a default of this structure in the discourse, it is only extracted from people's knowledge repository because this knowledge has been already internalized in the process of extraction. It requires being arranged and positioned, to know the missing ingredients.

We propose that not just context item can be used into ellipsis analysis. Background information can also be used into ellipsis analysis because both the speaker and the hearer share the background information. In weak ellipsis, the default information apparently cannot be found in the discourse. However, the default meaning can be understood in cognitive schema. Ellipsis is a common phenomenon in language, and its final purpose is for the convenient communication needs. As is known to all, the unit that can independently accomplish certain communicative task with complete meaning is discourse, therefore, only if ellipsis is applied to the discourse and serves discourse, it is the only way to achieve communication, so such kind of ellipsis has practical significance (Mittwoch, 1971). No matter whether ellipsis occurs in daily oral English or in written form, such as couplet, poetry, artistic languages of novels, etc., they all occur in specific discourse, and ellipsis cannot exist without discourse. Discourse is the main attribute of ellipsis. The construction of discourse requires ellipsis, and discourse cannot exist without ellipsis.

V. PROMINENCE THEORY ANALYSIS OF ELLIPSIS

In order to explore default information, we postulate prominence theory and thus background information as well as highlights may be accounted for. To a certain degree, we may say that default semantics theory's impact on ellipsis is a promising field that needs to be more cultivated. Using the prominence theory of cognitive linguistics, weak ellipsis can be analyzed in the information absence of the phenomenon. Weak ellipsis is motivated to the degree that its structure is inherited from other constructions in common sense. Ellipsis in different discourses performs different functions, and

these functions mainly are reflected in three aspects: grammatical function, rhetoric function and cohesive function (Massam, 1992). Grammatical function can avoid repetition; Rhetoric function can make language concise and create beauty with deep connotation. Cohesion function implements semantic coherence, grammatical coherence, contextual coherence and logical coherence. No matter what kind of function that ellipsis plays in discourse, it is in service for discourse construction with an important position in the discourse.

We make discussions on different omission elements which are mainly on the omission of subject and verb. Whereas, there are few passages on attributes, adverbial modifiers and complements, many scholars avoid discussing about them although these elements are also mentioned. The attribute, adverbial modifier and complement belong to non-frame element and the coordinative role of non-frame elements determine the existence of attribute, adverbial modifier and complement whose uncertain existences determine the difficulty of the judgments of omission.

In the past, the study on omission in the Chinese grammar circle is mainly centered on the descriptions on omission elements and omission types. These descriptions draw us the general outline of the omission of syntactic elements in the modern Chinese and are of great reference value to our study in the future. But we should notice the faults of these descriptions as the study objects are only limited to single sentence; actually omission is usually a kind of discourse phenomenon and omissions in different types are different from each other.

Grammatical circle not only deepen the recognition and study on ontology, but also logically and historically views the omission so as to make longitudinal comparisons on the omission of Chinese from past to today. For example, the book *Comparative Grammars on Chinese from Past to Today* is edited by Zhang Jing. Meanwhile, linguists also horizontally compare omissions in different languages. We make comparative studies on omissions between Chinese and English and between Chinese and French.

This thesis attempts to study and discuss the problems concerning elliptical sentences using three-place theory and linguistic theories. Deepening the discussion on the elliptical sentences in modern Chinese can impose and deepen the study on omission. This analysis is beneficial for us to explore more grammatical phenomenon and reveals more grammatical rules; omission is hard to master for the students from foreign countries, while this analysis and study are available to better promote the development of overseas Chinese teaching; as computer cannot be able to complete omissions like human beings when they understand and translate the natural Chinese language.

Its largest contribution lies in the end type analysis and classified collection on the distribution of elliptical sentences in various types. The clarification of the reasons on elliptical sentences distribution difference in various types and its pragmatic functions help us to initiatively understand the relation between elliptical sentences and types.

There should be a standard to judge whether a sentence is elliptical or not. Judgment on omission is very sophisticated, as omission itself turns out to be an expression which is tentative instead of being regulative. This determines that omission judgment is rather difficult. A feasible judgment standard should be made before making analysis. The judgment standard is as follows: Firstly, having a clear recognition on the characteristics of elliptical sentence, which is the most basic primary condition for the judgment of elliptical sentence. Omission is not only the reduction of syntactic element form on the level of syntactic structure; actually, omission belongs to the category of speech, which is a speech behavior. And we could not better understand and master elliptical sentences unless we enter the communication of speech (Allerton, 1975).

The communications between social members should not be realized without entering dynamic, concrete and flexible speech sentences. One of the judgment standards is the fruit of the ontology study on modern Chinese in which the condition omission appears. In the study of ontology, some conditional and restrictive factors that lead to the occurrence of omission in Chinese have been described in many aspects. For instance, we poses two judgments references on elliptical sentences on which grammatical circle have reached a consensus. We analyze the three basic conditions on the existence of omission. This proposal is more precise and scientific and is strongly explanative and persuasive. Referring to the study fruits of predecessors, this thesis concludes the conditions when elliptical sentence appears which is feasible for the judgment of elliptical sentence. With these restrictive conditions, we can better judge the elliptical sentences.

When making judgment on the elliptical sentences in concrete sentence examples, especially in written works, we don't refer to other sentence structures. We should refer to the corresponding syntactic structure of the deep syntactic structure of this sentence for the omission. When analyzing corpus, we should try our best to speculate the true meaning of the sentence so as to judge whether somewhere is omitted or not by putting it into certain context (Hiliday & Hasan, 1976).

The corpus of this thesis mainly originates from two types of examples, one from the numerous sentence examples being involved and studied in the past various literatures, the other from the sentences made by the author according to her language sense. As to the elliptical sentences' distribution in various types and their pragmatic functions, we mainly survey the corpus in oral type and written type, this paper makes a type analysis on these corpuses.

For the convenience of reading, this thesis uses regular scripts to express corpus and rarely delete the elliptical sentences in corpus while trying to maintain the origin appearance of the corpus being quoted. Use zero elements to express the omission elements and underline the elements which could not be omitted. Most of the elliptical sentences in common grammar works are the omission of major elements like subject, predicative and objective. Yet few people talk about the omission of preposition. In the Eight Words in Modern Chinese, usually omitted syntactic expletives are

regarded as one of the features in Chinese grammars, the Chinese expletives being mentioned in the work can be omitted, including the preposition. For instance, based on this, the analysis about the elliptical sentences with omitted preposition, which mainly include situations that preposition can be omitted, preposition cannot be omitted, factors restricting preposition omission and the pragmatic meaning of preposition omission (Lehrer, 1970).

Preposition phrase in the beginning of sentence which expresses place, time, object, interference and preposition can generally be omitted. Prepositions in these preposition phrases in the beginning of sentence can always be omitted so as to emphasize the focus of speech and outstand the major information. Numerous examples above indicate the popularity of preposition omission in the modern Chinese. In the text below, we will analyze the factors that restrict preposition omission from three aspects of syntactic, semantics and pragmatics based on the above situations on preposition omission (Croft & Cruse, 2004).

Numerous examples above indicates that preposition in preposition phrase representing time and place at the beginning of a sentence is usually omitted, the most omission neither influence the meaning of the preposition phrase nor change the property of a word or the syntactic function of the phrase which means that the relations between other elements in the nominal clause (or nominal phrase) are not changed. For instance, although the prepositions in preposition phrases are omitted, these phrases can still perform as the adverbial modifiers, while syntactic ambiguity doesn't exist. That is to say, the structure with omitted preposition has the same syntactic function with the original preposition phrase. They all assume the same position in sentences and indicates the matter being explained or involved, they are all in the beginning of the sentence and the starting point of a sentence narration while perform as the topic. However, prepositions representing comparison and dependence in preposition phrases cannot be omitted.

Syllable structure can restrict the omission of preposition. For instance, the idiom and four character structures will become non-four-character structure when being completed with a preposition and it will not read smooth; it's evident that an idiom cannot be called an idiom if it has to be completed with a preposition. In sentence, preposition omission always forms behind monosyllabic verb.

However, preposition omission can also possibly arouse the change of word property in the original sentence. When the preposition is omitted, the phrase structure type behind the preposition will change into a subject-predicate phrase from the original preposition phrase. After the preposition omission, people always consider the noun behind the preposition as a verb. These are only changes on superficial syntactic structure which don't influence our expression at all. However, if the syntactic functions before and after omissions are different, preposition could not be omitted. Omission of preposition also depends on the clarity of the semantics of the omission type and the original type. Pragmatically, preposition omission mainly depends on the pursuit on precise utterance in the economy principle of language. From the aspect of language use and acceptor, omission is the best choice if it's possible. Being influenced by the preceding text, the preposition can be omitted in advance, that is to say, a preposition can control several objects

VI. CONCLUSION

This paper deals with problems of interaction between default information and context with the focus on weak ellipsis. These interactions are described via the notions of default semantics, discourse and context. The overall aim, to which this article contributes a first step, is to develop a format for modeling the prominent stages in cognitive process of analyzing default information.

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Investigating Patterns of Reciprocal English-Persian Translation of Collocations by Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—This study investigated patterns of reciprocal English-Persian translation of collocations by Iranian EFL learners. The participants of the study were 20 intermediate and advanced level students at different private language schools in Tehran city. The instruments used in the study was a researcher-made questionnaires used for translating collocations and involved 60 items including ten collocation types. The questionnaire was translated into Persian. Then, the English and Persian versions were given to the participants to complete. The collected data was analyzed using the SPSS software. The results showed that there were meaningful differences between the two translations in ‘verb + noun’; ‘prepositions of time, place and manner; ‘verb + adverb’; and ‘adjective + preposition’ correlations. The most frequently used strategy used for translation of collocations in English-Persian and also in Persian-English translations was literal translation which is a type of direct translation. These findings indicate that collocational differences between Persian and English bring about errors in the production of Iranian EFL learners and a good number of errors in translations of collocational errors are directly caused by interference of learners’ mother tongue.

Index Terms—collocations, translation, interference, mother tongue, Iranian EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Transfer happening between languages is considered a main reason of most second language learning problems (Mahmoud, 2005; Falahi & Moinzadeh, 2012). In fact, one of the areas vulnerable to transfer between languages is collocation, especially when the collocational patterns of the first language are not similar to those of the target language. As Sadeghi (2009) properly indicated, a significant number of syntactic and semantic errors made by EFL learners could be produced by a difference between collocational patterns in the first language and the target language they are trying to learn. For example, in English they ‘are late’ and ‘make photocopies’ but in Persian they ‘do late’ and ‘take photocopies’.

Similarities and differences between languages regarding collocations as a possible aspect of difference has not been thoroughly studied. Although collocation is an important element of proper language production, it is a challenging aspect of L2 learning which has not received adequate attention in research (Shei & Pain, 2000; Nesselhauf, 2003). Differences between collocational patterns and idiomatic expressions of first and target language are the cause of a large number of syntactic and semantic errors by language learners (Nesselhauf, 2003; Ketabi & Sadeghi, 2013). Although some studies on comparative analysis of collocations between some languages have been conducted, little has been reported for problems of language learners regarding the collocational differences between English and Persian and no proper pattern has been identified for errors resulting from these differences.

In view of that, this study is an attempt to find out patterns and sources of errors in using collocations expressions in English using a two-way translation from English into Persian and vice versa. In other words, this study tries to determine the amount of collocational errors that directly result from L1 interference. The significance of this study is that the accurate use of collocations is important in successful communication. Also, one source of inaccuracy and sometimes a source of misunderstanding in EFL context, is inability in understanding and using collocations. In this regard, five research questions were formulated for this purpose.

- ▶ To what extent do collocational differences between Persian and English cause errors in the communication of Iranian EFL learners?
- ▶ What are the most problematic types of collocations for Iranian EFL learners?
- ▶ What percent of collocational errors are directly caused by interference from mother tongue?

► What strategies should be applied in translation collocation to be matched with Vinay and Darbelnet's model (1995) of translation?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Collocations

Collocation studies in Greece can be tracked back to more than two thousand years ago. The Greeks believed that words cannot be existed in isolation and they can be different in line with the collocation in which they are used (Robin, 1967). Based on Niaxing's (2002) interpretation, "a collection is an ordinary syntagmatic association of a string of rhetorical items, that coexist, in a grammatical constructed with bilateral expectancy greater than chance as recognition of non-idiomatic meaning in texts" (p.100). According Mitchell's viewpoint (1975, as cited in Nofal, 2012), collocation is a union of roots or potential rhetorical meanings rather than actual words. A linguistic item or class of items is meaningful by means of properties of its own but due to the contrastive or differential relationships it develops with other items or classes. Interpretation is much less in the name than in the network of related differential relationship. Howarth (1996) pointed out following specifications for collocation:

- Collocations are prevalent instances that play an important role in language production.
- Among several reasons for collocation, one is that these combinations are employed as rhetorical units.
- Generally, rhetorical collocation is referred to as combination of two or more words so that they are used by the native speakers regularly as other language components.

Classification of Collocations

According to Smadja (1993, cited in McKeown & Radev, 2000), collocations have different forms. They are in a large variety of forms, the number of words to be used and the way they are used can differ widely. Some collocations are fixed, whereas others are not so, For instance, a collocation to kink "to make" and "decision" can be said "to make an decision", "decision to be made", "mad an important decision", and so on. On the contrary, a collocation like "The New York Stock Exchange" just can be in one form; it is very rigid collocation, an unchanged expression.

Based on the traditional perspective, collocations can be divided into two major groups (Howarth, 1996):

1. Verbal: like, breaching, cancel the appointment, eating
2. Nonverbal: like, Flawless flower, last memories, Islam prophet, Islamic revolution, and fast cooker.

Any of these two groups are divided into two subgroups: Open and Free collocations. (Nosratzadeh & Jalilzadeh, 2011). Howarth (1996) offers three classes of free collocation:

- Collocations that are used to meet an immediate need
- Certain collections those are predictable to make a language system
- Fixed idioms that are not limited by semantics and collocation specifications

Cowie and Mackin (1975) categorized idioms and collocations into four categories based on idiomaticity from the most to the least fixed: pure idioms, figurative idioms, restricted collocations and open collocations. Restricted collocations relate to clusters that are fixed or like idioms, for instance to kick the pocket, to rain cats and dogs and so forth. Open collocations relate to nodes that can be classified along with other a big variety of other words such as a red car, a small car, an expensive car, and so on.

Palmer (1981) classified collocations based on the restrictions on words and offered three sorts of collocational restrictions as below:

- 1) There are some restriction that are completely depended on the meaning of the item, like *green cow*.
- 2) There are some restrictions that are dependent on the range- a word can be used alongside a whole set of a group of words that have some semantic characteristics in common. So it explains the unlikeliness of the *pretty boy* (pretty should be used for describing females).
- 3) There some collocations that are limited to the strictest sense, "they deal with neither meaning nor range, for example *added with eggs and brains*" (p.79).

The model for translation by Vinay and Darbelnet

Some researchers offered different models for translating. One of them is the model by Vinay and Darbelnet. Many scholars are in favor of the model, they see it as a famous and comprehensive model. Thus, it has been used as the theoretical basis for translating of collocation in the study. The model consists of two methods to cover seven procedures as below:

1. Direct translating that covers:

1.1. Borrowing: It is a form of straightforward translation that involves the transfer of ST word into the TT, for instance *tequila* or *tortilla* from Mexican Spanish or DVD, CD-ROM and so forth in the world of information technology which are understood worldwide. This can be used to fill a gap or to make the TT more interesting (Munday, 2009). The straightforward transfer of words such as computer, television, mobile and so on from English to Persian is some cases of borrowing.

1.2. Calque: "It is a special sort of borrowing in which a language borrows an expression from another language, but each or its elements is translated literally each of its elements" (Vinay & Darbelnet, 1995, as cited in Munday, 2009, p.171) For instance, English *skyscraper* to Persian 'ا : sema : nqær□a : f'.

1.3. Literal translating: It is “a word for word translation that uses the same number of TL words in the form of established equivalents besides the same word order and word classes, like, *English, my cat is hungry*, in German ‘*meine Kat zeist hungrig*” (Munday, 2009, p. 182), and English *Slow down a bit*, in Persian ‘*je qorde yæva : f kün*’ (Eftekhari, 2008).

2. Oblique translation, that covers:

2.1. Transposition: “It deals with grammatical shift like word class changes” (Munday, 2009, p.212). For Example, in English *you are wanted*, in Persian ‘*ka : ret da : ræn*’ (Eftekhari, 2008).

2.2. Modulation: The procedure deals with a change the form of message that is made by a change in the point of view” (Venuti, 2000, p. 89). “The change can be advocated when, although a literal, or even permuted, results of translation in a grammatically correct utterance, improper, unidiomatic or incompetent in the TL” (Hatim & Munday, 2004, p. 150). English *I’m listening*, in Persian ‘*befærma : i : d*’ (Eftekhari, 2008).

2.3. Equivalence: “It relates to cases where languages explain the same situation by different style and structure as means” (Munday, 2009, p. 58). For instance, cry in pain in French would be said as ‘*Aie!*’, but, it would be interpreted as *Ouch* in English. English *you are not a local*, in Persian ‘*æhle i : n tæræfo ke ni : sti : ?*’ (Eftekhari, 2008).

2.4. Adaptation: It is considered the changing of the cultural reference when there is a situation in the source culture that does not have any equivalent in the target culture (Munday, 2009). For instance, for most Germans, “the traditional turkey dinners served at Christmas by British are still unknown” (Munday, 2009, p. 212) or ‘*offering*’ to show courtesy in Persian (Eftekhari, 2008).

Practical Works

Mahmoud (2005), examined collocational errors made by Arab learners of English, and found negative transfer from the first language as a major source of collocational errors in the writings of Arab EFL learners. Also, negative transfer from Arabic was accountable for about 61 percent of the incorrect word combinations. Koosha and Jafarpour (2006) investigated the influence of Iranian EFL learners’ L1 on the collocational awareness of prepositions. They decided that first language interference was a significant source of error in the production of prepositional collocations. Fan (2009), in a comparative corpus-based study, investigated collocational use by ESL learners compared to that by native students. The data for this study came from written productions of 60 Hong Kong students and 60 native students of English. The corpora analysis revealed that the first group’s collocational use was adversely affected by their L1. Sadeghi (2009) compared Persian and English collocations with respect to lexis and grammar. The results indicated that when the negative transfer of linguistic knowledge of L1 to L2 happen the learners highly likely to face difficulties. The outcome of two translation assignments were compared by Gorgis and Al-Kharasheh (2009) they found out that the limitation of students’ ability for translating Arabic contextualized collocations properly.

III. METHOD

Participants and sampling

Twenty EFL learners (12 males and 8 females) in private English institutes in Tehran City took part in this study. They aged between 20 and 40 years. They were selected based on random sampling from various language schools around Tehran City. The EFL learners were at intermediate and advanced levels. The participants had passed at least ten levels in speaking programs and were considered intermediate or advanced level based on the standards of the language institutes. In addition, a proficiency test (the intermediate and advanced levels of Oxford University Press and University of Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate (UCLES), Quick Placement Test Version 2, 2001) was also given to assure the level of the participants. The participants were of varied social and cultural backgrounds.

Instruments

This study used two instruments, a proficiency test and a translation tests for translating collocations. UCLES (Quick Placement Test Version 2, 2001) was employed to estimate the similarity of students regarding their knowledge of general English. The test has different sections for grammar, vocabulary and reading.

The collocation questionnaire were developed by the researchers based on the collocations collected from second edition of famous Top Notch book series by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher. The series have been taught all over the world as well as in Iran for several years. The researcher had a considerable experience in teaching conversation courses, especially in teaching Top Notch book series and was quite familiar with collocations. The data were selected from various elementary, intermediate and advanced proficiency levels, i.e. from all 12 books of the series. Various types of collocations were selected based on classifications of collocations by Cowie and Mackin (1975) and Palmer (1981). To be sure of the selected collocations, they were checked against Oxford Collocations Dictionaries. The content validity of the instrument was confirmed through expert judgment by two PhDs in Linguistics and TEFL (teaching English as a foreign language).

The collocation questionnaire comprised of 60 items which were classified based on ten types of collocations, i.e. every 6 items covered one particular type of collocation arranged from easy to difficult based on the level of the Top Notch book series from which the collocations were extracted. The instrument was checked for content validity by two PhDs, i.e. the supervisor and the advisor of this thesis, but was not checked for reliability.

Procedure and data analysis

Sixty collocations expressions were extracted from the second edition of Top Notch book series by Joan Saslow and Allen Ascher. The data were selected from all twelve books, i.e. from the fundamentals, lower intermediate, upper intermediate and advanced levels. To confirm that the selected expressions were collocations, they were checked against Oxford Collocations Dictionaries. The selected expressions were then classified according to the classification schemes of Cowie and Mackin (1975) and Palmer (1981) for collocations. The selected expressions were then translated into Persian. Next, both English and Persian versions were given to EFL students to translate the English expressions to Persian and vice versa. The answers were then combined and analyzed based on Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) model of translation to see what patterns were present in the students' errors and what were the main sources of difficulty. Experts were consulted regarding the types of translations based on the above-mentioned models. The translations were analyzed and coded for the type of strategy and also the acceptability of translations by the researcher and the coded data were analyzed using SPSS software application.

IV. RESULTS

Paired Samples T-Test

TABLE 1.
PAIRED SAMPLES CORRELATION BETWEEN ENGLISH-PERSIAN AND PERSIAN-ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

Paired Samples Correlations				
		N	Correlation	Sig.
Pair 1	E.F 1 & F.E 1	20	.318	.370
Pair 2	E.F 2 & F.E 2	20	-.113	.755
Pair 3	E.F 3 & F.E 3	20	.309	.385
Pair 4	E.F 4 & F.E 4	20	-.386	.271
Pair 5	E.F 5 & F.E 5	20	.389	.266
Pair 6	E.F 6 & F.E 6	20	.187	.605
Pair 7	E.F 7 & F.E 7	20	-.185	.610
Pair 8	E.F 8 & F.E 8	20	-.352	.318
Pair 9	E.F 9 & F.E 9	20	.500	.141
Pair 10	E.F 10 & F.E 10	20	.107	.768

Paired samples correlation between English-Persian and Persian-English translations in ten types of correlations as it was specified in the questionnaire is demonstrated in Table 1. As the table reveals, with the specified correlations and sig values, at $\alpha=.05$, there was no correlation between English-Persian and Persian-English translations in all categories.

TABLE 2.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST OF THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN ENGLISH-PERSIAN AND PERSIAN-ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

Paired Samples Test									
		Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
					Lower				Upper
Pair 1	E.F 1 - F.E 1	-1.00000	.81650	.25820	-1.58409	-.41591	-3.873	9	.004
Pair 2	E.F 2 - F.E 2	.30000	1.33749	.42295	-.65679	1.25679	.709	9	.496
Pair 3	E.F 3 - F.E 3	-.50000	1.17851	.37268	-1.34306	.34306	-1.342	9	.213
Pair 4	E.F 4 - F.E 4	-2.60000	1.57762	.49889	-3.72856	-1.47144	-5.212	9	.001
Pair 5	E.F 5 - F.E 5	-.50000	2.17307	.68718	-2.05452	1.05452	-.728	9	.485
Pair 6	E.F 6 - F.E 6	-1.20000	1.93218	.61101	-2.58220	.18220	-1.964	9	.001
Pair 7	E.F 7 - F.E 7	-.40000	1.34990	.42687	-1.36566	.56566	-.937	9	.373
Pair 8	E.F 8 - F.E 8	-1.60000	2.06559	.65320	-3.07763	-.12237	-2.449	9	.037
Pair 9	E.F 9 - F.E 9	-.60000	1.17379	.37118	-1.43968	.23968	-1.616	9	.140
Pair 10	E.F 10 - F.E 10	-.90000	2.02485	.64031	-2.34849	.54849	-1.406	9	.193

Paired samples t-test of the differences between English-Persian and Persian-English translations in ten types of correlations is displayed in Table 2. The table shows meaningful differences between the two translations in 'verb + noun'; 'prepositions of time, place and manner'; 'verb + adverb'; and 'adjective + preposition' correlations. According to the mean differences, the most problematic correlations were, respectively, 'verb + noun'; 'prepositions of time, place and manner'; 'verb + adverb'; and 'adjective + preposition'.

Crosstabs

Crosstabs were applied to compare the performances of the students according to the strategies used in the two-way translations of collocations. Only the most frequently used strategies are shown here which are direct literal translation and indirect transposition translations. In all Tables 'E.F' in the rows stands for English- Farsi and 'F.E' in the column stands for Farsi- English.

TABLE 3.
CROSSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'VERB + NOUN' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: verb + noun * F.E: verb + noun Crosstabulation				
			F.E: verb + noun	
			Direct Literal	Total
E.F: verb + noun	Direct Literal	Count	18	18
		% within E.F: verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + noun	90.0%	90.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	2	2
		% within E.F: verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + noun	10.0%	10.0%
Total	Count	20	20	
	% within E.F: verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%	
	% within F.E: verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%	

The crosstab of the relationship between 'verb + noun' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are demonstrated in Table 3. The table illustrates that in English-Persian translations 100% of translations were direct literal but in Persian-English translations 90% used direct literal strategy for translation and 10% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 4.
CROSSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'PHRASAL VERB + NOUN' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: phrasal verb + noun * F.E: phrasal verb + noun Crosstabulation				
			F.E: phrasal verb + noun	
			Direct Literal	Total
E.F: phrasal verb + noun	Direct Literal	Count	16	16
		% within E.F: phrasal verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: phrasal verb + noun	80.0%	80.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	4	4
		% within E.F: phrasal verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: phrasal verb + noun	20.0%	20.0%
Total	Count	20	20	
	% within E.F: phrasal verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%	
	% within F.E: phrasal verb + noun	100.0%	100.0%	

The crosstab of the relationship between 'phrasal verb + noun' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are displayed in Table 4. In English-Persian translations 100% of translations were direct literal but in Persian-English translations 80% used direct literal strategy for translation and 20% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 5.
CROSSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'VERB + ADJECTIVE' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: verb + adjective * F.E: verb + adjective Crosstabulation					
			F.E: verb + adjective		Total
			Direct Literal	Indirect Transposition	
E.F: verb + adjective	Direct Literal	Count	10	2	12
		% within E.F: verb + adjective	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + adjective	62.5%	50.0%	60.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	6	2	8
		% within E.F: verb + adjective	75.0%	25.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + adjective	37.5%	50.0%	40.0%
Total	Count	16	4	20	
	% within E.F: verb + adjective	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%	
	% within F.E: verb+ adjective	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	

The crosstab of the relationship between 'verb + adjective' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are presented in Table 5. The table indicates that in English-Persian translations 83.3% of translations were direct literal and 16.7% were indirect transposition. But in Persian-English translations, 62.5% used direct literal strategy for translation and 37.5% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 6.
CROSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'PREPOSITIONS OF TIME, PLACE, AND MANNER' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: preposition TPM * F.E: preposition PTM Crosstabulation				
			F.E: preposition PTM	Total
			Direct Literal	
E.F: Preposition TPM	Direct Literal	Count	20	20
		% within E.F: Preposition TPM	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: preposition PTM	100.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	20
		% within E.E: Preposition TPM	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: preposition PTM	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between 'prepositions of time, place, and manner' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are displayed in Table 6. The table shows that 100% of translations were direct literal in both English-Persian translations and Persian-English translations.

TABLE 7.
CROSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'VERB + EXPRESSIONS WITH PREP' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: verb + expressions with prep * F.E: verb + expressions with prep Crosstabulation				
			F.E: verb + expressions with prep	Total
			Direct Literal	
E.F: verb + expressions with prep	Direct Literal	Count	10	10
		% within E.F: verb + expressions with prep	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + expressions with prep	50.0%	50.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	10	10
		% within E.F: verb + expressions with prep	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + expressions with prep	50.0%	50.0%
Total		Count	20	20
		% within E.F: verb + expressions with prep	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + expressions with prep	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between 'verb + expressions with prep' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are presented in Table 7. The table reveals that in English-Persian translations 100% of translations were direct literal. But in Persian-English translations, 50% used direct literal strategy for translation and the other 50% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 8.
CROSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'VERB + ADVERB' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: verb + adverb * F.E: verb + adverb Crosstabulation				
			F.E: verb + adverb	Total
			Direct Literal	
E.F: verb + adverb	Direct Literal	Count	20	20
		% within E.F: verb + adverb	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + adverb	100.0%	100.0%
Total		Count	20	20
		% within E.F: verb + adverb	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: verb + adverb	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between 'verb + adverb' collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations in Table 8. As the table displays, 100% of translations were direct literal in both English-Persian translations and Persian-English translations.

TABLE 9.
CROSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN 'ADVERB + ADJECTIVE' COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: adverb + adjective * F.E: adverb + adjective Crosstabulation				
			F.E: adverb + adjective	Total
			Direct Literal	
E.F: adverb + adjective	Direct Literal	Count	18	18
		% within E.F: adverb + adjective	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adverb + adjective	90.0%	90.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	2	2
		% within E.F: adverb + adjective	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adverb + adjective	10.0%	10.0%
Total		Count	20	20
		% within E.F: adverb + adjective	100.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adverb + adjective	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between ‘adverb + adjective’ collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are displayed in Table 9. The table illustrates that in English-Persian translations 100% of translations were direct literal but in Persian-English translations 90% used direct literal strategy for translation and 10% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 10.
CROSSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ‘ADJECTIVE + PREPOSITION’ COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: adjective + preposition * F.E: adjective + preposition Crosstabulation			F.E: adjective + preposition		Total
			Direct Literal	Indirect Transposition	
E.F: adjective + preposition	Direct Literal	Count	10	2	12
		% within E.F: adjective + preposition	83.3%	16.7%	100.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	8	0	8
		% within E.F: adjective + preposition	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adjective + preposition	55.6%	100.0%	60.0%
Total	Direct Literal	Count	18	2	20
		% within E.F: adjective + preposition	90.0%	10.0%	100.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	2	0	2
		% within E.F: adjective + preposition	10.0%	0.0%	10.0%
		% within F.E: adjective + preposition	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between ‘adjective + preposition’ collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are exhibited in Table 10. The table reveals that in English-Persian translations 83.3% of translations were direct literal and 16.7% were indirect transposition. But in Persian-English translations, 55.6% used direct literal strategy for translation and 44.4% used indirect transposition.

TABLE 11.
CROSSTABS OF RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN ‘ADJECTIVE + NOUN’ COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: adjective + noun * F.E: adjective + noun Crosstabulation			F.E: adjective + noun		Total
			Direct Calque	Direct Literal	
E.F: adjective + noun	Direct Literal	Count	2	18	20
		% within E.F: adjective + noun	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adjective + noun	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
Total	Direct Literal	Count	2	18	20
		% within E.F: adjective + noun	10.0%	90.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: adjective + noun	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

Table 11 illustrated the crosstab of the relationship between ‘adjective + noun’ collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations. The table reveals that in English-Persian translations 90% of translations were direct literal and 10% used direct calque strategy for translation. But in Persian-English translations, 100% used direct literal strategy for translation.

TABLE 12.
CROSSTAB OF RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ‘NOUN + NOUN’ COLLOCATIONS IN THE TWO TRANSLATIONS

E.F: noun + noun * F.E: noun + noun Crosstabulation			F.E: noun + noun		Total
			Direct Literal	Indirect Transposition	
E.F: noun + noun	Direct Literal	Count	14	4	18
		% within E.F: noun + noun	77.8%	22.2%	100.0%
		% within F.E: noun + noun	87.5%	100.0%	90.0%
	Indirect Transposition	Count	2	0	2
		% within E.F: noun + noun	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: noun + noun	12.5%	0.0%	10.0%
Total	Direct Literal	Count	16	4	20
		% within E.F: noun + noun	80.0%	20.0%	100.0%
		% within F.E: noun + noun	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%

The crosstab of the relationship between ‘noun + noun’ collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations are presented in Table 12. The table discloses that in English-Persian translations 77.8% of translations were direct literal and 22.2% were indirect transposition. But in Persian-English translations, 87.5% used direct literal strategy for translation and 12.5% used indirect transposition.

Multiple Frequencies

Multiple Frequencies of Strategies Used in Translation of Collocation

TABLE 13.
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE CORRECT AND INCORRECT TRANSLATIONS OF COLLOCATIONS
IN ENGLISH-PERSIAN AND PERSIAN-ENGLISH TRANSLATIONS

English to Farsi Frequencies				
		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
English to Farsi	RIGHT	878	73.2%	4390.0%
	WRONG	178	14.8%	890.0%
	No Answer	144	12.0%	720.0%
Total		1200	100.0%	6000.0%
Farsi to English	RIGHT	776	64.7%	3880.0%
	WRONG	350	29.2%	1750.0%
	No Answer	74	6.2%	370.0%
Total		1200	100.0%	6000.0%

The frequency distribution of the correct and incorrect (acceptable or unacceptable) translations of collocations in English-Persian and Persian-English translations is depicted in Table 13. As the table elucidates, in English-Persian translations, 73.2% of the translations were correct, 14.8% were incorrect and 12% were not able to answer. In Persian-English translations, however, 64.7% of the translations were correct, 29.2 were incorrect and 6.2% were not able to answer.

TABLE 14.
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE STRATEGIES USED ACCORDING TO ACCURACY OF TRANSLATIONS

English to Farsi Frequencies				
		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
English to Farsi	Borrowing Correct	4	0.4%	20.0%
	Calque Correct	22	2.1%	110.0%
	Calque Incorrect	2	0.2%	10.0%
	Literal Correct	572	54.5%	2870.0%
	Literal Incorrect	138	13.1%	690.0%
	Transposition Correct	264	25.0%	1320.0%
	Transposition Incorrect	36	3.4%	180.0%
	Modulation Correct	12	1.1%	60.0%
	Modulation Incorrect	2	0.2%	10.0%
	No Answer	46	3.8%	230.0%
Total		1200	100.0%	5270.0%

Frequency distribution of the strategies used in English-Persian translations of collocations according to accuracy of translations based on each strategy is presented in Table 14. As the table indicates, the most frequently used strategy used for translation of collocations from English into Persian was literal translation which is a type of direct translation and was used in 67.6% (54.5% correct and 13.1% incorrect). The second most frequently used strategy was transposition which is an indirect translation and was used in 28.4% (25% correct and 3.4% incorrect). The least frequently used strategies, however, was borrowing which is a direct strategy and was used in 0.4% of the cases.

TABLE 15.
FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION OF THE STRATEGIES USED IN TRANSLATIONS OF COLLOCATIONS
ACCORDING TO ACCURACY OF TRANSLATION

Farsi to English Frequencies				
		Responses		Percent of Cases
		N	Percent	
Farsi to English	Borrowing Correct	12	1.1%	60.0%
	Calque Correct	2	0.2%	10.0%
	Calque Incorrect	8	0.7%	40.0%
	Literal Correct	622	55.3%	3110.0%
	Literal Incorrect	322	28.6%	1610.0%
	Transposition Correct	124	11.0%	620.0%
	Transposition Incorrect	10	0.9%	50.0%
	Modulation Correct	14	1.2%	70.0%
	Modulation Incorrect	6	0.5%	30.0%
	Adaptation Incorrect	4	0.4%	20.0%
	No Answer	66	3.0%	330.0%
Total		1200	100.0%	5620.0%

Frequency of the strategies used in Persian-English translations of collocations together with frequencies of accuracy of translation based on each strategy is appeared in Table 15. As the table reveals, the most frequently used strategy used for translation of collocations from Persian into English was literal translation which is a type of direct translation and was used in 83.9% (55.3% correct and 28.6% incorrect). The second most frequently used strategy was

transposition which is an indirect translation and was used in 11.9% (11% correct and 0.9% incorrect). The least frequently used strategies, however, were adaptation which is a direct strategy and was used in 0.4% cases; and calque which is a direct strategy and was used in 1.3% cases in all.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This study was aimed at investigating patterns of reciprocal English-Persian translation of collocations by Iranian EFL learners. In other words, this study aimed at investigating the EFL learners' problems of using collocations expressions through examining reciprocal translations of English-Persian and Persian-English.

The first research question inquired the extent to which collocational differences between Farsi and English bring about errors in the production of Iranian EFL learners. The results of Paired Samples T-Test showed that there were meaningful differences between the two translations in 'verb + noun'; 'prepositions of time, place and manner; 'verb + adverb'; and 'adjective + preposition' correlations. Also, based on the mean differences showed these four types of collocations were most problematic for the students. According to the results, the most frequently used strategy used for translation of collocations from English into Persian was literal translation. The most frequently used strategy used for translation of collocations from Persian into English was literal translation. These findings show that the collocational differences between Farsi and English bring about most of errors in the production of Iranian EFL learners in terms of both collocations and vowels; since in most of the cases the students were not able to find a proper equivalent and instead used literal, I.e. word for word strategy for translation of collocations.

The second research question asked about the most problematic types of collocations for Iranian EFL learners. According to the Paired Samples T-Test, the most problematic types of collocations were 'verb + noun'; 'prepositions of time, place and manner; 'verb + adverb'; and 'adjective + preposition' correlations. In other words, most of the problems of the students occurred in the translation of these expressions which might be explained by the differences in the collocation patterns of English and Persian. For example most of the students have used 'take' with Photocopy, since in Persian they 'take' copy, while in English the verb 'make' is used with the 'noun' photocopy. As another example, most students translated this expression into English as preposition 'call me *with* my first name', while the correct English use is 'by' rather than 'with'. In addition, a lot of students have translated the Persian expression into English as 'I proud to you' or 'I pride to you', since in Persian the word /*eftekhar*/ (honor or pride) is a noun rather than an adjective, so the differences in the structural patterns of the two languages had made such errors.

The third research question queried the percent of collocational errors that are directly caused by interference of mother tongue. The results of crosstabs showed in English-Persian translations, in a large number of the cases direct literal translation was used and only in almost a little percent indirect transposition was used. In Persian to English translations, likewise, the most frequently used strategy was direct literal translation. In addition, the results showed that in English-Persian translations, more than 70 percent of the translations were acceptable. In Persian-English translations, however, almost 65% of the translations were acceptable. These findings show that in almost 80% or more of the cases literal translation was used for collocations both in English-Persian and also in Persian-English translations. Thus, it can be decided that a great deal of the errors in production of Iranian EFL learners result from interference of their mother tongue.

