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Comprehension Monitoring in Chinese Reading among Chinese Adolescent Readers

Feifei Han

Sydney School of Education and Social Work, The University of Sydney, Australia

Abstract—English and Chinese reading place different requirements in terms of lower-order processing. Research has consistently found evidence that word recognition in English and Chinese reading requires different cognitive processes. However, whether English reading differs from Chinese reading with regard to higher-order processing receives little attention. This study investigated comprehension monitoring, an important higher-order skill, among 126 Chinese adolescent readers using two kinds of information errors (i.e., external and internal information errors), in order to compare results from studies on comprehension monitoring in English. The results showed that the detection of external errors was significantly higher than the detection of internal errors. Proficient Chinese readers performed significantly higher on overall comprehension monitoring task, on monitoring of external errors, and on monitoring of internal errors compared to poor Chinese readers. There was also significant correlation between comprehension monitoring and Chinese reading proficiency. **Conclusions and Recommendations:** The results of the study suggest that Chinese readers' comprehension monitoring was similar to comprehension monitoring of native English speakers in English reading, and this may provide some evidence that Chinese and English reading may have similar higher-order processes even though reading in the two languages place different requirements in terms of lower-order processing skills.

Index Terms—comprehension monitoring, Chinese reading, logographic language, metacognitive processes

I. INTRODUCTION

Reading is well-known as complicated multi-level processes, which can be further divided into lower-order and higher-order processes (Grabe & Stoller, 2011; Pressley, 2002; Yamashita, 2013). Lower-order processes commonly refer to linguistic processes, including word recognition, syntactic parsing, and semantic proposition encoding (Grabe, 2009; Yamashita, 2013). On the other hand, higher-order processes consist of the comprehension building processes and strategic processing, in which a variety of strategies are orchestrated to resolve comprehension problems (Koda, 2005; Stevenson, Schoonen, & Gloppe, 2007). In competent reading, lower-order processes are fast and unconscious automatic processes, which can be carried out simultaneously with conscious processes without any interference; whereas higher-order processes tend to be controlled processes (Segalowitz, 2000).

Among a variety of higher-order processes, comprehension monitoring is an important one, as it alerts readers when smooth comprehension is broken down and it enables readers to track what they are reading and to check whether it makes sense or not (Alexander & Jetton, 2000; Author, 2008; Zinar, 2000). Comprehension monitoring has been widely researched among English reading of native English speakers (Author, 2012). However, less is known about comprehension monitoring in reading in different orthographies, such as Chinese – a logographic language. It is important to examine comprehension monitoring, one of important higher-order processes, in Chinese reading, and to compare the results with the research findings from studies which examined comprehension monitoring in English – an alphabetic language, to see whether the higher-order processes in reading in a logographic language is similar to or different from higher-order processes in reading in an alphabetic language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Lower-order reading processes in different orthographies

Taylor and Taylor (1995) argue that the higher-order reading processes may remain similar among readers from various orthographic backgrounds, even though the lower-order reading processes, such as word recognition, are affected by different orthographies across languages. In different orthographies, the basic linguistic units are also different (Cook & Bassetti, 2005; Yamashita, 2013). In alphabetic languages, such as English, French, and Dutch, the basic units are phonemes; in syllabary languages, such as Japanese kana, the basic units are syllables; and morphemes are the smallest representational units in logographic languages, such as Chinese and Japanese Kanji (Coltheart, 1984; Cook & Bassetti, 2005; Perfetti, 2003; Yamashita, 2013; Ziegler & Goswami, 2005, 2006).

Research has consistently shown that that word recognition in reading different orthographies makes different demands on cognitive processes (Cook & Bassetti, 2005). Reading in alphabetic languages requires readers to segment phonemes and to conduct intra-word analysis; whereas reading in a logographic language places fewer demands on intra-word segmentation abilities. Rather, reading in a logographic language relies much less on phonological

information but more on holistic visual information (Author, 2015; Yamashita, 2013).

Comprehension monitoring

Being one of the important higher-order processes in reading, comprehension monitoring is an essential skill for competent reading (Oakhill, Hartt, & Samols, 2005; Wray, 1994). Comprehension monitoring has been defined as: “a metacognitive process...essential for competent reading” (Wagoner, 1983, p. 328). It has also been explained as a process that “an individual evaluates the state of his/her understanding of information” (Oakhill et al., 2005, p. 658). Comprehension monitoring can be broadly divided into three main steps: involving evaluation, planning and regulation (Otero, 1998). In the evaluation stage, readers normally assess their concurrent understanding of what they have processed and this allows them to decide whether there is a need to take further actions. If there is a comprehension breakdown, or if they think their minds have gone away, in the planning stage, they then try to deploy different kinds of strategies relevant to the comprehension problem from their strategic repertoire. In the last regulatory stage, readers start to take actions by implementing the selected strategies to fix up comprehension problems (Wray, 1994). These actions may include, for example, re-allocating attention, slowing down the speed of reading, re-interpreting certain parts in the text, re-evaluating the mental representation they have made, and moving backward or looking ahead in the text in order to solve ambiguities (Otero, 1998).

Essentially, comprehension monitoring can be thought of being part of metacognition, which is referred to as a person's cognition about cognition, thinking about thinking, and knowing about knowing (Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002; Paris, Wasik, & Turner, 1991; Phakiti, 2003a, 2003b, 2006; Weinert, 1987). Metacognition is consisted of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control. Metacognitive knowledge located in the long-term memory is what a person knows about his/her own cognitive process. Metacognitive control, which functions in individuals' working memory, is one's ability to use metacognitive knowledge to achieve certain goals through various cognitive activities, such as planning and monitoring comprehension (Alexander, Schallert, & Hare, 1991; Baker & Brown, 1984; Brown, 1987; Westby, 2004). Having metacognitive knowledge does not ensure readers will use it to execute metacognitive control during reading (Flavell, 1981, 1987; Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002; Westby, 2004). For instance, a reader may know that if he/she loses concentration, they should go back to re-read part of the text (i.e., knowledge about comprehension monitoring). However, in reading practice, some readers do not constantly check whether their reading stays in the track and fail to monitor their comprehension (i.e., failure in comprehension monitoring control). To examine the level of comprehension monitoring knowledge a reader has, researchers normally use questionnaires (Phakiti, 2006), whereas to examine performance of comprehension monitoring control, there are generally three methodological approaches, which will be explained in the following section.

Approaches to study comprehension monitoring control

The three common approaches to study comprehension monitoring control are the introspective approach, the calibration approach, and the error detection approach (Morrison, 2004; Westby, 2004). The introspective approach, also known as the think-aloud method, requires readers to report their mental activities during reading. This method is normally used to investigate readers' concurrent processing. However, when comprehension is occurring smoothly, comprehension monitoring is an automatic process without much conscious attention (Oakhill, 1996). As a result, it might be difficult for learners to report their comprehension monitoring. In addition, there are also some drawbacks to this methodology. For instance, verbalisation while reading can interfere with the natural process of reading; it also makes higher demands on participants' verbal ability; and it may add a burden to readers (Tang, 1997).

The method of calibration examines readers' comprehension monitoring by comparison of readers' prediction of their comprehension and their actual performance on comprehension tasks. Under this paradigm, it is assumed that the higher the correlation between readers' predicting and their actual performance, the better their comprehension monitoring. This method cannot tell us much about the difference between good and poor performance of comprehension monitoring since readers might either overestimate or underestimate their performance (Morrison, 2004).

The error detection approach is the most commonly used one when examining comprehension monitoring (Author, 2012). In this approach, texts are premodified and inconsistent information is embedded to trigger readers' conscious attention so that controlled processing can be activated (Otero, 2002). Due to the advantages of error detection approach over the other two approaches, we also employed an error detection approach to study comprehension monitoring in Chinese reading.

Studies in comprehension monitoring with native English speakers

There are a great number of studies on comprehension monitoring with native English speakers. These studies normally required readers to detect the errors or inconsistencies embedded in a text (Author, 2012). Previous studies examined comprehension monitoring with children and adult readers; comparing good and poor readers; using different text types, such as narratives and expositions; and manipulating and creating different types of errors, including lexical errors (nonsense words), external errors (information that contradicts general world knowledge; and internal errors (the text contains contradictory information) (Oakhill et al., 2005).

The results of these studies indicate that comprehension monitoring develops over time (Kolić-Vehovec & Bajšanski, 2006). Younger and poorer readers do not monitor their comprehension successfully (Zabucky & Ranter, 1992). There was a general trend that younger and less skilled readers noticed more lexical errors than the other types since they tended to evaluate their comprehension on a lexical level (Westby, 2004). Poorer readers had particular difficulty in the

detection of internal errors (Ehrlich, Remond, & Tardieu, 1999), and this could be attributed to the increased difficulty of detecting internal errors rather than external errors, as detection of internal errors require readers to compare the incoming information with a recently constructed representation of the text, which is less stable than readers' general knowledge about world (Oakhill et al., 2005).

Some studies also examined readers' detection of internal errors in different location. It was found that readers reported more errors when contradictory information was located closer together in the passage than when it was located further apart (Zabrucky & Ranter, 1992). In addition, good readers appeared to be better at identifying errors located further apart than poor readers were, whereas there tended to be a smaller difference between good and poor readers in the detection of errors located close together (Oakhill et al., 2005). These findings suggest that good readers might have a greater ability to maintain and hold text information than poor readers do.

Studies of comprehension monitoring in English reading examined the contribution of comprehension monitoring to reading comprehension. For instance, Zinar (2000) conducted a study on 96 fourth-grade English-speaking children to examine the contributions of both word identification skill and comprehension monitoring to reading comprehension. Participants were asked to read passages with inconsistencies and without inconsistencies. The passages were presented sentence by sentence on a computer. Participants were required to identify inconsistencies as they read and provide explanations afterwards. After they had finished reading, they were also asked to answer some comprehension questions regarding the passages as well as to rate the level of difficulty of the text. Comprehension monitoring was measured both on-line (e.g. amount of time spent on target sentences with or without inconsistencies; numbers of target lookbacks) and off-line (e.g. numbers of reported target inconsistencies; scores of reading comprehension questions). The results showed that children who actively used the strategy of looking back to prior sentences after encountering an inconsistency achieved higher scores in reading comprehension tests. The hierarchical regression indicated that word recognition made a larger contribution than comprehension monitoring, which made a small but significant contribution to the prediction of reading comprehension, accounting for 2.9%.

The present study

While studies with English speakers have indicated that comprehension monitoring performance differ for different kinds of information errors (i.e., external and internal), and differ between more and less proficient readers (e.g. Oakhill et al., 2005), there is a lack of research on comprehension monitoring performance in Chinese reading. The present study will examine whether Chinese readers perform differently or similarly on comprehension monitoring of external and internal errors from English readers. In addition, the study will investigate comprehension monitoring performance by Chinese readers with different levels of reading proficiency. Thirdly, the study will also examine the contribution of comprehension monitoring to Chinese reading proficiency.

The study addresses the following research questions:

1. Is there any difference between comprehension monitoring of external errors and internal errors in Chinese reading?
2. How does comprehension monitoring performance in Chinese reading differ among readers with different levels of Chinese reading proficiency?
3. What is the contribution of Chinese comprehension monitoring performance to Chinese reading proficiency?

III. METHOD

Setting and participants

The study was conducted among 126 Chinese adolescents, whose ages ranged from 15-19 years old (Mean (M) = 16.92, Standard Deviation (SD) = 0.88). Among 126 students, 10 were males and 116 were females. The participants' Chinese reading proficiency was measured by reading comprehension of two Chinese texts. Students were required to complete comprehension questions, in multiple-choice and short-answer formats after reading each text. The total scores of the reading proficiency test was 100, and participants' scores ranged from 53 to 93 (M = 73.40, SD = 7.94).

The comprehension monitoring task

The participants' comprehension monitoring in Chinese reading was measured by using an error detection task, which required the participants to read two Chinese narratives and to underline information errors embedded in them. The error detection task was a customarily designed task. The reason for choosing narratives was because understanding narratives requires less domain-specific knowledge compared to reading expositions. The text type of narrative was also considered to be a familiar text type as indicated by the participants' Chinese teachers. The two narratives were *An Old Father and His Three Sons* and *A Young Pretty Girl and Her Lover* (Chen, 2007), which were Chinese translation of Aesop's fables. Using Aesop's fables rather than using Chinese folktales could prevent students from being too familiar with the content of the texts, thus, understanding of the texts represented students' genuine reading abilities. *An Old Father and His Three Sons* had 704 characters, and *A Young Pretty Girl and Her Lover* had 674 words.

Based on previous comprehension monitoring research (Ehrlich et al., 1999; Oakhill et al., 2005), two kinds of errors were embedded in the texts, namely external errors and internal errors. External errors contain information that violates general knowledge (e.g., My daughter eats water), whereas internal errors refer to information that is contradictory within the text itself (e.g., The TV in my home was broken. My daughter is watching TV in our living room). Ten errors were embedded in each text, 5 of which were external errors and 5 of which were internal errors. There were altogether

10 external and 10 internal errors, and these errors were distributed evenly throughout the texts. Participants were required to read the texts and to underline the sentences that did not make sense. The reliability analysis showed that the task was quite reliable, with the Cronbach's alpha coefficient .79.

Data analysis

Data analysis was performed with SPSS 20.0. To answer the first research question, a repeated one-way ANOVA was used. To answer the second research question, the participants were first classified into proficient and poor Chinese readers according to their Chinese reading proficiency test results. Then a one-way ANOVA was conducted. For the last research question, Pearson product moment correlation analysis was used.

IV. RESULTS

Descriptive statistics

Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics for participants' overall scores for Chinese reading proficiency, overall scores of Chinese comprehension monitoring task, scores for comprehension monitoring of external and internal errors. The table includes *Ms*, *SDs*, minimum (Min.) and maximum (Max.) scores, and highest achievable scores.

TABLE 1.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Min.	Max.	Highest achievable scores
Chinese reading proficiency	73.40	7.94	53	93	100
overall comprehension monitoring performance	14.95	3.35	4	19	20
comprehension monitoring of external errors	7.69	2.01	1	10	10
comprehension monitoring of internal errors	7.26	1.73	1	10	10

Results for research question 1

The results from one-way repeated measure ANOVA showed that the detection of external errors was significantly higher than the detection of internal errors, even though the value of eta-squared indicates that the effect size was small: $F(1, 125) = 6.57, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$. This result suggests that the performance of comprehension monitoring of external and internal errors among readers of Chinese – a logographic language – was similar to that of readers of an alphabetic language, such as English.

Results for research question 2

In order to answer the second research question, participants were first divided into proficient and poor Chinese readers according to their Chinese reading proficiency. We first calculated the *Mean* score of the Chinese reading proficiency ($Mean = 73.40$). Students who scored below the *Mean* score were classified as poor Chinese readers, whereas students whose scores were above the *Mean* score were categorized as proficient Chinese readers. As a result, 65 students were in the group of poor Chinese readers, accounting for 51.60%; and the rest of 61 students were in the group of proficient Chinese readers, accounting for 48.40%. The distribution of the participants, descriptive statistics of Chinese reading proficiency, performance of overall Chinese comprehension monitoring task, and scores of comprehension monitoring of external and internal errors, by levels of Chinese reading proficiency, are presented in Table 2. Table 2 also displayed the results of one-way ANOVA and the effect size.