The fourth research question inquired about the strategies applied in translating collocations according to Vinay and Darbelnet's (1995) model of translation. The results showed that all strategies, including three direct strategies of borrowing, calque and literal translation, and also three indirect strategies of transposition, modulation and adaptation introduced in the model were found in the translations of idioms; however, the most frequently used strategy was literal translation. Transposition was the second most frequently strategy with a vast difference with literal translation; and the other cases were used very infrequently.

The findings of this study are in line with the findings of previous studies by Wolter (2006) and Rustipa (2011) who emphasize that studying errors of EFL learners are useful to gain ideas about what they learn and diagnose the places of their weaknesses. Nesselhauf (2003) asserted that "an L1-based approach to the teaching of collocations seems highly desirable" (p. 240). Also these findings confirm previous studies by Nesselhauf (2003), Sadeghi (2009), Xiao & McEnery, 2006, who emphasize the importance of teaching and learning collocations in language learning and particularly focus on production of collocation. According to Nesselhauf (2003), comprehension of collocations does not normally produce problems for learners so that identifying learners' problems "must mean analyzing their production of collocation" (p. 224).

According to Sadeghi (2009), differences in collocational patterns between two languages may lead to difficulties in the use of L2 collocations and the amount of L1 interference in this process. The major findings are that collocational differences between the first and the target languages produce challenges for language learners (Wolter, 2006). Also, the findings of this study are more or less in line with the findings of previous research by Sadeghi and Panahifar (2012) who believe that certain collocation patterns such as preposition-based and verb-preposition combinations are more problematic for language learners.

Another point is that, as Xiao and McEnery (2006) correctly highlighted, "there is a pressing need for the cross-linguistic study of collocation to be pursued by researchers" (p. 127). The language learning research community can subsidize by first identifying word combinations in the L2 (using findings from corpus linguistics) that are sufficiently

predictable or statistically significant, and then by drawing on contrastive analysis, among other resources, to investigate various avenues by which the teaching and learning of collocations may be accomplished in the most cost-effective, convenient, and productive manner (Sadeghi, 2009).

The findings of the current study suggested that educational approaches to teaching collocations in Iran call for extra attention. Also, the effects of proficiency in using collocation need specific attention. As a substitute to teaching vocabulary distinctly and out of texts, it is better to employ and follow a contextualized and focused method in teaching collocations. Teachers can increase the students' awareness about collocations and co-occurrence of words through formal instruction. The findings of this study showed that despite having good knowledge of English grammar and vocabulary, most Iranian EFL learners seem to have problems with collocations particularly in terms of productive skills. This inadequacy seems to be primarily related to the insufficient emphasis put on collocational patterns by teachers and also in the teaching material.

The study indicated that learners should be aware of the usefulness of using collocations in their communication activities since it is expected from learners of a foreign language to try to be like a native speaker. Furthermore, EFL learners' failure in the correct production of collocations, to some extent, stems from the language teachers' tendency to teach words through definition rather than as parts of their collocational patterns. As to the role of learners' L1 in the production of English collocations, the results revealed that the participants were adversely affected by their mother language in the use of collocations, so that the majority of the collocational errors were due to the negative transfer from the first language. Hence, a direct implication is a need for the selection and teaching of collocations with reference to learners' first language. The high frequency of literal translation of collocations as a strategy in translation shows the lack of knowledge and also lack of endeavor from the side of all education system, not only teachers and learners to enhance the level of competence in this regard.

This study has also several suggestions for further research. First, research should be done on different aspects of collocations to further examine the mechanism of learners' acquisition of collocations. Therefore, more empirical research on other types of collocations and word combinations, e.g. grammatical collocation and all other combinations of collocations, needs to be conducted to get a comprehensive standpoint on collocation acquisition by Iranian EFL learners at different proficiency levels. It is hoped that the visions presented in this study may motivate more research into learners' collocational productive performance, which is of crucial importance to L2 learners' overall language performance and which is shown to be challenging for the participants.

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The Interactive Relationship between Inductive-deductive Grammar Teaching, Gender and the Cognitive Style of Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—There has usually been hot friction on the issue of whether inductive or deductive teaching mode would be more beneficial to EFL/ESL learners; thus, this research study tried to discover the effect of inductive-deductive grammar teaching on grammar learning of Iranian male-female EFL learners with FD-FI cognitive styles. The participants were 82 freshmen EFL learners. They were between 19 to 22 years old and selected quasi-randomly from Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran. TOEFL and GEFT tests were administered respectively to homogenize and screen them. At last, after treatment, they took a posttest. The analysis of data via independent t-test and paired samples t-test revealed no significant difference between males and females participants in grammar learning through inductive and deductive mode. Besides, results showed that deductive mode was effective in the grammar learning of all male and female participants whether the cognitive style was FD or FI. Furthermore, it was indicated that inductive approach was effective on female with FI cognitive styles, but ineffective on males with the same cognitive style.

Index Terms—inductive, deductive, gender, field dependent, field independent, cognitive styles, grammar

I. INTRODUCTION

Indubitably, grammar is one of the basic elements that both receptive and productive language skills are hinged on. Grammar, syntactically and semantically, designates the function of linguistic elements in the written or spoken utterances that leads to bilateral communication. This linguistic component underwent a period of disfavor during the sixties and the seventies of the last century. Nonetheless, once again, a recursive trend towards grammar teaching is begun that proves its primacy.

Nassaji and Fotos (2004) stated that anti-grammarians idea could be represented by Krashen's (1981) distinction between learning and acquisition of language. It was believed that language should be acquired through natural exposure. Takahashi (2005) argues that if EFL learner is not propped up with strong grammatical knowledge he cannot perform sophisticated tasks. Leaver, Ehrmn and Shekhtman (2005) argue that the knowledge of form and syntax (word order) shed itself vital to achieve success in SLA since only having knowledge of vocabulary is not enough to communicate vital feelings and information exactly. Candlin and Mercer (2001) argue that the SLL need to be subject to form-focused exercises qualifying them to express not only intricate meanings but also states of affairs. Lynn Savage, Bitterlin and Price (2010) describe the three roles that underlie the importance of grammar in adult education as; 1) grammar as an enabling skill 2) grammar as a motivator 3) grammar as a means to self-correction.

Among various modes, we picked inductive- deductive modes up, as, there have often been innumerable debates and experiments on their effectiveness in teaching instructional materials to EFL/ESL learners. But this time, looking piercingly from a new panorama, this study attempted to inquire this effectiveness while considering gender (male & female) and the inner world (field dependence & field dependence) of the learner at the same time. As a revolution in psychology, individual differences constructing the body of personality is composed of two dimensions; emotional styles and cognitive styles. Each entails several emotional and cognitive differences in different individuals resourcing from so many biological, cultural, gender-specific and educational background data. Among cognitive styles this study focuses on opposite, bipolar FD and FI cognitive styles.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Grammar Concept

Having a retrospective glance through the long history of grammar smoothen the way to locate the place of this study in the realm of grammar instruction. The "grammar" term for the first time appeared in Greek and there have always been controversial arguments between two grammarians and anti-grammarians opposite poles. In one hand, standing on anti-grammarians position, Krashen (1982, pp. 83-4) postulates that "A very important point that needs to be stated is

that learning does not "turn into" acquisition. We often see acquisition in cases where learning never occurred. There are many performers who can use complex structures in a second language who do not know the rule consciously and never did".

On the other hand, standing on grammarian position, Takahashi (2005) argues that EFL language learner should be equipped with sound knowledge of the grammatical base of a foreign language; in that case, they can perform any kind of sophisticated linguistic task. Otherwise, they are in the possession of nothing more than the competence to make an order in restaurant or to construct simple phrases in everyday greeting.

B. Inductive and Deductive Teaching

Takimoto (2008) asserted that inductive teaching will be effective as forms are included in functions and it will lead to the longer recalling of rules. Nessel and Dixon (2008) argue that pedagogue's question during implicit analysis of forms not only intrigues the students to ponder and disclose the patterns but also makes them to generalize the target rules.

In explicit teaching, one of the basic techniques in Direct Method, Audio- Lingual Method and Silent Method, according to Freeman and Anderson (2011), materials are presented to memorize, in such a way that firstly, a detailed explanation of them introduced then exemplified, but it is vice versa in implicit teaching mode. Freeman (2009, p. 528) maintains that "explicit instruction is where students are instructed in the rules or patterns (deductive)".

C. Cognitive Style

The term cognitive style was used by Allport (1937), and has been described as a person's typical or habitual mode of problem solving, thinking, perceiving and remembering. Ellis (1985) defines that "cognitive style is a term used to refer to the manner in which people perceive, conceptualize, organize and recall information" (p. 114). Cheng and Zheng (2002, p. 423) define it as: "the learner's way of distinguishing, processing, storing, extracting information in the cognitive process, and the learner's orientation of solving problems as well".

D. Field Dependent- Field Independent Cognitive Styles

According to Ehrman and Leaver (2003) FI is the amount of concentration that person puts on some aspect of experience and isolates it from its background. They add that FI learner can discern and pick out exactly the target tree among a mass of trees in forest, on the other hand, FD learners haven't such a discriminative competence and perceive the whole of background.

Khoury (2013) states that FI is a personality trait that inclines the individual to de-contextualize an item from its field (back ground) then re-contextualizing it, on the other hand, FD is individual tendency to stick to context in such a way that makes them incompetent to decipher items from their backfield.

E. Studies Conducted on Inductive- Deductive Teaching

After conducting a study, Rizzuto (1970) concluded that the inductive method is superior in the teaching of morphological and syntactic concepts regardless of Ss' verbal ability level, and an investigation of the treatment by sex interaction suggests that inductive methods may be more effective with female Ss. In terms of conceptual understanding, the result of a study by Huffman (1997) indicated that there was no overall difference between the two inductive and deductive groups; however, there was a significant interaction between the sex of the students and group. The explicit strategy appeared to benefit female students, while the textbook strategy appeared to benefit male students. The results of a study by Shih (2008) is summarized as follows; 1. No significant difference was found between inductive and deductive groups on the performance the immediate test 2. High achievers benefited more from deductive approach than from inductive one 3. No significant gender- by- treatment (teaching approach) was found and gender did not affect the effectiveness of inductive or deductive approach 5. Male subjects did not significantly outperform the female one in inductive group. Male and female students had equivalent performance with inductive instruction. The comparative analysis of data gathered by Behjat (2008) indicated that both groups improved in grammar knowledge as well as statistics indicated that males learned grammar better when they were taught inductively and females showed a better performance when they were taught deductively. Lau and Yuen (2009) investigated the effects of gender and learning styles on computer programming performance. Two hundred and seventeen secondary school students of age from 14 to 19 participated in this study. The finding disclosed that there were no gender differences in programming performance after controlling for the effect of student ability.

The results of a study by Haight, Herron and Cole (2007) indicated a significant difference between participants' mean immediate test scores favoring the guided inductive approach. Findings of this study also indicated a strong trend in favor of guided induction on the long-term learning of grammatical structures. Studying on the effectiveness of guided inductive versus a deductive approach on short and long-term learning of 10 structures, Vogel, Herron, Cole and York (2011) affirmed a significantly greater effect of the guided inductive approach on short-term learning by calculating mean and standard deviations for the scores of both groups showed that students performed better in the guided inductive condition than in the deductive condition. The long-term findings and the relationship between preferences and performances were not significant.

The results of Ameri- Golestani and Nezakat- Alhossaini's (2012) study on the effectiveness of explicit teaching and conscious raising with 45 IELTS candidates showed that raising student's consciousness was a much more effective way than mere explicit teaching. The results of Wang's (2012) investigation into "Teaching English Verb Tenses" through two deductive-inductive grammar teaching approaches indicated that both FI and FD students improved significantly, and FD student improvement was especially evident. Moreover, FD students in both groups improved more than FI students, but the difference was not significant.

III. THE STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The most common mode of teaching grammar utilized by teachers is inductive or deductive mode. This fact occurs while teachers do not consider other variables such as gender and the FD- FI cognitive styles of students (habitual way of thinking, analyzing, preferring) which is a prominent subject in the scope of EFL learning and may influence on the process of learning. To make this process more safe and facile, the grammar teachers are expected to teach in an appropriate mode meshed with appropriate gender and cognitive style of learner.

Therefore, at this point a problem raises and that is they do not know which teaching approach is more effective if it is matched with appropriate gender and cognitive style of participants. And since almost no study has been run to investigate this appropriateness, the researchers tried to investigate it.

Research Questions

The present study seeks to answer the following questions:

1. Is there any significant difference between male and female Iranian EFL learners in the grammar learning through two modes of teaching: inductive and deductive?
2. If gender can affect the way of learning grammar, which one (male or female) is in advantage when learning through two modes of inductive and deductive teaching?
3. Considering gender and the FD- FI cognitive styles of learners at the same time, which teaching mode; inductive or deductive is in advantage?

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

A sample of 86 freshmen, between 19 to 22 years old, male and female EFL language learners majoring in English translation and literature studying in their first academic B.A. course of study were selected in a stratified simple randomization from Shahid Chamran University of Ahvaz, Iran. They were randomly assigned to four predetermined sub-groups of male and female participants with inductive - deductive modes of teaching grammar. We have attempted to assign equal number of male and female participants. They were all from the same cultural and linguistic background. After conducting TOEFL test 62 were left as the participants of study, the following table indicates these information.

TABLE 4.1:
THE PARTICIPANTS OF MAIN STUDY

TOTAL	Number of Each Group	Group	Gender		Cognitive style	
62	31	Deductive Group	15	Male	6	FI
				Female	9	FD
			16	Male	7	FI
				Female	9	FD
	31	Inductive Group	13	Male	8	FI
				Female	5	FD
			18	Male	6	FI
				Female	12	FD

B. Instruments

Under the supervision of two experts in the field of TEFL, all the following instruments were provided and utilized to run the data collection procedures. The first instrument was a proficiency TOEFL test selected from TOEFL Actual Tests by Moallem Ebtada (2004) to determine their proficiency in English and homogenize them. The second instrument was a group embedded figure test (GEFT) by Witkin, Oltman, Raskin and Karp (1971) to pinpoint the FD- FI cognitive style of the subjects.

The third instrument was a self-made Pre-test taken by participants before the treatment, to determine the proficiency level of participants' knowledge on the target grammar (adverb clauses). The materials on target grammar which were applied in the pre-test were chosen based on Comprehensive Grammar Vocabulary and Idioms for TOEFL by Teimoori (2007), Communicate What You Mean by Pollock (1997), TOEFL Grammar Flash by Broukal (2005), Oxford Practice Grammar by Eastwood (2011), and Modern English by Frank (1972). The Pre- test totally was composed of 20 items and 1 score was designated to each item; therefore the total score was equal to 20.

The fourth instrument, a post-test designed in parallel (identical) form with the same grammar content and equal number of items, but not designed with exactly the same items included in pre-test. The researchers conducted a pilot

study to obtain the reliability of these tests by administering the pretest to 62 students with the same background knowledge and field of study but other than those participating in the main study. After calculating the tests reliability via statistic KR 20 formula, the estimate reliability index was about 0.85 that certified the reliability of the pretest to conduct in the main study.

C. Materials

A self-designed pamphlet on “English Adverb Clauses and the grammar on Reducing Adverb Clauses” was used as the course instructional material. The pamphlet was prepared under the supervision of two experts having Ph.D. in TEFL. The researchers selected this grammatical point because of two reasons; one is that Iranian EFL learners are often in trouble while reducing such complex structures and another is that the participants of study were following their first B. A. academic course in grammar and not yet presented with such a grammar topic.

A Video Project was also deployed to teach the instructional materials (pamphlet) to students through power point software program. The instructional materials included in the pamphlet were designed in power point software program in different orders of explanation and examples to the appropriate inductive and deductive teaching approach.

D. Data Collection Procedures

At the beginning of the experiment, in the first stage, the researchers administered a proficiency TOEFL test (2004) selected from TOEFL Actual Tests by Moallem Ebtada. It was administered at the beginning of the experiment to homogenize the participants of study. Those participants receiving 1 standard deviation ($SD= 7.29$) above and below the mean of the scores were considered as the participants of study. Statistical analysis of the scores from TOEFL test revealed that those obtaining the score between the range of 33.75 and 48.32 must be considered as the participants of this study. As a result of this fact, the scores of 24 participants were not included in the statistical calculations of our study; consequently 62 participants were left as the participants of study.

During the next stage, a GEFT test was presented to the participants to determine their FD-FI cognitive styles. As the total score on this test was 18 and the mean score of the GEFT test was 11.37, those participants obtaining scores above it were considered as FI and those below as FD. Considering gender and the FD- FI cognitive style of the subject, the researchers divided them into two equal groups through stratified simple random selection and then he assigned inductive instruction to one group and deductive to another.

In the fourth step, the researchers administered the pretest as a pilot study to the first semester students of Lorestan University following their B.A. educational courses in English literature who had not still received any particular instruction on the given grammar and subsequently the statistical analysis of data gathered through Pearson- KR 21 revealed the reliability of about 0.85. In the fifth step, a pretest was administered, not only to determine participants' prior knowledge but also participants' proficiency level in the given grammatical point. Those participants with full knowledge on the given grammatical point.

In the step six, the participants took their first instructional session over 1 hour. Each session took 120 minutes; in the first half the inductive group was instructed and during the second half deductive group was instructed. Finally, at the end of experiment about 10 days after the final instructional session, a posttest was administered to discover their potential grammar knowledge on the given grammar which was taught over three successive weeks.

E. Inductive Grammar Instruction

The procedure for conducting inductive grammar instruction was as follows; (1) the researcher deployed power point slides on video project to present several examples containing the same target grammar (adverb clause) features. (2) When an example was presented the teacher then presented the reduced form and allowed the students to read it carefully, formulate and then generalize the underlying rule to more examples and (3) If the rule were not revealed to them the teacher would ask some conscious raising questions, slight hints, if not workable, finally a brief summary of underlying rule were given. (5) Finally, the teacher could ask some students, if volunteered, to come to the board and to write some examples on the board to assimilate rules into new textual context (rule generalization).

F. Deductive Grammar Instruction

Firstly, the researcher (teacher) explained in details the rules on the premise of which the adverb clauses were reduced, then he presented few relevant examples on the target grammar (English adverb clauses). After that the teacher required some students, if volunteered, to come to write more examples on the white board and write more examples or even he might ask them to translate some Persian examples to require them produce the target grammatical form. Finally, he asked some students to explicitly explain the underlying rule of the target grammar.

G. Data Analysis

Since the first and second research questions are interwoven, having employed independent samples T- test and paired samples test, the researchers went through the following cases of data analysis:

Case 1: Analyzing and comparing the mean of scores on pre-test, post- test and progress, between males and females taught in inductive mode

Case 2: Analyzing and comparing the mean of scores on pre-test, post- test and progress, between males and females taught in deductive mode

Case 3: Analyzing and comparing the mean of males’ scores on pre-test and post- test taught in inductive mode

Case 4: Analyzing and comparing the mean of females’ scores on pre-test and post- test taught in inductive mode

Case 5: Analyzing and comparing the mean of males’ scores on pre-test and post-test taught in deductive mode

Case 6: Analyzing and comparing the mean of females’ scores on pre-test and post-test taught in deductive mode

Case 7: Analyzing and comparing the mean of scores on pre-test, post-test and progress obtained by males taught in inductive mode with males taught in deductive mode

Case 8: Analyzing and comparing the mean of scores on pre-test, post-test and progress obtained by females taught in inductive mode with females taught in deductive mode

Also, to answer the second research question, “*Considering gender and the FD- FI cognitive styles of learners at the same time, which teaching mode; inductive or deductive is in advantage?*” the researchers employed paired sample test. It should be added that the significant level of both the independent samples T-test and paired sample test was 0.05. If the comparison culminated in a figure was more than the criterion significant level, it would be the index of no significant difference between/among sides of comparison.

V. RESULTS

A. Descriptive Analysis

The researchers applied Independent Samples T-test and Paired Samples T-test with the significant level of 0.05 to answer the research questions. If the figure obtained on Sig. and or on Sig. (2. tailed) fell above the significant level of 0.05, it was an index of meaningfulness in the relationship under the investigation. And, if the observed figure on Sig. was dropped below the significant level of 0.05, it was an index of negative meaningfulness in the relationship.

B. Results of the First and Second Research Questions

Case 1: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 1 are collected in table 1.

TABLE 1:
GROUP STATISTICS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Progress	male	13	3.50	2.42	.67
	female	18	3.94	2.81	.66
Pre-test	male	13	8.53	2.06	.57
	female	18	7.22	2.46	.58
Post-test	male	13	12.03	2.82	.78
	female	18	11.16	2.34	.55

C. Inferential Analysis of Case 1

Analyzing and comparing the scores obtained by males and females taught in inductive mode (case 1), on pre-test, post- test and progress, via independent samples T-test, revealed that there was no significant difference between these two categories. As it is indicated through table 2, the amount of significant difference on pre-test, post-test and progress, in order, was 0.42, 0.52 and 0.76. Since these figures were higher than the criterion significant level of 0.05, the equal of variances is assumed; therefore, there was no significant difference between males and females taught in inductive mode.

TABLE 2:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Progress	Equal variances assumed	.09	.76	-.45	29	.65	-.44	.96	-2.42	1.53
	Equal variances not assumed			-.47	28.01	.64	-.44	.94	-2.38	1.49
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.66	.42	1.56	29	.12	1.31	.83	-.40	3.03
	Equal variances not assumed			1.61	28.25	.11	1.31	.81	-.35	2.98
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.41	.52	.93	29	.35	.87	.92	-1.02	2.77
	Equal variances not assumed			.90	22.91	.37	.87	.95	-1.11	2.85

Case 2: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 2 are collected in table 3.

TABLE 3:
GROUP STATISTICS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Progress	male	15	4.00	3.05	.78
	female	16	4.18	2.90	.72
Pre-test	male	15	8.20	2.24	.57
	female	16	6.87	2.62	.65
Post-test	male	15	12.20	2.78	.71
	female	16	11.06	2.58	.64

D. Inferential Analysis of Case 2

After calculating the mean of scores via independent samples T-test, on pre-test, post- test and progress, between males and females taught in deductive mode (case 2), just like case 1, the researchers concluded that there was no significant difference between males and females taught deductively. As table 4 indicates, the amount of significant difference on pre-test, post-test and progress, in order, was 0.44, 0.89, and 0.91 that were more than the significant level of 0.05; hence, there was no significant difference between these two categories, too.

TABLE 4:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Progress	Equal variances assumed	.01	.91	-.17	29	.86	-.18	1.07	-2.37	2.00
	Equal variances not assumed			-.17	28.59	.86	-.18	1.07	-2.38	2.00
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.61	.44	1.50	29	.14	1.32	.88	-.47	3.12
	Equal variances not assumed			1.51	28.75	.14	1.13	.87	-.46	3.11
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.01	.89	1.18	29	.24	1.13	.96	-.83	3.10
	Equal variances not assumed			1.17	28.43	.24	1.13	.96	-.83	3.11

Case 3: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 3 are collected in table 5.

TABLE 5:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre-test	8.53	13	2.06	.57
	Post-test	12.03	13	2.82	.78

E. Inferential Analysis of Case 3

Analyzing and comparing males' scores on pre-test and post- test, taught inductively (case 3), via paired samples test also revealed that there was a significant difference between the mean of scores on pre-test and post-test. As it is indicated in the table 6, the amount of sig. (2.tailed) was 0.00. Since the obtained figure was less than the significant level of 0.05, the researchers came to the conclusion that the male's scores on post-test was higher than the same males' score on pre-test.

TABLE 6:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences				t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower				Upper
Pre-test- Post-test	-3.50	2.42	.67	-4.96	-2.03	-5.20	12	.00

Case 4: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 4 are collected in table 7.

TABLE 7:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair 1		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Pre-test	7.22	18	2.46	.58
	Post-test	11.16	18	2.34	.55

F. Inferential Analysis of Case 4

just like case 3, conducting an inquiry into the mean of females' scores on pre-test and post- test taught in inductive mode (case 4), it was revealed that there was a meaningful relationship between males' score on pre-test and post-test. Because, as it is indicated through table 8, the statistical figure on Sig. (2. tailed) was less than the significant level of .05.

TABLE 8:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-test- Post-test	-3.94	2.81	.66	-5.34	-2.54	-5.94	17	.00

Case 5: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 5 are collected in table 9.

TABLE 9:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair 1		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Pre-test	8.20	15	2.24	.57
	Post-test	12.20	15	2.78	.71

G. Inferential Analysis of Case 5

Passing through the inquiry into case 4, the researchers made an attempt to investigate into males' scores on pre-test and post-test taught deductively (case 5). Analyzing the data collected via paired samples test divulged that there was a meaningful relationship between males' scores obtained on pre-test and post-test. In effect, the statistics of paired samples test (table10) indicated that the amount of Sig. (2. tailed) was 0.00. This figure dropped below the significant level of 0.05; conclusively, deductive mode showed itself effective in the grammar learning of Iranian EFL male learners.

TABLE 10:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-test- Post-test	-4.00	3.05	.789	-5.69	-2.30	-5.06	14	.00

Case 6: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 6 are collected in table 11.

TABLE 11:
PAIRED SAMPLES STATISTICS

Pair 1		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Pre-test	6.87	16	2.62	.65
	Post-test	11.06	16	2.58	.64

H. Inferential Analysis of Case 6

Analyzing the data via paired samples test indicated that there was a meaningful relationship between the females' scores on pre-test and post-test (case 6). As table 12 indicates, the amount of Sig. (2tailed), that was 0.00, fell below the criterion significant level of 0.05, and it was the index of the fact that females gained scores on post-test that were higher than pre-test scores, and deductive mode was effective in the grammar learning of Iranian EFL female learners.

TABLE 12:
PAIRED SAMPLES TEST

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference				
				Lower	Upper			
Pre-test- Post-test	-4.18	2.90	.72	-5.73	-2.64	-5.76	15	.00

Case 7: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 7 are collected in table 13.

TABLE 13:
GROUP STATISTICS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Progress	Male / Deductive	15	4.00	3.05	.78
	Male/ Inductive	13	3.50	2.42	.67
Pre-test	Male/ Deductive	15	8.20	2.42	.57
	Male/ Inductive	13	8.53	2.06	.57
Post-test	Male/ Deductive	15	12.20	2.78	.71
	Male/ Inductive	13	12.03	2.82	.78

I. Inferential Analysis of Case 7

The scores on pre-test and post-test obtained by males taught in inductive and the other males taught in deductive modes (case 7) revealed that there was not any significant difference between males taught inductively and males taught deductively over the three pre-test, post-test and progress. As it is indicated through table 14, the amount of Sig. on pre-test, post-test, and progress, respectively, was 0.91, 0.98, and 0.60. Since all these figures were more than the significant level of 0.05, no meaningful relationship between these two categories (Male/Inductive & Male/ Deductive) in pre-test, post-test and progress test was confirmed.

TABLE 14:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2.tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Progress	Equal variances assumed	.28	.60	.47	26	.63	.50	1.05	-1.66	2.66
	Equal variances not assumed			.48	25.82	.63	.50	1.03	-1.63	2.63
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.01	.91	-.41	26	.68	-.33	.81	-2.02	1.34
	Equal variances not assumed			-.41	25.88	.68	-.33	.81	-2.01	1.33
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.00	.98	.15	26	.88	.16	1.06	-2.02	2.34
	Equal variances not assumed			.15	25.32	.88	.16	1.06	-2.02	2.34

Case 8: The statistical data on the number and gender of participants in case 8 are collected in table 15.

TABLE 15:
GROUP STATISTICS

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Progress	Female / Deductive	16	4.18	2.90	.72
	Female/ Inductive	18	3.94	2.81	.66
Pre-test	Female/ Deductive	16	6.87	2.62	.65
	Female/ Inductive	18	7.22	2.46	.58
Post-test	Female/ Deductive	16	11.06	2.58	.64
	Female/ Inductive	18	11.16	2.34	.55

J. Inferential Analysis of Case 8

After conducting an independent samples T-test to compare the scores obtained by females taught inductively with the other females' scores taught deductively (case 8), it was revealed that there was not any significant difference between these two categories (Female/Inductive & Females/ Deductive) in pre-test, post-test, and progress (table 16), since the amount of Sig. for pre-test, post-test, and progress, in order, was 0.86, 0.57, and 0.88 that fall above the criterion significant level of 0.05.

TABLE 16:
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
									Lower	Upper
Progress	Equal variances assumed	.02	.88	.24	32	.80	.24	.98	-1.75	2.24
	Equal variances not assumed			.24	31.28	.80	.24	.98	-.176	2.24
Pre-test	Equal variances assumed	.031	.86	-.39	32	.69	-.34	.87	-2.12	1.43
	Equal variances not assumed			-.39	30.92	.69	-.34	.87	-2.13	1.44
Post-test	Equal variances assumed	.32	.57	-.12	32	.90	-.10	.84	-1.82	1.61
	Equal variances not assumed			-.12	30.56	.90	-.10	.84	-1.83	1.62

K. Descriptive Analysis of Third Research Question

To answer the third research question "Considering gender and the FD- FI cognitive styles of learners at the same time, which teaching mode; inductive or deductive is in advantage?" we employed paired sample T- test. The significant level for this test was also 0.05. If the amount of Sig. for a particular category fell below the significance level of 0.05, it would be an index of appropriateness of those three factors (gender, teaching mode, and cognitive style) together, and vice versa.

L. Inferential Analysis of Third Research Question

Another issue that almost had not been worked on appeared in question three, as it is displayed in table 17, the amount of significance level for female and FD participants taught inductively was 0.00. This figure was less than the significant level of 0.05; conclusively, this mode was influential when participants were female with FD cognitive styles, whereas this mode was not workable for male participants with the same cognitive style, since the amount of sig. for it was equal to 0.10.

TABLE 17:
PAIRED SAMPLE T- TEST

	FD- FI Class	Field-Dependent		Field-Dependent		Field-Independent		Field-Independent	
		Deductive		Inductive		Deductive		Inductive	
	Gender	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Paired Differences		Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest	Paired 1 pretest-posttest
	Mean	-4.61	-3.50	-4.41	-2.70	-3.64	-4.75	-3.00	-4.00
	Std. Deviation	3.39	3.69	2.70	2.86	2.24	1.78	3.04	2.15
	Std. Error Mean	1.13	1.23	0.780	1.28	0.85	0.72	1.24	0.76
	90% confidence interval of the differences	Lower	-7.23	-6.34	-6.13	-6.25	-5.72	-6.61	-6.20
Upper		-1.99	-6.656	-2.69	0.85	-1.56	-2.88	0.20	-2.19
t		-4.07	-2.83	-5.65	-2.10	-4.28	-6.53	-2.41	-5.25
df		8	8	11	4	6	5	5	7
Sig. (2-tailed)		0.00	0.02	0.00	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.06	0.00

Also, it was revealed that inductive mode showed itself effective when the participants were males with FI cognitive style, because the amount of Sig. for this category was equal to 0.00, even though it was not effective in the grammar learning of females with the same cognitive style (FI), since the amount of sig. for this category was equal to 0.06. Furthermore, it was elicited that deductive mode was influential in all cases, whether the participants were FI or FD, since the amount Sig. for all cases was less than the criterion level of 0.05.

In addition, since the amount of sig. for female and FD participants taught inductively was 0.00 that was less than the significant level of 0.05, conclusively this mode of teaching was effective for grammar teaching when students were female with FD cognitive styles, whereas this teaching approach was not suitable for the male with the same cognitive style, since the amount of sig. for it was equal to 0.10 that was more than the significant level of 0.05.

Furthermore, it was indicated that while inductive mode was effective for male participants with FI cognitive style, since the amount of sig. for this category was equal to 0.00 that was less than the significant level, it was not effective

for the females with the same cognitive style, since the amount of sig. for this category was equal to 0.061 that was more than the significant level of 0.05.

VI. DISCUSSION

The results of this research study in case 1, as indicated in table 2, revealed that there was no significant difference between males and females taught inductively due to the fact that the obtained sig. figures for pre-test, post-test and progress, in order, 0.42, 0.52, and 0.76 went above the significance level. Also, as indicated via table 4, result was the same for deductive mode in case 2.

Additionally, according to tables 6 and 10 (case 3, 5), it was proved that both males taught inductively and deductively progressed in grammar learning, but as indicated in tables 14 (case 7), no significant difference between two cases was observed. Furthermore, according to tables 8 and 12 (case 4,6), it was proved that both females taught inductively and deductively improved in grammar learning, though, as indicated in tables 16 (case 8), no significant difference between two cases was observed. As it was also revealed in table 17 that deductive teaching mode was appropriate and workable in both genders whether the participants were field- dependent or field- independent, while, in two cases, inductive teaching approach did not show itself effective when the participants were male with field dependent cognitive style as well as when they were female with field- independent cognitive style.

Briefly speaking, the results of our study revealed 1. No gender difference in grammar learning through two teaching modes was observed. 2. Deductive approach was appropriate for both males and females whether the cognitive style was FI or FD. 3. Inductive teaching mode showed itself workable with all participants except for male FD participants and female FI participants. 4. Gender and teaching mode did not affect the way of learning; rather, it may be resulted from the cognitive style of the participants.

The observed results of this work may result from some presumable reasons; one and maybe the main was the shortage of population, since it was approximately impossible to find more participants at the same time in the same context (Ahvaz). In addition, this work took under investigation several variables and we divided the sample into four subgroups. Another liable reason was ensued from the issue that Iranian EFL learners are not acquainted with teaching grammar in inductive mode, as during all over the treatment period they often showed their dissatisfaction by such statements like "you should first explain the grammar to us and then go to work on examples "we won't learn; we had never been taught in such a method". Finally, these results possibly were resourced from the difficulty degree of instructional materials, due to the fact that our work concentrated on the shortening of Complex English Sentences that requires recognizing and learning rules, afterwards shortening them.

Contemplating the results of our research study from a gender perspective, we came to the conclusion that these findings were similar to Shih' (2008) study arguing that there is no gender difference between inductive and deductive groups by confirming that 1. No significant difference was found between inductive and deductive groups on the performance the immediate test 2. No significant gender- by- treatment (teaching approach) was found and gender did not affect the effectiveness of inductive or deductive approach 3. Male subjects did not significantly outperform the female one in inductive group. 4. Male and female students had equivalent performance with inductive instruction.

Also, these results were in consistent with the results of Huffman's (1997) study contending that there is no significant difference between explicit and implicit modes in the terms of conceptual understanding. Additionally, these results were in consistence with Lau and Yuen's (2009) study who investigated the effects of gender and learning styles on computer programming performance and then argued that there was no gender difference in result of computer programming performance. Haight, Herron and Cole (2007) argued that there was no significant difference between inductive and deductive grammar learning in long term memory.

Inconsistent with the above-mentioned studies, Rizzuto (1970) argued that inductive teaching mode was better than deductive with females when teaching morphological and syntactic concepts. Also, Haight, Herron and Cole (2007) argued that inductive was better than deductive in short term memory but in long term memory there was no significant difference was observed. Furthermore, Behjat' (2008) study in Shiraz Azad university contended that there was a gender difference, in such a way that males were better with inductive mode while females with deductive.

VII. CONCLUSION

In general, the inferential analysis of collected data with regard to first and second research question revealed that both male and female improved in the way of grammar learning not only when taught inductively mode but also when taught deductively, but there was no significant difference between these two categories (tables 2, 4) . Additionally, it was proved that both males taught inductively and deductively progressed in grammar learning but no significant difference between these two cases was observed (tables 6, 10). Furthermore, it was indicate that both females taught inductively and deductively improved in the way of grammar learning but there was no significant difference between these two cases, too (tables 8, 12).

With respect to the third research question, it was also revealed (table 17) that deductive teaching mode was appropriate and workable in both genders whether the participants were field- dependent or field- independent while, in

two cases, inductive teaching approach did not showed itself effective when the participants were male with field dependent cognitive style as well as when they were female with field- independent cognitive style.

VIII. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study may entail some green and red lights for teachers occupied in EFL/ESL contexts while outlining and conducting grammar classes. In line with the findings of this study, deductive teaching mode is the most safe and appropriate approach to teach grammar in EFL contexts, at least, when teaching English Complex Structures in Iran, since the findings revealed this mode suitable for all males and females participants even with any kind of cognitive style. Besides, the finding of this study also implies that though both methods showed themselves effective, the teachers should be very cautious when teaching males with FD cognitive style and those female students with FI cognitive style.

IX. LIMITATIONS OF STUDY

The first salient but not aborting limitation arose from the shortage of subjects to take part in our study turning the process of data collection into a dilemma to us. This issue was descended from the fact that such a sample enough couldn't be found at a university with the same prior knowledge and cultural back ground. The next limitation ensued from telling the reality (purpose) that would send the participants into reluctance to continue along with researcher; therefore researchers had to utilized different incentives to convince them.

The last limitation resulted from the unfamiliarity of inductive mode to Iranian EFL participants. To some extent, the majority, they did not trust in it and considered it as confusing.

X. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER STUDIES

By dint of the fact that our study worked on four variables, and to answer the third research question on six variables, it could be more safe and reliable to replicate it in another EFL context, or at least, narrow the scope of research (topic) and conduct it in two different studies each working on particular variables. It may yield more reliable results to research questions. The other suggestion is to change the focus of grammar by substituting it for a more simple grammar when conducting the study in an elementary or high school EFL context.

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The Age Factor in Second Language Learning

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Abstract—In recent years, age has been considered as the major factor in determining language learners' successful foreign language acquisition, which is correlated to the assumption stated by Critical Period Hypothesis and Neurological Hypothesis. Most importantly, these assumptions might be concluded that that language learner can acquire foreign language better than adults do at their early age. Additionally, there is still a widespread belief held by many scholars, stating that young children are better at second language acquisition (SLA) than the later starters, such as the adolescents or adults. Therefore, whether young learners learn second language better than the older will be discussed in this article.

Index Terms—age factor, second language acquisition, adults, young learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Some adolescents or adults who start to learn second language would fail to achieve language fluency, while children who were exposed to second language at their early age seem to be proficient like native speaker (cf. Lenneberg 1967). In addition, language environments play an important role when language learners start foreign language acquisition. This hypothesis can be supported by saying that children seem to be involved in an efficient way to acquire the new language when set in the foreign language (cf. Singleton and Ryan 2004, p. 61). On the other hand, the adolescents or adults would experience some great difficulties in acquiring a new language and maintaining the trace of foreignness (ibid). Accordingly, by given the discussion from the theory, it is accepted that young learners probably have great potential to acquire second languages rapidly, efficiently and proficiently, whereas adults or adolescents are at an inferior position in second language acquisition because of the age factor proposed by many linguists showed above.

However, there are many researchers that hold different perspectives and question whether young learners are better in second language learning than older learners. In particular, based on the proposed argument, Krashen et al. (1979) draw from the research literature and indicate that the older is faster, but the young is better. In contrast, Coppieters (1987), Scovel (1988), Johnson and Newport (1989) held the view that the earlier the children learn second language, the easier it seems to be. According to these arguments, several questions can be proposed and then described as follows: is it true that the young will learn better than the older in process of second language acquisition? Beside the age factor, are there any other factors that would play determinant roles in influencing the success achievement of second language acquisition? When having discussed the roles of age factors, are there some pedagogical considerations should be accounted for foreign language teaching?

Based on the introduction above, the purpose of this essay is to discuss whether young learners learn second language better than the older. Thus, I am going to inquire into if there should be any other factors influencing language acquisition. Firstly, this essay will present a view of some theoretical background to account for the notion of the critical period in second language acquisition. Secondly, I will observe some age-related differences between young and old learners in second language acquisition, aiming to identify the other factors and draw some conclusions related to this widespread belief. Then, based on the discussion related to the educational changes of Chinese foreign language policy and my own learning experience, I will present some pedagogical implications for conducting foreign language teaching programmes to enhance young learners' learning ability and fulfill their foreign language learning experience. Finally, for conclusion, I will give my personal reflections in the end.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION STUDIES

A. Critical Period Hypothesis

There is a critical period for first as well as second language acquisition shows children have great advantage over adults or adolescents. This critical period is used to refer to the general phenomenon of declining competence over increasing age of exposure. This hypothesis was first introduced by Penfield and Roberts (1959, p. 5).

As well, Ellis observes that there is the period when language acquisition can take place naturally and efficiently, but after a certain age the brain is no longer able to process language in this way (1986, p. 107). This critical period is defined by Scovel (1988, p. 2) in the following manner:

In brief, the critical period hypothesis is the notion that language is the best learned during the early years of the childhood, and that after about the first dozen years of life, everyone faces certain constraints in the ability to pick up a new language.

Then, Lenneberg (1967, p. 176) used the term “lateralization” to express that puberty means a period of time when the localization of language-processing ability in the human’s left hemisphere was connected with human’s biological change/development. That means: in language learning, children’s brains are more flexible than that of adults. Also, Krashen proposed that human’s brain lateralization can be finished in the age of five (1973, p. 65). However, Lamendella (1977, p. 175) argued that period was too much exaggerated and he used the term “sensitive period” for “lateralization”, which states that the possibility of learning a language well may also occur after 5 years old.

According to this assumption, the hypothesis states that childhood is the superior period to acquire second language. Young learners will acquire language naturally and effectively in this period, but beyond this period, they are seemed to be not easy to acquire and yield the second language. Therefore, the CPH assumes that children will be the superior learner to language acquisition.

B. *Is It True That “the Younger the Better”?*

Morford and Mayberry (2000, p. 111) note “individuals exposed to language at earlier ages consistently outperform individuals exposed to language at earlier ages for first and second languages of both signed and spoken languages”. This assumption agrees that people will perform well in language learning at their early age. This is the hypothesis for “the younger the better” position.

Another opposite view is ‘the older the better’. It illustrates that older language learners are more successful and efficient than young learners. Some studies have been done to support this view. Ekstrand reveals that L2 learning ability ‘improves with age’ (Ekstrand 1976, p. 130). In Harley’s research, he favors the faster acquisition rate among later beginners (1986, p. 112). Therefore, we can get the point that older learners are the efficient language learner.

However, another evidence from Snow and Hoefnagel-Hohle (1978) supports the view that most children were ultimately more successful than adults in SLA but they were not always faster. Adults appear to progress faster than children in the early stage of processing, while children surpass adults and adolescents in eventual attainment (Dulay & Burt, pp. 94-95). Based on this view, it can be observed that it is the supportive view for “the younger the better in the long run”.

Based on these researches and argument, it can be concluded that older learners will learn language faster and more efficient than young learners, whereas young learners will win the achievement in the long period of language learning. It convinces us that the young learner stands the superior stage in the second language acquisition and they will perform better than older learners in ultimate language learning.

C. *Age-related Differences between Young Learner and Old Learner*

There are successful second language learners who started SLA after puberty and have been able to achieve native proficiency. Johnson and Newport (1989) states that the age of arrival was the significant predictor of success in their case study test about the Chinese and Korean who had been first exposed to second language either before or after puberty. They found there was a strong relationship between early start to language learning and performance in the second language. They state that there are few differences in their second language ability before age of 10 and older learners will not have native-like language skills and are more likely to differ greatly from one another in ultimate attainment. Therefore, it is true that most scholars would agree that there are differences between children and adults in final outcome of second language acquisition. Singleton and Ryan (1989, p. 85) addressed greater success for young learners on phonetic/ phonological performance. It can be concluded that there is the critical period hypothesis for attaining full native-mastery of a second language. Young learner will get the native accent when they are exposed to the foreign or second language at the early age.

Herschensohn (2007, p. 141) presents evidences from late LIA and L2A researches that 1) learners have deficient phonology and grammar, and that early and late L2 learners are represented differently in the brain; 3) Older learners will make use of their first language learning strategies to learn the grammar and achieve good performance than young learners. They also point to the view that children are better than adults only in some areas of SLA (e.g. at acquiring accent and basic interpersonal communication skills (ibid.). In addition, there is another evidence which can be cited that the importance of memory in young learners and of analytic abilities in older learners has been observed as the different (Harley & Hart 1997, p. 391). To summarize, there are age-related differences between young and old in their second language learning. They all show their superiority in processing second language learning.

Therefore, it can be concluded that young learners are not really better but they will achieve excellent language outcome in the ultimate second language learning. Children will do some better performance than adults in some areas such as the native accent, but adults will be the fast language learner. Nevertheless, based on the Critical Period Hypothesis, it should be admitted that if young learners would be exposed to the second language learning earlier at their early stage, they will have the superior position in second language learning than adults and reach achievement in second language learning in ultimate attainment. Childhood is considered as the superior period for second language learning.

D. *Age-related Factors in Relation to Second Language Acquisition*

Views of the Critical Period Hypothesis range from Lenneberg’s statement, children succeed in completely learning their native language with no conscious effort and mere exposure, while adults failed by incompletely learning L2 with

instruction, negative evidence and enforced motivation (cf. Lenneberg, 1967). He claims that learners gain native-like ability from mere exposure to the idea that young learners outperform older ones either in eventual outcome or in learning ability. It is not obvious that child in L2 acquisition does as well, but adults' L2 acquisition doesn't clearly be confirmed since it entails conscious effort, more than just mere exposure and an inevitably incomplete final state (Herschensohn, 2000, p. 140).

There is another view denies the critical period hypothesis and states that "the learning situation in combination with age-related affective and cognitive factors could account for some of the variation in success between child and adult L2 learning" (Moon & Nikolov, 2000, p.23).

Additionally, Snow (2002) argues that Lenneberg's claim that adult\child differences in acquisition are due entirely to non-biological factors (e.g. intensity of exposure, affective emotional process, motivation and instruction). The reason is "No one denies the existence or importance of extra-linguistic factors, although different theoretical view concerned with the role of biology differently. L2A is affected by non-linguistic factors that vary by age" (cf. Singleton and Ryan 2004, p.132). Martohardjono and Flynn see acquisition as a similar challenge for all age groups, but they think that L2A is determined by social psychological, experiential whose function could differ greatly for children or adults (cf. Singleton and Ryan, 2004, p.135).

And Scovel (1988, p. 214) states changes in the brain related to maturation may be exactly as Lenneberg proposed, but nevertheless can be summoned as factors. However, in Lenneberg's argument, it states that children and adults do not follow the same path of language acquisition, which is because of the non-biological cognitive, educational and social factors (ibid.).

To sum up, there are the age-related factors affecting children and adults' second language learning besides age. It can be concluded that the age-related factors are cognitive factors, educational factors and social-psychological factors, neurological factors. We can admit that age will influence language learning based on CPH, while it is also associated with cognitive, social-psychological and other factors which will definitely affect language learners' second language learning. They are seemed as the determining factors to learners' second language learning. Therefore, learners' age is one of the factors which can determine the way he approach the second language learning. But learners' motivation, opportunity to learn language and some other factors are also the important determining factors in learners' eventual success language learning.

III. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS FOR SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAMMES TO YOUNG LEARNERS

According to the literature review about the Critical Period Hypothesis and age-related factors, we can observe that young learners stand the superior stage to acquire second language than adults or adolescents. Although the older learners seem to be faster and efficient learner in second language learning, young learner can learn language better than adults or adolescent in some areas of language and achieve good performance in the ultimate language learning.

However, there are age-related factors relating to learner's second language acquisition such as the cognitive, psychological and social factors which will affect learners' second language learning. They can be summarized as individual capacity, language aptitude, second language instruction, teaching method, teaching material, self-conscious, personality, attitude, and motivation and so on. Eventually, all these assumptions would provide some pedagogical considerations to the second language programmes for young learners' foreign language learning.

A. *Early Foreign Language Instruction*

Based on the CPH, age-related differences and factors, the assumption is that when young learners are exposed to the second language earlier, they will achieve better performance and proficiency in second language acquisition. This assumption is widely believed that early acquisition of foreign language will facilitate their learning later in the life. They will learn second language better and win the ultimate achievement in the long run. Childhood is considered to be the golden age to second language learning. Therefore, it is good idea to conduct the foreign language instruction earlier in the school to make children expose to the foreign language learning earlier at their early stage.

According to Singleton and Ryan, people who begin learning a second language in childhood in the long run may generally achieve a higher level of proficiency than those who begin later (cf. Singleton and Ryan, 2004). Obviously, this statement contributes to the hypothesis for starting foreign language instruction earlier. It seems as a good start for young learners holding the chances to acquire foreign language with early immersion to the foreign language instruction.

In the past years, Chinese government policy put little emphasis and investment for the foreign language programme to education reform. English as our foreign language curriculum was initially designed in the secondary school almost in every part of China. According to my learning experience, I began learning English at 12 years old when entered into junior high school. That is my first time to be exposed to the foreign language without any chances to know English before because of the education policy on the foreign language teaching. Foreign language instruction began very late in China about 20 years ago.

However, with hypothesis on children's early starting foreign language learning which is about the earlier children are exposed to foreign language, the faster they will acquire, Chinese educational policy on foreign language programmes has been changed. Additionally, there is an enormous boom of interest in early foreign language

instruction all over the world in 1990s (cf. Moon and Nikolo, 2000). This trend also draws Chinese educational policy attention to foreign language programmes on meeting the globalization and internationalization.

In the 1990s, English as a required course began at children's fifth grade in the elementary school. Thereafter, the English teaching programmes changed again to require English courses to be stated at children's third grade in the elementary school around 2000. As the time goes on, the new policy emphasizes the importance of the early starting foreign language teaching programmes at children's early age. The government of China has been actively emphasizing the English as a foreign language as an essential and compulsory curriculum in the school in recent years. Therefore, English is actually required at first grade in the elementary school. The another necessary thing need to be mentioned that more and more nursery school in almost affluent cities begin to teach children English at their 3-4 years old in China. All these changes about the foreign language teaching policy in China shows that foreign language instruction is attracted attention to implementing foreign language instruction in the school earlier.

To sum up, I want to mention that the early foreign language instruction will motivate children to learn foreign language based on children's personality. General speaking, they often show their curiosity to some new things except learning the L1. Based on my own learning experience, I expected to learn English and wandered to know what English is like when I studied in the elementary school. Therefore, to some extent, if foreign English instruction will be implemented in the school earlier, it will contribute to developing children's favorable attitude on second language learning. They will show their self-conscious and aware the cultural differences when being immersed into the target language context. Consequently, foreign language instruction should be introduced to the school as early as possible since it is good for children being exposed to the second language context and facilitating their foreign language learning in the long run.

B. Foreign Language Teaching Materials

As pointed out in previous researches, most teaching materials are international publications, except for a few countries, for example, Sweden, Croatia; moreover, there have been few researches into how whole-language, task-based, learner-centered, activities-based materials are applied for young learners (cf. Moon and Nikolo, 2000, p. 40). According to this, teaching materials for foreign language teaching should focus on language learners' linguistic competence as well as their communicative competence. Language learners' holistic language skills should be developed attributing to the foreign language teaching material, including listening, speaking, writing and reading skills. Therefore, teaching materials play an important role in the language teaching and language learning.

Since the age-related factors are regarded as the determining factor to young learner as well as the older learner's foreign language learning, it arouses some controversies to question how to attract language learners' attention to learn foreign language with interest and favorable attitude. Teaching materials also stand the leading in the foreign language programmes because of their effects on teachers' teaching method and teaching aims.

In Hungary's research on negotiation as part of the syllabus with young learners has found that it is crucial for innovation to fit the educational context (ibid.). Therefore, teaching materials should be designed depending on the educational context so as to meet the young learners' needs. The objective is to arouse young learners' interest to learn English, nurturing their linguistic skills and communicative skill in order accelerates young learners' foreign language learning in the long run.

The Chinese foreign language teaching which is called traditional English language teaching in the past few years focuses on the teacher-centered and puts much more emphasis on the grammar teaching involved in the sentence structures because of the school or college entrance exams. It shows less emphasis on the oral speaking because it is neglected in the exams. The grammar translation teaching method severs language learners to be more efficient in taking exams. Therefore, it leads to the books designing are full of the grammar, vocabulary and reading practice. However, teaching outcome is concerned that young learners feel very boring with the foreign language learning and some peers wander to give up learning English because of the comprehensive input about the grammar in the classroom. In my learning English experience in the junior and middle high school, I have processed this kind of English teaching because of the Chinese national education policy.

However, in 2001, there was a movement about the English course books in china aimed at reforming the English book by the new education policy. New English teaching curriculum and books have been changed then. New English coursebooks are instead of the traditional one with colorful grammar books for young learners, including more authentic materials and more activities together with the authentic dialogues and scripted dialogues. To some extent, new teaching materials put much more emphasis on young learners' language ability in order to immerse them into foreign language learning with great fun and interest. It will influence the teachers' teaching method for young learners in the classroom.

IV. CONCLUSION

According to the Critical Period Hypothesis, age is proved to be the myth that young learners stand the advantage stage in second language learning. They will learn foreign language better than older learners in the ultimate attainment, though older learner is regarded as fast and efficient language learner. Immersing young learners into foreign language learning earlier will help them hold the favorable attitude on language learning in the long run. Therefore, we should

teach learners' foreign language as early as possible, especially at their early age. When they first enter to the school, the foreign language courses should be introduced for them in the class. It would help them form the foreign language belief like their mother tongue. Because of their personality, they will show their interest to learn the foreign language. They can memorize words quickly because of their brain and can be easy to achieve the native accent. It is widely believed that young learners show their superior learning quality to acquire second language than older learners based on CPH.

When education institute proposes new the foreign language learning programmes for foreign language teaching, the government should support and invest money so as to put it into effect. When course director plans the course, they should consult the teachers as well as the students to get more information about the foreign language course, such as the time, the books. When course director chooses the teaching materials for foreign language teaching, they should ascertain the teaching content and teaching structure to some extent. The education institute needs to introduce the international publishers' books or materials from the English speaking countries. Authentic materials and task-based contents need to be taken into account when our educators choose the teaching materials. The teaching materials including more authentic materials and activities will serve teachers' teaching methodology and techniques. When our teachers teach young learners' foreign language, we should pay more attention to their personality, learning style, learning strategy, interest, motivation, etc. All these factors would affect their language learning and need to be considered. We should make sense of the way to attract young learners' attention from the sensitivity of grammar practice to the communicative classroom environment. The important thing for our foreign language teacher to make sense is that their teaching goal is to arouse young learners' interest and enthusiasm to learn a foreign language so that they can achieve the linguistic competence and communicative competence in the ultimate foreign language learning. Therefore, it is urgent for our educator to consider stimulations to young learners' foreign language teaching and learning the reason why is that they will perform better in the ultimate foreign language learning.

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Cultural Conceptualizations, Semantics and Translation

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Abstract—Cultural conceptualizations are ‘negotiated’ and ‘renegotiated’ across time and space by different generations of speakers so that the members of the group are able to think, so to speak, in one mind (Sharifian, 2008b). What helps us to go beyond the linguistic barriers and consequently incorporate cognitive and cultural conceptualizations to the study of translation is the notion of Frame Semantics Theory which itself is a nascent approach in Translation Studies. Using Rojo’s analytical model (2002b), which focuses on the frames and cultural conceptualizations activated in the humorous texts, this research investigates certain translation problems that may occur in translating cultural elements of the book; "Funny in Farsi: a Memoir of Growing up Iranian in America" by Firoozeh Dumas (2003). Furthermore, the present research considers and examines several translation challenges under six sub-frames: Visual Frames, Situational Frames, Text type frames, Social frames, Institutional frames, and Generic frames. Upon analysis of the text and its corresponding translation, 70 problematic cases were detected, analyzed and then classified according to Rojo’s model (2002).

Index Terms—cultural conceptualization, humorous elements, frames, frame semantics, translation

I. INTRODUCTION

The undeniably global and multicultural world in which we live has rendered translation specifically cultural translation more and more vital both as a genuine, material practice and as a cultural phenomenon to be academically and fundamentally investigated. The relative increase in human contact across linguistic-cultural boundaries that has occurred in the early twenty-first century has generated an increased need for communication across boundaries throughout the whole world. Hence, the present research studies, describes and explains the cultural and linguistic factors in translation of humorous elements of the book; "Funny in Farsi: a Memoir of Growing up Iranian in America" by Firoozeh Dumas (2003) into Persian.

II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Encompassed within the theoretical framework of relevance theory is the notion of frame, which has roots in cognitive linguistics. The concept of frame was first introduced by Charles Fillmore in the 1970s. He explained frame as: “Any system of linguistic choices - the easiest cases being collections of words, but also including choices of grammatical rules or linguistic categories - that can get associated with prototypical instances of scenes” (1996, p.209).

More simply, a frame consists of a group of words as well as cultural conceptualizations and the situation it initially implies. This situation is traditionally called a prototypical scene in Cognitive Linguistics. With every utterance, the associations that we make refer to stored cognitive models and cultural conceptualizations from which we try to call up similar experiences (Fillmore, 1996, p. 49). Even if people’s “prototypes” are similar, the associations they make are often different based on their specific cultural conceptualizations. Therefore, these diverse situations will trigger different frames of knowledge and experience attributed to a certain cultural conceptualization. Overall, Frame Semantics theory provides a useful framework within which to make translation decisions with regard to various cultural conceptualizations in the context of humor translation.

To sum up, based on the principle of the Frame Semantics theory this research investigates a descriptive comparative content analysis of translation of humor in a literary humorous book.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Overview

This research was focused on the analysis of the problems posed by certain elements characteristic of a given culture when translated into another language in a different cultural context. Overall, it can be claimed that this study had two basic purposes: (1) demonstrating the contributions of the Frame Semantics theory to the translation of humor; and (2) investigating the contributions certain types of frames and cultural conceptualizations can make to the analysis of humor and its translation.

B. Type of Research

The present study was a descriptive comparative content analysis based on the text and the relevant Persian translation from the book; "Funny in Farsi: a Memoir of Growing up Iranian in America" by Firoozeh Dumas (2003). As a theoretical framework the researcher implemented the categorization of frames for the translation of humorous elements proposed by Rojo (2002).

C. Source Materials

The source material selected for this research was a bilingual (English-Persian) parallel one. It included a book originally written in English and its relevant Persian translation. The selected books were as follows:

Funny in Farsi: a Memoir of Growing up Iranian in America by Firoozeh Dumas (2003), published by Random House.

And its Persian translation:

عطر سنبلی عطر کاج، محمد سلیمانی نیا، (1388)، نشر قصه.

D. Data Collection and Analysis

In this section in order to establish a functional theoretical framework for the research, I explained three basic concepts necessary for the selection and analysis of the humorous elements of the source material: (1) translation unit, (2) functional equivalent and (3) context.

Subsequently as part of the methodology I described the collection and analysis procedures in detail and finally I elaborated Rojo's analytical method (2002) comprehensively.

1. Translation Unit

According to Rojo (2002, p.313) "the definition of the unit of translation has ranged between the tendency to atomize of those seeking lexical equivalence and the more holistic attitude of those looking for textual equivalence." She believes that the former often leads to somehow an "artificial translation" and the latter to a translation which is "too vague and not very practical to work with the whole text." To solve these problems, Rojo (2002) clarifies that the translation scholars have tried to establish units of analytical nature by comparing ST and TT after the translation process which are defined as posteriori. Santoyo (1986) and Rabadan (1991) call these units 'translemas' and define them as units of a relational nature that do not exist a priori, since they are only valid for the compared texts.

As Rojo (2002, p.313) proposed in her model "the hypothesis that acts as an intermediating instrument between ST and TT is the notion of frame." She defines frames "as structure of knowledge that represent the world view of a particular society, that is, its beliefs, values and emotions, prototypes of people and things, of sequences of situations and events, social scenarios and the metaphorical and metonymical structure of thoughts."

In Rojo's model (2002, p.313) "these units have been labeled cultural elements and include any word, expression or textual segment that activates a frame because it denotes, implies or symbolizes any cultural aspect of human life, its environment, its relationships or its products."

Therefore, it seems inevitable to give a definition of cultural words in this part of the research. Newmark (1988, p.95) believes that 'cultural words' mainly refer to aspects of the so called 'material culture'; however, for the purpose of this research based on Rojo's (2002) ideas the definition of 'cultural element' also comprises all those linguistic categories that need to be interpreted in the cultural environment of the ST, even if they do not refer directly to a cultural dimension. They are mostly contextualized stylistic resources whose interpretation depends on the reader's ability to activate certain cultural frames; which means numerous cases of idioms, colloquial and taboo expressions, play on words and even metaphors and metonymies.

2. Functional Equivalence

For the purpose of this research from the Frame Semantics perspective I presented the notion of equivalence based on the concept of frame and the function carried out by each cultural element. As Gutt points out (1991), the function of text or textual fragment has surely been one of the criteria most frequently used to define translation equivalence. Shuttleworth and Cowie (1997, p.64) define 'functional equivalence' as "a term used to refer to the type of equivalence reflected in a TT which seeks to adapt the function of the original to suit the specific context in and for which it was produced".

Therefore, the type of equivalence which is meant in this research is not that of "total equivalence", but rather "correspondence" that may or may not be 'acceptable' by the target audience within the target language and culture. Then, what is crucial here is to focus on whether the translation's textual function as activators of knowledge is equivalent to that of the original ST elements or not, rather than focusing on mere lexical or holistic textual equivalence between ST and TT.

Therefore, considering the above mentioned criteria and based on Rojo's (2002) ideas the cultural elements of the TT are considered as functional equivalents of the ST elements if only they comply with the textual function carried out and if there is a high degree of correspondence between the semantic, pragmatic and stylistic loads of the source and target texts' frames.

3. The Context

Translation unit proposed in this research was interpreted within its relevant context. The definition of context proposed in this study was in accordance with Martin's (1995) observation. He believes that the context is 'the mental

contribution of the person who interprets an utterance.’ Therefore, from the cognitive point of view of Frame Semantics proposed here, the context is a psychological conceptualization that exists in the speakers’ mind. More precisely based on Rojo’s (2002, p.315) ideas, we may claim that “the cognitive context includes information from the physical environment, information that can be retrieved from our mental stores and information that can be inferred from other domains of cultural conceptualizations.” In this way, the ‘cognitive profile’ of the ST cultural element constitutes a norm which serves as a framework to determine the adequacy of the TT element based on the frames and conceptualizations it activates.

E. Collection Procedure

Before proceeding to data analysis section, the cultural elements that appear in Dumas’s book were extracted and compared with its Persian translation. The selected issues were examples of translations which illustrated some problems according to the frames and conceptualizations they activated in the target language and culture in comparison with the original ones.

All the analyzed examples were presented in three separate parts: The first paragraph contained the ST with the cultural element in italics. The source was indicated with the related initials and the number of the page where the example was found. The second paragraph showed the translation with the analyzed element again in italics. In this paragraph the source was also indicated with the related initials and the number of the page where the example was found. Finally, in the third paragraph I described why the translation of the humorous element in italics was not considered an adequate functional translation and why it failed to reproduce and activate the same frames in the target language and culture as the originals.

To sum up, translation of humor in Dumas’s book was studied under six general frames: Visual, Situational, Text-Type, Social, Institutional and Generic frames.

F. Analysis Procedure

Rojo cites Nash (1985, p.12), who believes that, “humor characterizes the interaction of persons in situations of cultures, and our response to it must be understood in that broad context” (2002, p.34). This follows her idea that we need to use both cognitive and interactional frames. She states that prototype plays an important role in humor because, to understand a certain concept, we need to be able to access what she refers to as our “stored repertoire of prototypes in our memory” (2002, p.35).

According to Rothbart (2009), bearing in mind the assumption that the translation of a cultural element should be compared to the ‘cognitive profile’ of the ST cultural element (that is, to the cultural conceptualizations and frames it activates), then the crucial step is the analysis of the function carried out by such cultural element in the ST. In this way the ‘cognitive profile’ of the ST cultural element constitutes the norm which serves to determine the adequacy of the TT element based on the cultural frames it activates. For this purpose I used Rojo’s (2002) typology of frames for the translation of humor as the theoretical framework. She outlines six types of frames:

1. Situational frame, which refers to “information chunks related to conventional situations” (2002, p.320). Rojo provides the example of a commercial transaction (2002, p.36). Words like “buyer”, “seller”, “goods” and “money” all activate that particular frame. The stereotypical nature of the frame triggers the entire process associated with that frame. Therefore, in a transaction example, the mere description of a man walking into a shop (the initial frame) triggers a number of subsequent frames: the client picking an item up from the shelf; the owner standing behind the counter; the process of the client handing over money in exchange for the item; the owner giving the client a receipt, and packing the item into a plastic bag etc.

In this way, we can see that one frame triggers a cognitive process in which we use one image from our “repertoire” to create a chain of actions related to that event. It is the reader’s ability to access those frames that is important, and those frames include idioms, colloquial and taboo expressions, metaphors, puns and metonymies. In addition to situational frames, Rojo draws on five other types of frames: visual, text-type, social, institutional and generic (2002, p.318).

2. Visual frames refer to frames that evoke a series of images, such as that of a farm: we respond with related images like a barn, a farmhouse, a chicken-coop, farmyard animals and grazing fields. Visual frames also refer to words used to describe gestures, or movement, where the audience is able to build up subsequent frames describing sentiments and attitudes, based on the initial word.

3. Text-type refers to a reader’s implicit knowledge of the way a text is structured in her mother-tongue, and the frames within the text that activate this. Examples of this would be limericks and knock-knock jokes, where the form of the text activates the type of joke (“Knock-knock”), and the kind of response that should be given (“who’s there?”). Text-type frames are the equivalent of Raskin’s Narrative Strategy, which deals with the organization of humor.

4. Social frames are those that “describe the cognitive structures that organize our social knowledge” (2002, p.326). This is important because it includes knowledge of the type of register that is appropriate to different types of roles and interpersonal relationships. For example, dialect, geographical position and relationships are all elements of social frames that will govern how people respond to each other: how an employer addresses an employee; how a peasant addresses an aristocrat; or even how a parent addresses her child. Different social norms will govern interpersonal relationships, and the frames that are activated by each type of interaction.

5. Institutional frames refer to ‘material culture’ and ‘institutional systems’ which relate to both public and domestic life and to a particular political, legal, economic and educational system (Rojo, 2002). ‘Material culture’ conjures up things such as house objects, food habits, clothes, means of transport, mass media, etc. Firoozeh Dumas uses many of these terms in her book to activate the cultural conceptualizations she shares with her readers and to create certain humorous effects. So these frames play an important role in the process of translation.

6. Finally, Rojo describes generic frames as “prototypes of people” (2002, p.343), such as an evil person, or an innocent one. These frames are particular types of social frames and refer to the type of knowledge an individual has about people in society. This includes things like behavior, physical features, manner or commonly used expressions. Each aspect activates a specific frame, with a net which leads us to have a character sketch of the person in question.

IV. FINDINGS

This part presents the research findings as well as the relevant data analysis and discussions according to six general categories including: (1) Visual Frames, (2) Situational Frames, (3) Text- Type Frames, (4) Social Frames, (5) Institutional Frames and (6) Generic Frames. In the following parts the Persian translations were given according to UN system of transliteration. Due to the space limitations of this article, only three examples, one for each top three frames with the highest frequency have been presented here. Those interested in this research may contact the author for the full version of the research. Moreover, for the purpose of brevity the names of the books were abbreviated as follows:

F.I.F.: Funny in Farsi

ع.س.ع.ک.: عطر سنبل عطر کاج

Social Frame

DEES EEZ FROM MY COUNTAY-REE. ES-PAY-SHAY-LEY FOR YOU

“*Dees eez from my countay-ree. Es-pay-shay-ley for you.*” She would explain. (F.I.F., p.35)

Barāyeshān tūzih mīdād: “*Dees eez from my countay-ree. Es-pay-shay-ley for you.*” (ع.س.ع.ک، ص.42)

As a marker of the character’s origin, the narrator has embarked upon the use of phonetic markers such as ‘Dees’ instead of ‘this’, ‘countay-ree’ instead of ‘country’ and so on. Throughout the book this sort of pronunciation activates in the reader, a prototype of speaking English with an Iranian accent. However, in almost all the cases the prototype is not successfully transferred into TL.

Visual Frame

RECEDING HAIRLINES

We circled the perimeters of the casino, looking for my father’s signature *receding hairlines*. (F.I.F., p.52)

Kāzīno ro dor mīzādīm va donbāle moshakhaseye pedaram *yek sare kam mū* mīgashīm. (ع.س.ع.ک، ص.52)

According to Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, recede (of hair) means to stop growing at the front of the head. This frame represents a man whose hair has receded but the Persian equivalent reflects the visual frame and cultural conceptualization of a man who doesn’t have much hair on all over the head. Therefore, it can be concluded that the frame is distorted in the TT translation.

Institutional Frame

CHAMPAGNE

Unwilling to abandon his *champagne* wishes and caviar dreams, my father dreamed of ways to get rich that required neither hard work nor further education. (F.I.F., p.14)

Ū ke nemikhāst az ārezūhāye *shāmpāyn* va khāvīyārash dast bekeshad, barāye pūldār shodan dar ārezūye rāhī būd ke na be kāre zīād ehtiyāj dāshat va na be tahsīlāte bishtar. (ع.س.ع.ک، ص.21)

The ST author has made use of the word ‘champagne’ which activates the frame and cultural conceptualization of something ideal, luxurious and of course expensive for the ST reader. However, due to restrictions in the TT culture, the TT reader has no access to such a frame. Nevertheless, this loss is partially compensated by the other word ‘Caviar’ which reflects the frame of expensiveness to the reader.

V. DISCUSSION

Based on the comparative analysis of the data and their translations into Persian, it was revealed that Social Frames category ranked the first, with 29 cases out of a total of 70 examples, which approximately included %41 of the whole data. Generally, it could be concluded that the translators’ failure to render Social Frames of the ST into equivalent ones in TT results in an imbalance in the level of formality of TT in comparison with that of the ST. The next category was related to Visual Frames with 25 instances accounting for approximately %35 of all the examples found. The translators’ failure in this case led to a poor mental image of the visual information incorporated in the text, i.e. the gestures, movements, scenes, images etc. The third category went to Institutional Frames with 9(≈%11) instances, in most cases of which the distortion of the frames resulted in blockage of the TT readers’ access to ST frames and consequently incomprehension of the text. The next category was that of Situational Frames with 3(≈%4) instances, the wrong translation of which resulted in a confusion or misunderstanding of the text. Generic Frames comprised 2 (≈%3) general instances, the distortion of which prevented the translator to achieve similar prototypes similar to the ones created by the ST narrator. And finally, Text Type Frames with 1(≈%1) instance. Although other frames outnumbered

this type of frame, it is significant to consider that ignorance of their existence distorts the humorous effect to a great extent. The study implicates that, since the Frame Semantics goes beyond the word level and the linguistic limitations of the formal linguistics traditional theories; it can be regarded as a very useful framework in translation and analysis of humorous texts.

To sum up, the notion of frame over and beyond the word and sentence level can help us understand the interaction between the textual information and the stored cultural conceptualizations. The Frame Semantics teaches translators and translation students to focus on the process of translation rather than merely the final product. Hence, in the light of the theoretical model of Frame Semantics adopted in this study which focuses on the cultural conceptualizations in both source and target texts' readers' mind, a higher degree of success in producing functional translations can be expected. Moreover, the framework implemented in this research can help translators and translation students to distinguish between the frames that organize our cultural conceptualizations and the linguistic expressions that activate such frames, which consequently lead to a more systematic and functional translation of cultural and humorous elements.

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EFL Students' English Pragmatic Knowledge: Evidence from University of Guilan*

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Abstract—This study aimed to investigate the extent of Iranian EFL students' pragmatic knowledge, and if there were any significant differences among EFL learners at different years of study (the freshmen, the sophomores, and the seniors) on this knowledge. To this end, 78 EFL students of University of Guilan (Rasht-Iran) were tested using a Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT), (Birjandi & Rezaei, 2010). The results showed that, their extent of pragmatic knowledge was not at satisfying level. Also, the results showed that there were significant differences between the freshmen and seniors in this regard.

Index Terms—English pragmatic knowledge, speech acts, request, apology

I. INTRODUCTION

For many years, the purpose of language teaching was to make language learners familiar with grammatical rules and huge amount of foreign words. But, gradually, teachers understood that English language students lacked the ability to communicate successfully in the foreign language (FL) in spite of being mastered at English grammar and vocabulary (Krisnawati, 2011). According to Hymes (1972), communicative ability to use a language in concrete situations is as important as linguistic competence which subsumes phonological, syntactic, and semantic subsystems. He believed that a normal child acquires not only knowledge of language but also how to use it in different context. "Communicative competence consists of grammatical competence as well as sociolinguistic competence, that is, factors governing successful communication" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p. 9).

SPEAKING is an acronym that Hymes (1972) used to introduce those factors:

Setting refers to the time, and place of a speech act.

Participants refers to the speaker and hearer.

Ends refers to the goal, purpose, or objectives of the communication.

Act sequence refers to the form, content, and order of the event.

key refers to the tone, manner, or spirit of the speech act.

Instrumentalities refers to the form and style of the speech act.

Norms refers to the principles of interaction and interpretation based on a shared social rules.

Genre refers to the kind of speech act or event (lecture, poem, report, etc.).

According to Bachman & Palmer (1996), pragmatic knowledge is assumed as one area of language knowledge. It focuses on "how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the feature of the language use setting" (p. 68).

Barron (2003) defined pragmatic competence as:

knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources (p. 10).

Amaya (2008) stated:

..., Teachers should provide students with the necessary tools to make adequate pragmatic decisions in the second language (L2). Students must learn that the codification of a certain message is subject to the conventions of use and these can vary from one linguistic community to another (p. 20).

A. English Pragmatic Knowledge- Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) focuses on language learners' knowledge of the target language norms and how they apply this knowledge in the performance of speech acts in L2 (Putz & Aertselaer, 2008). ILP is the L2 users' matter of concern. It is much more limited in comparison with pragmatics that could be

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assumed as a subfield of pragmatics (Bardovi-Haring, 2010). Pragmatics is one of the most important factors which helps L2 learners develop their communicative competence. L2 learners must be informed that being highly proficient in the areas of grammar, vocabulary, and four main skills of language learning (reading, listening, speaking, and writing) is necessary but not enough for them to be called perfect language learners. They definitely would have difficulty in interacting with English native speakers which is mostly due to cross-cultural differences. It is assumed that language teachers do not focus on pragmatic points which is one of the considerable part of the language (Castillo, 2009). Language learners may make errors in their communication and fail to express themselves quite clear or understand the intended meaning of the speaker or writer, although they are perfect language learners (Thomas, 1983).

Baba (2010) worked on the ILP of indirect complaint among Japanese ESL learners. The study investigated that how Japanese ESL learners express their emotions when they want to use the speech act of indirect complaint and what points should be considered by them in this situation. The results were compared with native Japanese and native English speakers. It was concluded that Japanese ESL learners don't show much aggression in comparison with native Japanese speakers or native English speakers. It may be due to lack of competence in their L2. The four strategies used by Japanese ESL learners were as follows: accommodation to L2 patterns, L1 negative transfer, overgeneralization of English language rules, and avoidance of using specific L2 features.

Jianda (2006) recognized that ILP knowledge is teachable and it is necessary and beneficial to raise the EFL learners' consciousness in this area. The reason which makes teachers unwilling to work on this aspect of L2 is mostly lack of a good method for testing the EFL learners in term of ILP. It is believed that gathering data from both native and non-native English speakers would be helpful for making test items. 89 Chinese EFL learners (31 of them were at tertiary level and 58 of them were at the first level) participated in this study. The findings revealed that teaching ILP in class is very important and EFL teachers and testers should consider it in their language teaching and testing programs.

B. Speech Acts- Austin (1975) presented the speech act theory which had three elements: 1. Locutionary act which is the utterance itself 2. Illocutionary act which is the intended meaning of speaker/writer 3. Perlocutionary act which is the effect of an utterance on the listener or reader according to the context. "The most important component of a speech act is the illocutionary act" (Kumaravadevelu, 2006, p.10). Levinson (1983) divided speech act theory into two parts: direct and indirect. In direct speech act, speakers make themselves quite clear in their speech. For example, 'Turn off the TV'. But in indirect speech act, speakers say something in a way that cannot be easily interpreted by others. According to Searle (1975), in indirect speech act "the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and non-linguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer" (pp. 60-61). For example, "I like my food quite salty" (Spencer-Oatey & Zegarac, 2010, p.76) instead of saying 'give me the salt'. Speech acts construct a great part of pragmatics. People try to express themselves not only with words, grammatical and structural patterns of language but also with doing actions via those utterances. For example, when a teacher tells his student that "You failed", it means that you did not get the least required score in that course and should take the course again (Yule, 1996).