TABLE 2.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF COMPREHENSION MONITORING SCORES BY CHINESE READING PROFICIENCY

Variables	groups	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
overall comprehension monitoring performance	poor (65)	14.31	3.70	6.89	.05
	proficient (61)	15.85	2.82		
comprehension monitoring of external errors	poor (65)	7.34	2.20	4.83	.04
	proficient (61)	8.11	1.71		
comprehension monitoring of internal errors	poor (65)	6.97	1.89	6.48	.05
	proficient (61)	7.74	1.46		

The results showed that there were statistically significant differences not only on overall Chinese comprehension monitoring task: $F(1, 124) = 6.89, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$, but also on comprehension monitoring of external errors: $F(1, 124) = 4.83, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$, and comprehension monitoring of internal errors: $F(1, 124) = 6.48, p < .05, \eta^2 = .05$. From Table 2, we can see that proficient Chinese readers performed significantly higher on overall comprehension monitoring task ($M = 15.85, SD = 2.82$), on monitoring of external errors ($M = 8.11, SD = 1.71$), and on monitoring of internal errors ($M = 7.74, SD = 1.46$) compared to their counterparts, who were less proficient in Chinese reading ($M = 14.31, SD = 3.70$ for overall comprehension monitoring task, $M = 7.34, SD = 2.20$ for monitoring of external errors, and $M = 6.97, SD = 1.89$ for monitoring of internal errors).

Results for research question 3

The contribution of participants' comprehension monitoring to Chinese reading proficiency was examined by a series of one-tailed Pearson product moment correlation analyses, because of predictable directions of the association. The correlation results are presented in table 3.

TABLE 3
RESULTS OF CORRELATION ANALYSES

Variables	Chinese reading
overall comprehension monitoring	.19*
external error detection	.17*
internal error detection	.17*

* $p < .05$, (1-tailed).

Referring to Table 3, there was a significant positive correlation between students' overall comprehension monitoring and Chinese reading ($r = .19$, $p < .05$), indicating that overall comprehension monitoring made significant and positive contribution to Chinese reading proficiency, explaining about 38% of variance. The association between students' comprehension monitoring of external errors and Chinese reading ($r = .17$, $p < .05$) and was comprehension monitoring of internal errors and Chinese reading were also significant ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), and comprehension monitoring of external errors made exactly the same contribution as comprehension monitoring of internal errors to Chinese reading proficiency, each explained 34% of variance. These results indicate that better comprehension monitoring performance could positively predict Chinese reading proficiency.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The primary aim of the current study was to examine whether readers of a logographic language – Chinese – have similar or different higher-order processes in reading as readers of alphabetic languages by studying comprehension monitoring among Chinese adolescent readers. Using comprehension monitoring of two kinds of information errors, namely external and internal errors, of the same readers, we found that Chinese adolescent readers' comprehension monitoring in Chinese reading exhibited the similar pattern as that of English reading among native English speakers. The result that monitoring external errors was better than monitoring internal errors may be explained by relatively less cognitive demand being placed on the detection of external errors than detection of internal errors (Rubman & Waters, 2000). The similar pattern that monitoring of external errors was better than monitoring of internal errors between Chinese readers and readers of English appears to support the argument made by Taylor and Taylor (1995) that the higher-order reading processes tend not to be affected by different orthographies. Likewise, the current study also found that Chinese reading proficiency affected readers' comprehension monitoring performance as the results shown with English readers, as more proficient Chinese readers performed significantly better than their counterparts with poor Chinese reading proficiency. Using correlation analyses, we found that comprehension monitoring performance could explain a large amount of percentage as high as 38% in Chinese reading proficiency.

These research results have significant implications for literacy acquisition for learners of English language or Chinese language as a foreign language. Because we found that the comprehension monitoring – an important higher-order reading process, is similar among readers from different orthographies (i.e., Chinese vs. English), thus, when starting to learn to read in a foreign language which has a different orthography, readers may need to concentrate more on lower-order processes, such as skills of word recognition and syntactic parsing. For Chinese learners of English as foreign language, they may need to hone their skills in conducting intra-word analysis in order to segment phonemes efficiently; whereas for learners of Chinese as a foreign language, they may need to train their word recognition abilities based on visual cues.

Due to the small scope of the study, there are a number of limitations which warrants further investigation. First, the present study only investigate one of higher-order processes in Chinese reading, future studies may explore other higher-order processes in Chinese reading, such as making inferences, in order to compare and contrast the processes with reading in alphabetic languages. Secondly, the present study only used a single text type – narratives, thus, it is difficult for us to generalize the findings into reading other text types, as reading different text types tends to rely on different reading strategies and skills (Horiba, 2000). Future studies may wish to use multiple text types to examine higher-order of reading processes across different orthographies.

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Feifei Han obtained a Bachelor of Arts (2003) from Xi'an International Studies University, a Master of Arts (2006), a Master of Education (2008), and a PhD (2014), all from the University of Sydney.

She has worked as a Lecturer, a Research Officer, and currently is a Research Fellow for education research at the University of Sydney. Her current research interests comprise of three broad themes: (1) language and literacy education; (2) teaching, learning, and educational technology in higher education, and (3) educational psychology.

Dr Han has received more than 15 scholarship and awards nationally and internationally. She is also a solo principle investigator on 4 grants in language and literacy education. As an early career research, she has published a number of referred book chapters and journal articles.

Iraqi EFL University Students' Use of Communication Strategies in Written Performance

Raed Latif Uгла

Department of English Language, Al-Yarmouk University College, Diyala, Iraq

Abstract—The aim of this study is to discover the kinds of communication strategies (CSs) used by high, intermediate, and low proficient Iraqi EFL students in written performance. For the purpose of this study, 47 Iraqi EFL students who are studying English at Al-Yarmouk University College and College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala. Those students have divided into three groups (high, intermediate, low) based on their language proficiency level. To collect the data from participants, they have been asked to write a 100-word argumentative essay. The essay topic is: *The influence of Facebook on Iraqi younger generation*. The data have been analyzed qualitatively using Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). The results of this study have revealed that the participants have used some of the CSs which have existed in the taxonomy of Rabab'ah. Additionally, they have used 3 other strategies which have not existed in this taxonomy. The results have showed that the language proficiency has direct effect on the use and choice of CSs in the written performance. Based on the results of this study and the researcher experience in the field of CSs, he has proposed taxonomy of written CSs to be used by learners and other researchers.

Index Terms—communication strategies (CSs), Iraqi English as foreign language (EFL) students, written communication strategies (WCSs)

I. INTRODUCTION

There is concrete evidence that non-native speaker of English will never be able to master all structures or words of the target language. Uгла et al. (2013) say, "Non-native speakers cannot master all words, phrases, and terminologies of the English language." (p.44). And sine the language is a means of communication among all human beings, so how to communicate effectively in the target language is crucial importance. To reach is goal in the target language; foreign learners need to develop their communicative competence and especially the strategic competence to convey their messages or ideas via English safely and effectively. According to Canale and Swain (1980), strategic competence enables a speaker to communicate smoothly and fluently through second/ foreign language either verbally or nonverbally. Canale (1983) states that strategic competence is the mastering of verbal/ non-verbal communication strategies (CSs) which enable communication in the target language more effectively. The leaners use these kinds of strategies when they feel there is need to solve their problems in English or help them to avoid their breakdowns in the target language.

Previously and recently, most studies in the field of CSs have focused on CSs role in oral communication (see Paribakht, 1985; Willems, 1987; Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992; Dornyei & Scott, 1995; Rabab'ah, 2001; Rababa'h, 2002; Nakatani, 2005; Farrahi, 2011; Al- AbuNawas, 2012; Uгла et al., 2013; and Al Alawi, 2015), but a few studies have focused on their role in written performance (see Chimbanga, 2000; Aliakbari & Karimi, 2009; Xhaferi, 2012; and Moattarian & Tahririan, 2013). Iraqi English as a foreign language (EFL) learners have difficulty to communicate either orally or literally in English.

According to Xhaferi (2012), the lack of vocabulary considers a difficulty that learners face in expressing their ideas in writing. For this reason, EFL learners need a means that enable them to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in the target language. Williams (2006) argues that CSs could improve the quality of communication. The researcher believes that the focus should not only limit to usage of CSs in the oral performance, but also in the written performance. Aliakbari and Karimi (2009), state that CSs can have many uses and repercussions in the written performance. Moattarian and Tahririan (2013) insist the great significant of studying CSs in written communication. For these reasons and since there is no evidence on studying CSs in written performance in Iraq, the researcher attempts to empirically investigate Iraqi EFL university students' use of CSs in the written performance and how language proficiency level (low, intermediate, high) affects the use of CSs in written performance. This study may shed some light on the role of CSs in EFL written performance in Iraq and in the field of CSs studies.

II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Selinker (1972) considers the first who introduces the term CSs. After then, most of studies have dealt with this term as a means which uses in oral communication (see Taron, 1977; Faerch & Kasper, 1983; Bialystok, 1983, 1990; Paribakht, 1985; Willems, 1987; Yarmohammadi & Seif, 1992; Dornyei & Scott, 1995; Rabab'ah, 2001; Rababa'h, 2002; Nakatani, 2005; AbuNawas, 2012; Ugla et al., 2013; and Al Alawi, 2015). There have been few or limited studies which have dealt with this term as a means of communication in the written performance (see Chimbanga, 2000; Aliakbari & Karimi, 2009; Xhaferi, 2012; and Moattarian & Tahririan, 2013).

A study of Chimbanga (2000) has investigated the CSs used by university students of Biology. This study has founded that most students use L2-based strategies (circumlocution, paraphrase, generalization) to achieve their communication goal. He insists the importance of paying more attention to those tasks and activities which improve learners' strategic competence. He also concludes that,

“students were prepared to take risk in their writing communication by restructuring their discourse to negotiate the intended meaning, to explain and redefine their ideas and to risk making grammatical and other generative errors, were able to do better” (p. 327).

Another study of Aliakbari and Karimi (2009) has conducted to empirically investigate the use of CSs in the written medium by Iranian L2 learners. It has tried to find out how language proficiency affects the types of CSs which imply by Iranian L2 learners in their written production. This study suggests that learners with high and low proficiency level have increased their use of reconceptualization strategies while the rate of substitution strategies has decreased. It reveals that there are significant differences between low and high proficient learners in terms of using reconceptualization, substitution strategies, and lexical communication strategies. Finally, it emphasizes the importance of teaching reconceptualization strategies to the L2 learners and it shows that they are more useful than substitution strategies.

Additionally, in her study to find out the kinds of CSs which have used by Albanian-speaking students majoring in English Language and Literature at SEEU, Xhaferi (2012) concludes that approximation, circumlocution, literal translation, appeal for help, and use of all-purpose words strategies are the most preferred CSs which have used by Albanian students in written production. Her study also shows that male and female students have used all twelve strategies namely: message abandonment, topic avoidance, circumlocution, approximation, use of all-purpose words, use of nonlinguistic signals, literal translation, code switching, appeal for help, stalling, word-coinage, and foreignizing. It reveals that male students have used CSs less frequently than female students.

Finally, Moattarian and Tahririan (2013) have conducted a study to investigate the CSs which have used by Iranian EFL learners in oral and written performances. Those students have divided into high and low proficiency level. The results of this study reveal that some CSs are inapplicable in written performance such as non-linguistics strategies. On the other hand, some CSs are eliminated in the written performances due to manageability purposes such as appeal for help, appeal for approval, and time gaining strategies. Moreover, learners use CSs less frequently in their written performance. Finally, the use of CSs by learners significantly has varied based on their level of proficiency.

As it has noticed that there were very few studies on CSs used in written performance. These studies all show that L2/FL learners have used some CSs in their written performances. These CSs have varied among them based on their proficiency level, gender, and context of communication.

III. METHOD

A. Research Questions

The present study investigates how Iraqi EFL students with low, intermediate, and high English language proficiency level use CSs in their written performance. It aims to answer the following three questions:

1. What kinds of CSs do high proficient students use in their written performance?
2. What kinds of CSs do intermediate proficient students use in their written performance?
3. What kinds of CSs do low proficient students use in their written performance?

B. Research Instrument and Procedure

For the purpose of this study, the researcher has introduced CSs and their importance in writing to the participants. After then, low, intermediate, and high proficient students have given 40 minutes to write a 100-word argumentative essay. The essay topic is: *The influence of Facebook on Iraqi younger generation*. The researcher has chosen this topic because of it is of a general and controversial nature in Iraq. First, the researcher has trained the participants on how to think about this topic and then he has asked them some questions such as ‘How do you write the introduction of your essay?’ ‘How do you feel about Facebook?’ and ‘What are the advantages and disadvantages of using Facebook?’ He has also asked students to reflect on their thought processes in their writing mainly in terms of focus on lexical difficulties they may encounter and the ways they may use to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in the target language. This reflection helps the researcher to identify the CSs which have used by students during the written performance. All the 47 argumentative essays have analyzed and categorized into Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). This taxonomy could be explained as follows:

TABLE 1.
RABAB'AH'S TAXONOMY OF CSS (SOURCE: RABABA'H, 2001)

Communication Strategies	Description
A. L1-based strategies	
1. Literal translation	Translating literally a lexical item. e. g. "It is electrical stairs" for "Escalator".
2. Language switch:	This refers to the use of a word or a phrase from LI to represent in the target language item. This category may be divided into sub-categories according to the reasons for switching.
a) L1 slips and immediate insertion	Learners insert a word unintentionally -a slip of the tongue. Learners also insert words to complete the intended meaning. e. g. Nasi (tr: I forgot)..... skin scan e: r (15 sec) qiyas (tr: measure) (6 sec) e: r ((unintel 3 sec)) em temperature degree?
b) L1 appeal for help	This refers to when learners use Arabic to appeal for help. The following example is taken from the story-telling task. e. g. e: r yesterday em ..., the guy? ghalat? (tr: wrong?) drive er er drive the [baisklet]
c) L1-optional meaning strategy	The learners use LI -intended meaning (exact Arabic word) to refer to the object as in the following example. The use of the word ascenseur which was originally French, but has become part of everyday language, is used by the learners. ascenseur (tr: lift) ((the researcher asked "In English? ") the subject insisted hia ascenseur (tr: it's a lift)
d) L1-retrieval strategies	Learners may realize at a certain time that the item they want to use is there, but they have to retrieve it in some way, so they wait for the term to appear. In the meantime, they use Arabic trying to recall what items they have. The following is a clear example of LI -retrieval strategy. Hathi bisamouha (tr: this is called) (20 sec) to light the room e: r to light the room.
e) L1ignorance acknowledgement	This is used when learners express their ignorance of the target language item required. e. g. er mush aaref hai (tr: I don't know this).
B. L2-based strategies	
1. Avoidance strategies:	
a) Message abandonment	This refers to leaving a message unfinished because of some language difficulty. e. g. The driver didn't do anything to em to prevent er em or to ... he didn't do anything.
b) Topic avoidance	This refers to reducing the message by avoiding certain language structures or topics considered problematic language-wise, or by leaving out some intended elements as a result of lacking the necessary linguistic resources.
2. Word coinage	This refers to the creation of a non-existent L2 word by applying a supposed L2 rule. e. g. "unmove" in the following utterance. he found this the man who dr who hit them er find him his car is er is,... it's unmove
3. Circumlocution	This refers to exemplifying, illustrating, or describing the properties of the target object or action. e. g. "We use it to make the baby walking in the house easily" to refer to 'baby walker'
4. -correction/ Restructuring	This refers to attempts to correct oneself by trying to restructure the utterance to reach the optimal meaning. e. g. the car was broke.broken.
5. Approximation	Using an alternative lexical item that shares certain semantic features with the target item, or using a generalized TL item. e. g. The use of 'quicker' in the following example to mean 'faster' The boys em be becau: se they because he is er very er quicker in spee er very speed in driving.
6. Mumbling	Swallowing or muttering inaudibly a word (or part of a word) whose correct form the speaker is uncertain about. e. g. he go er or er ((muttering)) on his bicycle.
7. L2 appeal for help	This refers to asking for help directly or indirectly. Though the author did not intend to give any help, some subjects appealed for help. e. g. e: rI don't know. Electric e: r (13 sec) electric, ladder? Electric ladder? Electric steps? Step? I don't know.
8. Self-repetition	The learner repeats a word or a string of words immediately after they have been said. e. g. he was very happy because he didn't ca(re) he didn't care for him when he fell.
9. Use of similar-sounding words	This strategy is used to replace a lexical item whose form the speaker is unsure of with an existing or non-existent word which sounds like the target item. e. g. "this is lekstenturel" for "fire extinguisher"
10. Use of all-purpose words	This refers to the use of words like "stuff", "thing", "things" "do" or "make". e. g. the man was trying to fix it (the car). he looked at it and he did the same thing
11. Ignorance acknowledgement	This refers to the learner's admission of his lack of the required knowledge when he says that he does not know. e. g. e: r ern I don't know, tell me.