..., the basic assumption [for "action"] is that when humans use language, they act both in and on the world. Human beings use language to create obligations and new social relations as well as do such things as reassure, promise, and apologize (Locastro, 2012, p. 21).

Mulyanah (2013) worked on the intercultural pragmatic failure in terms of Yes-No answer to a question. The result showed that Indonesian people are hard to be understood in such cases. They say 'No' when they really mean 'Yes' and reply 'Yes' when they really mean 'No'. They believed that it is rude to talk quite frankly. For example, if you offer them something, they immediately refuse it till you repeat your offer again and again. This is so complicated for English native speakers because they can't understand what they really mean. Those who are not familiar with Indonesian culture think that they really mean 'No' when they say 'No', therefore, pragmatic failure happens. Sometimes, they forcefully and as a sign of politeness accept what you offer them, but finally they try to evade it. This is rude in English culture. Western people express their wants obviously and without complication.

Eliciting data from 120 Saudi and Yemeni males through MDCT, Al-Zubeiry (2013), recognized that Arab EFL learners highly use culture-specific expressions which cause troubles in cross-cultural communication and miscommunication happens. "Three related approaches - ethnography of communication, pragmatic failure and conversational Analysis - were reviewed so as to get insights into understanding such a phenomenon" (p. 69). The conclusion was that; Arab EFL learners should be made aware of the misuse of the culture-specific patterns while communicating in L2. They should also keep in mind that EFL pragmatic knowledge is very much needed for communicating in L2 and linguistic competence is not enough alone.

Han and Burgucu-Tazegul (2016) worked on the perception of speech acts of refusals by Turkish EFL learners in the use of speech act of refusals, and the effects of L2 proficiency on pragmatic transfer. The data was gathered through oral role plays. The results showed that indirect strategies were used mostly by L2 learners, although, pre-intermediate group used more direct strategies in comparison with upper-intermediate group. Turkish EFL learners considered the status more in comparison with English native-speakers' group. L1 pragmatic transfer influenced their use of refusal strategies. In addition, the more they increase their L2 language proficiency, the less, L1 pragmatic transfer was seen in their using of refusal strategies. So, upper-intermediate level behaved more native-like.

Kia and Salehi (2013) worked on the effect of explicit and implicit instruction on the pragmatic development of Iranian EFL learners in the area of thanking and complimenting. The participants were 46 Sharif university of Technology students in upper-intermediate level. They were freshmen who enrolled in general English classes. They were tested by MDCT after eight-session instruction. The results showed that explicit instruction is highly effective on the development of pragmatic competence of thanking and compliment speech acts. Students' language proficiency level doesn't guarantee that they can express native-like expressions of thanking and complimenting. Besides, grammatical and pragmatic correlation is not changed by explicit/implicit instruction of English thanking and complimenting.

C. Request- Trosborg (1995), defined speech act of request as "an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of speaker" (p. 187). Requests are "attempts on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action in the interests of the speaker" (Ellis, 2012, p. 172). Speech act of request is important to those who study in the area of speech acts. "This importance is due to the complexity in relationships between its form, meaning, as well as pragmatics and the critical social risks involved for speakers" (Alemi & Khanlarzadeh, 2016, p.21).

Tamimi Sa'd and Mohammadi (2014) did a cross-sectional study of request perspectives among Iranian EFL learners, the strategies they use in the speech act of request and the request perspectives they apply. The role of gender was considered in this research. They chose thirty Iranian MA students of English (15 males and 15 females) as participants. Data gathering procedure was done by discourse completion task. Six situations were designed in this DCT, each pair for one social status or relative power. Mood-derivable, query-preparatory, and strong hints were the most frequent strategies used by the participants. No major difference was observed between males and females in this regard. In addition, hearer-oriented perspective of request was mostly frequent among the participants in comparison with other request perspectives such as speaker-oriented, speaker-hearer-oriented, and impersonal which was due to language transfer from L1 or the first interaction with this type of perspective. Finally, it was mentioned that Iranian language learners need pragmatic instructions, so it should be considered in their English teaching program.

Shim (2013) conducted a study about how requestive emails from the Korean students are perceived by international faculty members. In appropriateness of an academic email some factors such as format, language forms, and the content are involved. 150 requestive emails were selected and evaluated by three professors. In addition, 40 messages were randomly chosen and the professors talked about their reasons of positive or negative perception for these messages. The results showed that students' (native and more specifically, non-native students) emails don't follow the politeness norms that are expected from an academic email. This failure can be due to "student's insufficient pragmalinguistic knowledge, improper assumption about the institutional rights and obligations, a transfer of text messaging practices, and simple carelessness" (p. 127). The researcher suggested two solutions for overcoming this failure: One solution is that students learn how to write a suitable academic email as a part of the curriculum. The other solution is inserting the guide-lines for writing a good academic email on the university website.

Aribi (2012) conducted a sociopragmatic study on the use of speech act of request by Tunisian EFL learners. Findings revealed that they used different types of requests (direct or indirect) according to the various social factors such as the power differential, the distance-closeness relationship and the degree of imposition of the request on the requestee. The greater the power differentiation, the greater the distance and the greater the ranking of imposition of request, the more careful and indirect the requester would be. In addition, their background knowledge and L1 influenced the kind of request they used.

D. Apology- Istifci and Kampusu (2009) believed that speech act of apology is culture-specific. Juhana (2011) stated:

An apology is a speech act used when the behavioral norm is broken. When an action or utterances has resulted that one or more persons perceives themselves as offended, the guilty person(s) needs to apologize. The speech act of apologizing aims at maintaining, restoring, and enhancing interpersonal relationship. ..., An apology serves compensatory action to an offence which the guilty person admits guilt to what he has done and asks for the speaker's forgiveness (p. 2).

Bagheri and Hamrang (2013) worked on the effect of meta-pragmatic instructions on the interpretation and use of apology speech acts of English on Iranian intermediate EFL learners. The participants were 60 English students of Shokouh English institute in Rasht, Iran. All the volunteers were asked to participate in Oxford placement test (OPT) to make sure that they are homogeneous in terms of language proficiency. This test includes 50 items and those who got above 25 scores could go on the other steps of this study. Subjects were divided into two groups (control and experimental). All of them were given a pre-test. The participants in experimental group went under 10 sessions of treatment. The results showed that language learners are not aware of the appropriate use of the speech acts according to the context. They believed that some instructional course is beneficial in this case. EFL learners raise their consciousness in this area by explicit instruction. In addition, the suitable material should be provided for teaching pragmatic aspects of an L2.

Zangoei and Derakhshan (2014) investigated the role of awareness- raising instruction in Iranian EFL learners' perception of speech act of apology and their preferred learning styles. The results of an MDCT (as both pre and post-tests) verified the positive effects of instruction in developing the comprehension of speech act of apology. In addition,

the data gathered by this test revealed no difference in learners' preferred learning style before and after the treatment except for 'the expression of satisfaction in English progress'.

Although, many studies have been conducted on pragmatic issues, more works are needed to investigate the various pragmatic choices made by L2 learners in different situations. Therefore, this study aimed to fill the gap in literature regarding the assessment of EFL students' knowledge of speech acts of apology and request related to the language classes. It also investigated whether or not, there were significant differences among EFL learners of different years of study in this case. To this end, the following research questions were addressed:

1- What is the extent of English pragmatic knowledge of Iranian EFL students (in this case just the speech acts of request and apology related to the language classes)?

2- Are there any significant differences among EFL students of different years of study in terms of pragmatic knowledge (in this case just the speech acts of request and apology related to the language classes)?

And this is the hypothesis of the study:

There are no significant differences among EFL students of different years of study in terms of their English pragmatic knowledge (in this case just the speech acts of request and apology related to the language classes).

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Research Design- It was a quantitative research. The English pragmatic knowledge of Iranian EFL students (here by pragmatic knowledge, we mean their knowledge of speech acts of apology and request) was measured using a Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT, Birjandi & Rezaei, 2010). Iranian EFL students' scores in MDCT was assumed as the dependent variable and different years of study (the freshmen, the sophomores, and the seniors) was considered as the independent variable.

B. Participants- The participants of the study were 78 Iranian BA English students of University of Guilan at three years of study (forty freshmen, eighteen sophomores, and twenty seniors). Their age range from 18 to 24, and their mean age was 21.

C. Research Instrument and Procedure- To collect the required data, Multiple Discourse Completion Test (MDCT), (Birjandi & Rezaei, 2010) has been used in this study. It contained twenty multiple-choice items. Each item defined a situation. Participants needed to choose the best answer which suited to that specific situation. All these items tested students' pragmatic knowledge in terms of speech acts of apology and request related to the language classes.

The data collection procedure was done by the researcher. Data was collected from EFL students of four BA classes in the faculty of Humanities, University of Guilan. Each class had the capacity of almost twenty students. The anonymity and confidentiality were ensured before starting the data gathering procedure. It took 10 minutes for them to complete the MDCT.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

One point was given to each correct answer, and no points for incorrect answers, for a total of 20 points. One-way Analyses of variance was run to the results of the MDCT. Before running this test, tests of the underlying assumptions were done. The first assumption was the assumption of independence. That is, it should be confirmed that the groups were independent of each other. As, it was obvious from the design of the study, the groups (i.e., the freshmen, the sophomores and the seniors) were independent of each other. Moreover, the assumption of normality for the independent variable (i.e. three years of the study, i.e., the freshmen, the sophomores and the seniors) was also examined. To test the assumption of normality, the Shapiro-Wilks test, which is typically tested at ($\alpha = .01$) level of significance was used. The standardized Skewness measure of normality was also used in conjunction with the Shapiro-Wilk test to check the normality assumption (See Table 1).

TABLE 1
TESTS OF NORMALITY FOR THE PRAGMATIC TEST

	Levels of study	Kolmogorov-Smirnov			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
pragmatic knowledge test scores	freshmen	.135	40	.065	.957	40	.131
	sophomores	.127	18	.200	.982	18	.968
	seniors	.174	20	.114	.904	20	.049

The p value for the pragmatic test of the freshman group was .131, that for the sophomores was .968, and for the pragmatic scores of the seniors the p value was .049. Given the aforementioned p values for the Shapiro-Wilks test and using $\alpha = .01$, it was concluded that each of the levels of the independent variable (i.e., different years of the study including the freshmen, the sophomores, and the seniors) were normally distributed. Therefore, the assumption of normality had been met for this sample. Besides, the normality of the distributions was examined through computing Skewness and Kurtosis values and obtaining trimmed means that presented the normal distribution of this variable, too.

TABLE 2
STATISTICS FOR THE PRAGMATIC TEST SCORES

Levels of study				Statistic	Std. Error
Pragmatic knowledge test scores	freshmen	Mean		14.30	.397
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	13.49	
			Upper Bound	15.10	
			5% Trimmed Mean	14.38	
		Skewness		-.613	.374
	Kurtosis		.053	.733	
	sophomores	Mean		14.44	.543
		95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	13.29	
			Upper Bound	15.59	
			5% Trimmed Mean	14.43	
Skewness			.064	.536	
Kurtosis		.015	1.038		
seniors	Mean		12.40	.772	
	95% Confidence Interval for Mean	Lower Bound	10.78		
		Upper Bound	14.01		
		5% Trimmed Mean	12.44		
	Skewness		-.036	.512	
Kurtosis		-1.57	.992		

To compute the trimmed means, first, 5 percent of the highest and lowest cases were removed and a new mean score was calculated. Then, the main mean values and the trimmed means were compared to investigate the possible differences between the two means for the pragmatic test scores. The findings showed that the extreme scores did not affect the means. These results implied that, since the trimmed means and the mean values were nearly the same for the pragmatic test scores, the values were not too different from the remaining distribution, and thus the normality assumption was established. Moreover, the values of the Skewness and kurtosis were divided by their related std. Error. The resultant z values were within the range of (± 1.96) indicating the uniformity of the distributions.

After examining the normality assumption, the test of homogeneity of variances provided the Levene's test to check the assumption that the variances of the three groups were equal; i.e., They were not significantly different. It was shown that the Levene's test was not significant for the pragmatic test scores; $F_{pragmatic\ test\ scores}(2, 75) = 5.069, p = .059$ at .05 alpha level. Thus, the assumption of homogeneity of variance was met for the samples.

TABLE 3
TEST OF HOMOGENEITY OF VARIANCES FOR THE PRAGMATIC TEST SCORES

Pragmatic knowledge test scores			
Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
5.069	2	75	.059

The Levene statistics confirmed the hypothesis that the group variances were almost the same (see the following error bar graphs).

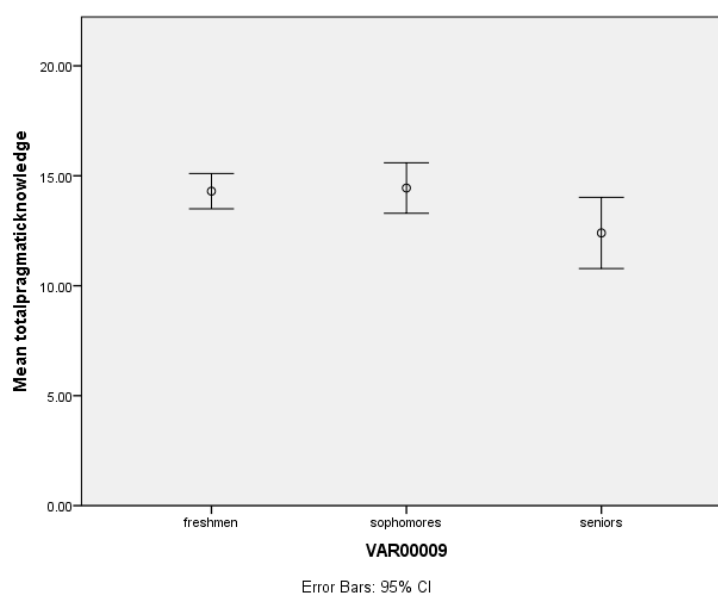


Fig. 1 Error bars for examining the homogeneity of variances assumption

As it was displayed in the above figure, the degree of the variation in the participants' performance was similar simultaneously. After verifying the uniformity of the variance across the three groups, descriptive statistics of the three groups for the pragmatic test scores were computed.

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics for the pragmatic test including group size, mean, and standard deviation, minimum and maximum scores for the three groups of students on the dependent variable that was the pragmatic test scores.

TABLE 4
GROUP STATISTICS FOR THE PRAGMATIC TEST SCORES OF THE THREE GROUPS (THE FRESHMEN, SOPHOMORES, AND THE SENIORS)

	N	Mean	SD	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Min.	Max.
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
freshmen	40	14.30	2.51	.39	13.49	15.10	8.00	19.00
sophomores	18	14.44	2.30	.54	13.29	15.59	10.00	19.00
seniors	20	12.40	3.45	.77	10.78	14.01	7.00	17.00
Total	78	13.84	2.83	.32	13.20	14.48	7.00	19.00

The ANOVA table (Table 5) shows that the overall F ratio (3.760) for the ANOVA was significant ($p = .028$) at the .05 alpha level. So, the null hypothesis that all three groups' means were equal was rejected ($F_{\text{pragmatic test } 2, 75} = 3.760$, Sig. = $.028 \leq .05$). It was concluded that at least one of the group means was significantly different from the others.

TABLE 5
ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE PRAGMATIC TEST SCORES

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	56.509	2	28.255	3.760	.028
Within Groups	563.644	75	7.515		
Total	620.154	77			

The following figure clarifies the three groups' performance on pragmatic test.

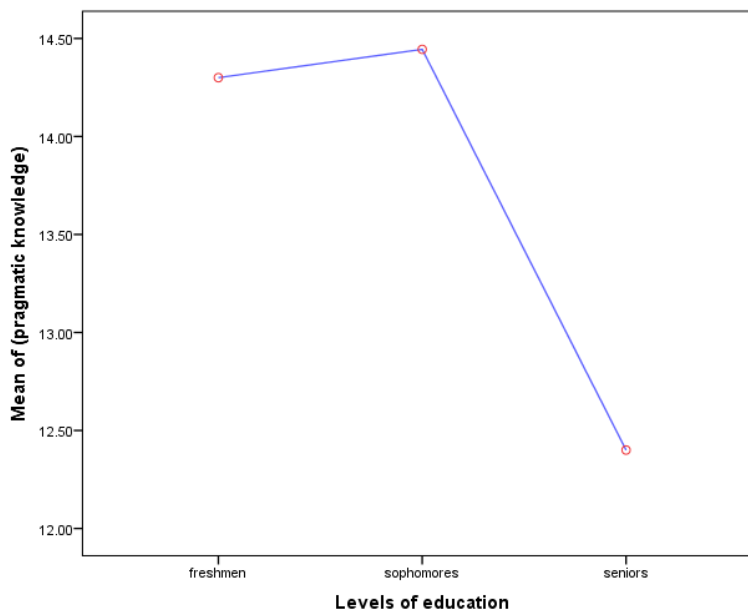


Fig. 2 Mean plot for the results of the pragmatic test

The visual representation of the group means and their linear relationship was displayed in figure2. The plot showed notable differences among the three groups. In general, F statistics (Table 5) firmly showed that there were statistically significant differences among the three groups' means, and the means plot revealed the location of these differences. And based on table 3 we could say that sophomores outperformed their counterparts namely freshmen and seniors (mean_{freshmen} = 14.30, mean_{sophomores} = 14.44, and mean_{seniors} = 12.40).

Consequently, a post hoc follow-up test was conducted to determine which means differed significantly from others. In other words, multiple comparisons Post- hoc test (Scheffe) was done to compare the means of the three groups.

TABLE 6
MULTIPLE COMPARISONS FOR THE RESULTS OF THE POST-HOC TEST

Multiple Comparisons						
Dependent Variable: pragmatic knowledge						
Scheffe						
(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
freshmen	sophomores	-.144	.77	.983	-2.08	1.79
	seniors	1.90*	.75	.046	.02	3.77
sophomores	freshmen	.144	.77	.983	-1.79	2.08
	seniors	2.04	.89	.078	-.17	4.26
seniors	freshmen	-1.90*	.75	.046	-3.77	-.02
	sophomores	-2.04	.89	.078	-4.26	.17

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

As it was displayed in Table 6, the highest mean difference was reported between the seniors and sophomores with mean difference of (2.04). In contrast, the lowest mean difference was shown for the freshmen and sophomores with (mean difference=.144). The significant difference was between the freshmen and seniors.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The highest pragmatic test score that could be obtained in this test was 20. The comparison between this score and the achieved mean scores (mean_{freshmen} = 14.30; SD= 2.51; mean_{sophomores} =14.44; SD = 2.30; mean_{seniors} = 12.40; SD = 3.45 and the total pragmatic test scores of the EFL students (N_{total} = 78; mean_{total} = 13.84; SD = 2.83)), showed that the extent of Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge was not that much high. Although, the researcher could find no particular paper or thesis that worked exactly on this issue, there were some studies relatively similar to the present research. Findings of Ahmadi, Kargar, and Rostampour (2014) revealed that the speech act strategies used by Iranian EFL learners were not similar to the native patterns. It may be because of lack of English pragmatic knowledge or L1 negative transfer in this case. Findings of Saeidi, Yazdani, and Gharagozlou (2014) also revealed that L1 negative transfer caused inappropriate production of expressions and strategies by Iranian EFL learners.

A comparison among pragmatic test scores of the freshmen (mean_{freshmen} = 14.30; SD = 2.51), the sophomores (mean_{sophomores} =14.44; SD = 2.30), the seniors (mean_{seniors} = 12.40; SD = 3.45), ((F ratio_{pragmatic test} (2, 75) = 3.760; p = .028; Sig. = .028 ≤ .05) revealed that there were significant differences between the freshmen and seniors. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. So, the answer to the second research question is yes. Sophomores outweighed the other two groups in terms of the pragmatic test scores. In the second place, freshmen performed better than the seniors. Finally, the participants in the senior group performed lower than the other two groups. As far as the researcher knows, no particular study was found to compare pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners of different years of study. But, there were some similar researches which worked on pragmatic competence of EFL learners. Based on the findings of Mohebbali and Salehi (2016), there is a negative relationship between language proficiency and pragmatic proficiency. It means that language proficiency should not necessarily be assumed as a sign of pragmatic proficiency. EFL learners can be mastered at language knowledge but have difficulty in pragmatic knowledge. In contrast, findings of Hamidi and Khodareza (2014) revealed that there is a strong positive correlation between language proficiency and pragmatic proficiency. It means that more grammatically proficient EFL learners, perform better in pragmatic test. Istifci and Kampusu (2009) compared advanced Turkish EFL learners with the intermediate ones in terms of speech act of apology. Although, some similarities and differences in comparison with the native norms were found in both groups, advanced learners performed better and nearer to the native patterns.

It is hoped that findings of the present study help all who are dealing with EFL teaching and learning. Language students may understand that EFL pragmatics are important and neglecting it could be troublesome. They would be aware that EFL pragmatic issues should be considered along with grammatical knowledge (grammar, vocabulary, and syntax). Language teachers may try to allot a certain time of their classes to discuss the pragmatic issues. Curriculum designers may specify some courses to EFL pragmatics. Material developers may include more pragmatic-oriented units and try to consider both linguistic and pragmatic aspects of the L2 equally in the textbooks.

This study investigated the Iranian EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge in terms of speech acts of request and apology related to the language classes. Further studies need to be done in this area considering other aspects of pragmatics. Additionally, pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners of different years of study were compared in this research. Pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners of universities and private institutes can be compared with each other in further research. The comparison can also be done between EFL learners of Azad University and the public one in the future research.

APPENDIX PRAGMATICS TEST: APOLOGY AND REQUEST

Please read each of the following situations. There are three responses following each situation. Please read the responses to each situation and decide which one is the BEST in each situation. The time allotted to answer the test is 10 minutes.

Situation 1

Suppose you are late for an important class and the teacher is very punctual and principled. How would you express your apology in this situation?

The Teacher: This is the third time you're late for this class. Next time I won't let you in.

You:

- I understand. I won't be late again.
- Sorry but the important thing is that I attend, right?
- Things happen in life, sorry.

Situation 2

You have been asked to hand in your project, and the time is due. However, you have not prepared it, and you want to make an apology for that. How would you express your apology in this situation?

The Teacher: I told you that there won't be an extension. Why didn't you prepare your term project?

You:

- Sorry but I had too much other homework from my other projects to finish this one on time.
- Well, I had some unexpected problems, so you should make an exception for me.
- That's true. I'm sorry. I had some unexpected obstacles, but I understand that this is the policy.

Situation 3

You are almost asleep in the class while the teacher is teaching. The teacher gets very angry when he sees you sleeping in the class. How do you express your apology?

The Teacher: Did you sleep well last night?

You:

- I'm sorry; I will try and not let it happen again.
- I'm sorry, but I didn't sleep a wink last night.
- Pardon me. I couldn't help it.

Situation 4

Your teacher is giving a lecture on an important topic. You have a related question to that part of his lecture. How do you interrupt your teacher?

The Teacher: ...constructivist views are very important for.... (interruption)

You:

- I don't understand what you are talking about.
- Sorry but I really don't understand what are you saying!
- I'm sorry to ask but could you explain a little more?

Situation 5

Your cell phone suddenly starts ringing loudly amid a very serious discussion in the class. How would you apologize to the teacher?

The Teacher to the class: It is very important to respect each other's (the phone rings) views.

You:

- I'm sorry! This is an important call. I'll just step out for a moment.
- (Immediately silencing the phone, which should have been silenced or turned off before the class meeting, and speaking in a very low volume so as not to increase the interruption)—I'm sorry.
- Oh, no! I meant to turn my phone off at the beginning of the class!

Situation 6

You have an appointment with your family doctor and you need to leave early in order to be on time for your appointment with the doctor. How do you express your apology to your teacher when you ask for an early leave?

You: because this appointment is very important for my health.

The Teacher: No problem. Just don't forget to ask your classmates about the pages we will cover next session.

- Excuse me. I am wondering if it would be OK for me to leave the class early for a doctor's appointment....
- Excuse me! I have to leave now for a doctor's appointment.
- I have to go now; please tell me whether I'll miss anything important.

Situation 7

Suppose that the teacher is teaching and you are talking to your classmate. The teacher gets angry with you. How do you express your apology?

The Teacher: Don't you think it is impolite to speak while I'm teaching?!

You:

- I beg your pardon. I won't let it happen again.
- OK OK...I guess you're right.
- Excuse me. I didn't mean to interrupt you.

Situation 8

You are daydreaming in the class and lose track of what the teacher has said. At once, he asks you a question about the topic under discussion. You are totally unaware of what has been going on in the class. How do you apologize?

The teacher: What are you thinking about? Are you following me?

You:

- a. Sorry; I wasn't listening to you. What did you say?
- b. I'm really sorry I got sidetracked for a moment.
- c. I was thinking of something else; I don't understand what you are saying.

Situation 9

You are not ready for the class and you can't answer the questions asked by the teacher. How do you apologize for not being ready for the class?

The teacher: I told you several times that you must be always ready for the class. Why didn't you study this chapter?

You:

- a. I'm terribly sorry. I did study the material, but I am having trouble understanding it.
- b. I didn't have time to do the reading.
- c. I need to apologize and say that I had too much other work to do.

Situation 10

You borrowed a book from your teacher but you accidentally spilled a cup of coffee all over it. You return it to the teacher. How do you apologize to him/her?

The Teacher: (very angry) I can't believe it. This was the only copy I had.

You:

- a. Sorry, it was an accident, chill out.
- b. I am deeply sorry. Please allow me to replace the copy.
- c. I'm desperately sorry but accidents happen, you know?

Situation 11

Suppose you have not understood what the teacher has just explained about "simple past tense". How do you ask for explanations about the structure of this tense?

- a. Should I ask you a question?
- b. How can I ask you a question?
- c. Excuse me sir, may I ask you a question?

Situation 12

Suppose you have a listening class and you cannot hear what is played on T.V. How would you ask your teacher to turn it up?

- a. I'm sorry, but I cannot hear.
- b. I'll ask you to turn it up.
- c. What? Turn it up please.

Situation 13

Suppose the teacher is writing with a red marker on the board, and the color really disturbs your eyes. How would you request the teacher to use a different color?

- a. Why are you writing with red! It's a pain in the neck.
- b. I think you must use another color or I won't see anything on the board.
- c. Excuse me; I can't read that color of pen; do you think that you could use another color when writing on the board?

Situation 14

Suppose you have been absent the previous session, and you have not understood a specific part on your own. How would you ask your teacher to give a brief explanation about that part?

- a. Could you tell me what I missed last class?
- b. Could you please review the grammar very quickly...
- c. I don't understand the material from the previous class meeting.

Situation 15

The teacher has announced the date of midterm exam but you have another exam on that same day. How would you ask your teacher to change the date of the exam?

- a. You need to change the date of the exam. We already have an exam on that day.
- b. Could you please possibly take the exam some other day?
- c. Couldn't we just not have the exam? We have one exam already on that day.

Situation 16

Suppose the teacher is using power point for teaching writing in the class. How would you ask your teacher for the power point file?

- a. Is there any way that I could get a copy of the power point you used today to study with?
- b. Professor, would it be possible for me to get a digital copy of those slides? You should e-mail those slides to the students.
- c. Is it ok if I get a copy of your PowerPoint?

Situation 17

Suppose you have got 14 on your reading test and you are sure that your score must have been higher. How would you ask your teacher to check your paper again?

- a. I know that I did better than 14. You must have made a mistake when you were grading.
- b. I studied really hard for this test and I thought that I would do better than 14. Is there any way that you could review my test and double check my grade?
- c. You need to recheck my test. I don't think that I got a 14 on this test.

Situation 18

Suppose you need a recommendation letter for teaching at an English language institute very urgently for tomorrow. How would you ask your teacher to do that?

- a. Can you write me a recommendation letter? And I need it by tomorrow.
- b. I wonder if you could possibly give me a recommendation letter for my workplace.
- c. Could you please write me a letter of recommendation really quickly? The deadline is tomorrow and it's really important!

Situation 19

Suppose that you need to have your teacher's phone number in case you might have some questions while studying. How would you ask for his/her phone number?

- a. Could you possibly provide me with a telephone number where I could contact you with questions I might have during the class?
- b. I am going to need your telephone number so that I can call you with any problems I might have when I am studying.
- c. Is it Ok if I ask for your phone number in case I face any problems while studying?

Situation 20

Suppose you want to have an appointment with the teacher this week for asking some questions about your term project. How do you ask him for an appointment?

- a. Excuse me; are you available this week for me to ask a few questions about my term project?
- b. Would you like to keep your appointment with me?
- c. Do you mind if I arrange an appointment with you for this week?

Thanks for your participation

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Three Primary Tasks of the First College English Class in China

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Abstract—College English is a compulsory course for college students in China, which has a far-reaching influence on students' further study and job development. How to conduct the first class of college English well is a tough task for college English teachers. For the success of the first class of college English, teachers should stimulate students' learning motivation, introduce the characteristics and requirements of college English and raise students' awareness of learning strategy and learner autonomy.

Index Terms—motivation, teaching requirements, autonomous learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Well begun is half done. College English teachers have long been thinking about the question of how to succeed in teaching the first college English class. In the first English class what to teach, and what effect it will have on freshmen in their future English learning are worthy of further research. But unfortunately, so far not much relevant research has been found on this topic.

Because of the new life and study environment, college freshmen generally will feel lost about university life and study. In this case, guidance and help from teachers are necessary. In order to meet the needs of freshmen, orientation is carried out in most western universities, similar to domestic university freshmen education, starting from the register day. Orientation is an introductory training program according to the needs of students, the purpose of which is to enable students to adapt to the new living and learning environment as soon as possible, and help students set new goals and take on the new roles of college students (Chen, 2006) The first class of College English should not be limited to self introduction of the teacher and students, and the introduction of teaching material, teaching plan and syllabus. College English teachers in the first class should answer three important questions: Why should students learn college English? What are the requirements of college English? How to learn college English well? The paper will explore the three primary tasks of the first college English class from the perspectives of background and significance.

II. STIMULATING FRESHMEN'S ENGLISH LEARNING MOTIVATION AND HELPING THEM TO SET COLLEGE ENGLISH LEARNING OBJECTIVES

First and foremost, one of the three primary tasks of the first English class college English teachers should accomplish is to motivate freshmen to learn college English. It is widely acknowledged that motivating freshmen to learn English is of vital importance to the success of college English teaching and learning. F.A.W. Diesterweg, German educator, once wrote: The art of teaching lies not in imparting knowledge, but in motivating, awakening and inspiring students.

A. *The Importance of Motivation*

Gardner (1985) defined motivation as "the combination of effort plus desire to achieve the goal of learning the language plus favorable attitudes toward learning the language." According to Dornyei (1994), "Motivation is responsible for why people decided to do something, how long they are willing to sustain the activity, and how hard they are going to pursue it." There are two authoritative classifications of motivation. They are integrative vs. instrumental motivation and intrinsic vs. extrinsic motivation. Learners with integrative motivation want to learn a language in order to communicate with people of the target society and culture. In contrast, learners with "instrumental motivation" want to learn a language because it will be useful for certain goals, such as passing a test, getting a job, improving status, obtaining certificates and so on. Intrinsic motivation derives from learners' interest in the learning activity itself and there is no apparent award except the learning. Extrinsic motivation, however, occurs when learners acquire a language for external reasons such as winning others' approval, obtaining scholarship, furthering career and so on.

Motivation plays an essential part in language learning. Psychological research finds that a man lack of motivation can develop 20%-30% of his potential while a highly motivated man can develop 80%-90% of his potential. Skehan

(1989) pointed out that “motivation is the second most powerful factor in forecasting language learning effects and it is only after aptitude.” Scientific research shows that the relationship between motivation and academic achievements is typically complementary. That is, high level of motivation is conducive to achieving a high academic performance, and in turn, high academic performance arouses further motivation.

B. *College Students' Motivational Problems*

In high school a large majority of students have instrumental or extrinsic motivation to learn English well. Both teachers and students have the clear objective and most students are highly motivated to pass the College Entrance Examination with high scores so that students will have good chances to enter ideal universities. Once they enter college, this instrumental or extrinsic motivation disappears and they feel lost and are lack of motivation to learn English. There are some students at college who have integrative motivation, sometimes intrinsic motivation for English study, they enjoy learning English and long to communicate with people from English-speaking countries. But generally speaking, unmotivated students who are absent minded at English class are widespread on campus. Some students who are top students in high school even skip English class and fail English term examinations.

C. *Stimulating Freshmen's English Learning Motivation*

One of the primary tasks of the first English class is to re-stimulate students' English learning motivation and help them set realistic objectives. Therefore the next question is how to motivate freshmen to learn college English.

1. *Imbuing Freshmen with the Importance of English Study*

Most college students are clear about the importance of English in today's society such as job hunting. Kai-fu Lee (2005) maintained Chinese students learning English well is a patriotic act in his fourth letter to college students in China: *How to Spend College Life*. He believed “English is the most important tool for communication in the 21st century. In the next decades, English will be used to cover the most comprehensive news, the most advanced ideas and technology as a means of communication between intellectuals all over the world....China is opening up and is in great need of advanced ideas and technology, thus a good command of English is real patriotic.”

Some people may hold that Lee's opinion is to a degree radical, but it does make sense. Freshmen should be reminded that English study in China is behind that of other developing countries. In terms of English vocabulary size of college students, college students in Japan should command 10,000 English vocabulary; in Russia the required vocabulary is 15,000; in Germany high school students have already mastered English; in China the basic required English vocabulary size is only 4,795. College students are the hope and future of China, so they bear the responsibility of introducing China to the world and introducing the world to China. English will serve as the bridge to connect China with the world and its importance could not be overemphasized.

2. *Helping Freshmen to Set College English Learning Objectives*

As is known to all that learning without objectives will go now here; a man without goals cannot go far. Clear learning objectives can motivate learners to persevere and never give up easily. The learning objectives are not only the direction for college students, but also the criteria for evaluating their progress. Suitable, short-term objectives such as passing College English Test Band 4 or Band 6 will give them a sense of achievement when they fulfill them and thus will drive them towards long-term objectives such as preparing for graduate study at home or abroad.

3. *Arousing Freshmen's Interest in English Study*

Since interest is the best teacher, college English teachers should come up with a variety of ways to arouse students' interest. Flexible teaching methods, various teaching activities, harmonious teacher-student relationship and highly involved class and so on are beneficial to maintaining freshmen's interest in English study.

III. INTRODUCING THE REQUIREMENTS AND CHARACTER OF COLLEGE ENGLISH CURRICULUM

In the first college English class teachers should also let students know the concrete requirements of the college English subject. If freshmen do not understand the requirements of college English curriculum, they may limit their study to textbook learning and can not get a whole picture of the course. College students should also be informed at the beginning the characteristics of college English and make adjustments to it.

A. *The Requirements of College English Curriculum*

In the first college English class students should be informed of College English Curriculum Requirements (Requirements hereinafter). In 2007 the Ministry of Education of the P.R. China formally issued the Requirements as the guidelines for English instruction to non-English major students at tertiary level. The Requirements stipulates the character and objectives of College English, the teaching requirements, teaching model, teaching evaluation, course design, teaching administration and other aspects. The requirements for undergraduate College English teaching are designed at three levels, i.e., basic requirements, intermediate requirements, and higher requirements. Non-English majors are required to satisfy the basic requirements after studying and practicing English at college. The basic requirements are the minimum level which all non-English majors have to fulfill before graduation. The basic requirements cover six aspects: listening, speaking, reading, writing, translation and recommended vocabulary. If the freshmen are clear about the detailed requirements, they will have specific objectives in English study and mentally

prepared to meet the requirements.

B. *The Character of College English Curriculum*

The first character of college English curriculum is the focus on the use of English, especially listening and speaking. The Requirements states “the objective of College English is to develop students’ ability to use English in a well-rounded way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future studies and careers as well as social interactions they will be able to communicate effectively...” In 2011, the Ministry of Education of the People’s Republic of China promulgated The English Curriculum Standards of Compulsory Education (Curriculum Standards hereinafter). It should be noted that the Curriculum Standards and the Requirements are consistent concerning the English teaching objectives. The Curriculum Standards writes clearly that one objective of English of compulsory education is to enable students to master basic English language, develop basic English skills including speaking, listening, reading, writing, and the ability to communicate with others in English. But in China, both teachers and students in high school are faced with great pressure of College Entrance Examination. The teaching model in high school is test-oriented, with focus on test skills and English knowledge of vocabulary, grammar, sentence structure and so on, ignoring the students’ ability to use language. In some provinces such as Gansu, Jiangxi the English test of College Entrance Examination does not include listening comprehension. So listening is not included in high school English course. When students from such provinces go to college, they find it hard for them to understand English teachers at class, let alone English lectures. Freshmen should shift their focus of English study to language use, especially listening and speaking and adjust themselves to college English study.

The second character of college English curriculum is the low recurrence rate of glossary at English class. The vocabulary size of The Curriculum Standards in high school is 3,300, while the recommended vocabulary of the basic requirements at college is 4,795. This means in two years college English study, students are required to master 2,495 English vocabulary whereas in six years at high school, they only learn 3,300 English words. It is a big challenge for most college students. Due to the limitation of class time, college English teachers can not drill the new vocabulary at class like high school English teachers. After class college students do not have much exercises to hand in as to the use of new words. Many new words may appear only once in two years of textbook learning and classroom learning, so they can not be consolidated and stored in long-term memory. No wonder many college students complain they can not memorize any new words at college if they just attend English class and do not review them after class.

The Requirements clearly points out that the objective of college English teaching is to enable students to use English to communicate effectively in the future at work and social intercourse. But even if the students have mastered 4,795 English vocabulary, communication can go smoothly in English? In other words, college students with such a vocabulary can understand the English TV programs, read English newspapers and communicate without language obstacles with people from English-speaking countries? Unfortunately the answer is no. According to the research by *The English-Chinese Dictionary*, if people have a command of less than 6,000 English vocabulary, their English level is similar to that of a child in English speaking countries. They will have great difficulty in reading, writing and communication in English speaking countries. If people have an English vocabulary of 12,000-18,000, their English level is equal to that of an average adult with ordinary education in English speaking countries. They could basically use English in life or at work. If freshmen know such information, they will set their own goals in English study, especially for students who intend to further their study abroad. They will not limit their English study to passing College English Test or meeting the basic requirements of college English.

The third character of college English curriculum is closely related to culture. As is known to all that language is an integral part of culture and plays an important role in it. Culture Without language would not be possible. But on the other hand, language is influenced and shaped by culture; it reflects culture. Language and culture interact and the understanding of language requires understanding of its culture. Differences in culture will lead to differences in language. When college students are learning English language, they should not restrict their learning to mastering the pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary etc. They should pay attention to the culture related to English. Successful inter-cultural communication is inseparable from a better understanding of the cultures involved. So college students should strive to understand the cultural similarities and most importantly the differences between Chinese and native speakers of English culture and western culture. The English word “uncle” can refer to five different concepts in Chinese and can be translated into different names according to different contexts, including 叔叔(father’s younger brother), 伯伯(father’s elder brother), 舅舅(mother’s brother), 姑夫(father’s sister’s husband), 姨父(mother’s sister’s husband). This reflects that in Chinese culture seniority and gender differences are laid stress on; on the contrary, the English culture equality is emphasized and such rules about seniority and gender generally are not so rigid as in China in history. Meanwhile, when college students are learning English and its culture, they have no reason to neglect the study of Chinese and Chinese culture. Language is the home of the human spirit, and the mother tongue is the root of our spirit. If we do not attach importance to our mother tongue and the culture of mother tongue, we are doomed to lose our spiritual home. (Ma, 2009)

The fourth character of college English curriculum is the relatively loose relationship between teachers and students. Due to the expansion of college enrollment from 1999 to 2012 in China, the number of freshmen had been on the rise at the rate of approximately 8%. Meanwhile, the number of college teachers had not increased at such high speed. This

phenomena lead to the larger size of class at college and the lower student-faculty ratio. The ratio of college English teacher to non-English major students he/she teaches is generally in China lower than 1:150. In a big class of more than 60 students, individualized instruction is almost out of the question. It is beyond the English teacher to satisfy the need of every student in study and interaction between students and teachers at class is limited to a few questions and answers. In addition, college English teachers are faced with professional research pressure, which will result in the lack of time and energy to communicate with students after class. In senior high, teachers pay close attention to student's study and mental state because of the pressure of College Entrance Examination, which in turn will motivate students to work harder. At college, the relation between students and teachers is not that close and intimate because of lack of enough interaction and communication, which will lead to students' lack of interest and motivation in study. If the freshmen get to know the new relation with college teachers, they will adapt to college life better and sooner.

IV. ENHANCING FRESHMEN'S AWARENESS OF ENGLISH LEARNING STRATEGY AND LEARNER AUTONOMY

Last but not least, the third important task of English teachers at the first English class is to enhance freshmen's awareness of how to learn college English well, which involves learning strategy and learner autonomy.

A. *The Significance of English Learning Strategies*

As the Chinese saying goes: Give a man some fish and he eats for a day; teach him how to fish and he eats for a lifetime. Effective learning strategies are proved to enhance the effectiveness of language learning. Good language learners are observed to employ more learning strategies to better help them understand, learn or remember new information in English learning than unsuccessful learners. Stern (1975) summarized ten strategies while Skehan (1989) put forward three types of learning strategies which are related to the language learning process, communication and self-regulation. These two overlaps as regard to learner autonomy, which is of decisive importance to college English learning in China.

B. *Autonomous Learning and Its Impact on English Learning*

Holec (1981) defines autonomous learning as "the ability to take charge of one's own learning". So autonomous learners have the capability of "determining the objectives, defining the contents and progression, selecting methods and techniques to be used, monitoring the procedure of acquisition and evaluating what has been required." There are different degrees of learner autonomy, and students will develop this competence of autonomous learning in class or outside class. In terms of the degree of learner autonomy and self-regulation, Littlewood (1999) divided learner autonomy into two categories: proactive autonomy and reactive autonomy. He used the term "proactive autonomy" to refer to "learners' ability to manage their own learning to determine their own aim, to select proper learning methods and evaluate their learning process and results." Reactive autonomy, on the other hand, refers to such a situation in which learners can not determine their own aims, but once the aims are decided by the teachers or teaching outlines, learners will manage their learning accordingly. Recent study suggests that students in western countries are able to decide the aims and process of learning, which is an example of proactive autonomy; while Chinese learners can not decide their learning aims, which is an example of reactive autonomy.

It has long been proved that autonomous learning ability is the key to the success of students' English learning and college academic achievements as well. Benson (1997) held that "autonomous learning is more or less equivalent to effective learning." When learners begin to take control of their learning and they learn what they are ready to learn, they become more efficient. When learners are responsible for their learning, they will not limit their learning within classroom and they carry out learning outside classroom. Research has proved that the ability of autonomous learning is closely related to the success of their learning achievements.

C. *The Necessity of Developing Learner Autonomy*

Littlewood (1999) once wrote: "No students, anywhere, will have their teachers accompany them through their life." In senior high school, students learn subjects including English under the close supervision and rigid guidance of teachers, sometimes parents as well. It is natural that students depend on teachers as regards learning material choice, the schedule of study etc. in that they do not have enough time and freedom to make decisions by themselves. When such high school students go to college, they are at a loss how to take charge of their own study. "Based on the present situation of college English teaching in China and the conditions of Chinese college students, college students can not enjoy full autonomy. That is because college students generally do not have the autonomous learning competence, so they can not take full responsibility for their study. Their autonomous learning is ineffective, lack of planning, monitoring, evaluation, and direction. It is about time to improve their learner autonomy at tertiary level" (Wang, 2002). Against such educational background, it is high time college students developed autonomous learning.

The competence of autonomous learning is the objective of college English teaching. The Quality Project of Higher Education by the Ministry of Education in China stipulates that college English teaching is to meet the demands of the times and helps college student develop the sustainable learning ability, thus improving the comprehensive quality of college students. (Zhang, 2008) The sustainable learning ability in English study refers to learner autonomy (Ma, 2009). The Requirements (2007) also provides that "the objectives of College English is to develop students' ability to use

English in a well-rounded way... and at the same time enhance their ability to study independently...The purpose of teaching, in the long run, is to develop students' ability of independent study and students take charge of their own study".

College students have a large amount of time at hand after class, which is the necessity for the cultivation of learner autonomy. As for English study, college students should individualize their own learning according to their English level in listening, speaking, reading, writing and translation. If they are too dependent on teachers to give them individualized instruction, and can not find suitable learning strategy for themselves, they can not achieve their learning objectives (Wang, 2002)

D. Developing Freshmen's English Learning Strategies and Learner Autonomy

College teachers should help students to develop learning strategy and autonomous learning ability. Of course, the cultivation of learning strategies and learner autonomy can not be accomplished in one class. But if freshmen are conscious of the significance of and learner autonomy, it is the first step to the command of effective learning strategy and learner autonomy. It takes months or even years to develop learner autonomy, and during this process English teachers will provide necessary guidance and direction, and students will take charge of their own study by and by. Students will become more and more positive about their study when they have more control over it and finally will know how to develop skills and acquire knowledge on their own.

V. CONCLUSION

The first college English class is of vital significance to college English teaching and learning, which is the prelude to the later college English teaching and plays a guiding role for the freshmen in their college English learning. In the first class, teachers and students will get to know each other, and college students will get to know the teaching material, teaching plan and the syllabus. More importantly, students should be clear about what to learn, how to learn college English and why college students still learn English. To be more specific, three primary tasks should be accomplished in the first college English class, that is, motivating freshmen to learn college English, explaining the requirements and characteristics of college English curriculum, and enhancing freshmen's awareness of English learning strategies, especially autonomous learning. An increasing number of college English teachers have now come to realize the importance of the first class and made great efforts to have a good beginning. More studies should be carried out in the hope of making full use of the first college English class in China.

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Enhancing Speaking Ability through Intervening Scaffolding Strategies

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Abstract—The present study set out to investigate the effect of intervening scaffolding strategies on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability. To do so, a sample of 60 Iranian EFL learners were selected based on their performance on Oxford Placement Test (OPT). The participants were then randomly assigned to two equal groups of experimental and control. The experimental group was taught speaking through intervening scaffolding by providing flexible opportunities for learners to use their knowledge, skills, and strategies in different contexts and for different purposes. Control group received routine techniques of speaking instruction. Based on the statistical results of the independent sample t-test, intervening scaffolding strategies had been proved to be successful in enhancing speaking ability of EFL learners

Index Terms—scaffolding strategies, intervening, speaking ability

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking is systematic articulation of verbal utterances in order to transfer meaning. It is “an interactive process of constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving, and processing information” (Flores, 1999, p. 1). It is “often spontaneous, open-ended, and evolving” (p. 1), but it is not completely unpredictable. Speaking is “the process of building and sharing meaning through the use of verbal and non-verbal symbols, in a variety of contexts” (Chaney and Burk, 1998, p. 13). Speaking in second language has a great value for individual language learners since their proficiency in language learning is often measured by productive skills specially speaking ability. According to Richards (2008), speaking is the primary skill for evaluating the efficacy of a course since it is a medium to realize the proficiency in other language skills and sub-skills. Haung (2006) stated that non- native speakers believe that speaking in the target language is one of the most demanding and crucial tasks in their everyday life. Regarding these facts, speaking can be considered as one of the most studied and discussed areas of applied linguistics.

Scaffolding is actually a bridge used to build upon what students already know to arrive at something they do not know. If scaffolding is properly administered, it will act as an enabler, not as a disabler” (Benson, 1997, p. 28). According to Benson (1997), there are many different facilitative tools such as making the task smaller and more, manageable parts or using think aloud protocol, dialogue among peers, concrete prompts, questioning, coaching and cue cards or modeling which promote teamwork which can be utilized in scaffolding student learning. Other examples of scaffolding are those which deal with activating learners' background knowledge, providing some points, strategies, cues and procedures.

One of the problematic areas for language learners is developing speaking and oral proficiency. Students are often unable to make sense of textbooks' speaking activities and patterns. They are faced with the challenge of extracting meaning from the content. Moreover, language learners' inability to participate in class interactions and discussions negatively influence their self-confidence and performance in the language learning process.

Teachers, on the other hand, are concerned about how to provide situations that decrease teacher's talks and increase learner's talk. Teachers are forced to provide a large amount of instruction since they are pressed to meet the curriculum schedule. This may impose pressure on students, decline their motivation, and block their progress. A technique that helps to provide conditions for both teachers and students in order to take the advantages of class time and decrease the amount of pressure is worthwhile. It seems that scaffolding can divide the task of learning between teacher, learner, and peers in the area of reading comprehension.

According to Richards (2008), concerning speaking instruction, three issues should be considered. First, a decision needs to be made on the types of speaking skills in class based on questionnaires, interviews, and diagnostic testing. Second, the types of teaching strategies to teach speaking should be identified. The third issue refers to characterizing the expected level of learners' performance on speaking and the criteria for assessment of their performance. Most successful learners consider their own goals, needs, and stages of learning and use the appropriate learning strategies whose manners are more adjustable with them. It seems that learners that are more successful use a wider range of strategies in a great number of situations than poor ones do.

For many students, recognizing and using the traditional ways of language teaching are the most frustrating and difficult aspects of their language learning experience since they are not able to achieve sufficient knowledge of language skills or subject matters. Hence, the study was going to find the optimal ways of teaching speaking using scaffolding. In other words, in this study, the effect of intervening scaffolding strategies on development of Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability was measured. To address the objectives of the study, the following research question was posed:

- Do intervening strategies of scaffolding have any significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' speaking ability?

II. METHOD

PARTICIPANTS

This study benefited from 60 Iranian EFL learners who were selected based on their performance on Oxford Placement Test (OPT, 2007). The participants' age ranges from 18 to 22. Their native language was Persian. The participants of the study were taught speaking skill accompanied by other language skills in their course. Since sex of the participants was not the focus of the present study, there was no control for sex variable applied. The participants were male ($n = 36$) and female ($n = 54$) students studying English language at the English language institute.

INSTRUMENTS AND MATERIALS

The instruments for the present study were Oxford Placement Test (OPT) and speaking section of Preliminary English Test (PET) functioning as pre-test and post-test. Following is the detailed explanation of the instruments.

Oxford placement test (OPT) has been used to assess the participants' language proficiency. It also enabled the researcher to have a greater understanding of what level (i.e., elementary, pre-intermediate, intermediate) their participants were at. This test consists of 70 items, including 10 multiple-choice and true-false items for reading, 10 items for writing, and 50 multiple-choice language use items. The time limit for answering the 50 multiple-choice questions and the reading task is 45 minutes and the time limit for the accomplishing writing task is approximately 20 minutes.

The speaking section of Preliminary English Test (PET) was used for pretest and posttest of study. The speaking section contains four parts. Each participant interviews with the interviewer. The interviewer asks the participants questions using standardized ones. The questions include providing factual and personal types of information. The participants expected to give information about their present status, past memories, and future affairs. In the second task, participants communicate to each other. Some pictures were given to the participants to help them in the discussion. In the third task, a color picture was given to each participants in turn and they were asked to talk about it for one minute. The pictures refer to the same topic. The fourth task was general conversation. The participants talked to each other based on the topic of the conversation which they initiated in the third task.

PROCEDURE

In order to investigate the effect of intervening and interactive strategies of scaffolding on EFL learners' speaking ability, a structured procedure was designed to collect data. The treatment procedure was conducted in 10 sessions during the summer semester in 2013. The research method used in this study to collect data was a true experimental one with the pretest-posttest control design. First, 104 EFL learners were invited to take OPT. Every correct answer in both multiple-choice and true false items was given +1 point and every incorrect answer was given 0 point. No penalty score was considered for wrong answers in this test. The total score of the test was 70. Forty four participants could not attain the minimum score (39) for the intermediate level. The participants were then randomly assigned to two equal groups of intervening ($n = 30$) and control ($n = 30$). Their speaking ability was measured by a speaking section of PET before treatment sessions. The pre-test was scored by two raters.

In this study, accuracy was measured according to Tavakoli and Rezazadeh (2014) who measured a dependent clause and at least one additional clause. Fluency was measured based on Wigglesworth and Storch (2007) who measured in terms of the average number of words, T-units and clauses per text. The performance of each participant on pretest was scored and analyzed based on the definite rating scales, as mentioned above, by two raters. The results confirmed that the reliability of the obtained scores were .98 that showed that the test was reliable.

In intervening scaffolding group, the teacher provided flexible opportunities for learners to use their knowledge, skills, and strategies in different contexts and for different purposes. Eight essential elements of intervening scaffolding instruction were used as general guidelines:

1. pre-engaging with the learners
2. building a shared goal
3. identifying the learners' demands and realizations
4. providing appropriate support
5. holding continuation of the goal
6. providing feedback
7. controlling the disappointment and venture
8. helping to maintaining learning and using in other situations.

The researcher initiated with what the learners already knew and were able to do, then scaffold the learners to reach the goal quickly, to help timid students to do like others, to be aware of withdrawing time, and to help them to be

independent doing the activity. The learners were prepared in order to perform this component. Finally, the learners were bombarded with a variety of examples in order to fully understand the instruction.

The control group participated in a normal speaking class, with routine teaching techniques and strategies. The teacher used authentic language – the language as it is used in a real context by giving the students a piece of recent news and a video episode of recent events. The teachers provided necessary directions for the learners. The students were asked to predict the sentences in episodes and they then produced different forms. The purpose was emphasis on the process of communication rather than mastery of the forms of the language. The learners were given opportunities to express their ideas and opinions in addition to their response to the activities. The learners' errors were tolerated and seen as a natural outcome development of communication language use. Finally, the groups' performances were tested by speaking section of another version of PET. The groups of study were compared to each other and their performance was compared to their primary performance.

III. RESULTS

Pretest was administered on the participants of all three groups in order to check their pre-knowledge of speaking at the beginning of the study. The descriptive statistics of the pretest scores are shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF PARTICIPANTS' PERFORMANCE ON PRETEST

		N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Pretest	Intervening	Rater 1	30	0	13	6.17	3.302
		Rater 2	30	1	13	6.13	3.371
	Control	Rater 1	30	1	13	6.45	3.120
		Rater 2	30	1	12	6.20	3.562

Pearson-product correlation was performed in order to test the inter-rater reliability of scores on pretest obtained by two raters in three groups of the study. The results of correlation for intervening group, as the Table 4.3 shows, confirmed that there is a significant relationship ($r = 0.98, p < 0.05$) between the scores of pretest obtained by two raters in intervening group. Thus, the inter-rater reliability of scores for intervening group is highly significant.

TABLE 2
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF THE INTERVENING GROUP ON PRETEST

		Pretest R (Rater 2)	Pretest R (Rater 1)
Pretest Intervening (Rater 2)	Pearson Correlation	1	.985**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30

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

The results of a Pearson correlation for control group are provided the Table 3.

TABLE 3.
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF THE CONTROL GROUP ON PRETEST

		Pretest control group(Rater 1)	Pretest control group(Rater 2)
Pretest control group (Rater 1)	Pearson Correlation	1	.981**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
	N	30	30

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

The results of a Pearson correlation for control group showed that there is a significant relationship ($r = 0.98, p < 0.05$) between the scores of pretest obtained by two raters in control group. Thus, the inter-rater reliability of scores in control group is also highly significant. The mean of pretest scores for intervening and control groups was calculated and was considered in this study. Table 4 provides this information.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF INTERVENING AND CONTROL GROUPS ON PRETEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pretest Intervening (Mean)	30	.50	13	6.15	3.325
Pretest Control (Mean)	30	1	12.5	6.32	3.341

A similar procedure was done for posttest scores. A high and significant inter-rater reliability was achieved for the scores of two raters on the posttest. The mean of the participants' scores on posttest is shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF CONTROL AND EXPERIMENTAL GROUP ON POSTTEST

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
Posttest Intervening (Mean)	30	9	20.5	15.65	3.71
Posttest Control (Mean)	30	8	15.5	9.56	4.44

In order to examine the research question of the study, in finding whether intervening strategies of scaffolding have significant effect on EFL learners' speaking ability, an independent sample t-test was calculated between the posttest scores of intervening and control groups. The results are provided in Table 6.

TABLE 6.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST BETWEEN THE POSTTEST SCORES OF CONTROL AND INTERVENING GROUPS

Independent Samples Test		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper	
Scaffolding Strategies	Equal variances assumed	6.060	.017	-4.60	58	.000	-3.93333	.85508	-5.644	-2.221

The results of independent sample t-test showed that there was a significant difference between the performance of intervening and control groups ($t = 4.60, p < .05$) on posttest in such a way that the intervening group outperformed in posttest. In other words, intervening strategies of scaffolding had a significant impact on EFL learners' speaking ability. Thus, the research question of the study was verified.

IV. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The findings of the present study were in line with those of Wood and Middleton (1975), Yelland and Masters (2007) who approved that successful teachers use scaffolding strategies as an instructional tool to help individual students learn language skills. The results of this study approved what Poorahmadi (2009) and Mehrani and Modarresi (2011) found as scaffolding can improve the reading ability and general proficiency of EFL language learners.

The present study acknowledged the findings of Lee and VanPatten (1995) that found that instructional scaffolding should draw the relationship between the tutor and the learner in order to provide interaction between the reader and the text as an important factor in comprehension.

This study could confirm the findings of Swain and Lapkin (2000) who measured the impact of using first language as a scaffolding strategy to activate the thinking process leading to enhancing second language ability. They found that the task could not have been done effectively without the use of first language, even it might not have been fulfilled at all.

The findings of the present study support those of Van Der Stuyf (2002) who utilized graphs and tables as a scaffolding strategies in the instruction of scientific investigations and found that using pre-made tables could help the learners to consider the whole framework of the experiment and improved their understanding of the design.

It can be inferred from the results of this study that the use of scaffolding strategies can contribute to save time and energy as it summarizes the information. The use of intervening type of scaffolding, which its use was limited to the specific stage of speaking instruction, can be used in different stages of teaching speaking.

From this study, it was found that EFL learners' overall speaking ability was significantly improved after they had been trained to use scaffolding strategies. The present study filled a gap on the effectiveness of two instructional strategies of scaffolding in speaking. This interactive pedagogy allows EFL learners to practice and engage language forms within a more communicative setting. To sum up, interactive and intervening strategies of scaffolding are identified as the major vehicles to help EFL learners enhance their speaking ability.

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The Templatic Syllable Patterns of Reduplication and Stem-affixing Inflections in the Classical Arabic Based on Prosodic Morphology Theory

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Abstract—A morpheme, is a set of feature matrices dominated by a single node. Reduplication or gemination is one of the productive morphological processes which have been studied inclusively in different languages and in the frame of different linguistic theories like Generative Grammar, Optimality Theory and Minimalist Program. McCarthy's prosodic theory is justified by an analysis of the formal properties of the system of verbal processes like reduplication are the primary or sole morphological operations. This theory of nonconcatenative morphology recognizing the root as a discontinuous constituent. Under the prosodic model, a morphological category which characteristically reduplicates simply stipulates an output template composed of vowel and consonant. Consonantal roots and vocalic melodies in Arabic, although they contain bundles of the same distinctive features, can nevertheless be represented on separate autosegmental tiers. This ensures that the association conventions for melodies can operate independently on these two tiers. Association of autosegments from different tiers to the same segments will be subject to the natural restriction that no segment receives multiple associations for the same nontonal feature.

Index Terms—automatic spreading, verbal reduplication, hierarchic structure, syllable weight, vowel pattern, phonetic reduction

I. INTRODUCTION

Lexical phonology (LP) analyzes all phonological resemblances between related forms with a serial derivation. It is committed to identifying the base by its derivational priority, it cannot explain sound pattern of English with its phonological system. The nominal morphology of Arabic supplies a clue. The template system says that verb stems must end in CVC.

A. Background to the Prosodic Morphology

The goal of the theory of prosodic morphology is to explain the character of morphology/ phonology dependencies (templatic morphology), calling on universal and language-particular principles. (McCarthy and Prince 1994b: A1). Over the years, there has been gradual progress toward this goal. Work started with the CV template, which was applied to root-and-pattern morphology (McCarthy 1981) and to reduplication (Marantz, 1982). This was later generalized to incorporate syllabic information (Levin, 1983) and prosodic structure generally (McCarthy and Prince 1986/1996), leading to the hypotheses in Premises of the Theory of Prosodic Pattern. Now with the emergence and growth of corpus linguistics and corpus based studies, morphological processes of this kind could be studied and conducted more accurately. Most of the morphological studies and morphologists have referred to reduplication process in their studies and it is considered as one of the universals of world's languages which represent different semantic or syntactic properties in most of the languages (Stolz, 2008).

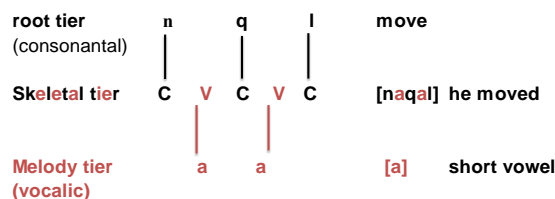
In McCarthy and Prince's (1994a) prosodic theory, morphological, noncanonical word forms and constraint interaction are presented as following:

a. The Prosodic Morphology Hypothesis

Templates, and canonical word-forms are defined in terms of the fundamental units of prosody: moras, syllables, feet, and prosodic words.

b. Template Satisfaction Condition

Satisfaction of templates is obligatory and determined by universal and language-particular requirements on the units they refer to. Constraint interaction, which is the central element of OT, ensures that templates are satisfied within the universal and language-particular requirements on the units they refer to. Templates themselves are also seen as consequences of interaction, with no special independent status.



B. Formalists' Perspectives on the Representation of Morphemes

It is well known that a number of idiosyncratic morphological and phonological properties cluster around words like permit, subsume, and submit, with Latinate prefixes and stems. In the verb form, stress invariably falls on the final syllable in spite of the possibility of further retraction. Certain special assimilation and deletion rules apply at the boundary between the prefix and stem; compare admit, assume, attempt, appear, accept. Finally, as Aronoff (1976) notes, the types of nominalizations of these forms are determined entirely by the stem morphemes: submission, permission with mit versus assumption, consumption with sume. This clustering of properties means that the grammar must be able to recognize words of this type as a class composed of Latinate prefix and stem morphemes.

One theory, essentially the one followed by Chomsky and Halle (1968), would analyze permit as a sequence of two morphemes separated by a boundary but without internal hierarchic or cyclic structure: per+ mit. (It is irrelevant here whether this class has a special boundary like "=" or not.) The boundary allows us to recognize permit words as a class—they contain an internal boundary but have no other structure.

Zellig Harris (1951) studied long component of the English language. While the boundary solution basically says that morphemes are delimited by symbols in the segmental string, the long component theory claims that the string of segments is uninterrupted, but the morphological analysis is given by another, simultaneous level of representation. Harris's long components were designed to handle discontinuous phenomena—in particular.

The formal basis of this interpretation is essentially the notation of autosegmental phonology (Goldsmith, 1976).

Goldsmith's (1976) Absolute Slicing Hypothesis

In traditional phonology, a phonological representation is a complete order of segments:

Sound1 may precede/follow Sound2,

Sound1 and sound2 may precede Sound3.

It means that they cannot be unordered.

Formally, McCarthy's view (1981), the root node *t* identifies this string as a particular morpheme. Moreover, *u* bears all nonphonological information associated with the morpheme, such as rule diacritics, whether it is a root or an affix, and in fact its identity as a morpheme. Note that this is not intended as a substitute for hierarchic structure where that structure is motivated. It does, however, replace all delimitation of morphemes by boundary symbols like " + ". A similar proposal, though not cast in autosegmental terms, was made by Pyle (1972).

II. CLASSICAL ARABIC ROOT-AND PATTERN MORPHOLOGY

In the theory of word formation, the program of Prosodic Morphology (McCarthy and Prince 1986) has established that grammatical categories, usually in the domain of root-and-pattern and reduplicative morphology, are often expressed by invariant prosodic shapes or *templates*. The central claim of the program, known as the Prosodic Morphology Hypothesis, is that these "[t]emplates are defined in terms of the authentic units of prosody: mora (m), syllable (s), foot (F), prosodic word (PrWd)" (McCarthy and Prince 1995b:318). There are two well-documented species of templatic specification: templatic specification of the affix and templatic specification of the base. Templatic specification of the affix is found in ordinary reduplication, where the morphology imposes an invariant shape on the reduplicative affix (Marantz 1982, as cited in Gafos, 1998, p.515).

Another species of templatic specification, base templaticism, is illustrated below. In forming the plural and diminutive forms of Arabic nouns, the morphology imposes a light-heavy bisyllabic template, an iambic foot, on the (left side of the) singular noun base, as shown by the boldface portions of the forms (McCarthy 1979, 1993, McCarthy and Prince 1990).

Singular Plural Diminutive

Éukm **É**akaam **É**ukaym 'judgment'

¿inab **¿**anaab **¿**unayb 'grape'

sĭ aagil s **ĭ**awaagil s **ĭ**uwaygil 'engrossing'

jundub **j**anaadib **j**unaydib 'locust'

Note, however, that the Prosodic Morphology Hypothesis does not state that *every* morphological category has a templatic target. Rather, the claim is that *if* there is a templatic target, *then* that target should be expressible in terms of the units of prosody. As expected, then, there are also cases where the morphology specifies no template at all (as cited in Gafos, 1998, p.516).

Prosody has a significant effect on lexical, discoursal, and pragmatic meanings of syllable of a word. A syllable is a compound phonological unit which is formed by a string of sounds. Its initial sound is heard very well. It has a final sound which separates it from other sounds. In other words, it is a chain of speech sounds in which an element is heard better than other segments (Akaasheh, 1332, P.42). Syllables play a key role in creating specific tone. They cause meaning change, tone shift, and placement of stress. Tone functions within words. Pitch range pattern affects meaning distinctions in tone languages. Considering stress which exist within the internal structure of words whether on the first, middle or last letter of a word and specifies the meaning of that word to some extent, it can be noted that syllables have functional properties. Syllabic feature belongs to vowels but in some languages some consonants may be as the peak of the syllable. In English, the consonants /m,n,l,r / are syllabic. In the model of Levelt et al. (1999), segments are associated to unitary syllable nodes without internal structure. In other models, syllables are frames with slots corresponding to subsyllabic units (onset and rime, or onset, nucleus, and coda; see Dell, 1986) or consonantal and vocalic positions (Dell, 1988; O'Seaghdha & Marin,2000). Word formation (Stem-affixing Inflections; Prefixing Inflection and the Left Edge of the Template, Suffixing Inflection and the Right Edge of the Template) in Arabic and other Semitic languages is the premiere example of prosodic morphology: words come in certain fixed shapes that mark various morphological distinctions, such as Classical Arabic *kataba/kattaba*. he wrote. /he caused to write or *kita+bun/kutubun* .

III. GEMINATION

In geminate/doubling verbs, the identical consonants are fused into an actual geminate unless a C-initial suffix.

In Yawelmani's view, /C1V+C2C3V/ sequences could be resolved by epenthesis of a vowel or deleting a consonant.

In concatenative morphology, morphemes are discrete elements linearly concatenated at the right or the left end of the base of the application of morphological rules. Morphology of this type is subject to analysis by a relatively simple discovery procedure. Given an adequate phonological representation, concatenative morphemes can be recovered by a left-to-right (or right-to-left) parse of words searching for invariant recurrent partial strings, possibly with constant meaning or function (Hockett, 1947).

Nonconcatenative morphology, has morphological operations that cannot be analyzed by the method of recurrent partials. These include reduplication, infixation, morphologically governed ablaut, and suprafixation. All of these terms are in common use except the last, which refers to, for example, the variation in tonal pattern of the stem as a mark of verbal aspect inflection in Tiv (McCawley (1970), Goldsmith (1976)). Although nonconcatenative morphology as a whole has received less attention than concatenative, this is not for lack of exemplification. Any basically concatenative morphological system, like ordinary English morphology, has a very simple translation into this notation. For any 1 x n feature matrix dominated by [L, n equals the cardinality of the set of all phonological features, and the daughters of any p. form a continuous segmental string. So, for example, permit will be represented as in (2):

[per mit] N,v

This sort of representation achieves the desired end.

In a nonconcatenative system, + -boundary is clearly unavailable, so such rules could not be formulated.

The t-infix is characterized as a reflexive morpheme:

- cons

(3) - syll t / t

+ high]

[reflexive]

In Arabic, phonological features of co-articulators transfer part of meaning. In Persian, every sound can represent several letters orthographically but in Arabic, each sound represents a specific letter. All sounds are produced by different places of articulation or by the same places of articulation but different manners of articulation. Therefore, functional meaning of phones in Arabic is more effective than Persian language. The duration of time for producing a vowel is called the length. In contrast to Persian language, in English and Arabic languages vowel length is a distinctive feature; For example, in Arabic the verbs «zaaraba »and «zaraba » have different meanings. Forms with initial clusters, if not preceded by a vowel in the same phonological phrase, receive epenthetic. Intervocalic glottal stop and a following vowel are deleted in some forms.

It includes inflectional alternations like *kutiba* 'it was written' and *makaatibu* 'offices (nom.)'.

There are roots of three or four consonants which cluster around a single semantic field, like *ktb* 'write'. Certain changes in these roots, like gemination of the middle radical in (1b), yield derivatives such as causative or agentive. Moreover, some vowel patterns seem to bear consistent meaning, like the difference in stem vocalism between active *kataba* and passive *kutiba*.

Similarly, the vocalism-is called the vowel melody-is not freely distributed among the vowels. For example, it is a fact that no Classical Arabic word (with the possible exception of some loans) has the vocalism i-u, nor does any verb have a melody that begins with i.

IV. OBLIGATORY CONTOUR PRINCIPLE

Leben's (1973) Obligatory principle says that no tonal melody can contain adjacent identical elements. Thus, a melody HHL is automatically simplified to HL, but HLH remains unchanged. The revisions of this principle involve two points.

1. In Arabic roots of two, three and four consonants are subject to the Obligatory Contour Principle.
2. The geminate roots in Arabic don't provide a satisfactory explanation for an empty slot.
3. This OCP states that identical H and L tones can't be adjacent to each other.

Note also that the Obligatory Contour Principle excludes quadrilateral roots with adjacent identical autosegments, like hypothetical* ddrjo r *drrj. In fact, this is the right result; there are no QI verbs of the type *dadraj. This theory also predicts the occurrence of doubly reduplicated root consonants. The only limitation on such reduplication is the difference between the number of root consonants and the number of empty consonantal slots in the template. Arabic routinely shows double reduplication in the second and fifth binyanim with roots like sm: sammam, tasammam.

Consider two representative roots with identical radicals in the permitted positions, like qlq and smm. The first, qlq, is unremarkable in the autosegmental treatment. But the second, smm, as well as all other geminate roots, must be represented formally as a biliteral root sm according to the revised Obligatory Contour Principle. If there were a (traditional) root of the nonoccurring type designated as ssm, this root would be formally identical to smm because of the operation of the Obligatory Contour Principle. Given this apparatus, the convention of left-to-right association can explain the absence of verbs or nouns like sasam versus the existence of samam. Now consider the mapping of the biliteral root onto the prosodic template of the first binyan perfective:

CVCVC

The verb system of the trilateral root is based on fifteen derivational categories and that of the quadrilateral root on four-these are the binyanim mentioned above. In fact, each binyan is inflected in almost the same way as all the other. What binyanim differ in is the arrangement of root consonantism with respect to characteristic affixes and vowel positions.

Edmondson (1986) believes that the first binyan is a possible category for nearly all roots that can appear as verbs. It is relatively unmarked morphologically, at least in the finite forms, and it has no special semantic properties. But the others, the derived binyanim, generally involve some special modification of the meaning of a related noun or verb or of the basic meaning of the root. So, for instance, the third trilateral binyan is usually reciprocal, while the sixth is usually the reflexive or effective of the reciprocal.

Subject to these lexical idiosyncrasies, the binyanim cross-classify the roots morphologically and semantically, where the root supplies the basic meaning and the binyan (except for the first binyan) supplies some modification of this meaning or of the verbal diathesis. The meaning of any verb is not a composition of the meaning of root and binyan, but there is a reasonable amount of predictability. For instance, the root ktb expresses a notion like 'write'. This root occurs in eight binyanim reflected by the following uninflected forms of the perfective active:

Binyan

I katab 'write'

II kattab 'cause to write'

III kaatab 'correspond'

IV ?aktab 'cause to write'

VI takaatab 'write to each other'

VII nkatab 'subscribe'

VIII ktatab 'write, be registered'

X staktab 'write, make write' (Spencer, 1984, p.10)

In the Arabic language, many derivations and semantic variations of the same root can be occurred by adding vowels, suffixes, and prefixes to the root.

ktb= write

Adding vowels to the root

Katab **he wrote**

Kattaba **he caused to write**

Kutiba **It was written**

Ka:taba **he corresponded**

Ktataba **he copied**

Adding prefixes to the root

maktab **an office**

nkatab **we write**

maktu:b **a letter**

maka:tib **offices**

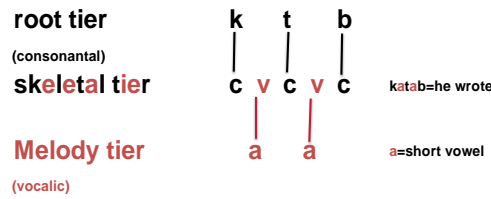
adding suffixes to the root

Kitabun **a book**

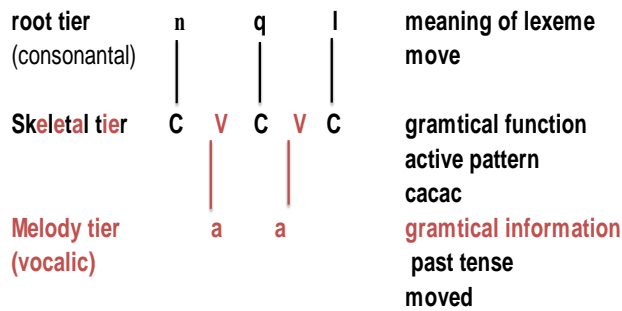
Kita:batun **act of writing**

Kutta:bun **Quraan school**

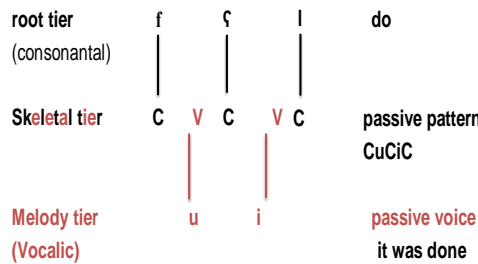
'katab' (He wrote)



'naqal'(he moved)



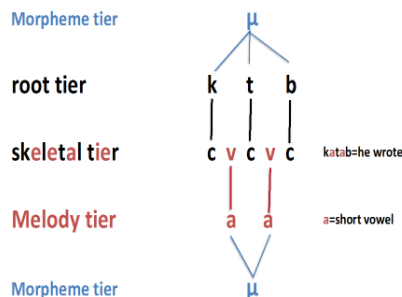
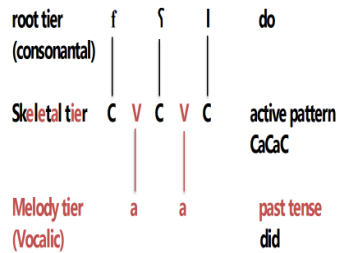
'fu...iI'(It was done)



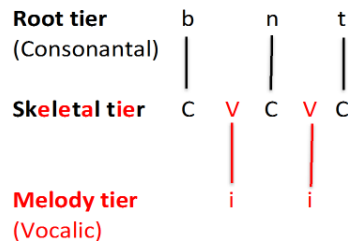
Arabic Patterns and roots

In Arabic autosegmental representation, vowels and consonants are connected to C and V nodes on different tiers

A root tier consists of consonantal segments and the Skeletal tier is, a prosodic template associated with a particular meaning or grammatical function.



binit=girl

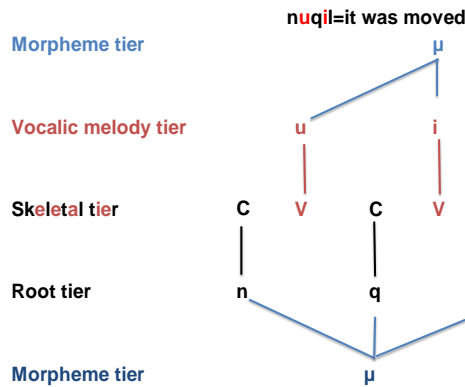
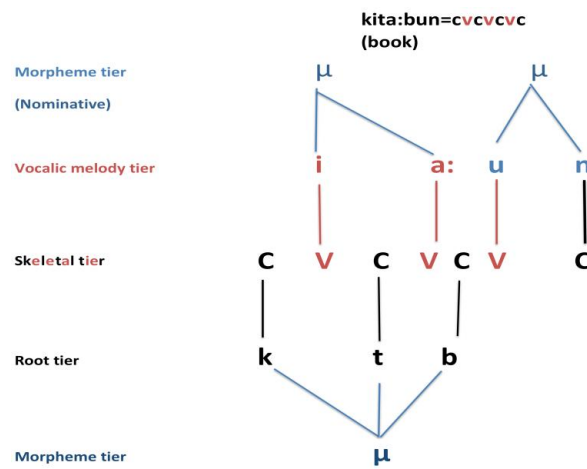


Morpheme tier:

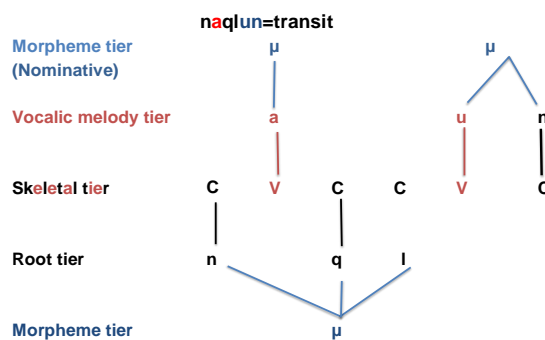
McCarthy introduced an additional morpheme layer = μ node.