C. Participants

The participants of the current study consist of 47 (male and female) fourth year EFL students who are studying English in the department of English language at Al-Yarmouk University College/ Diyala and College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala. Those students are native speakers of Arabic. They have ranged in age from 22 to 24 years old. Each student had completed 8 years of English study prior to entering the college. Those participants have selected, because of their availability at particular times, which means that they have not randomly assigned. The researcher has divided them into three groups low, intermediate, and high proficient students. They have divided into three groups based on their achievements in the last academic year (2015-2016). The following table shows the backgrounds information of the participants.

TABLE 2.
BACKGROUND OF THE PARTICIPANTS

College	N	LP		IP		HP	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Al-Yarmouk University College	22	3	7	2	5	5	0
College of Basic Education	25	4	4	3	7	0	7
Total	47	7	11	5	12	5	7

Note: HP=high proficient students, IP= intermediate proficient students, LP= low proficient students

IV. RESULTS

A. Results Related to Research Question 1: What Kinds of CSs Do High Proficient Students Use in Their Written Performance?

As shown in Table 3, high proficient students have used only 6 CSs which exist in Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). The most frequently employed strategy by the high proficient students is "approximation" (f=13) (e.g. Participant 7 has tried to write era, but she has used century instead). On the other hand, they have used 5 CSs namely: "literal translation" (f=2) (e.g. Participant 1 has translated "it does not mean" from her L1(Arabic) by saying "that not means"), "word coinage" (f=2) (e.g. Participant 9 has creation of a non-existent L2 word "famousest" by applying a supposed L2 rule), "language switch" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 2 has ask the researcher for help to know the meaning of an intended word "useful"), "circumlocution" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 3 has illustrated the word "negative"), and "use of similar-sounding words" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 5 has used "hagers" instead of "hackers") less frequently.

TABLE 3.
COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY HIGH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

PS	LT	LS	AV	WG	CI	SC	AP	MU	L2A	SR	US	UP	IA
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	1	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
6	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	2	1	0	2	1	0	13	0	0	0	1	0	0

Note: PS= Participants, LT= Literal translation, LS= Language switch, AV= Avoidance strategies, WG= Word coinage, CI= Circumlocution, SC= Self-correction/ Restructuring, AP= Approximation, MU=Mumbling, L2A= L2 appeal for help, SR= Self-repetition, US= Use of similar-sounding words, UP= Use of all-purpose words, IA= Ignorance acknowledgement.

B. Results Related to Research Question 2: What Kinds of CSs Do Intermediate Proficient Students Use in Their Written Performance?

As shown in Table 4, intermediate proficient students also have used only 5 CSs which exist in Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). The most frequently employed strategy by the intermediate proficient students "use of similar-sounding words" (f=11) (e.g. Participant 16 has used "everythinks" instead of "everything"), while they have used "literal translation" (f=10) (e.g. Participant 11 has translated the words "nowadays" literally from her L1 by saying "In these days") and "approximation" (f=10) (e.g. Participant 4 has used "bad" instead of "disadvantage") equally. On the other hand, they have used 2 CSs namely "language switch" (f=5) (e.g. Participant 15 has used an Arabic word "mesli" which means "entertaining") and "circumlocution" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 10 has described the word "Facebook" in details") less frequently.

TABLE 4.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY INTERMEDIATE PROFICIENT STUDENTS													
PS	LT	LS	AV	WG	CI	SC	AP	MU	L2A	SR	US	UP	IA
1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0
2	1	0	0	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	1	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	2	0	0
4	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
5	1	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
6	2	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	1	0	0
7	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
9	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
17	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0
Total	10	5	0	0	1	0	10	0	0	0	11	0	0

Note: PS= Participants, LT= Literal translation, LS= Language switch, AV= Avoidance strategies, WG= Word coinage, CI= Circumlocution, SC= Self-correction/ Restructuring, AP= Approximation, MU=Mumbling, L2A= L2 appeal for help, SR= Self-repetition, US= Use of similar-sounding words, UP= Use of all-purpose words, IA= Ignorance acknowledgement.

C. Results Related to Research Question 3: What Kinds of CSs Do Low Proficient Students Use in Their Written Performance?

As shown in Table 5, low proficient students have used only 3 CSs which exist in Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). The most frequently employed strategy by the low proficient students is "word coinage" (f=8) (e.g. Participant 6 has used "Non-do not" instead of "do not"). On the other hand, they have used 2 CSs namely: "language switch" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 5 has used an Arabic word "Yufiduna" which means "useful for us") and "approximation" (f=1) (e.g. Participant 1 has used the word "combine" instead of "combine" instead of "gather") less frequently.

TABLE 5.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY LOW PROFICIENT STUDENTS													
PS	LT	LS	AV	WG	CI	SC	AP	MU	L2A	SR	US	UP	IA
1	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0
2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
5	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
6	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
7	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
8	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
9	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
10	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
11	0	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
12	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
13	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
14	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
15	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
16	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
17	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
18	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Total	0	1	0	8	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0

Note: PS= Participants, LT= Literal translation, LS= Language switch, AV= Avoidance strategies, WG= Word coinage, CI= Circumlocution, SC= Self-correction/ Restructuring, AP= Approximation, MU=Mumbling, L2A= L2 appeal for help, SR= Self-repetition, US= Use of similar-sounding words, UP= Use of all-purpose words, IA= Ignorance acknowledgement.

D. Other Communication Strategies Used by High, Intermediate, and Low Proficient Student

As shown in Table 6, the participants have used 3 CSs which do not exist in Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). These strategies are "use of abbreviation" (e.g. Participant A has used "app" instead of "application"), "replacement" (e.g. Participant B has used "is media" instead of "is a means"), and "using mobile dictionary" (e.g. Participants have used their mobile dictionary to find out the intended target words"). Intermediate proficient students have used these CSs more frequently (f=24) than low (f=17) and high proficient students (f=11).

High proficient students have used only 3 CSs namely: "using abbreviation" (f=6), "replacement" (f=3), and "using cell phone dictionary" (f=2). Intermediate proficient students were used 2 CSs namely: "using mobile dictionary" (f=21) and "replacement" (f=3). Low proficient student have only used one CS namely: "using mobile dictionary" (f=16).

TABLE 6.

COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES USED BY THE STUDENTS				
CSs	Description	HP	IP	LP
Using abbreviations	The students use abbreviations instead of mention the intended words, because they lack the target words. For example: "app" for application	6	0	0
Replacement	The students replace the intended word with another word which does not give the same meaning of the intended one.	3	3	0
Using mobile dictionary	The students use their mobile dictionary to find out the intended word.	4	21	16
Total	/	11	24	16

Note: CSs= Communication Strategies, HP=high proficient students, IP= intermediate proficient students, LP= low proficient students

V. FINDINGS

Based on the results of this study, it is obvious evidence that the use of CSs in the written performance varies among the low, intermediate, and high proficient Iraqi EFL student. And this means that the students' proficiency level has direct effect on the kinds of CSs used by them. These results are in line with the findings of Moattarian and Tahririan (2013), Garcia (2011), Khamis (2010), Yarmohammadi and Seif (1992), and Zhao (2010).

The findings reveal that the high proficient students have used "approximation strategy" more frequently than "literal translation," "word coinage," "language switch," "circumlocution," and "use of similar-sounding words." This means that high proficient student have the ability to deal with their lack of vocabulary by returning to their linguistic knowledge to find out the suitable word which convey the intended message. This is in line with Aliakbari, and Allvar (2009) who have stated that the learners with high proficiency level depend more on their linguistic repertoire to reduce the gaps in their performance by using CSs.


On other hand, intermediate proficient students have used "use of similar-sounding words," "literal translation," and "approximation" more frequently to compensate for their lexical deficiencies. In contrast, they have used "language switch," "word coinage," and "circumlocution" less frequently. These results to some extent are similar to the studies of Wongsawang (2001), Xhaferi (2012), and Moattarian and Tahririan (2013) which have revealed that the participant have used CSs such as approximation, circumlocution, literal translation and, word coinage more frequently.

Although low proficient students have lacked the target vocabularies in the written performance, they have used very limited kinds of CSs. They have used "word coinage" "language switch," and "approximation." "Word coinage" has been used more frequently by them. This means that those students need to be aware of the importance of CSs to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in the target language. According Aliakbari, and Allvar (2009) teaching CSs to low proficient students may enhance their performance in writing.

Additionally, the three groups of students (high, intermediate, low) have used some strategies such as "replacement," "use of abbreviation," and "using cell phone dictionary," which did not exist in the Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001). This means that Iraqi EFL students have the ability to deal with their lack of vocabulary or to solve their problems in conveying their message in the written performance. All three groups high, intermediate, and low proficient students have used cell phone dictionary to find out the intended target word. The intermediate proficient students have used this strategy more frequently than low and high proficient students. This strategy beings more useful and workable to find out the intended target word in written performance, especially for low proficient EFL students. High proficient students have used abbreviation strategy which means that those students may know the target words, but they have lacked spelling. On other hand, high and intermediate proficient student have used replacement strategy which means that they have the ability to use another target word to avoid their lack of the intended word.

Based on the findings of this study, the researcher believes that there is need to suggest a new taxonomy of written communication strategies (WCSs) to be used by EFL learners in the written performance. The researchers may also use such taxonomy of WCSs as a base to conduct other studies with different subjects and situations since that this taxonomy considers the first in the field of written performance. The researcher includes this taxonomy most of the strategies which have used by Iraqi EFL students who have participated in this study. He believes that such WCSs may help the EFL student to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in the target language. This taxonomy divides into three main strategies namely: first language (L1) based written strategies, foreign language (FL) based written strategies, and use of non-linguistics strategies. The researcher also uses drawing strategy in this taxonomy based on his experience in this field not on the results of this study. He believes that this strategy is very important in a situation that the learner cannot find out the target word even when he/she uses all other strategies. On the other hand, he excludes "L1-optional meaning strategy", because it is unworkable in the target language. The strategies of this taxonomy could be identified as follows:

TABLE 7.
RAED'S TAXONOMY OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION STRATEGIES (2017)

Written communication strategies	Description
1. L1-based WCSs	The learners derive the information from their L1 language (Arabic) to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in English
a) Literal translation	The learners translate the intended word from the L1 language (Arabic) into English literally. For example: "take another personality" instead of "Impersonate"
b) Language switch	The learners use Arabic words instead of the intended target words to compensate for their lack of vocabulary in English
1) L1 appeal for help	The learner ask for help using their L1 language (Arabic) to find out the target word. For example: "كيف نكتب كلمة مفيد باللغة الانكليزية؟" "Keifa Naktub Kalimat Mufeed Bilughla Al-Engliziah?" Translation: "How do we write the word,,,,,, in English language?"
2. FL-based WCSs	The learners derive the information from their FL (English) to compensate for their lack of the intended target word.
a) Approximation	The learners use alternative lexical items that share certain semantic features with the target items, or using a generalized English word. For example: "big application" instead of "great application"
b) Use of similar-sounding words	The learners use words that have the same sound like the target words. For example: "hagers" instead of "hackers"
c) Circumlocution	The learners exemplifying or describing the target words instead of writing the exact one. For example: "it is a social network site that people use to communicate...." instead of "Facebook"
d) Use of abbreviation	The learners use abbreviations of the target words instead of writing the target words, because they do no sure of their spelling. For example: "app." instead of "application"
e) Replacement	The learners replace the target words with other words even when they do not give the same meanings of the target words. For example: "social" instead of "friendly"
3. Non-linguistics WCSs	The learners use objects such as cellphone which have nothing to do with linguistic elements to find out the intended target words.
a) Using mobile dictionary	The learners use their mobile dictionary to find out the intended target words.
b) Drawing	The learners draw the target words instead of writing them, because they lacked the target words. For example: "drawing hammer ()" instead of writing it.

Note: L1=first language (Arabic), WCSs= written communication strategies, FL=foreign language (English).

VI. CONCLUSION AND PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

The findings of this study lead one to conclude that high, intermediate, and low proficient students have varied in using CSs. They have used approximation, literal translation, word coinage, language switch, circumlocution, use of similar-sounding words, replacement, use of abbreviation, and using cell phone dictionary differently. The results also show that the students have not used all the CSs which have existed in the Rabab'ah's taxonomy of CSs (2001) such as avoidance strategies, self-correction/ restructuring, L2 appeal for help, self-repetition, use of all-purpose words, and ignorance acknowledgement. This means that not all CSs could be workable in oral and written communication.

Although this study has achieved its objectives, there have some limitations such as the number of the participants, time, CSs, and data collection procedures. So that further studies advice to choose a number of participants bigger than the one which has used in this study to make their findings more generalized. They also advise to use more than one instrument to collect their data and based their studies on CSs which consider workable in written communication rather than in oral. Finally, if there is opportunity to find out the effect of teaching these strategies on the students' written performance, it is advisable to do so.

The study has also some implications for EFL teachers. They may increase their students' awareness of the importance of CSs in writing performance by familiarizing them with the use of CSs especially in situations when they lack the target vocabulary.

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Raed Latif Uгла holds B.C. degree in English Language from College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala/ Diyala/ Iraq. He also holds M.Ed. in TESOL from School of Educational Studies/ University of Science, Malaysia (USM)/ Penang/ Malaysia. His areas of interest are communication strategies, communicative competence, and language teaching.

He has worked as TRANSLATOR at College of Basic Education/ University of Diyala/ Iraq from 2005 to 2012. Currently, he is working as ASSISTANT INSTRUCTOR at Al-Yarmouk University College.

Examining Language Related Episodes (LREs) of Arabic as a Second Language (ASL) Learners During Collaborative Writing Activities

Mohammed A. Alwaleedi

School of Education, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, The University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia

Abstract—Previous studies have increasingly examined the nature of collaborative writing in English as a foreign/second language settings. However, little research has been conducted on its nature in Arabic as a second language (ASL) contexts. This study investigated the nature of 64 students' Language Related Episodes (LREs) while performing collaborative writing in ASL classrooms. Employing a quasi-experimental design with a mixed methods approach, the frequency and the focus of the students' LREs in collaborative (experimental) writing groups and in traditional (control) groups were compared. The findings showed that there was a statistically significant difference between the LREs produced by the experimental and the control groups which can be attributed to the collaborative writing approach. In particular, the analysis of LREs per minutes indicated that LREs were more frequent in the experimental group interaction than in control group interaction. In addition, the experimental groups paid more attention to language and were more successful at resolving language related problems than the control ones which may explain the differences in their performance. Specimens of dialogues of both groups are presented to explain their differential performance.

Index Terms—collaborative writing, Quasi-experimental research, Arabic as a second language (ASL) contexts, Language Related Episodes (LREs), second language learning

I. INTRODUCTION

Collaborative writing (CW) as a potential means for developing second language (L2) writing ability is based on a social constructivist view of learning. This view derives from the work of Vygotsky (1978), who hypothesized that human development is driven by social activity. Being informed by a Vygotskian sociocultural framework, Swain (1995, 2005) argues that writing as an instance of language output can be viewed as a way to develop learners' skills in the L2. The written modality of language may equally contribute to L2 learning achievement, as L2 learners master language for literate purposes (Alshammari, 2011; Kern & Schultz, 2005). In other words, learners' writing skills can enhance their L2 competence (Harklau, 2002). Thus, writing is an essential means of L2 learning and can be a major source for L2 learners to improve their L2 proficiency.

II. REVIEW OF RELEVANT LITERATURE

A. Research on Collaborative L2 Writing

There have been numerous studies that support the use of CW in L2 classrooms either in pairs or small groups, particularly at the tertiary level (Fernández Dobao & Blum, 2013; Humphrey & Macnaught, 2011; Khatib & Meihami, 2015; Kuiken & Vedder, 2002; Sajedi, 2014; Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2001, 2005; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009, 2012a, 2012b). Collaborative writing activities provide opportunities for learners to participate in the co-construction of knowledge and articulate their ideas to compose a written text collaboratively, to foster reflective thinking practice among them, and to raise their awareness of audience.

For example, Storch's (2001) study has illustrated how adult L2 learners at tertiary level participated in text construction in pairs. She found that, in most pair works, one learner took responsibility for managing the structure of the text while the other member expressed his or her opinions about the details to be included in the text. Even though both members contributed to the text composition, there were times when they had difficulties in reaching an agreement. Through confirmations and elaborations, these members could resolve the challenges in pair work. In addition, Shehadeh (2011) found that even though there was a significant improvement in terms of content and organization of written texts, learners found it difficult to assist each other when it came to accuracy which was due to the lack of learners' language knowledge.

Wigglesworth and Storch (2012a, 2012b) have investigated L2 learners' feedback and their writing development through collaboration. Overall, the findings showed that corrective feedback from peers in writing provided learners with potential L2 learning benefits particularly on how to improve their accuracy (i.e. linguistic knowledge). Reflective practice in collaborative writing promotes learners' awareness about their own learning and allows them to effectively

engage in peer interaction in completing writing tasks. As a result, they can continually evaluate their work and make changes in their writing process.

B. Language Related Episodes (LREs) in Collaborative Writing

Swain (2000) claims that as learners work together, they share ideas and pool their knowledge to reach their shared goals. Collaborative activities enable them to collaborate to solve language related problems. They engage with language as a cognitive tool to reflect on language and facilitate problem-solving, called as ‘*linguaging*’ (Swain, 2006). ‘*Linguaging*’ is defined as “the process of making meaning and shaping knowledge and experience through language” (Swain, 2006, p. 89). Swain also argues that ‘*linguaging*’ is a potential source of L2 learning. For instance, in the case of collaborative writing, learners deliberate with their peers in small groups, not only to talk about how to write a text, but also to discuss metalinguistic aspects of language itself. During the writing process, there are many kinds of language problems that may arise and be solved together, and thereby contribute to language learning. Linguaging or collaborative dialogues has been operationally defined as language-related episodes (LREs) (Swain, 2005, p. 1). Swain and Lapkin (1998, p. 321) define LREs as “any part of a dialogue where the students talk about the language they are producing, question their language use, correct themselves and others.” In general, LREs can be categorized into; form-focused (e.g. morphology and syntax), lexical-based (e.g. word meaning and word choices), and mechanics (e.g. the punctuation, the spelling, and the pronunciation) (Storch, 2007).

Under this frame, a growing number of studies have investigated learners’ collaborative dialogues during the completion of different written tasks (Abadikhah, 2012; Fernández Dobao, 2012; Storch, 2007; Swain & Lapkin, 1998; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). These studies mainly focus on language-related episodes (LREs). For example, Storch (2007) investigated the nature of the learners’ talks during the completion of a text editing task. The task required learners to change the text in order to improve its accuracy. Involving 9 pairs, one triad, and 16 individually, the study revealed that the participants in pairs focused more on grammar (67% of all episodes) than lexis (31%). Most LREs were correctly resolved (80%). In another study, Abadikhah (2012) studied the effect of mechanical and meaningful production of output when learning English relative clauses. The study involved thirty-six Iranian EFL learners divided into two groups: control (mechanical output) and experimental (meaningful output) groups. The participants in pairs completed three tasks over an 8-week period. The result showed that the experimental group generated a higher number of LREs (58%) than the control one (42%). The finding suggests task types could influence learners’ focus either on meaning or form.

Further, Fernández Dobao (2012) examined the performance of intermediate Spanish learners in a university context. The learners were assigned in groups, in pairs, or individually to complete a written task as a follow up lesson of past tense grammar. The study showed that the groups produced the most accurate texts, followed by the pairs and the individuals. Further, the groups produced a bigger number of LREs than the pairs, and had a higher percentage of correctly resolved the LREs.

Another similar study was conducted by Amirkhiz, Bakar, Samad, Baki, and Mahmoudi (2013). They investigated orientations towards metatalks of EFL dyads (i.e. Iranian) and ESL dyads (i.e. Malaysian). The dyads were assigned to complete fifteen collaborative writing tasks. The findings indicated that EFL dyads attended more to the language features than ESL dyads. This could be due to the different status of English in their countries and their educational experiences.

To sum up, findings from these studies suggest that learners’ collaborative work may lead to deliberations on language aspects which can modify or consolidate learners’ current linguistics knowledge. Even though task types and learners’ proficiency level may influence the frequency of LREs produced, the analysis of LREs may explain how learners discuss language aspects and learn from their peers’ feedback.

C. Collaborative Writing in L2 Classrooms

Working collaboratively on writing tasks can benefit learners during the whole process of writing, creating a positive impact on learners’ writing outcomes (Storch, 2011, 2013; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012a). Generally, working together in pairs and small groups facilitates learners’ interaction to achieve group goals in learning (Gillies, 2014; Johnson & Johnson, 2014). In other words, through interaction, learners can negotiate different views of their own learning so that they can learn from one another. Therefore, being supported by Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural framework, CW is considered an effective approach to improving L2 learners’ writing outcomes (Storch, 2013).

Given its learning potential, a lot of research has been conducted on CW (Fernández Dobao, 2012; Fernández Dobao & Blum, 2013; Fong, 2012; Kuiken & Vedder, 2002; Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2001, 2005, 2011, 2013; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009, 2012a, 2012b). However, this research has mainly focused on English as a second or foreign language; limited attention has been given to CW in other second or foreign language contexts. For instance, very few studies have investigated the use of CW in the context of Arabic as a second language (ASL).

D. Collaborative Writing in ASL Classrooms

In the past two decades, interest in learning ASL has grown exponentially in many countries around the globe in multiethnic, multilingual, and multi-religious communities (e.g. Malaysia, Singapore, Indonesia, Australia, United States, United Kingdom and some European countries) (Al-Rajhi, 2013; Aladdin, 2010; Brosh, 2013). The growing

importance of Arabic can be understood from the fact that it is the fifth most commonly spoken language in the world. The interest in Arabic is not restricted to Muslim countries only where the language is used for prayer and reciting religious texts (e.g. the Qur'an written in Arabic) (Dahbi, 2004); it is also increasingly used in globalised marketplaces (Crystal, 2010). Moreover, Arabic is the language of a petroleum-based global industry which is at the centre of geopolitics (Karmani, 2005). The teaching and learning of Arabic was part of the security strategy for a number of Western countries since 9/11 (Brecht & Rivers, 2012). Thus, there is a widely perceived need to learn Arabic in schools and universities in many countries across the world. This justifies paying research attention to the teaching and learning of Arabic as an L2.

There are many challenges for ASL learners when it comes to learning and practicing Arabic in their daily life compared to other commonly taught languages such as English, Spanish or Chinese. These challenges are related to not only insufficient resources such as curricula, instructional materials and teaching and assessment strategies, but also to divisive cultural and political issues between people in western countries and in Muslim societies. In particular, these issues relate to the assumptions that the western and Islamic cultures are not compatible (e.g. veiling school girls in Islamic education and polygamy issues are exaggerated by politicians and the press). More recently, there have been misperceptions that the Islamic world is a threat to the West. As a result, learning ASL is not as popular or common as other international languages. Thus, one of the solutions to meet the challenges in learning Arabic may be to develop its own theory and pedagogy. Arabic needs to be taught and learned on its own terms (Wahba, Taha, & England, 2013). This calls for research on the teaching and learning of ASL in different contexts.

While there are many aspects of ASL that need to be learned in order to be proficient in the language, writing is one of the most difficult skills for ASL learners. This is because Arabic has complex morphological and syntactical systems that are highly varied compared to, for example, English and other European languages (Wahba et al., 2013). According to Jassem (1996), the most notable difficulty in writing for ASL learners is Arabic grammar (e.g. the use of Arabic tense, subject-verb agreement, verb phrases, mood, and voice). Nevertheless, writing may also provide L2 learners opportunities to use their existing linguistic resources and produce new language knowledge.

Research on ASL writing skills is currently at its initial stage. Only a handful of studies investigated ASL learners' essays to understand their deficiencies in their writing (Salim, 2000; Shakir & Obeidat, 1992). Shakir and Obeidat (1992), for instance, investigated cohesion and coherence in ASL learners' essays. They found substantial incoherence in their text production, which was attributable to their inadequate knowledge of cohesive devices. Similar findings were reported by Salim (2000) who studied writing processes and strategies used by American learners of ASL and evidenced their poor performances in writing tasks. In order to make writing tasks more effective, ASL learners, in particular, should be able to use a variety of writing strategies in the process of planning, generating ideas, reviewing, and revising writing texts. Their choices of writing strategies may affect the level of their writing performance (Salim, 2000). Given that collaborative writing strategy has been found beneficial in English as an L2 writing contexts as evident in many relevant studies (Sajedi, 2014; Storch, 2013; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2012b), it is important to investigate whether and to what extent the use of CW in the context of ASL would be effective in developing ASL learners' writing skills.

Against the background of the theoretical and empirically verified benefits of CW, the present study examined CW in the context of ASL in Saudi Arabia to substantiate the nature of students' LREs as reported in the literature by drawing on a language other than English. In particular, the following research questions were formulated for the purpose of the study:

1. Is there a difference between collaborative writing groups and traditional small groups in terms of the frequency and the focus of LREs produced?
2. What are the outcomes of LREs produced?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Sixty-four male ASL students participated in the study. The majority of the students came from Africa with a range of first language backgrounds including French, German, Indonesian, Malay, Urdu, Hindi, Bengali, Pashto, Dhivehi, Spanish, and Portuguese. In the sampling process, participants' willingness and availability to be part of the study (Creswell, 2015) were taken into account. Thus, convenience sampling was employed in the study. Of 10 classes in the program, 4 classes that consisted of 16 students each, and their 2 Arabic native teachers participated in the study. These four classes in the institute had been organized naturally and were considered to share the same characteristics. They were enrolled in Arabic language preparation programs in an Arabic language institute which is a part of a public university situated in Makkah, Saudi Arabia. Based on their program entrance examination scores, they were considered to have a high-intermediate level of Arabic competence. The participants ranged in age from 20 to 23 years. Since the student participants did not share the same native language, Arabic was the only language used for instruction in the classroom.

TABLE I.
PARTICIPANTS AND THE DESIGN OF THE EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUPS

Class	Condition	Learning Approach	Groups	Teacher
1	Control	Traditional Group Work	1, 2, 3, 4	A
2	Control	Traditional Group Work	5, 6, 7, 8	A
3	Experimental	Collaborative Approach	9, 10, 11, 12	B
4	Experimental	Collaborative Approach	13, 14, 15, 16	B

As shown in Table 1, the study was conducted in four parallel classes. Each class consisted of sixteen students. Two of the four classes were experimental groups while the other two groups were control groups. That is, both experimental and control classes had thirty-two students each. Experimental and control classes were taught by two different teachers who used the same syllabus and materials provided by the course textbooks. While experimental classes implemented a collaborative writing approach, control classes were involved in traditional group work. In each class, the student participants were then divided into small groups which consisted of four students.

B. Data Collection Procedures

The data collection techniques in this study involved the use of different research instruments, including observations, audio-recordings, and writing tasks. During the 10-week intervention, all participating classes were given three types of writing tasks: descriptive, narrative, and argumentative texts. Each task (500-word text) was completed in three weeks (i.e. 50 minutes per meeting each week). During the classroom observation, the author observed how learners participated in co-constructing the writing tasks. This process included brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising. While observing from Week 2-11, the author audiotaped the verbal interactions among group members when they completed the writing tasks collaboratively.

TABLE II.
WRITING TASK PROMPTS

Week	Prompts	Activities
Week 1	Pre-test: <i>Describe your own country in 500 words.</i>	The students completed the test in 50 minutes individually.
Week 2-4	Task 1 (Descriptive Text): <i>Describe your first day in Makkah (or you can choose your own topics)</i>	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 5-7	Task 2 (Narrative Text): <i>Narrate your visit to Madinah (or you can choose your own topics)</i>	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 8-10	Task 3 (Argumentative Text): <i>What do you think about marriage during the study period or after graduation? (or you can choose your own topics)</i>	Brainstorming, planning, drafting, and revising
Week 11	Post-test): <i>What do you think about cooperative writing and/or collaborative writing?</i>	The students completed the test in 50 minutes individually.
Week 12	Semi-structured interviews with the students and the teachers	

Data Analysis

All of the data obtained from the audiotapes of the groups' verbal interactions were transcribed and analysed by the Independent-samples Mann-Whitney *U* Test for frequency, focus, and outcome of LREs. The analysis was run by the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) Version 23. Further, the types of LREs were classified based on their focus on form, lexis, and mechanics.

IV. RESULTS

Regarding the first question of the study, as shown in Table 9, LREs were rather frequent in both groups. The experimental groups produced a total of 986 and the control ones 789 LREs. The results of the Independent-samples Mann-Whitney *U* Test showed that this difference was statistically significant ($U = 64, p = .039$) with alpha was set at the standard $p < .05$ for all statistical tests. Even though the experimental groups spent slightly more time on task, the analysis of LREs per minutes indicated that LREs were more frequent in the experimental group interaction than in control group interaction ($U = 58.9, p = .029$). Thus, most of the experimental groups produced a larger number of LREs than the control ones.

TABLE III.
FREQUENCY OF LRES IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP INTERACTION

	Experimental (n=32)			Control (n=32)		
	Total	Mean	SD	Total	Mean	SD
LREs	986	69.08	23.01	789	49.66	20.35
Minutes	402	26.28	3.98	351	24.47	4.50
LREs per minutes		1.48	.80		1.34	.58

TABLE IV.
FOCUS OF LRES IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP INTERACTION

	Experimental (n=32)				Control (n=32)			
	Total	Mean	SD	%	Total	Mean	SD	%
Form-Focused LREs	471	26.18	11.46	47.78	381	22.78	8.23	48.28
Lexis-Focused LREs	412	25.80	14.16	41.78	355	22.57	9.45	44.99
Mechanics-Focused LREs	103	6.76	3.84	10.44	53	3.34	2.13	6.73

In terms of the focus of LREs, both groups focused on grammar and lexis. 47.78% of the LREs produced by the experimental groups focused on grammar and 41.78 on lexis. Likewise, 48.28% of the LREs in the control groups were form-focused and 44.99% were lexis-focused. The experimental groups produced a higher number and percentage of mechanics-focused LREs than the control groups, and this difference was statistically significant ($U = 55, p = .014$). Only 103 mechanics-focused LREs occurred in the experimental groups and 53 in the control groups (See Table 4).