The suffixes and prefixes take also μ nodes. The root tier will provide all the information need to distinguish consonants from one another by place and manner of articulation.

'kita:bun'(book)



'naqlun'(transit)



In 1986, McCarthy extended the OCP to all autosegmental melodies including consonantal and vocalic segments. There is a basic division into two aspects, perfective and imperfective. Voice is active or passive, with slightly different morphology for voice in the two aspects.

Thus, the word; takattab is not a real verb, although V takassab 'to earn' is one. In the first binyan, different roots belonging to different ablaut classes, treated in section 3.4, yield different vocalism from that of ktb in the perfective and imperfective active.

Gaps in the passive inflections indicate binyanim that are regularly intransitive and stative. As a kind of minimal, barely adequate

account of these differences, we would have to answer the following questions:

How are the consonants arranged with respect to the vowels?

The inventory of canonical patterns in the perfective of the trilateral binyanim is listed in (5), where C denotes any [-syll] segment, including consonants and glides:

- (5) a. CVCVC
 b. CVCCVC
 c. CVVCVC
 d. CVCVCCVC
 e. CVCVVCVC
 f. CCVCVC
 g. CCVCCVC
 h. CCVVCVC

First, the stems of all binyanim invariably end in closed syllables (CVC). Second, there is no binyan with a sequence of two light syllables like CVCVVC. Third, no binyan contains a light syllable after a heavy syllable like CVCCVVC. Fourth, no binyan which begins with a consonant cluster is three or more syllables long overall.

The lowest level of linguistic organization

A prosodic template, although the term CV-skeleton adopted by Halle and Vergnaud (1980) may be more evocative. Prosodic templates are composed solely of the features [segmental] and [syllabic], the appropriate values of these features being abbreviated by C and V.

The prosodic template corresponds to the segmental level. Thus, the segmental level will contain only the features [segmental] and [syllabic], and all other features will be autosegmental. This leads to a straightforward analysis of the problem in (B) and (C) of arranging root and affixal consonantism with respect to the C-slots of the prosodic template.

The Arabic trilateral root is represented formally as a melody on a single, morphologically defined autosegmental tier which takes as its melody-bearing elements the [-syllabic] positions of the prosodic template (Alemayehu Haile, 1988, p. 9). This melody contains three melodic elements composed of all features except [segmental] and [syllabic]. In this way, all the information needed to distinguish consonants from one another can be provided by the root tier. The segments k, t, and b in this sense are not ordinary segments but rather archisegments unspecified for [segmental] and [syllabic]. Similarly, affixes like n or t will appear on separate autosegmental tiers. These affixal tiers involve the same distinctive features as the root tier, but they are distinct.

The problem now is to account for the mode of association between the melodybearing [-syllabic] slots of the prosodic template and the autosegments of the various consonantal tiers. We will begin by considering some cases in detail.

A triconsonantal root will, by the first universal convention in section associate from left to right, resulting in a simple one-to-one association with the three C-slots of the template.

This result appears in (6): (6) a. CVCVC b. CVVCVC

\j / (katab) / (kaatab)

But a problem remains in treating forms like the second and fifth binyanim.), the templates of these two categories have four slots to accommodate just three root consonants. What actually occurs is gemination of the middle root consonant, in effect expanding the trilateral root to fit four consonantal slots. This germination is formally as a one-to-many mapping of the single middle root consonant onto two slots in the prosodic template:

a. CVCCVC (kattab) b. A

\V/ I

ktb t

CVCVCCVC (takattab)

If we suppose that material on an affixal tier is applied to the prosodic template before material on any root tier, then, as an automatic consequence of this ordering and of the conventional left-to-right association, affixes will without further stipulation appear on the leftmost consonantal slots of the prosodic template. The output of left-to-right association on both tiers is shown in the next part:

n s t t

ccVcV cc v cVccVc cVcVVcVc

ktb ktb ktb ktb

(nkatab) (staktab) (?aktab) (takaatab)

First the material on the affixal tier is mapped onto the template, selecting the leftmost slots. The remainings lots receive a left-to-right mapping of the root tier melody, subject, of course, to the condition that there be no many-to-one associations with the segmental level. There is one systematic exception to this pattern of affixation. The reflexive morpheme, which is prefixed in the fifth (takatab) and sixth (takaatab) binyanim, is infix

in the eighth binyan. That is, it is associated with the second consonant slot of the prosodic template and not the first arise in the ninth and eleventh binyanim. These are formed on the templates (7) and (8).

(7) a. IX b. XI

CCvCvC CCvvCvC

ktb ktb

The unassociated final C-slot is now associated with the melodic element bound to the C-slot on its left, in this case b. This is a consequence of the third universal convention yields the representations in (8):

(8) a. IX b. XI

CCvCvC CCvvCvC

ktb (ktabab) ktb (ktaabab)

Consequently, this sort of is sufficient to generate the germination displayed by these two binyanim without any additional stipulations.

After Erasure, we expect reassociation from the nearest consonant slot on the left-in this case, w. But since the root and the infix are representations on separate autosegmental tiers, it is possible to reassociate either from the infix w or from the second root consonant t and still produce a well-formed representation. In fact, the twelfth and thirteenth binyanim differ on exactly that point-on whether the infix or the second root consonant is geminated: XII ktawtab, XIII ktawwab.

There is a further result of this analysis of biconsonantal verbal roots. Because of the autosegmental treatment, there is a particular formal characteristics shared by bilateral roots and those trilateral and quadrilateral roots that appear in binyanim with characteristic gemination. In every case, gemination is represented formally as a one-to-many association from the root tier to the prosodic template. This representation does not hold, however, of adjacent identical consonants that come from different morphemes and consequently from different autosegmental tiers, such as root and affix.

Binyanim Melodies

a. u a i

In McCarthy (1979) it is argued that all three melodies are derived from the underlying melody; (u-a-i) by partly morphologically conditioned rules deleting u and i melodic elements.

The First Binyan

We will now turn to the issues presented by the somewhat more varied finite forms of the first trilateral binyan. (Discussion of the participles, which involve further complications, can be found in McCarthy (1979).) The first binyan is unique in that the canonical pattern of the perfective stem [CVCVC] differs other than in prefixation of [CV] from the canonical pattern of the imperfective [CVCCVC]. We can account for this alternation by one repair rule which transforms an underlying [CVCVCVC] prosodic template to a derived [CVCCVC] one. Thus, the first binyan regularly receives the usual [CV] prefix

in the imperfective and is then subject to elision of the middle vowel.

Some of these ablaut patterns are associated with verbs of a particular semantic class, though not strictly. Ordinarily, the first binyan form of a particular root is restricted to just one of these ablaut classes, but some slippage appears. There are also rare cases of anomalous ablaut, exhausting almost all the possibilities. It is only at the level of the autosegmental melody that the Ablaut rule can express the aspectual relationships of the passive. This particular phenomenon, then, lends strong support to the prosodic analysis.

Morphological Rule Constraint (MRC)

All morphological rules are of the form A -* B / X, where A is a single element or zero and B and X are (possibly null) strings of elements.

That is, morphological rules must be context-sensitive rewrite rules affecting no more than one segment at a time.

The phonological rules that must be formulated transformationally involve rules of metathesis. It has been observed both traditionally and in more recent studies (Ultan (1971)) that only a very limited set of possible metathesis rule types exists, depending on phonetic properties of the affected segments. One type is vowel-liquid metathesis, represented, for example, by the Maltese rule of Brame (1972). This apparently reflects a more general type of metathesis between neighboring continuants of unequal sonority.

Moreover, Arabic has some additional evidence that verbs like zaizala constitute a definable class within the lexicon. One bit of evidence is the semantic consistency of this class alluded to earlier: these forms seem to refer to repeated, iterative operations. A much stronger argument lies in the formation of gerunds or infinitives from verbs of this class. Verbs like zalzala often form gerunds of the pattern zalzaal, galgaal, and so on. However, no other trilateral or quadrilateral verb can form a gerund of this pattern. Therefore, the rule responsible for just this type of gerund must be able to refer directly to verbs with reduplicated biconsonantal roots.

The stipulation of an additional rule, the Second, Fifth Binyanim Erasure rule medial reduplication in the forms *kattab* and *takattab*, which is apparently quite rare is required. The result is that reduplication is limited to strings that form constituents at some level of representation. Mapping and spreading rules involve the association of constituents at one level (like morphemes, syllables, autosegmental melody) with units at another level (like V, C, a, in the prosodic template).

local process for vowel-vowel alternation.

Association of a nonconstituent string on one level with a constituent string on another level is excluded formally because it necessarily leads to an ill-formed representation with lines crossing.

CVCCVCVC

Since *k* and *t* do not exhaust a constituent on any tier, there is no way to derive **kattakattab* without crossing association lines.

Reduplication is the universal properties of nonconcatenative morphological process.

A particular result of reduplication by means of a prosodic template arises in Cupeino, as described by Hill (1970). He argues that the habitative construction is formed from consonant final stems by repeated reduplication until an output target. The template, then, can encode the output target, and automatic spreading effectively reduplicates until the template is filled. Notice the role played by morphologically defined tiers in this representation: since the plural suffix melodies *a-e* and *o-i* are represented on a separate tier from the stem.

Halle and Vergnaud suggest that the grammar of Arabic ensures that vowel melodies are associated with V-slots and consonant melodies with C-slots. Since vowel melodies and consonant melodies invariably appear on different morphologically defined tiers in Arabic, it suffices to indicate for each tier what its melody-bearing elements will be, either syllabic or nonsyllabic positions in the prosodic template.

Each melodic element bears an indication of whether it is to be associated with a C or a V in the template. In effect, the melodic elements will be specified as [+syllabic] or [-syllabic], and the association conventions must match up values of this feature between the melodic and template tiers.

Let us suppose that some prosodic template affixes bear the feature [+reduplication], which induces special behavior. This feature does not belong to a reduplication transformation in standard generative analyses. Rather, it has the effect of causing automatic copying of all the melodic elements in some morpheme-formally in a particular tier. This copied material is then associated in the familiar way with the C/V positions of the prosodic template affix. In the analysis of Arabic, unassociated elements are considered to be deleted.

The first modern insights into Semitic morphology appear in Harris's (1941) long components analysis of Biblical Hebrew. Harris proposes a list of morphemes divided into three types on formal and semantic grounds. The consonantal roots like *ktb* have the sort of general meaning. Morphemes of the second class, patterns, are composed of vowels plus symbols from the set " ", ":", and affixal consonants. The dash marks "the presence of some phoneme, usually a consonant, in close juncture" (Harris, 1941, p. 152). The colon is the familiar notation for consonant length. The meaning of a pattern is essentially a modification of the meaning of the root. So, for instance, the pattern of *kattab* would be notated *_a :a* with the meaning 'intensive, causative'. The third class of morphemes is relatively uninteresting, consisting of those function words and loans. The relationship between morphemes of the root class and those of the pattern class is expressed by a single statement of morpheme order: members of the root class are intercalated in patterns.

Since Chomsky's analysis is one of the earliest and most extensive demonstrations of rule ordering within a modified structural is framework, we can coherently speak of a morphophonemic derivation. At the earliest stage of this derivation, there is a linear concatenation of morphemes from the different classes. So, for instance, the stem of *kattab* will have the remote representation *ktb + a- :a*. Several morphophonemic rules substituted formally for medial germination pattern. Although this is adequate for Hebrew, it misses an important property of Arabic verb forms like *katab* versus *kattab*. In these words, all vocalism is a as one manifestation of the perfective active. The vocalism can be changed independently of the germination of the medial consonant; compare the corresponding passives *kiutib* and *kuittib*.

Clements and Hume's (1995) Geometry of features

Autosegmental phonology deals with the way distinctive features are ordered by phonological rules. In phonological processes like assimilation, the specific features operate as a single constituent. So all features in phonological representations do not behave similarly. Clements (1985) proposed a way in which the features arranged hierarchically. Each feature is put in an independent tier. They shape a final node. Features connect to a higher node to make a separate constituent. These nodes link to each other by lines. The assimilation rule may operate as feature filling or feature changing (pp. 258-259). They suggested three kinds of assimilation; complete assimilation in which the target phonological unit receives all the features of neighboring phonological unit while the root node spreads; incomplete assimilation, when the target phonological unit receives some of the resource features while the lower level class node spreads; single feature assimilation which involves terminal feature spreading.

No feature may appear on more than one tier.

Arabic Root- & Pattern- Morphology (Binyanim)

'write'- *k . . . t . . . b*

Perfective

I X _ C V C V C

write-katab (active) kutib (passive)

II cause to X _ CVCCVC

cause to write- katab, kuttib(passive)

III X each other _ CVVCVC

Write to each other- kaatab (active), kuutib (passive)

Arabic Root- & Pattern- Morphology (Binyanim)

Binyan Form Gloss

I katab 'write'

II katab 'cause to write'

III kaatab 'correspond'

IV P-aktab 'cause to write'

VI ta-kaatab 'write to each other'

VII n-katab 'subscribe'

VIII ktatab 'write, be registered'

X st-aktab 'write, make write' (Spencer, 1984, p.10)

Getting rid of juncture symbols: Morphemic Affiliation

SPE McCarthy (1981)

per+mit

V. THE SPATIAL GEOMETRY OF DIFFERENT TIERS

In this model, McCarthy proposed the geometry of various tiers as the strings in a three-dimensional space. In that more than two tiers connected to the same tier. This spatial model involves hard and soft constraints with specific characteristics:

Hard Constraints

1. Every tier is parallel to every other tier
2. Association lines connecting different tier pairs never cross or overlap
3. Two different segments on different tiers cannot be linked to skeletal node.
4. Different autosegmental morphemes are always on different tiers even if they specify information of the same type (consonantal /vocal melodies).

Soft Constraints

McCarthy Believes that every melodic node should be associated to at most one skeletal node.

1. Every skeletal node is linked to a melodic node.
2. Every melodic node is linked to a skeletal node.

VI. MAPPING PRINCIPLE (UNIVERSAL LINKING CONDITIONS)

Association should be as unique as possible

i.e.

1. Every skeletal node should be associated to at most one melodic node
2. Every melodic node should be associated to at most one skeletal node

VII. THE REPAIR OPERATION ALGORITHM

Repair Mechanisms involve derivational rules which ensure that the wellformedness constraints for linking between tones and syllables are obeyed. In concatenation affixes, roots and stems are combined in a specific linear order with a change in phonological processes

If two morphemes share elements on the same tier, the order of concatenation determines the phonological order but if they do not share phonological segments in strings on any tier concatenation doesn't impose by a phonological sequencing. This process is done by the phonological repair mechanisms.

1. If there are unassociated S-nodes and M-nodes, S-nodes and M-nodes should be associated with each other from left to right
2. Else: If there are unassociated S-nodes, every unassociated S-node S can be associated to the M-node to which the S-node immediately preceding S is related.
3. Else: If there are unassociated M-nodes, every unassociated M-node M should be corresponded to the S-node to which the M-node immediately preceding M is associated.

The basis of Arabic morphology is a set of prosodic templates that vowel and consonant melodies are mapped onto by certain rules of great generality. Reduplication can be characterized formally as a one-to-many association of a single melodic element with the slots of the prosodic template. That is, reduplication is just an instance of the more

general autosegmental phenomenon of spreading. This is the case, for example, with reduplication of the u portion of the perfect passive melody in sixth binyan tukuutib or of the final root consonant in ninth binyan ktabab. In every instance, the surface reduplication is not a consequence of a transformational rule but rather of the spreading of a particular melodic element to fill up the available slots of the template.

We have seen that, all reduplication is a consequence of one-to-many associations derived by the usual conventions. Just at the level of surface phenomena, Arabic exhibits a wide variety of nonconcatenative morphology: ablaut processes, apparent movements of segments universal and partly language-particular apparatus of autosegmental phonology.

VIII. CONCLUSION

The foundation of the analysis presented here is the theory of autosegmental phonology as described by Clements and Ford (1979). Goldsmith's view (1976) is in ways relevant to this analysis.

Sometimes, in autosegmental phonology, a biconsonantal root is expanded to fit a prosodic template—the [CVCCVC] template of the causative and [CVCCVCCVC] of the reflexive—with four empty slots. However, in this case the expansion is not effected by reduplicating a single root consonant, but rather by reduplicating the entire root. It is possible to have a mapping between morpheme positions rather than directly between elements of a morpheme and the corresponding template. That is, the root is reduplicated by a one-to-many morpheme-to-morpheme association, and then the elements of these morphemes are mapped onto the prosodic template. Reduplication is accomplished here by mapping one root morpheme onto two root morpheme positions in a separate tier. The units contained in these derivative morphemes are then mapped onto the prosodic template.

It has been assumed that the autosegmentalization of some feature or bundle of features defines a single tier on which all and only those features are represented. I will claim instead that each language has the option of restricting every tier to autosegments which are members of a particular morpheme or morpheme class.

Moreover, different tiers cannot contain the same features unless those tiers represent different morphemes, and then only if a particular grammar stipulates that the tiers are morphologically determined. Each autosegmental tier will designate a natural class on the segmental tier as its set of tone-bearing elements, the units with which it is to be associated. Unassociated melodic elements are associated from left to right with the unassociated melody-bearing elements. If all melodic elements are associated and if there are one or more unassociated melody-bearing elements, all of the latter are assigned the melody associated with the melody-bearing element as the effect of automatic spreading. Arabic language is based on morphological system which specifies rhythm of word (being as a noun or a verb). Segmental and suprasegmental units, syntactic structures, and morphological system of every language guides the addressee to comprehend the speaker's intention. The interpretation of the listener depends on the concepts of words and the content of combinations and compound words. The semantic function of stress as a suprasegmental element in sentences and dual and plural nouns cannot be ignored. In the morphological system of Arabic language, the rhythm of words are measured by verbs. The effect of rhythm on speech can be much or less with regard to ideological and affective issues of the speaker or writer.

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On the Function of Mother Tongue Transfer in English Vocabulary Acquisition

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Abstract—The theory of mother tongue transfer refers to that the habit of the first language will directly influence the acquisition of the second language, and play its positive and negative functions. As a Chinese learner, English vocabulary learning is inevitably influenced by the Chinese ways of pronunciation, cognitive styles and thought patterns. Based on the language transfer theory, this paper will analyze the influences of Chinese on English vocabulary learning from the positive and negative transfer respectively, and reveal the positive and negative effects of Chinese in the process of English vocabulary acquisition. What this paper intends to convey is to improve the efficiency of English vocabulary learning by investigating the main forms of transfer and finding the reasons of them. It presents some suggestions that language learners should make full use of positive transfer and avoid negative transfer.

Index Terms—mother tongue transfer, vocabulary acquisition, positive and negative transfer

I. INTRODUCTION

The term “transfer” is first defined by behavioral psychologists to refer to the process of automatic, uncontrolled and subconscious use of past learned behavior in the attempt to produce new responses. According to them, the main impediment to learning was interference from the prior knowledge. Psychologists use the term to refer to the influences imposed by a learner’s possessed linguistic knowledge and skills upon the subsequent learning of new linguistic knowledge or skills.

The English linguist D. A. Wilkins (1972) said that, “Without grammar, very little can be conveyed; without vocabulary, nothing can be conveyed”. Vocabulary as the foundation of language learning plays an important role in second language acquisition. And the improvement of language competence depends on the acquired vocabulary. Thus, the learning of vocabulary, which occupies a very basis and important position in language learning, can be viewed as the core of English learning.

For Chinese learners, who are eager to master their second language, English vocabulary learning is undoubtedly the very basis for their future development in communication. However, as a foreign language learner, it is usually of great difficulties to learn the new words of a different symbol system due to the impact of his or her native speech. And the reason of which is partially because of the involvement of language transfer. So, it is a key factor to understand the function of language transfer in English vocabulary acquisition.

Based on the theories of language transfer, it is generally believed that the learners’ native language can bring either a positive or a negative impact in the process of second language acquisition due to the support or interference of existing learning experience (Ellis, 1985). Specifically, the students’ native language will promote the learning of a foreign language when the rules of the mother tongue seem to be similar to that of the target language; otherwise, it will act negatively when there are great differences between the learners’ native speech and their foreign language.

Therefore, under the guidance of the relevant theory of language transfer, the focus of English vocabulary acquisition which is to be covered in this paper is of special values and practical significance. Based on that, the thesis will attempt to discuss the potential impact of language transfer on the learning of English vocabulary and to identify some suggestions in order to make full use of the language transfer theory.

II. THEORY OF MOTHER TONGUE TRANSFER

A. Definition of Language Transfer

Transfer is a psychological item originated from behavioristic psychology which indicates that the already knew knowledge or technical ability of the first language will influence the new knowledge or techniques. Until 1950s, linguists adopted the term “transfer” in the studies of second language acquisition, and after that more and more people began to explore the role of mother tongue in second language learning.

The term of language transfer is first put forward by Robert Lado (1957) based on the theory of behaviorism: Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings of their native language to the foreign language both productively

and receptively. After that, in the 1950s and early 1960s, the effect of transfer on language learning was widely recognized and always integrated with behaviorism.

Many linguists have defined the language transfer. Such as, James, C. (1980) had defined it from this aspect: The first language learning affects the second language learning. Faerch, C. and Kasper, G. (1987) claimed that language transfer is a psychological process for the language learners who stimulated their mother tongue to use the interlanguages. Schachter (1974) hold the view that language transfer is some kind of constraint for language learning process imposed by the acquired knowledge.

Among various definitions, the most commonly accepted one is Odlin's (1989): Transfer is the influence resulting from the similarities and the differences between the target language and any other languages that have been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired. His definition gave a better explanation to language transfer that emphasized not only on the native speech but any other factors would affect the second language learning. Compared with the previous definition, this one provides the more details. And it points out that the production of transfer is caused by the similarities and the differences between languages. It is a great progress in the study of language transfer.

Actually, language transfer can be seen in the process of building a second language system where learners regard their mother tongue as the starting point. By comparing the similarities and the differences between native language and target language, learners can transfer the native language forms and rules to the second language, so as to influence the acquisition of second language.

It is an important part to study language transfer in the second language acquisition research. And language transfer has been a central issue in applied linguistics, second language acquisition and language teaching for at least a century. The development of the theory of language transfer has undergone three stages. The first stage, in the 1950s, behaviorism played a predominant role in the field of linguistic theories. The function of transfer was fully recognized and always integrated with behaviorism, thus it became the theoretical basis of comparative analysis. The second one is from the 1960s to the end of the 1970s. During this period, due to the influences caused by Chomsky's language theory, theory represented by behaviorism was severely criticized. Scholars tried to follow the cognitive theory and get rid of the impact of behaviorism. The third refers to the period from the beginning of the 1980s up to now. At this stage, people became increasingly interested in transfer phenomenon. The word "transfer" did not merely refer to the mechanical transfer from the native language to the foreign language. It was treated as a kind of important learning strategy in language acquisition, and a complicated cognitive procedure that is influenced by various factors.

B. *The Classification of Language Transfer*

There is a popular classification about the effects of language transfer, positive transfer and negative transfer. It is important for foreign language learners to know the definition of the two sorts of transfer. Psychologists tell us that transfer refers to the influences that previous individual knowledge and experience exerts on the new knowledge, and it contains helpful and obstructive aspects respectively. Both types of transfer refer to the automatic and subconscious use of old behavior in new learning situation.

On the function of transfer, it can be concluded that positive transfer has positive effects on the learning if and only if two languages have similarities. Otherwise, the negative transfer occurs when two languages have great differences. So, the differences between the negative transfer and the positive transfer rest on that, the negative transfer hinders the learning, while the positive transfer facilitates the learning.

1. Positive Transfer

Positive transfer may occur when both the native language and the target language have similar forms. It also means the use of prior items to assist the comprehension of the second language. It refers to any contributory effects on the acquisition of second language, based on the similarities between the first language and second language. That is to say, a previous knowledge is appropriately applied to the learning task.

When the first language and the second language share the same rules and patterns, the positive transfer will contribute to the acquisition of target language and make the learning easier. For instance, English and French both belong to the Indo-European language system, so it is much easier for English native speakers to learn French.

Although Chinese and English belong to two different language systems, the mother tongue-Chinese also plays its positive effects in English learning. Such as in phonetic, it is easy for Chinese learners to pronounce constant sounds like /b/, /p/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/ and others. Because it is similar in the ways of pronunciation between Chinese and English. Also at the lexical level, such words as *sofa*, *coffee*, *tofu*, *pizza* and so on, they are also easily to be acquired. Because the meanings of these words are related with their pronunciation. Besides, English and Chinese also share the same sentence structure — SVO. All of these examples prove that Chinese has a positive transfer in English learning.

2. Negative Transfer

The negative transfer is also called interference of the first language. Specially, it refers to that the use of native language rules will lead to error forms in the target language. According to behaviorists, negative transfer can damage, hinder and delay the acquisition of second language. Because Chinese and English belong to different language systems, the differences of them certainly influence the acquisition of English. And many linguists argue that the effects of negative transfer of Chinese outweigh than the positive transfer.

Negative transfer can be found at all levels of language structure. A case for that can be found at the phonetic level, which a speaker's foreign accent occurs when in the process of foreign language learning. It can be explained by that

Chinese learners are restricted by geographical dialect. In addition, Chinese learners often make mistakes in the collocation of words. For instance, maybe some students tend to say “look TV” rather than “watch TV”. And the negative transfer exists at syntactical level, textual level and cultural level as well. The main reason for this phenomenon is that some words in English are hard to find the corresponding words in Chinese. The contrastive analysis is a more effective way to prevent the negative transfer of mother tongue.

As above mentioned, one’s native language plays a vital role in second language acquisition, and the mother tongue transfer is an unavoidable phenomenon in the second language learning. Thus, as a Chinese learner, he/she should take full advantages of the positive transfer of mother tongue and take measures to reduce its negative effects in English learning.

C. *Relevant Theories of Language Transfer*

1. Contrastive Analysis Hypothesis

Before the second language acquisition was established, researches from the 1940s and the 1960s conducted contrastive analysis, systematically comparing the first language and the target language.

In the 1900s and 1950s, the contrastive analysis developed and prevailed as its main concerns, which is based on the theory of behaviorism and structuralism. It is the systematic study of a pair of language with a view to identifying their structural differences and similarities. It is the comparison of the linguistic system between two different languages. It mainly directs at establishing the areas of learning difficulties to help the learners overcome the negative effects of the first language transfer (Lado, 1957).

From the behavioristic perspectives, the main obstacle to second language acquisition is the interference from the native language. The difficulty in mastering certain structures in second language depends on the degree of the differences between the first language and second language. So, it is believed that the learners’ potential errors and difficulty in learning can be predicted through the contrast between native and target language. Based on the different views, contrastive analysis hypothesis was formulated in Robert Lado’s (1957) *Linguistics across Cultures* in 1957. In this book, Lado claimed that “those elements which are similar to the learners’ native language will be simple for him, and those elements that are different will be difficult.”

It is widely accepted that the publishing of the book marked the establishment of the theory of contrastive analysis hypothesis. In this book, Lado (1957) considered that contrastive analysis can predict the learning difficulties, and assumed that learners are likely to transfer the pattern of language previously acquired to the target language. Other linguists argue that the difficulty experienced by learners will manifest itself in errors, the greater the difficulty is, the more frequent the errors are.

Although contrastive analysis played a significant role in understanding the theory of transfer, it faced lots of questions and criticisms due to the shortcomings of itself in the late 1960s and early 1970s. There exists a strong and a weak version of contrastive analysis hypothesis. The strong version claims that all the second language errors can be predicted by identifying the differences between the native language and the target language, while the weak version claims that errors only can be explained or diagnosed. However, this claim could not be sustained by empirical evidence, which reveals that the differences of two languages do not always lead to negative transfer and the majority of errors committed by learners is not caused by the first language interference. In consequence, contrastive analysis fell out of favor and is replaced by error analysis and interlanguage theory gradually.

2. Error Analysis Hypothesis

With the constant development of the research on foreign language teaching and the contrastive analysis losing its favorable position, the theory of error analysis become more and more popular. In 1970s, error analysis replaced the contrastive analysis, which aims at predicting errors by comparing the differences between the target language and the second language. Error analysis is a theory which aims at providing feedback for teachers and learners by analyzing the errors made by L2 learners.

There are several different definitions about language error. Errors refer to the regular patterns in the learners’ speech, which consistently differs from the target language model (Corder, 1967). Error is the usage of a linguistic item in a way in which fluent or native speaker of language regards as showing faulty or incomplete learning (Richard, 1985). Error is a linguistic form or combination of forms which in the same context and under similar condition of production would, in all likelihoods, not be produced by the speakers. An error can be defined as deviation from the norms of the target language (Ellis, 1994)

In the field of second language acquisition, errors arise because the correct form or use of a target item is not part of a speakers’ or writers’ competence, whereas mistakes arise even though the correct form or use is a part of the users’ competence. Since as for in the mother tongue language people can distinguish the correctness and the error. But, as for leaning a second language, people can not mark off clearly. Errors are different from mistakes.

3. Interlanguage Hypothesis

The term of interlanguage was first used by Larry Selinker (1972), which refers to the systematic knowledge of language which independent of both the learners’ L1 and L2 system he is trying to learn. Selinker once pointed out that the independent linguistic system of language learners is a language variant existing between L1 and L2, which distincts from L1 and L2, and it is a transitional language between L1 and L 2 produced from learners attempted production of norms or knowledge about a language which is independent of both their L1 and L2 system they are learning. As a

process of second language learning, interlanguage is an unavoidable phenomenon.

The reason of this phenomenon is that before their proficiency of the second language, the second language learners including adults and children will tend to adopt a transitional form of speech to express their ideas unconsciously, which is an independent, developing and changeable system which is close to the L1 but not equals to the L1. Interlanguage theory, is a theory which implies the important role of the language learners' first language in second language acquisition. It is based upon the complexity and differences between the L1 and the L2, which also suggests that the process of second language learning cannot be finished in a short period.

Thus, this phenomenon makes the study of the role of the L1 in second language acquisition mainly covering negative transfer and positive transfer more meaningful and useful.

III. THE POSITIVE TRANSFER OF MOTHER TONGUE AND ITS INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

When the relevant units or structures of both languages are similar, the transfer of native speech can result in correct language forms of the target language, which is called positive transfer. The effect of positive transfer has not aroused people's attention, thus it is less often discussed. Nevertheless, the positive transfer plays an important role in second language learning. Generally speaking, the more similar two languages are, the more positive transfer occurs. Actually, English and Chinese have in common with certain aspects in vocabulary.

A. *Positive Transfer of Phonetic*

There are many similarities in pronunciation of phonemes between English and Chinese. The pronunciation of Chinese characters and the English words are both made up of syllables. The Chinese pinyin is composed of the initial and final, and the final can be divided into the single vowel and compound vowel. The English phonetic alphabet is divided into vowel and constant, and the vowel can be classified into monophthong and diphthong. On the face of it, we could perceive the Chinese initial as the English constant that is placed in the beginning of syllables, and the Chinese final as the English vowel. For instance, the Chinese words “你好/ni hao/” and “美丽/mei li/”, the Chinese initials /n/, /h/, /m/, /l/ amount to the corresponding constants of English, and the /i/, /ao/, /ei/ can be seen as the English vowels. At this point, the phonetic transfer of Chinese can facilitate English vocabulary learning (Cha, 2007).

And the pronunciation of the most English constants is similar to the ways of Chinese pronunciation. They share a lot in common in the place of articulation and the ways of pronunciation. When Chinese learners pronounce the same phonemes of English as those of the native language, they can pronounce these phonemes accurately. Therefore, when Chinese students learn these phonemes which can be found in both Chinese and English, it will be easy for them to master these phonemes, that is, Chinese facilitates their English learning. For instance, all such phonemes or sounds as English constants /p/, /b/, /t/, /d/, /k/, /g/, /f/, /h/, /m/, /n/ can be found the same pronunciation in the phonetics of Chinese.

B. *Positive Transfer of Word Formation*

Usually, there are similar rules in word formation between English and Chinese language, which is very helpful for students to understand the English words when they learn the corresponding words in Chinese.

English and Chinese share common techniques in the word formation. In the ways of derivation, both of them possess the pattern like “prefix + stem” and “stem + suffix”. For instance, the words like “非正式(informal)”, “不结盟(non-aligned)”, “重申(reaffirm)”, “软件(software)”, “主观主义(subjectivism)”, “童年(childhood)”.

From the perspective of semantics, English and Chinese both take advantage of the ways of subject-predicate, polarized and verb-object to construct the compound words. For example, the words of “earthquake(地震)”, “raincoat(雨衣)”. The types of English compounds can be illustrated as follows:

- (1) Compound Nouns: weekend(周末), daybreak(黎明), afternoon(下午)
- (2) Compound Adjectives: snow-white(雪白的), man-made(人造的), ever-green(常青的)
- (3) Compound Verbs: sleep-walker(梦游), white-wash(粉刷), overthrow(打翻)
- (4) Compound Adverbs: hotfoot(匆忙地), beforehand(事先), everywhere(到处)

The imitative words, loan words and transliterated words are easy for Chinese learners to acquire them. The pronunciation of them is related with their corresponding meaning of Chinese. For instance, the words like ding-dong, ping-pong, coffee, sofa, pizza, kung fu, Confucius, Mah-jongg, Tai-chi and so on. It seems to be very simple for Chinese learners to master them.

In short, the similarities between English and Chinese in word formation can be conducive to acquire English vocabulary for Chinese learners. It is needed for native speakers actively to summarize the similar points between the first language and target language, so as to make full use of the positive transfer of native language.

IV. THE NEGATIVE TRANSFER OF MOTHER TONGUE AND ITS INFLUENCES ON ENGLISH VOCABULARY ACQUISITION

According to the theory of language transfer, when the first language and the second language have a great difference, the learning difficulties will arise. And when the learners improperly use models or rules of native speech in second language learning, errors resulting from negative transfer are likely to occur and lead to wrong expressing forms of the

target language.

Word is the smallest unit that can be used, by itself, as a complete utterance. It plays a significant role in communication, so the mastery of vocabulary is the key to the success of second language acquisition (Deng, 2006).

For Chinese students, because they have formed the mode of thinking of their mother tongue, which indicates, the rules of their native language will influence or impose on the acquisition of new knowledge. A case for this point is that there exists one kind of languages — Chinglish in China. Chinglish refers to spoken or written English language with a strong flavor of Chinese. It can be proved that Chinglish is caused by the incomplete knowledge of the rules of target language. Especially at lexical level, Chinese learners tend to think that the meaning of English words is equal to the Chinese equivalent of these words. Thus, it is easy for learners to misuse the English words in communication.

A. *Negative Transfer of the Comprehension of the Meaning of English Words*

According to the British linguist Leech, G. (1983), meaning of English words, in its broadest sense, can be classified into seven types: conceptual, connotative, social, affective, reflective, collocative and thematic meanings. And in the process of lexical learning, in often, Chinese learners only focus on the literal meaning of words and neglect the other meanings. However, only having understood the full meaning of words can learners avoid the misuse of these words. Next, we will discuss the negative transfer of mother tongue from the following four aspects:

1. Connotative Meaning

Connotative meaning is the communication value that a word or a combination of words has by virtue of what it refers to, over and above its purely conceptual content.

It is said that, when we study English words, what we remember firstly is their conceptual meaning. Compared with conceptual meaning, connotative meaning is peripheral, and relatively unstable, that is, it may vary according to culture, historical period, and the experience of individual. Therefore, connotative meaning is an additional part above the literal meaning, rather than a basic component of language (Liu & Wen, 2006). For instance, a group of words “grin, beam, smile, smirk”, share a similar conceptual meaning based on types of smile. But, the real differences between them lie in their connotative meanings. For example, “beam” is a smile which means happiness; “smirk”, a smile which connotes gloating of some kind. So, second language learners may easily produce incorrect forms in speech due to incomplete knowledge of the target language.

The connotative meaning of words implies people’s attitude towards them. Such as, the Chinese word “喜鹊” is always related with the meaning of “auspicious” or “lucky”. However, in English, “magpie” has such underlying meanings as “nagging” or “troublesome”. In other cases, “bamboo” means “lofty morals and noble character” in China, but it has nothing associative meaning in English. The Chinese character “黄” may connote the meaning of “delicate” and “tender”, like Chinese words “黄毛丫头”, “黄花闺女”. But, it is replaced by “green” to convey such meanings in English, such as, “a green hand”, “green good” and “a green old age” and so forth. And the Chinese word “白手” means the one has nothing at all. However, in English, “white hand” can only be understood as “pure” or “clean”.

Therefore, only in the specific cultural context can learners master and understand the full meaning of words. It must involve the context of western cultures and values in the process of learning English vocabulary.

2. Social Meaning

Social meaning is the meaning which an expression conveys about the context or social circumstances of its use. It chiefly includes stylistic meaning of an utterance.