Lastly, Table 5 displays the analysis results of the outcome. Obvious differences can be seen between the experimental and control groups with regards to the resolution of the LREs. The experimental and control groups had almost a similar number of incorrectly resolved LREs; 241 and 178 respectively. However, while the experimental groups were able to correctly resolve 69.87% of the LREs they produced (a total of 689 LREs), and just had 5.68% of unresolved LREs (a total of 56 LREs), the control groups could only produce 35.23% of correctly resolved LREs (a total of 278 LREs) and even had 42.21% of unresolved LREs (a total of 333 LREs). The Independent-sample Mann-Whitney U Test confirmed that the differences in the percentage of correctly resolved LREs ($U = 63, p = .039$) and unresolved LREs ($U = 59, p = .042$) were statistically significant (See Table 5).

TABLE V.
OUTCOME OF LRES IN EXPERIMENTAL AND CONTROL GROUP INTERACTION

	Experimental (n=32)				Control (n=32)			
	Total	Mean	SD	%	Total	Mean	SD	%
Correctly Resolved LREs	689	47.58	19.96	69.87	278	20.98	9.38	35.23
Unresolved LREs	56	4.80	3.16	5.68	333	22.18	11.54	42.21
Incorrectly resolved LREs	241	17.76	7.45	24.45	178	9.24	4.33	22.56

To conclude, the implementation of collaborative writing approach may affect positively their focus and outcome of LREs, but did not really influence the frequency of LREs. Overall, in spite of individual difference among group members, the experimental groups paid more attention to language and were more successful at resolving language related problems than the control ones.

In order to have a better understanding why the experimental groups were more successful at resolving linguistic-related problems than the control ones, the nature of their LREs (the second research question) was further examined. The examination showed that the experimental groups were able to reach a correct resolution with a higher percentage of their problems since they actively engaged in the discussion, and had more linguistic resources than the control groups. Through the interactions, they were able to pool and share their knowledge to solve problems encountered. Evidence of collective scaffolding (i.e. learners in small groups pool their language resources to co-construct grammatical knowledge or sentences which are beyond their individual level of competence) (Donato, 1994), frequently occurred in the data of the experimental groups. The following two instances describe the process.

In Excerpt 1, Harith points out that the word “الاستفادة” (benefit) should not be used with “همزة القطع” (a detached hamzah). He thinks that the spelling for the word is not correct, but Abdurrahman has a different opinion. Harith tries to convince Abdurrahman by asking Mauoon to explain what they have studied in the Arabic spelling rules. Then, Mauoon explains why they need to put “همزة الوصل” (a linking hamzah) instead. Further, Abdullah adds that he also has studied about the spelling rules. Finally, every one accepts the explanation from Mauoon and Abdullah, and Abdurrahman revises the spelling error.

Excerpt 1. Experimental Group 8 – Mechanics focused LRE

1. Abdurrahman: "كذلك هو ممكن الاستفادة من مساعدات التي يقدمها الجمعيات خيرية لمساعدة طلاب في الزواج"

[also, he might be able to benefit from assistance voluntary organisation provide to students wanting to get married]

2. Harith: طيب... لماذا أنت كتبت كلمة (الاستفادة) بهمزة قطع؟

[well... why did you write the word “benefit” with a detached hamzah?]

3. Abdurrahman: أتوقع هي صحيحة...

[I think it is correct...]

4. Harith: لا... هي ليست صحيحة... أخبره يا ماعون عن سبب كما درسنا في قواعد كتابة العربية...

[no... it is not correct. Tell him the reason Mauoon as we studied in the Arabic spelling rules]

5. Mauoon: ايوه... كلام حارث صحيح... لأن الفعل هنا خمسة حروف، فلا بد نضع همزة وصل

[yeah (slang)... Harith is right... because the verb here consists of 5 letters... so we have to put a linking hamzah]

6. Abdullah: صحيح... وأنا أيضا درست ذلك...

[true... I also studied that...]

7. Abdurrahman: خلاص... نضع همزة وصل

[ok (slang)... we put a linking hamzah]

Excerpt 2 shows that four students are discussing the correct use of adjective, noun, and the gender of Arabic nouns. Firstly, Yosuf wants to confirm the use of the phrase “ضخم المبنى” (the huge building) since he realises he has always issues when dealing with the rules of making a phrase in Arabic. Then, Faris proposes his idea about it. He thinks the use of “ضخم المبنى” (the huge building) is not correct in the sentence. He explains that in Arabic grammar, noun has to come before an adjective. Yahya reminds every one about the topic of the grammar rule – the adjective and noun rule. Yahya also offers the correct stem “مبنى ضخم” (building huge). Further Yosuf notices another rule in using “ال” to determine the gender of noun since adjectives should be matched with the noun in terms of either masculine or feminine, and singular and plural. After all, they can resolve the grammar problems they encounter in the writing process.

Excerpt 2. Experimental Group 3 – Form-focused LREs

1. Yosuf: "... وهو عبارة... اه.. عن ضخم المبنى" [and it is ... ah... a huge building]
2. Faris: "...أعتقد أن هنا خطأ نحوي... لأنه لا بد الاسم يأتي قبل صفة... وليس العكس مثل الانجليزي" [I think here is a syntactic error... because noun has to come before an adjective in Arabic... not the opposite like English]
3. Yahya: "... هنا قاعدة صفة والموصوف.. صحيح؟" [you mean the adjective and noun rule right?]
4. Faris: "... وهي التي درسناها قبل اسبوعين" [yes, we studied this topic two weeks ago...]
5. Yosuf: "... طيب.. ماذا يمكن نكتب؟ عندي مشكلة دائم في هذه قاعدة.." [ok, what can we write? I have always a problem with this rule]
6. Faris: "... هذا طبيعي... لأننا نتعلم لغة جديدة" [this is normal, because we are learning a new language]
7. Yahya: "... طيب.. صح.. اه.. إذا نكتب "مبنى ضخم" بدل من ذلك" [ok... right,, so we write "building huge" instead]
8. Faris: نعم [yes]
9. Yosuf: "... هل لا بد نحذف (ال) من (المبنى)?" [Do we need to remove (ال) from (المبنى)?]
10. Saeed: "... نعم أعتقد... لأنني أنا قرأت مثل ذلك في كتاب قواعد" [I think yes, I read that in the grammar book. Right?]
11. Faris: "... أحسنت يا سعيد... نعم لا بد يكون صفة مثل الموصوف في التذكير وتأنيث وتعريف وتذكير ومفرد والجمع" [we're done Saeed. The adjective needs to be matched with the noun in terms of feminine and masculine, and also the singular and plural]
12. Yosuf: "... شكرا لكم يا .. أصدقائي الآن هذه قاعدة صارت واضحة لي" [thank you my friends. Now, this rule is very clear to me]

As stated by Donato (1994), most of the learners in the Excerpt 1 and 2 are individually novices but they can collectively resolve the problems. Even though some learners lacked the linguistic resources required to make accurate use of language, other learners provided help to correct the use of language. Further, these examples revealed that collaborative writing approach offered opportunities for peer collaboration and co-construction of linguistic knowledge.

Unlike in the experimental groups, the control groups tended to be more passive in their discussion. In Excerpt 3, for instance, Sajid and Rihaan question about the meaning of the word “مجاجهنا” (our beds). Even though Razzan tries to explain the meaning of the word, others (Ghalib, Sajid, and Rihaan) do not seem to understand the meaning. They do not try to figure out the meaning of the word. They are not really interested to discuss further and just skip the part. They tend to adopt a more passive role.

Excerpt 3. Control Group 3 – Lexical focused LREs

- Razzan: "...وصلنا إلى فندق متأخرين... تعشينا... وبعدها ذهينا إلى مجاجهنا" [we arrived hotel late... had dinner, then we went to "مجاجهنا" (our beds)]
- Sajid: "... مجاجهنا؟! ما هذه الكلمة؟ ممكن ليس عربية...?" [?!!, what is this word ?!! maybe not Arabic]
- Rihaan: "... ماذا تقصد يا رزان بكلمة "مجاجهنا"?" [Razzan, what do you mean by "مجاجهنا"?"]
- Razzan: "... اعتقد واضح... هو مكان نذهب فيه للنوم..." [I think it is clear... the place we go to for sleeping]
- Ghalib: "... لم أقصد معنى مقصود.. هل أحد فهم ما قصده؟" [I didn't get it... did anyone get it?]
- Sajid: لا [No]
- Rihaan: "... أنا أيضا ما فهمت" [me too, I didn't understand]
- Ghalib: "... ما يهم.. دعونا نكمل" [what matters.. let's continue]

[doesn't matter... let's continue]

V. DISCUSSION

This study was conducted to examine the frequency, focus, and the outcomes of students' LREs produced during collaborative writing tasks in Arabic as a second language (ASL) classrooms. The study employed a quasi-experimental design involving mixed methods approaches. With regards to the first research question, the results of the Independent-samples Mann-Whitney *U* Test indicated that this difference was statistically significant ($U = 64, p = .039$) between those writing in traditional group work and those using collaborative writing approach. In particular, most of the experimental groups produced a larger number of LREs than the control ones. However, both groups had different focus. The findings indicate that learners in the experimental groups paid more attention to language than those in the control groups. The results support earlier remark by Amirkhiz et al. (2013) that EFL dyads tended to focus more on the language aspects than ESL dyads. A possible explanation of the differences is that the students not only may have limited understanding and knowledge of the linguistic features, but also had different language learning experiences.

Considering the outcomes of the LREs produced, the experimental groups produced not only more LREs, but also a bigger percentage of these LREs which were correctly resolved. However, although the learners working in the control groups also produced a considerable number of LREs, they could not resolve most of their problems. This finding confirms that any gain in the students' resolved LREs from the experimental groups may be attributed to the collaborative writing practices. In other words, their CW experience led to enhanced performances on the writing tasks. Similar findings have been reported by few previous studies (e.g. Fernández Dobao, 2012; Wigglesworth & Storch, 2009). The result of these studies found that collaborative problem solving activities may occur when learners implemented a collaborative approach. They tended to share ideas and actively engage in the discussion. The results of the present study confirm that the experimental groups scaffolded each other and co-constructed knowledge more often than the control groups.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study reports on examining the nature of the students' LREs produced during collaborative writing activities in ASL contexts. Based on the statistical data, the students may gain L2 knowledge during the CW activities. It can be seen that the experimental groups produced a larger number of LREs than the control ones. In other words, CW provides them with opportunities to engage in meaningful interactions. They can generate and pool ideas while drafting their jointly written texts. Regarding the resolved LREs, unlike the control groups, the experimental groups showed significant improvement. This difference can be attributed to the fact that they actively engaged in the discussion, and had more linguistic resources than the control groups. All in all, CW could be a potential source of L2 learning. Nevertheless, this claim still need further research. The study also had some limitations such as the small sample sizes and limited time. Considering these limitations, the generalizability of the research results should be interpreted with caution.

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Mohammed A. Alwaleedi, is a lecturer at King Abdul Aziz University in Saudi Arabia and a PhD candidate in the School of Education, the University of Queensland, Brisbane, Australia. He earned his master degree in applied linguistics at the same university. His research focuses on Applied Linguistic, Collaborative Writing, and Arabic as a Second Language.

Beyond Human Boundaries: Variations of Human Transformation in Science Fiction

Sayyed Ali Mirenayat

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Ida Baizura Bahar

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Rosli Talif

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Manimangai Mani

Faculty of Modern Languages and Communication, Universiti Putra Malaysia, Malaysia

Abstract—Science Fiction is a literary genre of technological changes in human and his life; and is full of imaginative and futuristic concepts and ideas. One of the most significant aspects of Science Fiction is human transformation. This paper will present, firstly, an overview on the history of Science Fiction and some of the most significant sci-fi stories, and will also explore the elements of human transformation in them. Later, it will explain the term of transhumanism as a movement which follows several transformation goals to reach immortality and superiority of human through advanced technology. Next, the views by a number of prominent transhumanists will be outlined and discussed. Finally, three main steps of transhumanism, namely transhuman, posthuman, and cyborg, will be described in details through notable scholars' views in which transhuman will be defined as a transcended version of human, posthuman as a less or non-biological being, and cyborg as a machine human. In total, this is a conceptual paper on an emerging trend in literary theory development which aims to engage critically in an overview of the transformative process of human by technology in Science Fiction beyond its current status.

Index Terms—science fiction, transformation, transhumanism, transhuman, posthuman, cyborg

I. INTRODUCTION

Science Fiction with a simple definition consists of 'science' with the same current meaning of science and 'fiction' that is about written stories in literature about people and events. The term Science Fiction (henceforth SF) was used for the first time by Luxembourgish-American Hugo Gernsback (1884-1967) in 1926 to present a pioneering new fiction that was known as an interesting romance genre intertwined with different scientific facts and predictive views (p.3). More precisely, the history of SF dates back to centuries before that, at least, to *Utopia* (1516) by British writer Thomas More (1478-1535) for depicting a fictional utopia, or even *Gulliver's Travels* (1726) by Irish writer Jonathan Swift (1667-1745), which has scientific facts of the protagonist's adventures in fictional places. Nevertheless, Sherryl Vint (2014) believes that the most influential nominee for the first SF is *Frankenstein* (1818) by British writer Mary Shelley (1797-1851), which gives her readers the boundaries of scientific comprehension and relationship between human and the created beings (3). Its theme about the creation of a monster has been one of the fundamental themes in SF. Besides Shelley, other predecessors of SF in the 19th, such as American writer Edgar Allan Poe (1809-1849) for "The Unparalleled Adventure of One Hans Pfaall" (1935); French writer Jules Verne (1828-1905) for *Journey to the Center of the Earth* (1864) and *From Earth to the Moon* (1865); and British writer H. G. Wells (1866-1946) for *The Time Machine* (1895), *The Island of Doctor Moreau* (1896), *The Invisible Man* (1897), and *The War of the Worlds* (1898), which are all known as the earliest SF works.

Although the earliest SF works were created decades before the 20th century, its term became common at the beginning of the 20th century. Indeed, progressing technology has shaped human lives extensively and intimately. To Vint, although SF does not always foretell the future as is expected, this literary genre can be viewed as a mythical language which plays a key role in building the future through utopian and dystopian stories. Therefore, SF is a way to visualise and to experience a reality "that is itself askew and not merely a particular configuration of settings, plots, and images" (Vint, 2014, p.6). Moreover, it is a way to change the way for examining a text, to change the general understanding of the borders of SF and is also a connection to other literary genres. Vint believes that it is necessary to consider this genre as a set of connected texts, motifs, and themes (Vint, 2014, p.14). Accordingly, this genre is difficult to define because of its broad range of themes and subgenres. In general, it deals with different scientific and visionary terms, such as time travel, extraterrestrial life, space colonisation, singularity, virtual reality, robotic life, transformation,

superhumanization, among others. Clearly, SF has been mostly defined based on different possibilities of future and worlds. Sometimes, it is included under the broad category of 'Speculative Fiction' which is made up of imagination than reality. There are different kinds of elements in SF; for example

- a specific time in the future when humans live in space,
- a future time when people live in virtual environments,
- characters from future human evolution as cyborgs, superhumans, humanoids, androids, and artificial intelligent robots,
- futuristic principles different from our current physical laws, such as black holes, teleportation, travel between universes, living in different dimensions, and time travel, and
- unseen systems in society, such as utopian, dystopian, and post-apocalyptic.