Take the following words as an example, all of which have the same conceptual meaning: steed, horse, nag and gee-gee. “Steed” is poetic in style, and would be appropriate in a literary work about the Knights of the Round Table; “horse” is the common word, which can be used in any context; “nag” is slangy and is usually used in colloquial English; while “gee-gee” belongs to the nursery and is used by children. However, the Chinese character “马” can be used in any social circumstances, which causes Chinese learners to use this item in all contexts in English and leads to the negative transfer of the social meaning of words.

Also, the English words “cast, throw, chuck” share the same conceptual meaning. But they must be used in different context, for instance, “cast” is normally used in literature; “throw” is a general word which can be used in any context; “chuck” is slangy, which should be used in casual contexts. However, in Chinese, it has no differences of the meanings of these words.

In fact, it rarely exists such words with both the same conceptual meaning and stylistic meaning in English. Thus, it is necessary for learners to distinguish and identify synonyms and master their specific usages in English learning.

3. Affective Meaning

The level of meaning that conveys the language user’s feelings, including his attitude or evaluation in shaping his use of language is called affective meaning or emotion meaning.

“China” is a word with special meaning for Chinese people, as it embodies our country and the whole nation. As well as, “communism” carries our great ideals, and it is the belief that is shared by every Chinese people. That is to say, different people have different ideas of the same word. Also, the words like “colonialist”, “anarchist”, “individualism”, “landlord”, are the neuter words in English. But, the corresponding words “殖民主义”, “无政府主义”, “个人主义”, “地主” have a strong derogatory meaning in China. In English, “nigger”, originally a word denoting a certain race, has virtually become a term of abuse or contempt. In addition, some words have different affective meanings, though they

have the same conceptual meaning. Take “politician” and “statesman” for example, the former has a derogatory sense while the latter does not.

The differences of ideology and political system between two nations do not only make a different conceptual meaning of the same word, but also present a different affective meaning.

4. Collocative Meaning

The associations a word gets because of the meaning of words which tend to occur in its linguistic context are called collocative meanings.

If you look up the adjective “clear” in a good dictionary of contemporary English, you will probably find it will list at least ten different meanings, depending on the linguistic context in which it is used, from “clear conscience” and “clear sky” to “clear case”. In each instance the meaning of “clear” is slightly different: “clear conscience” means “without guilt”, whereas “clear” in “clear case” means “unmistakable”. The differences between them come from the words “clear” collocates with.

For instance, the Chinese word “大雨”, “大风”, “大雪”, maybe most of Chinese learners will translate “大” into “big” directly. Actually, we could only use “heavy rain”, “strong wind”, and “heavy snow-fall” to express the corresponding meaning. The English phrase “the man in the street” which means “ordinary person” can not be interpreted as “街上的人”. In fact, each language has a particular rule of collocation of words. If learners fail to understand the usages of words, the incorrect forms will occur. Such as the Chinglish words: “raining chicken (落汤鸡)”, “small school (小学)”, “day day up (天天向上)”, “seven up eight down (七上八下)” and so on.

The negative transfer of collocative meaning will cause the misuse of English words. As many Chinese learners are puzzled at such usage of words, there provides some suggestions for them: Firstly, have a deeper understanding of western culture and expand the reading materials. Secondly, summarize and collect the special usages of words consciously. Thirdly, analyze the similarities and differences between Chinese and English at the lexical level.

B. Negative Transfer of Culture

It has long been recognized that language is an essential and important part of a given culture and that the impact of culture upon a given language is something intrinsic and indispensable. Of the aspects leading to language transfer, especially negative transfer, the environmental factors really deserve people’s attention. Actually, learning a language is more than learning the linguistic rules and patterns of the target language, and more significantly, it is the penetration and acquisition of a new culture.

Language is an indispensable carrier of culture, and different language forms reflect different cultural backgrounds. Negative transfer of culture includes the negative transfer of intellectual culture and communicative culture. Intellectual culture refers to that different people will have different interpretation on a certain word in that they share the different backgrounds in communication. And the communicative culture means that the one will misunderstand some words due to the lack of relevant knowledge of them. The improper diction is the result of the negative transfer of culture, and the negative transfer of communicative culture involves the pragmatic failures (Yuan, 2000).

Proverbs epitomize the essence of culture and the value system of society. The most obvious negative transfer of culture can be found in the collocation of idioms. A ready example is found in English “Love me, love my dog”. An equivalent in Chinese will be “Love me, love my bird” (爱屋及乌). These two proverbs reveal different attitudes English and Chinese speakers cherish toward these pets. This disparity, if not cautioned, will invite unpleasantness in society (Hu, 2011). Other cases, the Chinese word “力大如牛” is interpreted as “as strong as horse” rather than “as strong as bull”. In China, “pig” has the meaning of “avarice”, “stupid” and “laziness”, but, in English, people tend to use “as stupid as goose” rather than “as stupid as pig”.

The differences of aesthetic value orientation between Chinese and Western cultures lead to a fact that there are many different views on the same word. In Chinese, “dragon” is the symbol of China, which stands for the emperor and the whole nation in ancient times. So, there are many idioms like “望子成龙”, “龙凤呈祥” to express people’s best wishes. However, “dragon” refers to a kind of ferocious monster in English.

It has become axiomatic to state that there exists a close relationship between language and culture. Culture finds a better representation through language use. Language plays a decisive role when we have a conversation with others, and we may even state that cultural stereotypes and conflicts come in when we communicate with others with no real understanding. Therefore, no effort should be spared to cultivate students’ cross-cultural awareness, which is of special importance.

V. CONCLUSION

Language transfer is inevitable in second language acquisition. After having discussed the function of language transfer in English vocabulary acquisition, we can reach a balanced point that both positive and negative transfer are important equally. Both of them should deserve people’s attention. The main purpose of this research is to investigate the phenomena of mother tongue transfer in English vocabulary acquisition by Chinese learners and further to explore some effective means to improve the efficiency of English vocabulary learning.

A clear knowledge of the difference between Chinese and English semantic systems will no doubt facilitate second

language acquisition. The positive functions of phonetic and word formation can assist the comprehension of the meaning of English words, and the negative transfer of culture can hinder the English words learning. So, in the process of lexical learning, we should spare no effort to exploit the positive transfer of Chinese, and avoid its negative transfer.

After having analyzed the function of mother tongue in English vocabulary learning, this paper provides some suggestions for Chinese learners to adopt in the later learning. To begin with, learners need to have a clear understanding of the differences between two languages. It is necessary for learners to understand the differences and similarities between the L1 and L2, for only by doing this, they will have that kind of awareness of finding the differences and similarities and making use of the mother tongue. The potential difficulties can be predicted by contrastive analysis. And the ability to understand and react to the difficulties between two languages plays a decisive role in avoiding the interference from native language. In addition, learners should cultivate the cross-cultural awareness. It is necessary for learners to acquire a second language under its cultural context, instead of only focusing on the books. Only in western cultural context can we master the full meaning of words. Therefore, the knowledge of western culture will contribute to having a better understanding and memorizing of English words.

Vocabulary is the foundation of language learning. It is sure that the mother tongue will do some kind of help and inhibition in learning a second language. So, second language learners should pay attention to summarizing the target language rules, utilizing positively transfers properly and avoiding the interference of negative transfer.

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Application of Virtual Team-working in Teaching Productive Skills to Iranian EFL Learners

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Abstract—Application of Virtual Team-Working has provided opportunities to solve the limitations of the traditional ways of teaching and learning. This study investigated, how using virtual team-working could affect teaching productive skills of Iranian EFL learners. A group of 30 Iranian upper intermediate female EFL learners, aged 18-31, in Isfahan Air Base were arranged in two groups. They set up their virtual groups and continued team-work activities during 6 weeks. This study employed a triangulated research approach involving questionnaires, pre/post productive tests, observation, and interview to increase the reliability of the study. Pre/Post productive tests were used to compare the participants' speaking and writing productions before/after the project, and they were evaluated based on the comparison of their mean scores by Matlab software. A chi-square test was run for each test to see whether the differences between observed and expected results were significant. The results showed that the mean scores of the participants in the posttest were significantly higher than that in the pretest in experimental group. Moreover, the attitudes of the participants towards using virtual team-working were surveyed by using questionnaires. The results of this study may benefit teachers, students, and those involved in teaching and learning.

Index Terms—productive skills, virtual team-working, technology, Whatsapp and Viber, Iranian EFL learners

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing and speaking, although comes late in the process of acquisition of a language, they form an important part of language learning and requires special attention, as productive process skill. It is the process of converting thoughts and ideas into written and spoken communication. Students' writings and speaking also need some feedback and correctness. In this way, students try to write and speak better. There are mobile applications through which one can get others' feedbacks. The activities on these virtual Team-Working are based on interacting and collaborating, which enhance learning. English teachers are greedily looking for better new ways to teach productive English skills. Many Iranian students believe that writing is the most boring, tedious, and uninteresting activity in an English class. The rapid development of technology has provided these opportunities for them. Internet and mobiles are essential needs for everyone in general and for educators in particular. Mobile devices applications are quickly becoming one of the main learning tools used in English language learning.

As the Internet takes up residence in our homes, schools and institutes, we no longer have the prerogative to view technology as optional. People are increasingly, becoming involved in different online activities. In terms of writing and speaking, member in online groups can encourage and motivate them to write and speak carefully and correctly, so an important factor, which affects second language learning, is to provide learners' motivation to participate actively in Virtual Team-Working via virtual spaces.

Virtual team on mobile applications is an online activity in which interaction becomes involved in commenting on each other's ideas, sharing feelings and receiving comments. A virtual team is a team that is easy to create, set up, manage, and can be updated frequently. It requires only basic access to the Internet, and android mobile devices. Virtual Teams are interactive teams that provide learning both inside and outside of the physical classrooms. In recent years, many educators have been investigating the potential of online collaborative teams for teaching and learning language. Several studies have focused the advantages of using online courses in foreign language classes to develop productive skills, however, using Virtual Team-Working in education, in Iran, is still novel and the studies on this domain is not sufficient.

Responding to the increasing decentralization and globalization of work process, many institutes have responded to their dynamic environments by introducing virtual teams that collaborate by communication technologies across geographical, temporal, cultural and organizational boundaries to achieve common goal in their organizations outputs. Virtual teams are growing in popularity (Cascio, 2007).

Writing and speaking process is a frustrating activity for many students. Unfortunately students tend to focus on grades rather than learning. In spite of studying English for a long time in foreign language institutes in Iran, the result is not satisfactory. Most of the graduated students cannot communicate in real context, especially in terms of writing

and speaking. To overcome this problem, it is necessary to implement different innovative methods to teach writing and speaking in an authentic environment. However, many researchers have supported the effect of online teaching on learners' language performance, many institutes in Iran do not utilize virtual learning in their educational program to teach English. If English teachers have the required online mobile services to choose an enjoyable method for teaching writing, speaking and make the students motivate to produce language meaningfully, it may not take a long time to see students' improvement in writing and speaking.

In virtual team-working spaces, students can publish their own writing, speaking and receive comments from outsiders. The opportunity to take part in discussion and further use of the target language can provide for them higher level of writing and speaking proficiency. This study was an attempt to investigate the effects of using virtual team-working on teaching productive skills, to change the traditional methods of instruction of writing and speaking and to see if better results would arise. This study could be a very significant one in the absence of similar studies in terms of variables and settings in the Iranian context. Virtual team-working are highly interactive, so teachers could encourage students to be active in online activities. This study can open up opportunity for English teachers to apply an out of class learning.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

As mobile devices are becoming increasingly ubiquitous, many researchers and practitioners have incorporated the technology into their teaching and learning environments. The applications of mobile learning range widely to higher education and corporate learning settings, from formal and informal learning to classroom learning, distance learning, and field study. Despite the many forms of and increasing services offered by mobile learning, it is still immature in terms of its technological limitations and pedagogical considerations (Traxler, 2007). And although some researchers offer a framework for theorizing about mobile learning with conversation theory and activity theory (Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2007; Uden, 2007; Zurita & Nussbaum, 2007), instructional designers and teachers need a solid theoretical foundation for mobile learning in the context of distance education and more guidance about how to utilize emerging mobile technologies and integrate them into their teaching more effectively (as cited in Park, 2011).

Recently, the terminology has been altered for web based learning; it was called as technology based or distance learning, online education, in the end it is now called e-learning and web based learning. A variety of basic language skills can be developed with the help of web- based language learning activities. It is known that; there are four basic skills in English which are listening, speaking, writing, and reading. These skills can be put on the web and made interactive in a variety of ways (Amiri, 2012).

One of these ways is internet communication tools such as E-learning, E- mail, Weblogs, weblogs, chat in a group via mobile phone through using the known application such as Whatsapp, Viber. One distinguishable arena of research on virtual teamwork, different from those of typical classroom teamwork, is the use of technological tools in virtual teamwork. The success of a virtual team depends on the balanced integration of technologies and team activities.(as cited in Sarica, 2008). "The barrier of location for people in different parts of the world has been removed by some of the latest technologies such as the internet, mobile devices such as Personal Digital Assistant (PDA' S), the web, iPhone" (Sarica & Cavus, 2008).Web-based technologies and powerful internet connections provide various new possibilities for the development of educational technology.(as cited in Sarica & Cavus, 2008).

As Sarica (2008), stated that Because English is the only language that has attracted many people around the world, for the most part due to the globalization the interest in using the technology has been increased. And as a result Students learn faster and easier than before because of the application of technology in educational institutions. It is quite clear that English has become a necessity today. For this reason, it could be recommended that; going through internet is an alternative way to study English. Technologies and powerful internet connections prepared various new possibilities and latest trends for teachers and learners. In fact as the electronic media as internet and the use of virtual learning in education are the inseparable elements of education in the global atmosphere today, special attention must be paid on how to use the information communication technology and virtual learning environment to meet the demands of era as information and communication technology has become a crucial part of the modern world (Amiri, 2012).

Nowadays, each country emphasizes applying the information and communication technology as the foundation of their educational systems. The rate of technologies progress in the last decades has announced a new era in our understanding of promoting English proficiency and shows some of the advantages of using ICT and VLE in the classroom (Hayati, 2012).

To achieve the objectives of the study, the following research questions incorporated:

1. Are there any significant differences between the achievement of the experimental group and control group in English productive skills?
2. Does the application of Virtual Team-Working affect teaching productive skill to Iranian EFL?

III. METHOD

A. *Participants*

The design of this study was a mixed method, both experimental and descriptive one in order to investigate the impact of Virtual Team-Working in teaching English to Iranian EFL. The research was done at Air Base in the city of Isfahan, Iran. First, 30 female adult English learners (age range = 19-31), studying English as a Foreign language at Isfahan Air Base language institute in Iran were randomly selected. Then, the sample was divided into two groups, the control group (n=15) and the experimental group (n= 15). The participant's level of speaking assessed after 20 hours of instruction via using Virtual Team-working. The data for this study are based on the students' usage of mobile application in order to have virtual team-working by using sound, text, graphic and animation are accessible to students. Currently only experimental group in the English institute employed activities through virtual team-working. Eighty percent of the participants were in their twenties; twenty percent were in their thirties. The level of the EFL learners was upper intermediate. All of them were homogeneous according to pretest.

TABLE 1
DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND OF THE PARTICIPANT

Number of the participants	30
Sex	Female
Mother tongue	Persian
Age	18-31
Level	Upper intermediate

B. Instruments

In order to guarantee the homogeneity of the subjects regarding the English language proficiency, a standardized KET 1 Practice Test was taken from the subjects participating in the research. The key English Test tests the four skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking, which is based on Waystage specification (1990, Council of Europe) as pretest was administered. This exam helped the researchers to grasp homogenous subjects which then they could divide them into control and experimental groups. Different virtual activities through virtual groups for teaching productive language skills, writing and speaking were used for the experimental group. After passing 20 hours of instruction via Virtual Team-Working, a post-test, KET 2 was administrated.

1. Pre-test and Post-test

A pretest KET1 exam was taken placed before the process as a criteria placement. After the treatment the posttest KET2 was taken place from the participants. The pre-test and post-test conclude the productive skills evaluation in terms of writing and speaking after passing six weeks of teaching through virtual spaces, the post-test KET 2 was taken placed. The amount of the instruction in both group were the same, just the format of the instruction was different. Then the results of the students score in these two sets of exams were compared. They set up their virtual groups and continued team-work activities during 6 weeks. This study employed a triangulated research approach involving questionnaires, pre/post productive tests, observation, and interview to increase the reliability of the study. Pre/Post productive tests were used to compare the participants' speaking and writing productions before/after the project, and they were evaluated based on the comparison of their mean scores by Matlab software. A chi-square test was run for each test to see whether the differences between observed and expected results were significant.

2. KET Writing and Speaking Part

The Cambridge English, Key Writing paper has nine parts and different types of texts and questions. Parts 1 to 5 are about writing. Writing is taken together about 60 minutes, the Writing parts have 30 questions and are worth 50% of the total score for the exam. The participants should read the instructions carefully before starting each section, they should take their time and don't hurry. There is plenty of time to answer all the questions. They should study the vocabulary topics then they should study grammar at A2 level and at last they should study more reading exercises at A2 level. Time allowed was about 45 minutes, normally the student participated the speaking test with another candidate. The two of the students met two examiners.

IV. RESULTS

The learners pretest scores were analyzed in terms of frequencies and percentages. The results showed that all of the participants in the experimental group were improved in both writing and speaking skills. The prewriting test investigated the participants' initial writing and speaking performances and was used to compare it with the results of the participants' post writing and speaking performances. These two writing and speaking tests were scored based on a rubric scoring model in an analytic way of scoring and due to some specific components of writing and speaking, which were the main focus in the research.

TABLE 2
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RELATED TO EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PERFORMANCES ON THE PRE AND POSTTEST IN WRITING SKILL

Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
(Pretest writing)	15	16.5333	2.1996	0.5679
(Posttest writing)	15	18.4667	2.9488	0.7614

Table 2 revealed that there was a significant difference between the pre and post-writing test scores in experimental group. The participants of the study scored significantly greater on the post writing test (M = 18.46, SD = 2.94) than on the pretest writing test (M=16.53, SD=2.19).

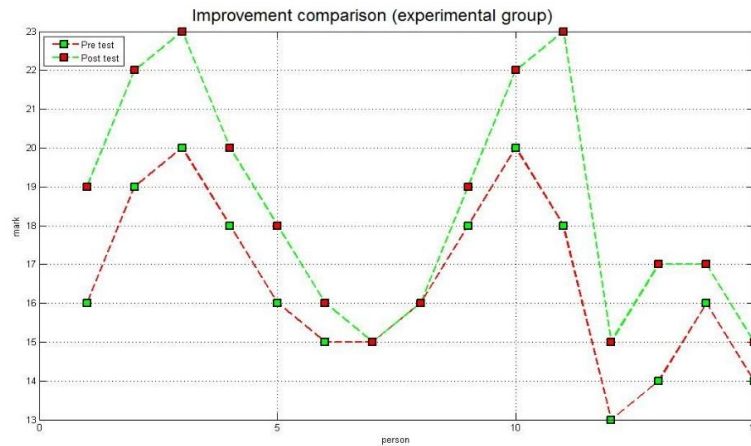


Figure1. Correlation between pre and posttest scores of experimental in writing.

Table 3 depicts the descriptive statistics of experimental group on the pretest and posttest on speaking skill. The experimental group received the mean score of 17.2 in pretest of speaking and the mean scores of 19.06 in posttest of speaking. Thus both group showed that there was not any significant difference between both groups on the pretest. The descriptive statistics tabulated shows that both the experimental group and the control Group have performed almost the same on the pretest, there exists no significant difference between the two groups.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS RELATED TO EXPERIMENTAL GROUP PERFORMANCES ON THE PRETEST AND POSTTEST ON SPEAKING SKILL

Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std Deviation	Std Error Mean
(Pretest speaking)	15	17.2000	2.2104	0.5707
(Posttest speaking)	15	19.0667	2.8900	0.7462

Table 3 revealed that there was a significant difference between the pre and post speaking test scores in experimental group. The participants of the study scored significantly greater on the post speaking test (M = 19.06, SD = 2.89) than on the pretest speaking test (M = 17.20, SD = 2.21). The significant level for testing null and alternative hypotheses was set at .05. The p value was less than .05 and this was the evidence.

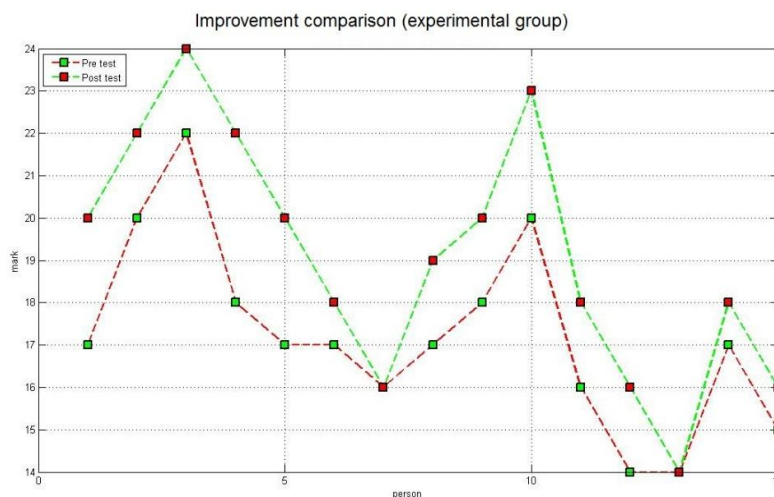


Figure2. Correlation between pre and posttest scores of experimental group in speaking.

V. DISCUSSION AND FINDINGS

The results from pretest and posttest writing of the students indicated that applying the virtual project affect majority of the student s performance in a significant manner and the study was in accordance with other research done by

McCarthy (2012), which investigated how to develop effective virtual teams with students in a blended or online environment. The results from the study were in line with different student studies were mixed concerning working in a virtual team. The participants of this study showed positive improvement by using technology and virtual team-working.

The finding was also in agreement with Kavanagh, Caspersz, Levak and Sargent (2011), Virtual Team Contract Working as a virtual team has different demands when compared to working in a face to-face team to communicate, share information and meet synchronously or asynchronously. The widespread use of virtual teams in online courses has not been accompanied by adequate research to address those issues that affected the learning and productivity in virtual teams. The findings of this study which explored the relationship between the nature of computer-mediated communication technology and virtual team learning suggested that flow experience is associated with perceived characteristics of the computer software as well as with team-related creativity and learning outcomes.

The finding was in contrast with the findings of Tan (2012), who found that teams which used their dialogue technique were more satisfied with decisions made in the team which showed that a traditional team started out more satisfied than a virtual team. While online students generally perceive interaction as an effective means of learning, they vary with regard to having more interaction in online courses. Such variations seem to be associated with differences in personality or learning style. According to Bailey (2016), stated that working together virtually can be especially rewarding to those who recognize it has its own set of rules and its own measures of success. It takes work, it takes the right mindsets, and you can argue that each team creates a culture of its own. We've all been on the "information highway" for decades. Now we're learning how to drive on the virtual highway.

The aim of this small-scale study was to improve the level of writing and speaking of the EFL learners through virtual team-working. Comparing the results from pre and posttest of writing and speaking showed the significant improvement of the participants in productive skills. The participants of the study scored significantly greater on the posttest than on the pretest both in writing and speaking. The results from observation in the current study showed that the students improved in writing proficiency in comparison with the pretest results. They became better in writing grammatically and using punctuation marks, and cohesion and coherence. And they became better in speaking grammatically simultaneously.

VI. IMPLICATIONS AND APPLICATIONS OF THE STUDY

The results of this study illustrated that virtual team-working have great influence on educational system in teaching English to EFL learners. However, this study has encountered some limitations, but its findings revealed some salient points for those who are involved in teaching and learning English to EFL learners. This study opens up opportunity for English teachers to apply further opportunities to communicate in an authentic situation. The results of this study and the related literature proved that using technology and virtual team-working have great potential to be used as an educational tool. The students will benefit of using virtual team-working in teaching through interacting and collaborating with students and teacher. It also provides a good way for shy students to express themselves freely. Moreover, the students can experience having real audience and sharing knowledge with them to expand their information. This will motivate students to improve their writing and speaking abilities and students will be aware of their own learning. Self-monitoring is one of the distinctive part of this kind of teaching English. It may be of benefit to researchers who are willing to conduct a similar study in the future and to instructional technology planners to gain insight into how they can use technology to facilitate teaching English language skills. Using virtual team-working in educational environments seems to provide a deeper learning in compared to using the traditional techniques for teaching. In this process, learners themselves direct their learning, based on their own needs and difficulties.

VII. LIMITATION OF THE STUDY

In terms of the limitations of the study, this study is not an exception. Having a small size of participants is one of them, which requires further research for any generalizations. All the participants in this study were female and all were at the upper intermediate level. It is recommended to examine the project for female students and for students in different schools or university levels in further studies to see how different genders in different levels of study react to using technology and virtual team-working.

This study had control group and the participants' performance in experimental group after the treatment was compared with their own performance before the project. Another point might be that for implementing in our schools, skillful teachers in terms of computer and the Internet are needed, while many teachers in Iran are not so familiar with online programs and some are never motivated to learn. Moreover, high speed accessing to the Internet is very important for doing team-work activities. In this study we encountered some Internet accessing problems. Virtual team-working in this study were limited among the students and the teacher within a specific class. It is recommended to enlarge the interacting areas and the time spending in this regard.

VIII. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH STUDIES

Based on the limitations of this study, it is worthwhile to announce some suggestions for any related research in the future. A further study can be organized with a larger sample of participants in order to compare the progress of the participants who take part in the progress of the participants in the control group. As the current study was done on a group of EFL learners, further studies are needed in other levels as well. In this study productive skill development through virtual team-working was under investigating, so it is recommended to examine the effect of using technology to develop other language skills. It is also recommended to link different classes in different cities of Iran in a virtual team-working in order to examine the social and cultural aspects of exchange among the participants.

IX. FINAL REMARKS

Learning English language is very important, as it is the language of science. The ability to communicate in English is not only through speaking and listening, but also through writing and reading, so trying to learn productive skills can be as crucial as trying to learn other skills. Another point is that, learning a language skill should not be limited to taking part in language classes. Fortunately, with the growth of technology, people can learn language in various ways in real context through the Internet, at home, office. Using virtual team-working for language learning is a new interesting technique, which is not known for many English teachers and students in Iran. Conducting this small-scale study, it is hoped that this study and the studies similar to this one could encourage teachers and students to use technology and virtual team-working as supplementary tools in English classes and arouse students' awareness about the potential of this process in teaching and learning English.

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Immediate vs Delayed Correction Feedback (CF) and Accuracy of Oral Production: The Role of Anxiety

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Abstract—The objective of this study was twofold: a) to evaluate L2 learners' perspectives on the level of anxiety caused by different corrective feedbacks (Immediate vs. Delayed) and b) to uncover students' views towards the effects of anxiety on the accuracy of their oral production. Following an OPT, 30 students were selected as the main cohort of the study and then randomly assigned to two groups of 15. To collect the data, a close-ended questionnaire proposed by Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986) along with an additional open-ended questionnaire (developed by the researcher) was administered to the participants at the end of the term. Based on the results, it was noticed that although all the participants expressed some levels of anxiety when receiving error corrections, the level of their anxiety was found to be significantly different and learners of the G1 who received immediate CF experienced more anxiety than the G2. Furthermore, results revealed that level of anxiety helped students to improve their accuracy during speech. Finally, the study recommends material developers to conduct natural communicative tasks and opportunities in which learners perform them naturally and without fear of making mistakes.

Index Terms—corrective feedback, immediate CF, delayed CF, anxiety, accuracy, oral production

I. INTRODUCTION

In the field of language learning, the concept of corrective feedback during communication can facilitate students' oral production (Swain, 1985). In fact, language acquisition process cannot be accomplished without providing error correction and feedback. Doff (1995) stated that repetition of ill-formed utterances would be harmful for learners. Therefore, teachers should be conscious and provide suitable feedback to learners whenever there is a mismatch utterance otherwise they may feel resentment and anxious. Among various kinds of anxiety three of them have gained more importance by scholars (e.g. Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope 1986; Spielberger & Vagg, 1995; Ellis, 2008): 1) Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA), 2) State Anxiety, and 3) Trait Anxiety. Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), defined the notion of Foreign Language Anxiety (FLA) as "a distinct complex of self-perceptions, beliefs, feeling, and behaviors related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of the (foreign) language learning process" (p.128). According to Spielberger and Vagg (1995), state anxiety occurs in some specific and temporary situations. This kind of anxiety is eliminated when the condition vanishes. Finally, trait anxiety is known as a stable individual difference (Abedi, Mahdavi, & Hassaskhah, 2016). In addition, Ellis (2008) claimed that trait anxiety is a kind of anxiety that provokes people to be more anxious in any condition. However, according to Abedi, Mahdavi, and Hassaskhah (2016), FLA anxiety is different from two other kinds of anxiety (state and trait anxiety), and it "is a situation-specific concept" (p.1).

According to Tseng (2012), though wide-spread use of English language (as a second or foreign language in all over the world) and also use of modern communicative language teaching methods and techniques in the context of language learning classrooms have facilitated the improvement of learners' communication skills, existence of some individual differences and feelings such as anxiety may hinder students to be proficient in learning the target language.

Corder (1967) claimed that committing errors is a normal activity in every language learning context. Therefore, considering the role of corrective feedback in language learning process is of crucial concern. Therefore, the main role of teachers in classrooms specially during students' oral activities is to consider individual differences of learners and provide the most effective CF types based on their specific needs. In order to accomplish learners' purposes of language learning, error correction types should match both various students' needs and their situations in specific conditions. For instance, to be fluent or accurate during speech, the timing of feedback and also learners' individual differences should be considered. In fact, a huge number of researchers have worked on the effectiveness of CF and its various types on different language skills. However, few scholars have considered some other aspects of CF such as the timing of feedback, affective factors and individual differences like learners' anxiety levels across their own' perspectives. Therefore, the main objectives of this study were to examine the learners' perceptions regarding the effects of

Immediate and Delayed CF types on learners' anxiety level and subsequently the effects of anxiety on their accuracy improvement during speaking.

Research Questions

The study sets out to answer the following research questions:

1. What are L2 learners' attitudes toward the effects of Immediate CF on their level of anxiety as compared with delayed CF?
2. What are L2 learners' attitudes toward the effects of anxiety on the accuracy of learners' oral production?

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A. Introduction

The purpose of this part is to discuss some important concepts which are the main focus of the present study. The first three sections will introduce errors and corrective feedback definitions, error types and corrective feedback strategies, and the role of CF in oral production (specifically in accuracy improvement). The next sections will discuss participants' individual differences including anxiety level, and the role of anxiety in accuracy of learners' oral production. Finally, at the end of this part, relevant previous studies on the effectiveness of CF and also role of anxiety concept in improvement of accuracy of students' oral production will be presented.

B. Corrective Feedback and Error Correction

Since there has been a great emphasis on the notion of CLT (Communicative Language Teaching) as a tool for learning language through interaction in the target language (Nunan, 1991), speaking skill has gained more importance by teachers, learners and researchers during recent decades. Therefore, for being able to communicate in the target language and to be proficient in oral production activities, all various factors of this skill should be investigated. One of the main aspects of speaking skill is learners' erroneous utterances and the way these errors should be treated. The other important factor is considering learners' individual differences especially their level of anxiety.

Whereas some scholars (such as Gass and Selinker 2008) believed that errors should be inhibited and eliminated, Corder (1967, cited in Ellis, 1994) mentioned the crucial role of errors in language learning contexts. According to Corder's attitudes, errors can help teachers to be aware of students' language learning process and let them to know how much learners have already learnt. In addition, it helps students to discover the rules and structures of the target language. Finally, by considering the notion of errors as an essential part of language learning, researchers notice the way languages are acquired. For the above reasons, researchers and teachers must consider the concept of corrective feedback as an essential part of language learning process.

Ellis (2006) defined the notion of corrective feedback (CF) as reactions to students' erroneous utterances. In addition, Chaudron (1988, cited in Lyster, Saito, & Sato, 2013) defined it as a complex phenomenon which includes several functions.

According to Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), corrective feedback means giving corrective responses to a learner at the time when he/she makes an error. They have stated that these responses can be in the form of: (a) an indication that shows there is a mistake, (b) providing the correct form of that error, or (c) providing metalinguistic information about the essence of the error, or any conformation of these forms.

Interaction Hypothesis is one of the most important theories in the field of second language acquisition which was introduced by Long (1983 cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006). According to this hypothesis, in order to acquire L2 students should comprehend input which is gained through modified interaction (Long, 1983 cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006). Long claimed that since students cannot learn a second language from native speakers' speech, in order to acquire the target language and be able to communicate with other classmates; teachers should provide modified interaction situations for them. Long in his next published version of Interaction Hypothesis underlined the crucial role of teachers and also the role of corrective feedback in the field of language learning in classrooms (Long, 1983 cited in Lightbown and Spada, 2006).

C. How and When to Correct Errors

Although there are so many ways for teachers to treat an error, the way they select to correct errors may affect the learners' attitudes towards the target language. According to Akay and Akbarov (2011), there are a few important points that should be concerned in the field of error correction:

1. Considering the goals of the lesson, and the learners' levels

In learning the objectives of a lesson, CF would be more beneficial to learners when the focus of the error correction is on a particular goal. For instance, if the aim of a lesson is being able to use the irregular forms of past tense verbs in speech, then, for reinforcing that aim teachers should provide a speaking activity and, finally, correct mistakes that are related to the use of those particular verbs. In this controlled setting, learners might remember their specific mistakes and errors from one lesson to the next.

2. Encouraging self-correction

Teachers by encouraging learners to correct their own errors, helps them feel that they have sufficient freedom in the classroom and they can control their process of learning by their own hands. In this way, when students are making

errors, teachers should indicate that an error has occurred, and must wait for the learner to find out that error and correct it (the learner may do that with the help of her/his classmates). For instance, if an intermediate learner says, "He go to the store", teacher should stop the learner by repeating what he has said. "He go?" "He go?" The aim is to inform the learner from his/her error and lead the student to re-think about what he/she has said and then correct his/her own error.

3. Being aware of when and how to correct

Teachers should pay attention to some basic mistakes, and bring them up later. They can write some sentences on the board, which includes some of the same mistakes, and ask learners to find and correct them.

4. Do not waste time correcting mistakes

In the field of second language learning, mistakes happen normally in classrooms and are inevitable. Teachers should not waste all the time just for correcting and repeating the correct form; instead they should provide a situation in which learners could learn from their own mistakes.

D. *The Timing of Feedback*

One of the fundamental aspects of CF which has been marginalized by researchers for a long time is the timing of feedback. However, this issue has a significant role on acquisition process especially during speech. It also affects learners' level of anxiety while they are participating in oral activities. For the above reasons, teachers should consider the time of providing feedback according to students' needs, purposes, and also specific classroom contexts.

Whereas some scholars and teachers believe that CF should be provided with some delay, some others argue that errors should be treated immediately. Many studies have supported the efficacy of delayed CF and implied the use of this strategy in language learning classrooms. For instance, Fanselow (1977) suggested that in order to analyze the nature and kind of that specific error and also to decide how it should be treated appropriately, teachers should provide delayed CF. In addition, Chastain (1971) recommended that common mistakes should be corrected at the end of learners' speech (after finishing their oral activities). Moreover, Long (1977, cited in Quinn, 2014) claimed that providing delayed CF helps learners to continue their flow of communication and prevent the negative effects of interrupting their speech. Thus, this type of CF might help students to be more fluent during their oral production activities. There have been both opposing and supporting ideas regarding Immediate and Delayed CF in the background studies related to this issue (Long, 1977). For example, Allwright (1975), stated that teachers must treat erroneous utterances immediately and do not postpone it to a later time. Furthermore, according to Long (1977), since by correcting ill-formed utterances immediately learners notice their learning process and might be more vigilant and conscious for being more accurate, there is a negative relationship between the efficacy of feedback on language learning improvement and providing delayed CF (cited in Quinn, 2014). The other innate factors which should be considered while examining the effectiveness of Immediate and Delayed CF during oral production are the notions of fluency and accuracy. As stated above, while some scholars believed that in order to be accurate errors should be treated immediately, others argued that for being more fluent CF should be provided with some delay. Since evaluating improvement of both these factors at the same time was not in the scope of this study, one of the main purposes of the current study was to examine the improvement of accuracy during learners' oral production.

E. *Accuracy in Oral Production*

Skehan (1996) claimed that the concept of accuracy refers to the way the target language is constructed according to its rules and structures. In addition, Skehan (1996, p. 46) defined accuracy as "a learner's capacity to handle whatever level of interlanguage complexity s/he has currently attained". According to Skehan and Foster (1977), accuracy is the ability to prevent committing errors while performing language activities. In this definition, learners have high level of capacity for controlling their challenging situations during their speech.

For calculating accuracy scores of learners' improvement in oral production, many measures have been presented. For example, Yuan and Ellis (2003) introduced two kinds of measures: 1) error-free clauses and 2) correct verb forms. The first accuracy measure refers to the percentage of clauses which were performed accurately and were not considered as non-target-like utterances (including all lexical, morphological and syntactic errors). On the other hand, correct verb forms refer to the percentage of all verbs components which were used accurately (including subject-verb agreement, tense, and modality).

F. *Personality Factors: Anxiety*

One of the main aspects which have consequential effects on acquiring a second or foreign language is affective factors and learners' individual differences. According to Dörnyei (2005) and Jakobovits (1970), individual differences are considered as the most constant factors of second language learning improvement. Anxiety is the most important aspect of affective factors which highly affects the learners' process of language learning (especially during speaking skill) (Brown, 1999, cited in Renko, 2012). Therefore, the following section will introduce the concept of anxiety and its role in the language learning classrooms.

MacIntyre and Gardner (1994) defined the concept of Foreign language (FL) anxiety as "the feeling of tension and apprehension specifically associated with second language [L2] contexts, including speaking, listening, and learning" (p. 284). According to Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope (1986), three main components of FL anxiety are: 1) communication apprehension, 2) test anxiety, and 3) fear of negative evaluation. The first component is a kind of shyness specified by

feelings of anxiety while people are communicating. People who have difficulties during their speaking with classmates where their oral activities are monitored experience high level of FL anxiety. Secondly, test anxiety is identified as a kind of performance anxiety deriving from a fear of failure (p. 127). Learners with test anxiety are worried about their underperformance; they often expect better performance of themselves even more than their own capacities and capabilities. Finally, fear of negative evaluation means “apprehension about others’ evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively” (Watson & Friend, 1969, cited in Horwitz et al., 1986, p. 128). Students who fear negative evaluation have more shyness, experience high levels of anxiety and consequently have low level of performance during their oral production (Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002).

In the context of language learning classrooms, almost all students experience some levels of anxiety especially during performing oral activities and while they’re communicating in public. Horwitz (1995) stated that though students with low level of anxiety have better performance in different skills of language learning and since speaking in the target language in front of others stimulates anxiety levels, most of the learners experience anxious situations during their speech. In addition, according to Ely (1986), learners with high level of anxiety are less willing to participate in performing oral tasks and thus are unwilling to communicate with others. This issue is in line with the work of many scholars (such as Hilleson, 1996; Jackson, 2002; Liu, 2006; Tsui, 1996), they argued that students who experience more anxiety are less likely to speak in the target language. They prefer to remain silent and not participate in oral activities.

Although, a large number of researchers have considered the effects of anxiety on language learning and examined the existing relationship between this notion and corrective feedback, few scholars have investigated this issue regarding participants’ preferences and perceptions.

G. Previous Studies on Anxiety and Language Learning

One of the earliest studies on the concept of anxiety has been done by Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986). During a clinical experience which was carried out among foreign language students in university classes (at the University of Texas), it was noticed that anxiety centers on two factors of language learning: speaking and listening skills. The students mentioned that they feel more confident and comfortable while delivering speeches they had prepared before; however they tend to become inhibited and anxious in role-play situations. Moreover, tests on anxiety and over-studying were reported as common anxiety-related phenomena. Learners’ attitudes regarding language learning were stated as contributing to their frustration and stress in the classroom in the sense that many learners believed that “nothing should be said in the foreign language until it can be said correctly and that it is not okay to guess an unknown foreign language word” (Horwitz et al. 1986: 127). Therefore, according to the scholars, these viewpoints must produce and increase level of anxiety.

In another anxiety study which was conducted by MacIntyre and Gardner (1991), 23 Scales were proposed to examine language anxiety, social evaluation anxiety. In this study, learners’ short-term memory and vocabulary production in their L1 (English) and L2 (French) were measured. The findings have revealed that language anxiety correlates significantly with both variables. Based on results, French tasks indicated to cause more levels of anxiety than English tasks. In addition, in the L1 tasks, the short term memory test was more anxiety-stimulating than the vocabulary production test.

Rahimi, and Dasjerdi (2012) have done a study on examining the efficacy of two CF types (immediate and delayed) in improvement of students’ complexity, fluency and accuracy in oral production. The other purpose of this study was to investigate the learners’ level of anxiety while the teacher treats their errors immediately or with some delay. For data collection, 20 female intermediate EFL learners aged 15 to 20 were selected from one of the English language institutes in Isfahan, Iran. The learners were assigned into 2 groups of 10. While teacher treated errors of G1 immediately, for G2 errors were corrected with some delay during 30 sessions. At the end of the term, each participant should discuss one of the topics they had covered during the term. For data analysis, their voices were recorded and transcribed. In order to investigate the results, measures of accuracy, fluency, and complexity were applied. The results indicated that delayed error correction improved fluency and accuracy performance but not complexity. Furthermore, at the end of the term an anxiety questionnaire was conducted to all the learners. Finally, based on the results the learners of G2 whose errors were treated with some delay had lower level of anxiety.

Furthermore, Mesri (2012) investigated the relationship between EFL learners’ Foreign Language Anxiety with regard to gender. The data were collected through a Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety questionnaire (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986). For this purpose, 52 participants (studying English) were selected from Salmas University. The results indicated a significant relationship between FLCA and females students. It was suggested that foreign language teachers should be aware of learners’ level of anxiety, its causes and results. In addition, this study recommended some context-specific pedagogical implications for Iranian EFL teachers and practitioners.

In another study, Ni (2012) under the guidance of the Affective Filter Hypothesis developed by Krashen, have done a survey study on advanced English majors. By collecting and examining research data, some useful findings and implications have been discovered. These results would be helpful in the field of language teaching. Considering affective factors as essential parts of language learning will help teachers to improve their teaching methods and strategies. It also would be helpful for learners to cultivate an all-round improvement.

Tallon (2014) in a pilot study examined three main objectives. The first aim was to observe whether heritage learners of Spanish may experience foreign language anxiety (FLA) in a Spanish class or not. In addition, this study investigated

the scores of heritage Spanish learners on the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale and its correlation with their scores on three other anxiety scales (listening, reading, and writing). Finally, it examined whether there were any differences in the quantity and quality of language output produced by anxious and nonanxious learners. For data collection, participants responded to a background questionnaire, four anxiety scales, and some open-ended questions. Results indicated that 1) heritage learners of Spanish can experience foreign language anxiety in a second-semester Spanish class, 2) students can also experience anxiety in the other language skills (listening, reading, and writing), and 3) the anxiety level can lead to a less amount of language output, both orally and in writing regarding quantity and quality of language.

Finally, in a more recent study, Abedi, Mahdavi, and Hassaskhah (2016) in a study examined Iranian EFL learners' beliefs regarding the effects of corrective feedback on their level of anxiety. For data collection, two self-reporting questionnaires were conducted to participants. To examine the results measures of chi-square was developed. Results revealed that there were significant differences between the two groups across students' attitudes about effectiveness of CF. This study implied that while teachers are treating errors, should consider EFL learners' preferences along with their anxiety levels.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Introduction

The present study employed both quantitative and qualitative approach to collect and analyze the data. A close-ended questionnaire proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) with an additional open-ended question were applied to elicit the learners' preferences regarding the impacts of two specific CF types (Immediate and Delayed) on their level of anxiety and also evaluate students' attitudes across the effects of anxiety on accuracy of learners' oral production.

B. Participants

The participants of the current study were 100 Iranian EFL learners (female) aged 13 to 30 from an English language institute (Tak institute) in Dezful, Iran. Since participants' proficiency level varied from beginner to advanced level, for the sake of homogeneity, a placement test (OPT) was conducted to them. For data analysis of OPT, the reliable key answers and conversion chart of OPT were used. Results indicated that 44 of students were at intermediate proficiency level. As not all the intermediate learners were appropriate because of students' willingness to attend in this research project and ease of accessibility to participants by the researcher, convenience sampling (non-probability sampling) was selected and finally 30 of them were chosen as the main participants of the current study. Later, these 30 learners were assigned randomly to two groups of 15. The students' erroneous utterances of the first group were treated immediately. On the other side, teacher corrected non-target-like utterances of the second group after finishing their speech by using delayed CF.

At the time of the research project, students all had already studied English language 4 to 6 hours weekly at least for two years. The principal objective of holding those classes was to enhance learners' improvement at speaking skill. For this purpose, teacher reviewed all grammatical rules and structures they had already learnt from English Corner books during a term which contains 12 sessions. Participants represent 4 different classes taught by the same teacher in the same institute that were held in the afternoons twice a week.

C. Design

Since applying only quantitative procedures may not elicit the real attitudes of participants freely (Dörnyei 2007), to accomplish the purposes of this study, both quantitative and qualitative methods were used. To analyze the findings of this study, data collected from the close-ended questionnaire was transformed into numeric results, tabulated, and finally analyzed through using SPSS software. In addition to examine the findings of the open-ended question, a qualitative procedure was used and data were presented descriptively.

D. Procedures

In order to assess the learners' preferences, data were collected during 6 weeks. Since researcher believed that for obtaining the true results of learners' perspectives, the objectives and also the main concepts of the research study should be explained for them clearly. Therefore, in the first session, the researcher described the concept of CF, its various types and strategies, the notion of foreign language anxiety, and finally the concept of accuracy in oral production. The next five weeks were allocated to treatments which lasted for 10 sessions. Finally, the last session was dedicated for distributing a foreign language class anxiety scale (FLCAS) questionnaire (close-ended) proposed by Horwitz et al., (1986). For the purpose of the current study, 13 specific questions were selected from this FLCAS questionnaire. In this questionnaire, learners were supposed to choose "agree" or "disagree" options based on their own views; thus they could establish straightforward answers for the researcher. In addition, as (Dörnyei, 2007; and Dörnyei & Taguchi, 2010) stated that collecting data through open-ended questions establishes wealthy information for researcher to elicit participants' viewpoints across their acquisition process, one open-ended question (developed by the researcher) was added.

E. Data Collection

For examining the findings of this study, a close-ended questionnaire proposed by Horwitz et al. (1986) with an additional open-ended question (developed by the researcher) was applied to the participants. In order to gain applicable findings, the researcher clarified the primary aims of the questionnaire to the learners and before administering the questionnaire papers, she explained the objective of each part and specific item to the learners. Moreover, for obtaining authentic results, she mentioned the significance of their attitudes for the purpose of this study. Finally, researcher specified that while answering the open-ended question, students are free to declare their perspectives because there is not any answer sheet.

F. Data Analysis

To answer the first research question, the findings of the close-ended questionnaire were analyzed quantitatively through using the SPSS 22.0. Furthermore, in order to achieve the purpose of the second research question, data collected through responses of the participants to the open-ended question was analyzed qualitatively.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. Introduction

In order to accomplish the objectives of this study, data was generated by responses of a close-ended questionnaire along with an additional open-ended question.

B. Close-ended Questionnaire

The following table displays the findings of learners' answers to the close-ended questionnaire (FLCAS questionnaire) reduced to statistical data.

TABLE 1
RESULTS OF DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Questions	Groups	Agree	Disagree	Total	
1	I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking English in my class.	G1	73.3%	26.7%	100%
		G2	33.3%	66.7%	100%
2	I don't worry about making mistakes in the English class.	G1	40.0%	60.0%	100%
		G2	73.3%	26.7%	100%
3	I tremble when I know that I'm going to be called on in the English class.	G1	53.3%	46.7%	100%
		G2	20.0%	80.0%	100%
4	I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in the English class.	G1	66.7%	33.3%	100%
		G2	40.0%	60.0%	100%
5	It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in my English class.	G1	73.3%	26.7%	100%
		G2	13.3%	86.7%	100%
6	I feel confident when I speak English in class.	G1	46.7%	53.3%	100%
		G2	86.7%	13.3%	100%
7	I am afraid that my English teacher is ready to correct every mistake I make.	G1	80.0%	20.0%	100%
		G2	26.7%	73.3%	100%
8	I feel very self-conscious about speaking English in front of other students.	G1	33.3%	66.7%	100%
		G2	66.7%	33.3%	100%
9	I get nervous and confused when I am speaking English in class.	G1	73.3%	26.7%	100%
		G2	20.0%	80.0%	100%
10	I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules I have to learn to speak English.	G1	60.0%	40.0%	100%
		G2	26.7%	73.3%	100%
11	I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak English.	G1	66.7%	33.3%	100%
		G2	26.7%	73.3%	100%
12	I get nervous when the English teacher asks questions which I haven't prepared in advance.	G1	60.0%	40.0%	100%
		G2	20.0%	80.0%	100%
13	I get tense and nervous when I have to discuss things unfamiliar to me in English.	G1	86.7%	13.3%	100%
		G2	46.7%	53.3%	100%

The results of FLCAS questionnaire revealed that though learners of both groups experienced some levels of anxiety when their errors were corrected, the amount of anxiety and number of students that experienced feelings of resentment were totally different. For instance, a vast majority of students in G1 experienced a high level of anxiety while they have received immediate CF on their erroneous utterances during speech. They argued that they became nervous and worried for speaking English in the classroom (especially while teacher corrected their ill-formed utterances). In addition, students mentioned that when they have to discuss unfamiliar issues or answer questions without preparation, they started to panic or got tense to speak English. They also claimed that they trembled while teacher called their names to speak English because they were afraid that other classmates might laugh at them. On the other side, most learners of the second group experienced a less level of anxiety while their errors were treated after finishing their speech. According to participants' beliefs of G2, learners felt self-confident and conscious when they were speaking English in the class. Furthermore, they were not worried or embarrassed to volunteer for speaking English or answering teachers' questions in front of the other classmates.

C. Open-ended Question

In order to elicit learners' attitudes across the effects of anxiety on accuracy of their oral production, one open-ended question was added. This question is as follows:

Q1: What are your beliefs toward the effects of anxiety on accuracy of your oral production?

In responding to this open-ended question, surprisingly students of G1 argued that by providing immediate correction, they felt more anxious situations and then try not to experience that specific error again; thus, this kind of CF and this feeling of anxiety were helpful for improvement of their accuracy during speech. However, most learners of the second group who experienced less anxiety in the classroom claimed that their level of anxiety didn't have any significant effect on accuracy of their oral production.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

According to the works of many scholars, there is a significant relationship between language anxiety and error correction. In addition, teacher' corrective feedback can increase learners' level of anxiety in the context of language learning classroom (Truscott, 1991 & Young, 1991, cited in Renko, 2012). In this regard, considering learners' individual differences and their attitudes toward the effects of CF on their anxiety is of crucial concern. Therefore, the principal objective of the current study was to assess students' viewpoints across the effects of two specific CF types (Immediate and Delayed) on their level of anxiety. The other aim of this study was to investigate learners' perspectives toward the effects of anxiety on accuracy of their oral production. For this purpose, data were obtained through conducting a close-ended questionnaire along with an open-ended question (developed by the researcher). Results revealed that though there were significant differences among students regarding their various levels of anxiety, almost all of them experienced anxious situations during their oral activities in the classroom. These findings are in line with Krashen's (1981) Affective Filter hypothesis which claims that due to individual differences and affective factors, all learners don't experience anxiety in the same way. This is also in line with the work of Horowitz, Horowitz and Cope (1986) which concluded that learners experienced more anxiety during oral production than any other language skill. In addition, based on the findings, while participants of G1 experienced more anxious situations and had higher level of anxiety; learners of G2 were more comfortable and experienced less anxiety. Therefore, these results are in line with the work of Rahimi and Dastjerdi (2012) who claimed that students of G2 (who received delayed correction) expressed less amount of anxiety in their classes.

Finally, participants' attitudes in answering the open-ended question indicated that higher level of anxiety may help students to be more accurate during oral production. However, according to the most learners of the second group, anxiety didn't have any significant effect on their accuracy during performing the speaking activities. Results which revealed the significant effects of anxiety on improvement of accuracy among learners who received immediate CF indicated that through this CF type, some opportunities were established for learners to notice their non-target-like utterances, reformulate them and thus try to be more accurate during speech. Therefore, these findings provide evidence in line with Schmidt's (1995) Noticing Hypothesis and also Swain's (1985) Output Hypothesis.

The present research study investigated the impacts of two CF types on learners' anxiety and also examined the impacts of students' anxiety on accuracy of their oral production. Results have revealed that in spite of the fact that almost all students had some levels of anxiety while speaking, the amount of their anxiety depended on many factors such as individual differences and affective factors.

Therefore, this study implies some support for considering learners' personality factors and individual differences as essential aspects of second language acquisition. In this regard, teachers should be conscious while providing CF types to students. They must consider learners' personality types and their specific errors, and then select the most effective CF type for their specific situations. Furthermore, since the findings of this study indicated that learners who received immediate CF experienced more anxious situations; in order to avoid interrupting students' flow of communication and reduce their anxiety, it is recommended to provide delayed type of CF. On the other hand, for being more accurate during speech, this study suggests the use of immediate CF more than the other one.

This study recommends material designers to conduct appropriate natural communicative tasks in which students do not feel anxiety and be able to communicate naturally without fear of making mistakes. Moreover, they should develop oral activities and tasks which provide opportunities to notice their own utterances and thus try to be more accurate.

The current research study was narrowed down in terms of evaluating the effects of two specific CF types (IEC and DEC) on the levels of learners' anxiety and subsequently the accuracy of oral production. Thus, further researches are needed to investigate the efficacy of other CF strategies (e.g. direct and indirect), other notions of affective factors (e.g. self-confidence and motivation), and also other aspects of oral production (e.g. fluency and complexity). In addition, as the focus of this study was evaluating the perspectives of female participants at intermediate proficiency level, future works should be conducted with considering both male and female learners at other language proficiency levels. Since the focus of the present study was on examining learners' views toward their improvement in oral production, further studies are needed on considering all other language learning skills. Finally, the findings of this study were collected through investigating the attitudes of limited number of students within a specific limited context, thus results cannot be generalized. Last but not least, the current study implies that for future studies data should be obtained through a larger number of participants from larger language learning contexts.

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The Penetration of English into Chinese—Taking Buzzwords from 2011-2015 for Example

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Abstract—Globalization has brought about the frequent contacts between China and the world. Accordingly, English as the tool of international communication has been inevitably interacting with Chinese language. In the process of language contacts, modern Chinese has changed strikingly in morphology, syntax, grammar, vocabularies and so on showing the evidence of English penetration, which has attracted the attention of scholars both in China and overseas. Early in 1950s, Chinese linguist Wang Li elaborated the Europeanized Chinese grammar from certain aspects. Some scholars in Hong Kong and Macau lay much emphasis on the loanwords from English into Cantonese. Meanwhile, researchers also focus on the regularity in the origin and development of language contacts between these two languages. Buzzwords as the dynamic part of a language enable researchers to observe the changes of the language. Though not as formal as written language, it also exposes the lingual and grammatical development with salient features due to the great population of users and the wideness of transmission. Hence, this paper explores the proof of English penetration into Chinese through the buzzwords in recent years; moreover, the merits and demerits of English penetration into Chinese are discussed to provide a two-sided perspective on this phenomenon.

Index Terms—penetration, English, Chinese, buzzwords

I. INTRODUCTION

Viewed globally, communications have created great changes of the world in many aspects. As the tool of communication, languages contact dynamically with each other which unavoidably generates the influence of one language on another. It is pointed out that English has been taken as mother tongue by over one hundred countries; and more than seventy nations have taken it as the official language (Guo, 2007).

However, Glanville Price (2007) called English as “killer language” or “language murder” because of its spreading scale and speed, under the influence of which many languages are negatively impacted. Taking Indian language for example, there were at least 2200 kinds of these language families in the history of the United State. However, there are 155 kinds left now (Zhao, 2009), due to the Only English Movement in America and the number of Indian speakers still keeps decreasing. Hence, most Indian people would like to learn English instead of a language out of main stream.

It is observed similarly that Chinese also has changed a lot as a result of frequent contacts with English over decades in morphology, syntax, grammar and so on. Under this circumstance, many linguists studied the changes and tried to summarize the phenomenon as “Europeanization” or “Englishization”.

Wang, the initiative researcher of Europeanized Chinese, points out that “People, who are influenced deeply by western cultures will use some western language structures unconsciously or by purpose”. In his *Theory of Chinese Grammar* (1954), he devotes a chapter to the discussion of the “Europeanized Grammar” in modern Chinese (which refers to the Chinese language after the May Fourth Movement), where 6 categories of it are illustrated as follows:

- 1) The creation of polysyllables in words
- 2) The frequent use of subjects and copulas
- 3) The extension of sentence length
- 4) The frequent use of modal verbs, passive voice and some signs
- 5) The Europeanized connectives
- 6) New means of expressing digits and using pronouns

The study of Wang has greatly invigorated the relevant studies on Europeanized Chinese both in China and abroad.

Cornelius C (1985) studies the fact of Europeanized Chinese through the comparison of two different versions of *Home* by Ba Jin.

Zhu (1987) points out that the increase of subjects in Modern Chinese is influenced by the widespread use of English.

Xie (1990/2001) describes the influence of English on Chinese in morphology and sentence structure in *The Summary of Europeanized Grammar in Modern Chinese* in 1990 and *A Review of Europeanized Grammar in Chinese* in 2001.

Wang (2002) explains the sentence patterns imitating those in English through means of transliteration and liberal translation. And he further analyzes the penetration of English into Chinese syntax from three aspects:

- 1) The increasingly frequent use of passive voice;
- 2) The more complicated sentences;

3) The more flexible word orders.

In recent years, Guo (2003) depicts English as a powerful language which has influenced Modern Chinese not only in the increase of loan words but in words formation and syntax as well. By analyzing the language in *Beijing Evening News*, *China Daily* and other corpus, he arrives at a conclusion that English has greatly influenced Chinese in morphology including affixation, morphemization and the wide use of Latin letters. Meanwhile, English has imposed much upon Chinese word categories conversion.

Other scholars, such as He (2008) and Hou (2010), explore Europeanized Chinese in morphology and syntax by comparing diachronically sentence structures and words in literature works.

Huang (2012) studies the popular employment of English letters and Internet buzzwords in Chinese people's daily lives. She illustrates the creation of Chinese-styled acronyms for the sake of euphemism such as NB instead of “牛逼”.

Many linguists focus on the description of the written language in Englishized Chinese. However as the popular vocabularies rapidly and broadly transmitted by the public, buzzwords are worth being taken as a good example to study the English penetration into Chinese.

According to the previous study by Wang Li, the penetration of English into Chinese tends to be discussed mainly from two aspects. The first is morphology, including the affixation and the frequent use of English letters. There is a tendency that Chinese people use a lot of English words and letters to facilitate their daily communication. The other is syntax. Due to the imitation of English syntax, Chinese sentence structures have become more and more complicated with more connectives, subjects, copulas and so on.

II. THE PENETRATION OF ENGLISH INTO CHINESE

As the first to discuss, morphology generally refers to the study of inner structure of words and the word-formation rules in a language. Comparatively, syntax is the set of rules, principles, and processes that govern the structure of sentences in a given language, especially word order. Therefore, these two aspects could be able to demonstrate the grammatical reality of a certain language.

A. Morphological Penetration

Morphology “is a terminology coined by J. W Goethe to refer to the study of form and structure of living organism which was taken up by linguistics in the 19th century as a cover term for inflection and word formation.” (Hadumod Bussman, 2000: 314). This paper confines morphology as the knowledge on the principles of words composition and the application of letters. Exactly, the use of affixation and English letters in Chinese.

1 Affixation

According to *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (2004), affix refers to a letter or a group of letters added to the beginning or the end of a word to change its meaning, such as the prefix un- in *unhappy* and the suffix -less in *careless*.

In fact, both English and Chinese have affixes. However, there are more affixes in English than those in Chinese. As a result, the point that affixation in Chinese is influenced by English is discussed by many linguists.

Thomson (1981) points out that Chinese is an isolated language without affixation or with few affixes and affixation in Chinese is influenced by English. By analyzing Europeanized grammar in modern Chinese, Xie (2001) claims that the most obvious impact of English on Chinese is the frequent use of affixes.

However, many other linguists argue that affixation in Modern Chinese is not caused by English. Wu (2001) regards affixation as a tendency of language development caused by internal factors of language.

It is no doubt that classical Chinese have many affixes before its contacts with English. For example, “子(zi)”, “儿子(son)”, “女子(woman)”, “男子(man)” and so on. However, a proliferation of Chinese buzzwords is observed to bear affixes, which are applied freely and frequently in Modern Chinese.

There are some high-frequency affixes:

1) “控(kon)”, which comes from the pronunciation of com- in complex in Japanese, meaning somebody is keen on something. Nowadays, “控(kon)” has been added to the end of many nouns, for example “手机控(phone freak)”, “电脑控(computer freak)”, “长发控(long hair freak)”, etc.

2) “达人(talent)”, which was spread from Taiwan through the Internet, describes a person who is pretty professional in a certain field, such as “理财达人(financial management talent)”, “网络达人(network talents)”, “校园达人(campus talents)”, etc.

3) “哒(a modal particle)” is an inflection of “的(De)” in Chinese which is used to magnify the speaker himself or other people's cuteness. For example, “萌萌哒(cute)” instead of “萌萌的”, “美美哒(beautiful)” instead of “美美的”, “棒棒哒(awesome)” instead of “棒棒的”, etc.

4) The original meaning of “帝” is the ruler of a feudal society or an emperor, while now means that somebody is pretty good at doing something. For example, “表情帝” means somebody who shows dynamic emotions, “体操帝” is someone good at gymnastics, etc.

From the examples mentioned above, it can be found that affixes sometimes in Chinese buzzwords do not change the

meaning of a word, such as “哒(just a modal particle)” and the addition of affixes just enhances the expressive power of a word, thus a comfortable atmosphere of communication is created.

2 The Widespread Use of English Letters

Dong (2001) did a study on two newspapers --- *China Reading Weekly* and *China Daily* issued on December 13, 2000, which showed exactly the widespread use of English letters in Chinese besides some English people's names, geographic names and book names. For example, there are “MD 桥 (MD Bridge), WTO (World Trade Organization), 4U 书店 (4U bookstore), MBA (Master of Business Administration), etc.” on *China Reading Weekly* and “IP 技术 (IP technology), WTO (World Trade Organization), IC (Integrated circuit), etc.” on *China Daily*. Actually, English letters and words appear with a high frequency in Chinese newspapers, magazines, commercials and so on. Some of these words have been absorbed by *The Contemporary Chinese Dictionary*.

According to Cuo and Zhou (2003), English letters enter into Chinese in 9 forms:

- 1) Using English letters directly: NB, A, X, etc.
- 2) Chinese morphemes (means morphemes coming from classic Chinese) + English letters: Q 版, E 时代, M 计, VIP 房, 唱 K, etc.
- 3) Borrowed words' morphemes (means morphemes from other languages introduced into Chinese) + English letters: 维 C, 维 D, etc.
- 4) Chinese morphemes + English words: 摇滚 Show, Hold 住, 最 In, etc.
- 5) Chinese morphemes + English clipped words: IT 业, SOHO 族, etc.
- 6) English clipped words: APEC (Asia-Pacific Economic Cooperation), CEO (Chief Executive Officer), DIY (Do It Yourself), etc.
- 7) English letters originated from Chinese: CCTV (China Central Television), CBA (China Basketball Association), CET-6 (College English Test -6), etc.
- 8) English words: Office, Cool, Hi, IPAD, etc.
- 9) Figures + English letters: iPhone 6, CET-4, MP4, etc.

To some extent, English letters and words are applied and understood more conveniently than Chinese which explains why Chinese people prefer applying them to daily expression.

3 Anglo-Chinese Style Expression

It is evidently discovered that many expressions in one language are borrowed from another language as a result of language contacts. Similarly, Chinese borrowed and are borrowing a lot of English words so that a great number of English loan words have become pet phrases in Chinese. Some examples collected from the buzzwords are as follows:

- 1) “Hold 住”, coming from an entertainment program of Taiwan, means taking control of something or somebody. Nowadays, this word has been a way to encourage somebody to deal with difficulties. For example, when one feels nervous in delivering a speech, his or her friends will say “hold 住” to comfort him or her.
- 2) “Out”, means being out of fashion or failing to catch up with fashion. For example, “iPhone 4 已经 out 了! (iPhone 4 has been out of fashion!)”, “你都 out 了! (You should keep up with the trend!)”
- 3) “So easy” comes from a commercial advertisement “爸爸再也不用担心我的学习了! So easy! (My father does not have to worry about my study anymore because the textbooks are so easy to me with the help of the Bubugao electronic reading machine!)”. Nowadays, this word is widely applied into Chinese people's daily utterance.

Besides the blended use of Anglo expressions with Chinese ones, English morphological rules have also been borrowed by Chinese buzzwords. Compared with English verbs, Chinese ones cannot show the tense by morphological changes. However, Chinese speakers are using English tenses to express themselves.

- 1) 郁闷 ing!——郁闷着。
I am upset now!
- 2) 开心 ing!——开心着。
I am happy now!
- 3) 吃饭 ed.——吃饭了。
I have taken lunch.

According to the mentioned examples, “ing” is equal to “着” and “ed” is equal to “了”. But people tend not to use “郁闷着” to describe their mood which is considered less fashionable. Meanwhile, it should be realized that these expressions are mainly used by the young generation who are more actively inclined to create new things.

B. Syntax Penetration

Still according to *Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary* (2004), syntax is the way that words and phrases are put together to form sentences in a language or the rules of grammar for this, or the rules that state how words and phrases must be used in a computer language. And this paper mainly explores syntax from the aspect of sentence structures.

1 The Increasing Use of Subjects

It is believed that Chinese sentences can do without subjects because of its parataxis feature. That is, the connection

of sentences in Chinese is by context and logic. A complete sentence does not need the structure of subject, which can be regarded as a significant feature of Chinese language (Zhu, 1999:127). However, the connection of sentences in English is by grammatical relationships of subjects, predicates, objects, connectives and so on through which the meanings of sentences are acquired by audiences.

Nevertheless, the frequent use of subjects in Chinese is easily seen.

There are some examples.

- 1) 你这么牛,你家里人知道吗? —— 你这么牛,家里人知道吗? / 这么牛,你家里人知道吗?
(Do your families know that you are so great?)
- 2) 我和我的小伙伴们都惊呆了。——我和小伙伴们都惊呆了。 / 我们都惊呆了。
(My friends and I are shocked.)
- 3) 待我长发及腰,少年你娶我可好? ——待长发及腰,少年娶我可好?
(Are you still willing to marry me as days go by?)
- 4) 我只想安静地做个美男子。—— 只想安静地做个美男子。
(I just want to be a handsome man without any bothering.)

It is not hard to discover that the omission of subjects in examples (1) to (5) do not change the meaning of the sentence which as well can shorten sentence length and simplify sentence structures. On the contrary, the subject is a necessary part in every English sentence without which the sentence structure would be ungrammatical. Hence, it seems a paradox that in Chinese buzzwords, sentences embody a great number of subjects which definitely causes the inconvenience of speakers who tend to get away from the linguistic mechanism they have been accustomed to.

2 The Addition of Copula ---“是(shi)”

A copula or a linking verb is the same as *be* or *become* that connects a subject with the adjective or noun (called the COMPLEMENT) to describe it (*Oxford Advanced Learner's English-Chinese Dictionary*, 2004). There are many linking verbs in English language, in which “be” is the most commonly used one. Generally, “be” in English is equal to Chinese “是 (shi)” though there are many differences between them in many situations. And this paper just discusses “be” when it is equal to “是(shi)”.

Wang believes it quite mistaken to add “是 (shi)” as a copula in a common descriptive sentence according to Chinese grammar(1990). However, influenced by English syntax, Chinese people would like to use more judgment sentences than descriptive sentences: that is, they would like to add the linking verb “是(shi)” when it is unnecessary.

Some examples taken from the recent five years' buzzwords are listed below:

我爸是李刚,我叔是金国友。——我爸李刚,我叔金国友。

(My father is Li Gang and my uncle is Jin Guoyou.)

- 1) 有钱就是任性。——有钱就任性。
(Rich and Bitch.)
- 2) 你也是蛮拼的。—— 你也蛮拼的。
(You are pretty strenuous.)
- 3) 贱人就是矫情。—— 贱人, 矫情。
(A cheap girl is always cheap.)
- 4) 我也是醉了。—— 我也醉了。
(Are you kidding me?)

Examples (1) to (4) show that the linking verb “是(shi)” could be omitted in the Chinese versions which is absolutely necessary when translated into English. The addition of “是(shi)” as a result of translationese, makes a complete sentence redundant and lengthened.

3 Word Categories Conversion --- Nominalization

In terms of language typology, English is categorized as a language with static tendency because of the nominalization in its sentences, while Chinese sentences comparatively bear more verbs than English so that it is defined as a language with dynamic tendency. This is caused by many factors, one of which is cognitive differences between English-speaking people and Chinese people. Nevertheless, more nouns appear in Modern Chinese than before.

Zhuo (1979) thinks that the tendency of nominalization in Modern Chinese is influenced by English. Hu (1995) also believes transforming verbs and adjectives into nouns is a kind of Europeanized grammar. Yet word categories conversion, mainly nominalization is also discovered as a distinctive feature of Chinese buzzwords.

Some examples are given below.

- 1) “颜值” is a noun describing appearance of a person. Therefore, “颜值高” instead of “漂亮” is to show one's beauty. For example, “她颜值很高” means she is very beautiful.
- 2) 花美男 as a noun means a handsome man. In classic Chinese, adjectives “俊” or “帅” are used to describe a good-looking man, while now “他是个花美男” is a common expression.
- 3) “女汉子” usually refers to a girl who is manlike. Chinese people used to say “她很像爷们儿”, while now they use “女汉子” to express this meaning.

4) “高富帅” is a noun to describe a wealthy man who is tall and handsome. Traditionally, Chinese people use adjectives “又高又富又帅” to express this meaning.

It could be seen that nominalization brings new expressions into modern Chinese, which as a result enriches the language and broaden the thinking pattern of language users. Meanwhile, the use of nouns in high frequency does impact the pattern of expression of Chinese people especially the young generation who are the main recipients and conveyors of buzzwords.

4 The Use of Passive Voice

In classical Chinese, passive voice is used to express an event in which something unfortunate has happened. Wang (1985) believes that “For beneficial events in an objective sense was not expressed with passive sentences”. However, pleasant events are commonly expressed with passive voice in English. And it has been observed that the number of passive voice constructions not expressing bad is increasing under the influence of English.

In the discussion of Europeanization, Xie (2001) points out that the most obvious phenomenon in syntax is the universal application of “被”, which is no longer limited to unpleasant or unwanted situations.

Some examples are as follows:

1) 你被@了。——有人@你!

(You are @ by somebody.)

2) 被赞了! ——有人赞了你!

(Somebody's idea or something is approved by others.)

Passive voice has become a common expression not only describing unpleasant things in Chinese people's daily lives.

III. THE CAUSES OF ENGLISH PENETRATION INTO CHINESE

The process of English penetration into Chinese language has been proved to be long and slow which has impacted Chinese in morphology, syntax and so on. Actually, since the Opium War, English words and expressions has emerged in Chinese by means of direct and indirect contacts. This paper mainly discusses the ways of English penetration into Chinese from four aspects --- colonization, translation, education and information transmission.

A. *The Influence of British Colonization*

English colonial expansion began with the colonization of Newfoundland in 1583. By 1900, Britain had built up a big empire, “on which the sun never set.”

In 1842, Treaty of Nanjing was concluded by the government of Qing Dynasty, which ceded Hong Kong to Britain, due to which English from then on became its official language. Since then, the language policy in Hong Kong was Bi-literacy and Tri-lingualism which means Chinese and English are both legalized as the written languages while Mandarin, Cantonese and English are the spoken languages. Therefore, many English loan words and expressions merged with Cantonese, like “巴士(bus)”, “香波(shampoo)” and so on. Meanwhile, Guang Zhou as an important port adjacent to Hong Kong was also impacted by the colonial activities of Britain. Inevitably, Cantonese absorbed a lot of English expressions and spread them nationwide. Furthermore, Chinese Mandarin spoken by Cantonese was also greatly influenced by English both in vocabularies and in grammar, such as “我有吃过早饭。(I have taken breakfast.)”, “这个是很好的。(That is very good.)” which certainly influenced the expressive way of people who were apt to learn from those coming from a more prosperous place.

B. *The Influence of Translation*

Since the 19th century, the invasion of western powers awakened a group of patriotic Chinese intellectuals who suddenly realized the potential crisis of being partitioned all over China. In order to defend the country, they proposed to learn from western culture and technologies. Due to this, western works on philosophy, science and technologies were introduced and translated into Chinese.

At that moment, vernacular Chinese could not meet the need of expressing complicated thoughts and things from the west. Therefore, transliteration was utilized by which many newly created words appeared in Chinese according to their English pronunciations. And transliteration and other translating methods are efficient ways which contribute a lot to Chinese vocabularies and definitely encourage the proliferation of more and more new expressions in the future.

C. *Nationwide English Education in China*

In 1978, English teaching was written into the education plan of primary schools and middle schools in China which later became compulsory courses in Chinese education system. In 2003, China set up the New English Curriculum Criteria which divided students' English ability into 9 levels. Due to this rule, students must reach the second level when they graduate from primary schools and the fifth level when they leave from junior high schools and the seventh level when they graduate from senior high schools. College students have to pass the College English Test Band 4 or Band 6, if they want to graduate from universities and find satisfactory jobs. In society, English is a trump card for adults to get better jobs or quick promotions. Consequently, Chinese people start to learn English when they are

children. According to *the Outline of the National Medium and Long Term Educational Reform and Development Plan*, English learning is still the focus of school education. Hence, the popularity of English learning boosts the use of English by Chinese that reasonably explains the transfer from English into Chinese.

D. *The Influence of Information Transmission*

According to Chen Chuanli (2011), one third of newspapers worldwide are published and issued by English-spoken countries, which have great circulation and impact on the world. In 1994, about 45% broadcasts and programs were produced and presented by English-spoken countries.

Meanwhile, the widespread American and Britain movies and television programs popularize English in non-English-spoken countries including China. Therefore, the large scale of information transmission provides an external environment for English penetration into Chinese language. Besides, when the buzzwords are coined, it is transmitted more widely and rapidly with the aid of the Internet which is described by some linguists as virus-like.

IV. CONCLUSION

On the one hand, English benefits Chinese in many aspects. Firstly, it conveys western concepts and information to China, which accelerates the pace of China in catching up with developed countries. Secondly, English penetration in morphology and syntax enables Chinese to express themselves in more ways. For example, English acronyms simplify the expression of technical terms, such as ATM (Automatic Teller Machine), DNA (Deoxyribonucleic acid) and so on. Additionally, the wide use of English also promotes cultural exchanges all over the world, which enhances the foundation of mutual understanding on the earth.

On the other hand, English penetration lays many negative effects on Chinese language. Actually, the over-use of English does damages to another language. For instance, the frequent use of subjects and copulas in Chinese sentences causes complicated and lengthened sentence structures, which is contradictory against Chinese language mechanism. And the use of more English letters instead of Chinese characters in the media is bound to weaken the significance of Chinese characters as well as traditional culture which is embodied by the language.

A Chinese writer Wang Meng reported at the Culture Summit Forum in 2004 that Chinese has been suffering from unprecedented damage because of the wide spread of English in China. Besides, the State Administration of Radio Film and Television has ordered a national ban on the use of English words and acronyms in non-English channels, which for instance appointed the expression “中国男子职业篮球联赛” instead of “CBA” and “美国职业篮球联赛” instead of “NBA” in CCTV-5(Sports Channel).

It is pointed by some scholars that English penetration has affected the purity of Chinese, but it is unreasonable to totally give up English learning. Faced with a world which calls for competition and cooperation, more rational measures should be taken to both protect the healthy development of a language to improve people's awareness of traditional culture and to absorb advantages from other nations and their languages.

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