Moreover, SF has two different categories, namely hard SF and soft SF. Hard SF is characterised by highlighting the more technical and scientific details including physics, chemistry, and astronomy, among others. Among the famous hard SF novels are American writer Michael Crichton's *Jurassic Park* (1990), American writer Nancy Kress's *Beggars in Spain* (1993), Australian writer Greg Egan's *Schild's Ladder* (2002), and American writer Andy Weir's *The Martian* (2011). On the other hand, soft SF is a category with less realistic technological elements, and more social sciences about anthropology, psychology, sociology, and political science, among others. Some of the most noteworthy soft SF novels are *The Demolished Man* (1953) by American writer Alfred Bester, *Fahrenheit 451* (1953) by American writer Ray Bradbury, and *The Left Hand of Darkness* (1969) and *The Dispossessed* (1974) by American writer Ursula K. Le Guin. SF is also categorised into different subgenres that can be included under hard and soft SF, such as alternate history, cyberpunk, apocalypse, post-apocalypse, utopia, dystopia, space opera, and climate fiction for instance.

II. HUMAN TRANSFORMATION IN SCIENCE FICTION

We always have had many dreams in our life in which transcendence may be one of the most debated wishes for every one of us which may end in a way to gain immortality and to remove human vulnerabilities. Transformation of human is a way that may result in his/her transcendence while SF is a genre dealing with different imaginative themes with futuristic settings and technological life. A general insight into SF presents the increasing interests of writers who create fictions about transformation with different angles of technology in human life.

Shelley's *Frankenstein* in 1818 is mixed with the Gothic elements and SF. In this story, Victor Frankenstein assembles a composite human-like creature from stolen body parts and brings it to life – a monster suffering from isolation and loneliness which turns into a murderous avenger of his creator. American writer Edward Bellamy (1850-1898) created *Dr. Heidenhoff's Process* in 1880 that depicts the progressing of a mechanical method to eliminate troublesome memories from people's brains to return their optimism about life. In 1886, British writer Robert Louis Stevenson (1850-1894) wrote a notable SF work entitled *The Strange Case of Dr. Jekyll and Mr. Hyde* (1886). It shows Stevenson's idea on how personalities can transform a man into good and an evil person by a medical serum. Ten years later, in 1896, British writer H. G. Wells (1866-1946) published his shocking *The Island of Doctor Moreau* (1896) that is about a man who lives in an island and creates human-like hybrid animals. This story illustrates philosophical and ethical themes, such as morality, identity, pain, and cruelty in beings smarter than human.

After the Second World War, from 1960 onwards, the themes of human transformation merged in the world of SF, through human cloning, genetic engineering, artificial intelligence and cyborg body, and transformation took form as an evolutionary process. For example, American writer A.E. Vogt (1912-2000) in his novel *Slan* (1946) shows a future where humans aggressively subdue higher-than-human mutants. In such story, human evolves into mutants which are higher than humans. Four years later, Russian-American writer Isaac Asimov (1920-1992) in his *I, Robot* (1950) depicts the idea of self-aware robots and their legal equality with humans. In 1953, British writer Arthur C. Clarke (1917-2008) in his *Childhood's End* (1953) shows the possibility of human evolution to superhuman. Later, in the same year, American writer Theodore Sturgeon (1918-1985) wrote *More Than Human* which shows six people with strange powers who mix their abilities together in order to act as one superhuman. In this step of human evolution, Sturgeon investigates different issues of power, morality and individuality.

As another example, *Cyborg* (1970) by American writer Martine Caidin (1927-1997) has been an influence for many SF stories and movies so far. It is about obtaining perfection through technology for a man named Steve Austin that, when his shattered body is assembled, he turns into a higher than human who is a fatal unstoppable weapon without human emotion. This is an apocalyptic kind of transformation. In this decade, there is another notable work emerged that is *Man Plus* (1976) by American writer Frederik Pohl (1919-2013) which illustrates a same future where advanced biological engineering transforms Roger, the main character, into a machine-like weaponised monster to survive on the planet Mars. This scenario is the most primitive aim of turning in to cyborg which was stated in 1960 by Manfred Clynes and Nathan Kline that refers to becoming enhanced in order to be able to survive in an extraterrestrial universe. Next is the work *He, She and It* (1993) by American writer Marge Piercy (b. 1936) which shows an extraordinary cyborg man who works like a weapon. Last but not least, a posthuman SF entitled *The Bohr Maker* (1995) written by American writer Linda Nagata (b. 1960) which is about a man who wants to survive through a nanotech device to illegally rewrite his genetic code and turn into a posthuman to gain immortality.

All the above-mentioned SF works illustrate future human transformation in which life is intertwined with advanced technology. As seen in all of them, there is a diversity of changes in them as a style to express readers' feelings about their future. Such changes might be in human ability to live better, to control his/her world, or even in his understanding of it. Most science fictional stories are usually different from our present human life only because of these changes in different level of advanced technologies. Therefore, needless to say, SF in 21st century progress in terms of its evolution since the 19th century and 20th century. So doubtlessly, transformations in the present century's SF are more progressed than SF in the previous centuries'; since technological advances in these centuries are not the same. In the next section, we will present an overview on the transhumanism movement that has had many impacts on modern SF and the transforming of characters into transhuman, posthuman, and cyborg.

III. TRANSHUMANISM: MOVEMENT TO UPGRADE

Transhumanism or "evolutionary humanism" was coined by British biologist Julian Huxley (1887-1975), brother of Aldous Huxley (1894-1963), the writer of *Brave New World* (1932), in 1957. This is a movement which follows a wish to gain immortality and superiority as its primary goals, but it still has been obscure. One of the most renowned transhumanists who has answered to such ambiguities is Swedish philosopher Nick Bostrom (b. 1973) who has been always looking for the secret of immortality. Bostrom (2005a) suggests that the quest for immortality has been rooted in the Epic of Gilgamesh in the quest for the Elixir of Life to cure all diseases, to stop aging and death, and to grant immortality. Some people have tried the path of technology and science in finding medical solutions for superlongevity while in the far past, tried to find the Fountain of Youth. So this is a very old wish continuing to the present time when such ideas have entered the realm of SF and a social movement like transhumanism. Bostrom and other transhumanists believe that, finally, we should be uploaded to a machine or virtual world to prevent vulnerabilities of our bodies; in that case, we will be a new being called posthuman that originates from man who has left behind biology and has experienced some basic technological alterations.

What about human capacities? Reaching new capacities for humans had always been an ancient desire. As Bostrom (2005a) states, humans have always been seeking to extend the boundaries of existence socially, geographically, or intellectually. Some people always seek solutions for the limitations of human life. Some thinkers, such as German philosopher Friedrich Nietzsche (1844-1900), believe that the best way may be to surpass human boundaries and to go further to transform and even transcend. To him, what is great in man is that he is a bridge and not an end, and man is something that shall be overcome, and the time has come for man to set himself a goal, and to plant the seed of his highest hope. In this relation, Nietzsche coins the term of 'overman' which is not "technological transformation "but rather a kind of soaring personal growth and cultural refinement in exceptional individuals" (Bostrom, 2005a).

Bostrom also argues that enhancing human nature will increase dignity because it is upgradable through using of advanced science and other effective methods (2005b) and such enhancements allow humans to legally transform themselves and their nature in line with their values and individual goals (ibid). To him, this is one of the main reasons that we have to support transhumanism. In addition, Bostrom postulates that transhumanism does not expect us to give preference future human forms, such as transhumans (mainly biologic and partially implant or machine) and posthumans (most or full machine body), over human beings. This is because humans are able to overcome many of their biological limitations and cross their borders. What Bostrom means here is that there are some limitations that are unfeasible to pass, but humans can envision such enhancements at least.

In relation to the arguments above, technological enhancements are dreams that humans can pursue to the end, even if they cannot reach some of them. Bostrom (2005a) puts forward this view that there are some dangers concerning becoming transhuman or posthuman, where, by being aware of them, we will be more ready for the future. For example, some people think that human clone, as a sort of transhuman, would be so peculiar, irrational, and immoral. Yet some transhumanists such as Bostrom thinks that cloning is both an achievable and desirable way to reach immortality and to defeat death. No doubt every human likes to push aging and death back, like the transhumanists' dream, but we should ask ourselves this question: which values might be lost in return? In this regard, Bostrom (2005b) defines "intrinsic valuable" in which both the society – that allows people to choose enhancement and longevity – and the people who receive them are in a better condition. He suggests that, through human enhancement, our future society will have potentialities to present an evolution in human with new abilities which result in longevity and superhumanity, and this enhancement can originate from human transformation. According to Bostrom, these aims are much more significant that even parents should have full permission to choose enhancement for their children in the near future:

Transhumanists believe that human enhancement technologies should be made widely available, that individuals should have broad discretion over which of these technologies to apply to themselves, and the parents should normally have the right to choose enhancements for their children-to-be" (2005b, p.1)

Concerning parents' decision to transform and enhance their children, in SF, the best-selling British writer Peter James (b. 1948), has written a novel entitled *Perfect People* (2011) that shows the nightmarish decision of a young couple to have a child with superior abilities through genetic engineering. However, it calls into question: how reassured are we that such transformations and enhancements are not going to lead to an apocalypse for human being? In answering this question, Bostrom states that despite the fact that there are some dangers that should be predicted and avoided, these technologies will give "enormous potential for deeply valuable and humanly beneficial uses" (2005b,

p.2). He adds that, when we take control of our biological evolution, we are able to prevent “some of the inequality-increasing tendencies of enhancement technology with social policies” through the structure of transhumanism (ibid).

In addition, Bostrom brings forth this view that transhumanists recognise how human nature is a ‘work-in-progress’ where its current features are not the end of its evolutionary process. To him, our natural evolution does not exist in enough time to increase life length, and to go beyond the physical and temporal borders of the mind. In this case, by means of science and technology, we shall finally succeed to evolve by technology to turn to posthumans, beings with greater abilities than our current abilities (2005a). In general, transhumanists believe that the physical and mental capabilities through this movement result in one goal that is immortality as a virtual embodiment of consciousness. This virtual embodiment of consciousness originates from a common belief between transhumanists in which humans have close relationship with artificial intelligence, and also have free choice to elect their desirable body. They believe that humans deserve to gain such advanced gifts, so it is worth trying it. Transhumanists present a thought-provoking and debatable program in which they offer intriguing aspects of somebody’s view concerning a good life, and the nature of both individuals and minds.

Now, another question that should be answered is whether humans deserve to gain such transformation or not. Ray Kurzweil (2005), the futurist and transhumanist, believes that “being human means being part of a civilization that seeks to extend its boundaries” (p.250). He suggests that humans are already going beyond their biological boundaries through technological tools to redesign or transform and enhance it. To him, a whole idea for different species to be transcended is a ‘biological concept’ and what they should do is to enhance their biology (p.250). He disagrees with mainstream views that radical enhancement takes us beyond our humanity. Therefore, we firstly should know our humane capacities. Moreover, in his view, the future will be surely a postbiological future:

The transbiological phase will involve nonbiological intelligence deeply integrated with biological intelligence. ... The transbiological era will ultimately give way to the postbiological era, but it is to be hoped that our values will remain influential. (Kurzweil, p.284)

This postbiological future is when humans have created a cutting-edge technological environment where they, as biological species, are not able to live sufficiently. Therefore, they see the organic bodies which are not updated and are no longer in harmony with the new environment. Consequently, humans reach an evolutionary endpoint where they must update and transform the organic bodies. This is one of the important issues in SF stories which challenge readers’ minds concerning human transformation. One of the key elements of transhumanism in SF stories is the depiction of transhuman characters. In the next section, the concept of transhuman will be explained.

IV. TRANSHUMAN: STEP OF TRANSCENDENCE

As argued earlier, human enhancement is a wish that springs from humankind’s earliest dream for eternal life and superhuman abilities, and, to achieve enhancement, transformation is a tempting desire for human to obtain it. To Julian Huxley,

Up till now human life has generally been, as Hobbes described it, ‘nasty, brutish and short’; the great majority of human beings (if they have not already died young) have been afflicted with misery... The human species can, if it wishes, transcend itself – not just sporadically, an individual here in one way, an individual there in another way, but in its entirety, as humanity. (as cited in Livingstone, p.209)

After Huxley, one of the first transhumanists who foreshadowed the term transhuman was the Iranian-American transhumanist philosopher F.M. Esfandiary (1930-2000), later known as FM-2030. He presented a hypothesis on “new concepts of the Human” because of new technologies and modern lifestyles and used the term “transhuman”, or in his terminology as “transitional human”, to present a number of related ideas in which transhuman was defined as a transition from human to posthuman (1973). Esfandiary established an evolutionary connection from transhuman to posthuman because of “technology usage, cultural values, and lifestyles”. Consequently, one sign that he considered as the feature of transhuman included using prostheses and implants to become healthier and stronger than human like bionics.

One year later, Esfandiary states that, in order to transcend more quickly to higher levels of evolution, human must surpass the limitations of traditional ideologies. He brought up the question of whether modern technology and genetic engineering might lead to dehumanising and upsetting of nature balance or not. Although anti-transhumanists warn that technology and whole society are machinating the modern humans, where they highlight the “programmed individual depersonalized mechanical” (1973), Esfandiary, however, believed that we are “helpless robots manipulated by environment” than by technology, because we are unable to stop natural disasters. In addition, we have no control over our body, for example it is impossible for us to stop sleeping, drinking, and breathing, for instance.

Stelarc (b. 1946) with his previous name called Stelios Arcadiou, a Cypriot-Australian transhuman activist, is one of those who attempt to transform and enhance the capabilities of his own body (1991). As a transhuman with real bionic (partly machine mostly biologic) body, he believes that our human body is “obsolete” and is neither highly competent nor in a really lasting form. It is vulnerable to disease and is condemned to a definite and undeniable death. It can survive only a few weeks without food, some days without water and a few minutes without oxygen. Therefore, he believes that we must replace our organs and abandon our weak body and this abandonment is called body obsolescence. Stelarc adds, “It is no longer a matter of perpetuating the human species by *reproduction*, but of enhancing the

individual by *redesigning*". This means that our natural body needs to be redesigned by medical instruments, prosthetics, and mechanical limbs. Here, a challenging question is raised about the reaction of the body, the person, and the society to such redesigning or becoming transhuman. A notable literary example is Shelly's *Frankenstein* in which the monster is a manmade being that is part biological and part mechanical. However, the monster is not considered as transhuman creation, but also subhuman, but this new being could have new abilities along with possessing a weird and grotesque form in the eyes of the human society.

To relieve such anxieties, Joanna Zylinska (2002) states that the new body in transhuman can be defined only by the feature of its alteration and its relevance to the natural body. So, it is completely relevant to "the biological 'psycho-body' for its identity" (p.134). To her, Stelarc's body is enhanced mechanically through "hardware prostheses such as his Third Hand and Virtual Arm, Extra Ear, and Exoskeleton, a six-legged ... walking machine". Nevertheless, his body is "suspended" – neither human nor post-human that also called "Phantom Body" (Zylinska, p.136). Thus, Zylinska identifies Stelarc's body as a phantom body, but Stelarc maintains that our fear about becoming such bionic humans and cyborgs is similar to our fear of turning into zombies. This means that our anxiety about this transformation is because of confronting with an apocalyptic science fictional being that is progressively computerised and automated.

V. POSTHUMAN: LEAVING BIOLOGY BEHIND

Technology is one of the features of human and his life since human body is itself consisted of biological technology which works together systematically. Brain function is the simplest example showing an intricate technology in bodies which control the whole body. There are many other aspects of technology in our body whose secrets are still being discovered by scientists, and it clearly shows that human body is a highly-advanced machine. Due to such characteristics which a human body has, transhumanists are optimistic of making a future in which humans are transformed and transcended, just like what SF writers depict in the stories. German philosopher Martin Heidegger (1889-1976) states that "technology is therefore no mere means. Technology is a way of revealing. If we give heed to this, then another whole realm for the essence of technology will open itself up to us" (as cited in Kaplan, p.39). Almost all humans have a common desire to stay healthy and live for eternity. Humans have always been seeking for the extension of their health span to remain healthy and to have long life. Thus, it is not an awful desire to become healthier, smarter, and stronger as well as to upgrade our talents to become more intelligent and more skilled. In fact, as noted before, transhumanists believe that the best tool to achieve these desires is technology as this movement aims to reach a destination called posthuman.

Posthuman is often described as a concept in post-anthropocentrism where it is "post" to the notion of the human. It is a philosophy in which an appropriate way of departure is provided that allows humans to envision posthuman future beyond the boundaries of their imaginations. Posthuman is an existing process of different outlooks which has flourished due to the current effort to redefine human and its features. Based on transhumanism, posthuman offers a very rich debate on the impact of technological advances in the transcending of human capacity. The postmodern literary critic Katherine Hayles (1999) believes that becoming posthuman is much more than having prosthetic devices implanted in our biologic body (p.246). She postulates that the posthuman contains four prominent assumptions as follows:

First, the posthuman view privileges informational pattern over material instantiation, so that embodiment in a biological substrate is seen as an accident of history rather than an inevitability of life. Second, the posthuman view considers consciousness, regarded as the seat of human identity ... Third, the posthuman view thinks of the body as the original prosthesis we all learn to manipulate, so that extending or replacing the body with other prostheses becomes a continuation of a process that began before we were born. Fourth, and the most important, by these and other means, the posthuman view configures human being so that it can be seamlessly articulated with intelligent machines. (Hayles, pp. 2-3)

Therefore, Hayles believes that the replacement of the human body with mechanical limbs (that is the process of cyborgisation) can be a sort of posthuman; however, that is not all. For her, the main principle of the posthuman is the rapture between human mind or the 'software' and the physical form or the 'hardware' which both increase terror and pleasure (p.283). Concerning those who are fearful of the apocalyptic aspects of posthuman, she states,

Although some current versions of the posthuman point toward the antihuman and the apocalyptic, we can craft others that will be conducive to the long-range survival of humans and of the other life-forms, biological and artificial, with whom we share the planet and ourselves. (p.291)

As one who defends posthuman values, Bostrom (2002) believes that we redesign ourselves through using advanced technology to become posthumans (p.108). He is of the opinion that the posthuman, as a new being, at least has one of the following posthuman capacities: health span, cognition, and emotion. Health span is one of the posthuman capacities to stay completely healthy, active, and useful, both bodily and intellectually. Cognition includes mental capacities, such as memory, empirical thinking, and attention. On top of that, emotion is one of the posthuman capacities to enjoy life and to reflect properly on life conditions and others (Bostrom, 2006). He proposes that the capacity of emotion is much more superior than anything that current humans can achieve through advanced technology.

To defend the posthuman process, British transhumanist Robert Pepperell (1963-) is another one who believes that posthuman is not about the end of human, but an end for a 'man-centered' world which will happen in no time (p.171).

He also believes that posthuman is an evolution of life, a way which is not limited to genetics, rather technological existence. In general, Pepperell views posthuman as how humans live, and how humans manage their using of the environment, living beings and even each other. Posthuman concerns things to be explored and questions to be asked (p.171). These are good reasons, to him, that we can consider posthumanity not only for the future, but also the present time.

Nonetheless, there are a number of opponents to this idea such as Elaine Graham (2002 a, b) who highlights various representations of the posthuman in the form of monster-like beings in SF which are transformed by technology, such as Frankenstein's monster, or Doctor Jekyll in the two prominent SF novels discussed earlier. Such stories regarding the biological transformation or even the rise of machines are often filled with fear and insecurity of humanity that results from the dream of living with machines or cyborgs. Asimov's *I, Robot*, for instance, is a good Science Fictional example on the process of the intertwining of humans with machines where intelligent robots are used against humanity. To Graham, such SF creatures might be a real threat to future humanity. As another example, in *Frankenstein*, there is a human-created monster that is both biological and mechanical. Interestingly, the monster becomes a frightening ghoul when it is branded as an outcast from the human society. Therefore, its monstrosity is because of human inattention and unawareness, not due to its creation. This is, in fact, a process similar to cyborgisation of the biologic body which is one of the main elements of transhumanism in SF stories that we will explain about it in the next section.

VI. CYBORG: INTERVING OF BIOLOGY AND MACHINE

In the world of SF, all humans, machines, and intelligent robots resemble each other. In both the 20th and 21st centuries, within the context of modernism, various SF writers illustrate characters and technological creations which cause doubts about the boundaries between human and machine. After that, in the postmodernism era, the cyborg appears as a figure of the machine-man in literature. Consequently, the postmodern cyborg mirrors an increased concern about blurring of the differences between human and machine in both fiction and movie.

More specifically, it is about half of a century ago that cyborgs, as half-human, half-machine beings, have been particularly connected with SF stories. According to Samuel Dokko (2007), in this genre, the merging of organic and inorganic forms builds a "cognitive being". In SF stories, scientists play God by creating incredible technological and scientific enhancements to make human beings greater than normal humans through the cyborgisation process. Dokko views cyborg as the intertwined creation of flesh and machine which can have unbelievable power and speed. He describes these cyborgs are "medical cyborgs", because many of them are equipped with mechanical devices and implantations to overcome their weakness and illness. To Dokko, this collaboration between medicine and technology for creating the medical cyborgs is a great goal to upgrade and restore our biological processes.

It was Donna Haraway who popularised cyborg as a term, for the first time, which means a fusion of organism and machine (*Simians, Cyborgs, and Women* 1990, p.1). Cyborg, to her, is the creation of a new feminist identity for women because she is of the opinion that women are already cyborgs through their relationship with machines in their working environment. Haraway predicts that by the late 20th century, "we are all chimeras, theorized and fabricated hybrids of machine and organism; in short, we are cyborgs" (*Simians, Cyborgs, and Women* 1990, p.150). While the conceptions of cyborgs in SF are mostly identified through her definition, she also defines cyborgs through its implications on identity.

In addition, Haraway explains the utopian aspect of cyborg culture as human upgrading which has drawn many scholars' attention to itself. However, a great mass of technological advances, such as atomic bombs, shows a contradiction in her utopian view about this fusion. Concerning medical features of cyborgs, she states that cutting-edge advances in medicine are full of cyborgs (*Simians, Cyborgs, and Women* 1990, p.165) and, for Haraway, a cyborg, as both literal and figural definition, is defined according to its hybridity which embodies both reality and fiction:

The cyborg is a creature in a post-gender world. ... The cyborg is resolutely committed to partiality, irony, intimacy, and perversity. It is oppositional, utopian, and completely without innocence. ... Unlike the hopes of Frankenstein's monster, the cyborg does not expect its father to save it through a restoration of the garden ... [I]t is not made of mud and cannot dream of returning to dust. ... The main trouble with cyborgs, of course, is that they are the illegitimate offspring of militarism and patriarchal capitalism, not to mention state socialism. But illegitimate offspring are often exceedingly unfaithful to their origins. (1990, pp.150-152)

In her book *The Haraway Reader* (2004), Haraway describes a cyborg "as a fiction mapping our social and bodily reality and [also] as an imaginative resource suggesting some very fruitful couplings" (p.8). She emphasises that, since the 17th century to date, "machines could be alive like humans, and our flesh could be mechanised". This relationship between machine and flesh are obsolete and machines can be used as prosthetic devices in our body like a friend (p.178). There are different science fictional samples about friendship and hostility of machines with humans discussed earlier. Also, Haraway presents our flesh bodies as "maps of power and identity". So, with such features, a cyborg body can never be innocent, and we should accept the responsibility for it and its boundaries (p.180). As for these boundaries, Ray Kurzweil predicts that, in not-too-distant future, we will have machine intelligence which leads to an intertwining of power in both human brain and computer (Bukatman, 1993, p.286). This is a way in which the boundary between the biological and the mechanical will be erased. It also allows humans to upgrade their bodies with every kind of limitation that they have. Therefore, we will have a modified updated body that is very close to a cyborg's. *Do Androids Dream of*

Electric Sheep? (1968) by American prolific writer Philip K. Dick (1928-1982) is one example in which the boundary between the real (the biological human) and the non-real (the machine) is erased to the extent that robot servants are so identical to humans. Kurzweil adds:

We are becoming cyborgs. We are rapidly growing more intimate with our technology... Soon, we'll routinely put [computers and machines] inside our bodies and brains. Ultimately we will become more non-biological than biological. (cited in Bukatman, p.286)

To Kurzweil, transferring human minds into machines will lead to an unbelievable evolution of humans as an immortal machine called 'robosapiens' which is an advanced cyborg. Robosapien can be a kind of posthuman and a great cinematic example for that is "Chappie" (2015) – which portrays a mechanised police force that is a prototype artificial intelligence mimicking human behaviors and emotions. From a similar perspective, Chris Hables Gray (2000) views the enhanced cyborg as the one in which technologies are applied to make the cyborg much superior than the human in a particular realm: "a better soldier, a better lover, a superhero, but that does not necessarily mean that their masculinity is enhanced" (p.278). Such cyborgs are usually used in military programs like the cyborg soldiers in the Hollywood motion picture "Universal Soldier" (1992), or "Robocop" (1987) which is about a superhuman cyborg policeman. In total, Gray describes four classes for cyborgs – the first class is cyborgs that can be restorative which means that they can restore their lost functions and replace their lost organs and limbs. The second class is cyborgs that "can be normalizing" where they can restore some creatures to similar normality. The third one is the cyborgs that can be vaguely "reconfiguring, creating posthuman creatures equal to but different from humans, like what one is now when interacting with other creatures in cyberspace". Finally, the last class is cyborgs which can be upgraded for most military and industrial aims (Cavallaro, p.45). For the last class, Gray in his *Postmodern War*, clarifies that the military will soon be confronted with more intertwining of man and machine that is a cyborg soldier who merges machine-like strength with a redesigned human intellect to be included under weapons (Cavallaro, p.196.):

As soldiers become more like cyborgs, their gender identity becomes blurred. Cyborgs in general can be either masculine or feminine, although they are often more cyborg than either. Military cyborgs, on the other hand, are still pretty masculine. Since soldiers are also techs, the new masculine identity of soldiers is around mechanization, fixing machines, and working with machines, instead of traditional masculine identity of physical force, easy access to violence, and the direct subjugation of other men and all women. (Cavallaro, p.175)

Finally, Gray highlights the militarisation of cyborgs in order to use them as soldiers in wars. This idea is indeed similar to the notion of "Rampaging Cyborgs" by Daniel Dinello in SF which is about the intertwining of mechanical device and biological organism to produce advanced weapons (Dinello, pp.11-12). Another example is *Robocalypse* (2011) by American writer Daniel H. Wilson (b. 1978) which is the most recent SF novel with similar themes where rampaging cyborgs are super-intelligent and self-aware robots are shown as advanced weapons against humanity.

VII. CONCLUSION

Many SF novels present transformations with different angles of technology in human life. SF in 21st century has changed compared to the 19th century and the 20th century because of the progress of technology from 200 years ago until now. Consequently, different kinds of transformations in SF in the current are more depicted as more advanced than in the previous centuries' SF. In particular, transhumanism, as one of the social and technological movements that have had influences in the 20th and 21th centuries SFs, aims to exemplify immortality and superiority of the human being through fiction. This movement is not only popularised by different philosophers, but also by many SF writers through their stories. In these stories, human transformation through technology is demonstrated as the best and achievable way to reach this aim.

Bostrom proposes that transforming, and after that, upgrading human nature will improve dignity because human nature is an upgradable 'work-in-progress'. He defines "intrinsic valuable" in which both the people and the society are in a better situation, and future humans will have an evolution with new abilities through enhancement that leads to superhumanity. In line with Bostrom, Kurzweil suggests that we have already crossed our biological borders through technology and opines that the future of human beings is that of a postbiological future where human beings faces an evolutionary endpoint where their biologic bodies are not in harmony with the new environment and thus must be upgraded. Therefore, humans must step into a stage called transhuman that Esfandiary defines as transitional human. To feel better, this transitional status, according to Stelarc, means that the human body should be abandoned or redesigned by mechanical organs and limbs because it is vulnerable and cannot survive for a very long time in order to achieve the goal of immortality. Consequently, he presents the term body obsolescence in which the body is no longer used biologically. However, some anxieties will be created where Zylinska suggests that the body in transhumans is defined by the elements of its transformation and its relation to the natural body.

Another step discussed earlier in this paper is posthuman, which is an evolutionary process where the biological parts are mostly abandoned and the person's consciousness is scanned and uploaded onto a computer system or an intelligent android. Hayles believes that posthuman is the rapture between our mind (software) and the physical form (hardware). From a different angle, Bostrom suggests that humans must redesign themselves through technology if they want to transform into posthumans with new capacities such as health span and longevity. In line with Hayles, Pepperell believes that posthuman is not an end for humanity, but for a man-centered world. Moreover, he is of the view that it is

an evolution of life about the things to be explored and the questions to be asked. Also, concerning cyborgs as the third step brought in this paper, it is a process of replacing body limbs with mechanical substitutes. Haraway proposes that cyborg is the creation of a new feminist identity, especially for women who are already cyborgs in her eyes. To her, it is a creature of a post-gender universe that is not made of mud and will not die, and also “illegitimate offspring of militarism and patriarchal capitalism”. She further illustrates her view by building on its implications on identity. In contrast, Dokko believes that cyborgs in SF is the merging of organic (flesh) and inorganic (machine) created by scientists who play God to overcome human’s weakness, vulnerability, and illness.

More similarly to posthuman concept, Kurzweil postulates that uploading human minds into machines will end in the evolution of humans and result in an entity called ‘robosapiens’ which is an advanced cyborg. As for advanced cyborgs, Gray views it as one of the cyborgs in which technologies are used to make them superior than ordinary humans that can be better soldiers and usually used in military programs. This is similar to rampaging cyborgs that Dinello has defined for such weaponised cyborgs. To conclude, as SF is a genre full of real and non-real scientific terms and ideas, this paper has attempted to provide a general overview on human transformation via technology followed by a debate on the transhumanism movement in order to elucidate three future forms of human beings, namely posthuman, transhuman, and cyborg. In this way, this paper has engaged critically with the most important views postulated by related notable scholars to authenticate this summary: from transcending to transformation, from work-in-progress to redesigning of humans, from biologic to mechanic bodies, from obsolete body to virtual life, and from immortal bodies to weaponised cyborgs.

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Sayyed Ali Mirenayat graduated in BA in English Language and Translation at IAU, in Shahreza, in Iran. Later, he completed his MA in English Literature at English and Foreign Languages University (EFLU) in Hyderabad, India. At the present time, he is a Ph.D. candidate in English Literature at Universiti Putra Malaysia (UPM) in Malaysia. His research interests include Science Fiction, Futurology and Literature, Transhumanism, Posthuman in Fiction, Humanity and Technology in Fiction, Post-apocalyptic Fiction, Dystopian and Utopian Fiction, Ecofiction, Climate Fiction, and Literature in film.

Ida Baizura Bahar, PhD is currently a senior lecturer attached to Universiti Putra Malaysia. She got MA of English Language in Literary Studies in Nottingham, UK. Later, she gained her PhD in Languages and Cultures of South East Asia at SOAS, UK. Her areas of expertise include English Literature, Malay Literary Texts on the Malay World, Comparative Literature, and Sociology of Literature.

Rosli Talif, PhD is currently an associate professor at Universiti Putra Malaysia. His research interests include English Studies, Literature in ESL and Reading, Literature and Gender, Language Planning and Policy.

Manimangai Mani, PhD is currently a senior lecturer at Universiti Putra Malaysia.

Evaluation of Michael Berry's Translation of *To Live* from Metafunctional Approach

Daqing Zu

School of Foreign Studies, China University of Mining Technology, Xuzhou, Jiangsu, China

Ying Xu

School of Foreign Languages, Southeast University, Nanjing, Jiangsu, China

Abstract—Standing distinctively out from his other works, *To Live* signifies the sharp turning of Yu Hua's writing style from avant-garde experimenting to the mature novel narrating. The English Version *To Live* translated by the American scholar Michael Berry made its appearance in 2003, winning generous appreciation of the American readers from all walks of life. Compared with the extensive study conducted on the original text, the study of the English version, especially its C-E translation, is relatively few and limited. To assess the C-E translation of the novel, the thesis adopts a feasible approach from systemic functional linguistics—metafunction theory. Based on the three metafunctions, this paper makes a detailed comparative study between the original text and its corresponding translation so as to find out the merits and demerits of the C-E translation as well as the underlying causes. This thesis makes an objective study of the C-E translation of the English version, intending to provide constructive reference for the objective judgment of Berry's version as well as the improvement of the future translation.

Index Terms—metafunction, *To Live*, C-E translation

I. INTRODUCTION

As one of the most shining contemporary writers, Yu Hua enjoys a high reputation both at home and abroad. Regarded as the most profound voice coming out of China today, Yu Hua's works have been translated into multiple languages. Yu Hua, instead of being self-satisfied, has always been challenging himself with the unremitting attempt of different writing styles. Accordingly, his works can be classified into three major writing stages: the avant-garde short story, narrative novel and musical essay. Standing distinctively out from other works, *To Live* signifies the sharp turning of Yu Hua's writing style from avant-garde experimenting to the mature novel narrating. By virtue of its unique narrating style and profound theme, *To Live* has aroused huge sensation followed by the passionate study on the novel. The studies are conducted from various perspectives, ranging from its simple narrating style, black humor, musical narrating, to the "life-death" theme, and the implication of pessimism.

The moment the English Version *To Live* translated by the American scholar Michael Berry made its appearance in 2003, it became a hot seller abroad, winning generous appreciation from the American readers from all walks of life. Compared with the study conducted on the original text, the analysis of the English version is relatively few and limited, let alone the studies on its C-E translation. Driven by the natural attraction to the original novel as a reader and the intense interest in the translated version as an English major, the author has made a detailed comparison between the two. To a large extent, the original information, connotation and cultural background as well as narrating characteristics are conveyed into the TT (target text), and yet inappropriate translation, misunderstandings and even mistakes can also be found in the TT with a second glance, which will inevitably stand as a barrier for the target readers to fully appreciate the beauty of the ST (source text).

Based on the close comparison of the original novel and the translated version, this thesis makes a detailed case study from the perspective of metafunction theory, finding out the merits and demerits of the C-E translation and their underlying causes. The thesis here is by no means to challenge the efforts and expertise of the translator, but intends to make its own contribution to the improvement on the translation of this novel and the other works of Yu Hua as a whole.

II. METAFUNCTIONAL ANALYSIS OF THE C-E TRANSLATION OF *TO LIVE*

2.1.1 The Ideational Function Analysis of the C-E Translation of *To Live*

The sweeping recognition of Michael Berry's translated version *To Live* is largely attributed to its faithful conveyance of the original information from the ST to the TT. The ideational function could be used as an important parameter to measure the translation's faithfulness to the ST, which is mainly realized by the transitivity system. The following three cases will make a detailed analysis on the main elements of transitivity — the process, the participant and the circumstantial elements, so as to illustrate whether the translated version has done a great job in the ideational transform.

(1) 家珍一直扑到天黑，我怕夜露伤着她，硬把她背到身后，家珍让我带她到村口去看看，到了村口，我的衣领都湿透了，家珍哭着说：

“有庆不会在这条路上跑来了。” (Yu, 2004, p. 133)

TT: Jiazhen stayed there until dark. I was afraid the night dew would make her sick, so I picked her up and put her on my back. Jiazhen had me take her over to the edge of the village. By the time we got there my collar was soaked.

“Youqing won't be able to run down this trail to school anymore,” Jiazhen said, crying. (Yu, 2003, p. 161)

The sentence “我怕夜露伤着她，硬把她背到身后” embodies a “cause-effect” relationship which could be equally found in the translated structure “I was afraid...so I...”. And yet the process in the ST “硬把她背到身后” has been recomposed by the translator on purpose.

Process: 背到 (material process)

Participant: 我 (actor), 她(goal)

Circumstance: 硬是 (manner), 身后 (place)

In comparison, it has been made into two processes in the translated version:

Process 1: pick up (material process)

Participant: I (actor), her (goal)

Process 2: put (material process)

Participant: I (actor), her (goal)

Circumstance: on my back (place)

In the original text, the writer combines the two actions “pick her up” and “put her on my back” into “背到身后” unconsciously as it is easier for the Chinese readers to understand the underlying logical relationship. As far as the precise English considered, it is barely possible for the western readers to accept. The decomposed action makes the translated version coherent and clear. Hence, it is fair to say the process transfer has brought the equivalent ideational information to the target reader. But the manner “硬是” which has secretly expressed the narrator's consideration to his fragile wife fails to find the corresponding expression in the TT.

In the translation of the following sentence “有庆不会在这条路上跑来了”, the ST and TT show evident difference in the way of ideational transference.

Process: 跑 (behavior process)

Participate: 有庆 (behavior)

Circumstance: 来 (direction), 这条路上 (place)

By contrast, the translated version shifts the process as:

Process: run (behavior process)

Participate: Youqing (behavior)

Circumstance: down to (direction), this trail (place), school (destination)

Instead of describing directly the huge sorrow a mother indulged in under such circumstances, the writer leaves a psychological space for the readers to fulfill by their own imagination. Given the previous context, Youqing used to take this trail to school. Standing on the edge of the village towards which the trail extends, the mother is filled with sadness as her own son won't be able to run down this trail anymore, neither to school as usual nor to her arms right now. The translators' supplement of “down to school” restricts the connotation kept in the ST, leaving the target readers less room to involve in the scenario reproduction.

(2) 我爹和我，是远近闻名的阔老爷和阔少爷，我们走路时鞋子的声响，都像是铜钱碰来撞去的。(Yu, 2004, p. 7)

TT: Near and far, my father and I were known as the old and young rich masters. When we walked, the sound our shoes made was like the sound of coins clanking against each other. (Yu, 2003, p. 10)

(3) 里面有个胖胖的妓女很招我喜爱，她走路时两片大屁股就像挂在楼前的两只灯笼，晃来晃去。(Yu, 2004, p. 10-11)

TT: There was a fat prostitute there who really won my affection. When she walked, her fat butt was just like the two lanterns that hung outside, shaking from side to side. (Yu, 2003, p. 14)

(4) 我啊.....那件绸衣我往身上一穿就感觉脱下来，那个难受啊，滑溜溜的像是穿上了鼻涕做的衣服。(Yu, 2004, p. 42)

TT: Me, I felt bad...but as soon as I put on that silk shirt, I took it right off. That slimy, uncomfortable feeling was unbearable. It felt like I was wearing clothes made of snot. (Yu, 2003, p. 51)

(5) 那声音响的就跟人跳进池塘似的，一巴掌全打在我心上。(Yu, 2004, p. 115)

TT: The sound of the slap went straight to my heart; it was like the sound of someone diving into a pond. (Yu, 2003, p. 140)

In above cases, the typical Chinese simile structure “像” in the ST may find its equivalent pattern “like” in the TT while the processes in the ST are all kept near the same with the ST. What's more, the special and unique Participant (Identifier) like “铜钱”, “灯笼”, “鼻涕” and “池塘” are with high aesthetic value of Yu Hua's personal characteristic, towards which even the Chinese readers are unfamiliar with. Berry keeps the similes like “coin”, “lantern”, “snot” and

“pond” in the translation, will not only make the target readers feel equally refreshed, but also maintain the exotic flavor intact in the TT. Translated in such a way, the TT has successfully conveyed the ideational information displaying the translator’s respect for the Chinese culture and his appreciation of the original author.

Besides the process transitivity transference, the ideational function could also be used as the benchmark to evaluate whether the translator has accurately grasped the connotation of the original sentences.

(6) 家珍怀着有庆有六个月了，自然有些难看……我嫌弃她，对她说：

“你呀，风一吹肚子就要大上一圈。”

家珍从来不顶撞我，听了这糟蹋她的话，她心里不乐意也只是轻轻说一句：“又不是风吹大的。” (Yu, 2004, p. 9-10)

TT: Because she was six months pregnant with our son, Youqing, Jiazhen was naturally no treat for the eyes. When she walked ... I remember being so annoyed by her appearance that I even said to her, “Look at you. As soon as the wind blows your stomach doubles in size.”

Jiazhen would never contradict me. But after hearing me insult her, she couldn’t have been very happy and quietly retorted, “The wind didn’t blow that hard.” (Yu, 2003, p. 12)

Years later, when the old man Fugui recalls his younger days squandering his love and the family’s fortune, he is indulged in the endless regret, which is especially true when he talks about his pathetic wife. Pregnant with his child, what the wife receives is not the consideration but the heartless irony from her husband by saying “As soon as the wind blows your stomach doubles in size”. In normal cases, the comment will inevitably arouse a fierce conflict between the couple. Given the context, Jiazhen is such a docile and thoughtful wife that even with the compliant inside, she still turns to a gentle way to retort. On one hand, “又不是风吹大的” manifests the fact it is not the wind but Fugui’s responsibility for her pregnancy; On the other hand, “又不是”, a typical colloquial tone in Chinese, is commonly used to express one’s feeling in a skillful and nifty way. Such as, “别埋怨他了，又不是故意的”; “别着急，又不是只有这一家店卖。”

Instead of adopting the literal translation, Berry converts it as “The wind didn’t blow that hard” based on his understanding of the context. The later reveals the fact that the wind wouldn’t be able to blow that hard so as to make “me” pregnant. At the same time, the colloquial tone has also been skillfully transformed into the western humor. Suppose Berry translates the ST as “It is not the wind that blew that big”, it won’t affect the target readers to understand the semantic meaning, but not in line with the Jiazhen’s personality embodied in the context. The humorous way of saying “The wind didn’t blow that hard” is bound to leave an equivalent impression on the target readers of Jiazhen’s obedient and nice quality. Moreover, the ideational function must play its role as the first and foremost carrier of the other two functions.

2.1.2 Discussion and Summary

The first case makes a detailed analysis of the transitivity transference in the English version *To Live*. Although the processes in the translated version are sometimes different from those in the ST, their ideational meanings are accordingly conveyed to a large extent. In this sense, when the quality of translation is assessed, the change in process type does not necessarily matter. It is also worth mentioning that the Participants embodied with the writer’s unique similes have been well kept in the TT. Berry has also made a positive attempt to understand the connotation of the ST integrated with the context and make skillful transformation in the translating process. The long-term study on Chinese enables him to notice the difference of the two languages while trying his best to bridge the gap between them.

Meanwhile, the translated version strays away from the original ideational meaning sometimes; either due to the translator’s misunderstanding of the connotation or his flexible interpretation. Such flexibility may be attributed to Berry’s translation views that “if you translate something too literally, no one will read it”. Undoubtedly, the translator should take the readability and acceptability of the text for the target readers into consideration since translation is considered as a communicative process after all. As Nord (2001) noted once, “in both the source and target situations, the comprehension of the text world depends on the cultural background and the world knowledge of the receiver.” (p.88) However important it is, the flexibility is supposed to be based on the faithful conveyance of the original information in the ST. As Berry confesses there is also the challenge of putting too much of himself into the book. The above analysis proves the translator indeed crosses the line at times, which will be bound to mislead the target readers. Besides, his misunderstanding of certain Chinese words also fails to transfer the ideational meaning appropriately.

Generally speaking, an objective attitude needs to be adopted in the analysis of the C-E translation of *To Live*. As far as the ideational function concerned, Berry has done a good job to a large extent in both the process transitivity and connotation transference by virtue of his proficiency in Chinese. The existing problems, which are caused by the translator’s misunderstanding of the ST or his flexible interpretation, can’t be overlooked. The faithful conveyance of the ideational information should be regarded as the prerequisite for the flexible transformation while taking the readability and acceptability of the text for the target readers into full consideration. Both the misinterpretation and errors existing in the TT show there is still some room left for future improvement.

2.2.1 The Interpersonal Function Analysis of the C-E Translation of *To Live*

The literary text demands particularly the weighing of different metafunctions in translation. In light of novel translation, the transference of interpersonal function takes higher priority than the other metafunctions as well. The

interpersonal function is mainly realized by the mood system and the modality system.

(7) “我只有一个儿子，求你行行好，救活他吧。”

医生点点头，表示知道了，可他又说：

“你为什么只生一个儿子？”

这叫我怎么回答呢？我急了，问他“我儿子还活着吗？”

他摇摇头说：“死了。” (Yu, 2004, p.126)

TT: Standing there trembling, I said, “I only have one son. I beg you, please, save my son.”

The doctor nodded his head to let me know that he understood, but then he asked, “How come you only had one son?” How was I supposed to answer this? I got anxious and asked him, “Is my son still alive?” He shook his head and said, “He’s dead.” (Yu, 2003, p. 153)

Hearing his son dying, Fugui rushes to the hospital hastily begging the doctor to save his only son. Facing the anxious father, in normal cases, the doctor would comfort them by promising they will try their best. The doctor, however, brings up a weird question “你为什么只生一个儿子？” It is by no means a simple interrogative sentence out of the doctor’s personal curiosity intending to figure out the reason why Fugui only has one son. Instead, it is a subtle hint telling the serious situation the boy is in as well as the high possibility that Fugui is due to lose his only son. The unusual questions will inevitably double Fugui’s anxiety.

It is the translator’s profound understanding of the integrated context and interpersonal relationship that drives him to diversify the mood of special question in the ST into a disjunctive question in the TT. Grammatically speaking, “你为什么只生一个儿子？” is supposed to be translated literally as “Why did you only have one son?” Given the above context analysis, such mood of special question fails to show us an awkward situation while it is hard to arouse the father’s anxious response accordingly. By contrast, the translated version “How come you only had one son?” has adopted the doctor’s unusual manner to raise his question, implying the death fate of the poor boy. It may equally arouse the target readers’ scare about what will happen to the poor child next, and by doing so the interpersonal relationship has been successfully transferred into the TT.

Apart from the mood system, the modality system also plays an important role in the interpersonal transference. The following two cases will discuss the quality of the C-E translation of *To Live* with the yardstick of modality system.

(8) 我站起来，拿着本线装的《千字文》，对私塾先生说：

“好好听着，爹给你念一段。”

年过花甲的私塾先生对我爹说：

“你家少爷长大了准能当个二流子。” (Yu, 2004, p.8)

TT: I stood up, holding my string-bound edition of “The Thousand Word Essay,” and announced to my teacher... The next time he saw my father, my teacher, who was really getting on in years, was told him, “I guarantee you that when that son of yours growing up, he’ll be nothing but trouble.” (Yu, 2003, p. 10)

Back to his younger days, Fugui is truly like a bastard with a cynical attitude showing no respect for anyone whoever he is. When required to read the “The Thousand Word Essay”, he dares to humiliate his teacher in public by shouting “Listen good now! Daddy’s going to read to you!” Given the honorable position a teacher enjoys at that time, which is especially true when they are “getting on in years”, it is imaginable how embarrassed and indignant the teacher becomes in such a circumstance. But when talking with Fugui’s father, the teacher doesn’t show his anger abruptly but expresses the disappointment resignedly in a gentle way. “准能” suggests a high probability of Fugui’s ruined future if he goes on like this, no matter they want it or not. The modality in the ST is adopted based on the tenor integrated in the context. On one hand, no matter how offended the teacher is, he will still maintain his “esteem” as a scholar who will definitely show his tolerance towards the students’ brutal behaviors especially in front of their parents. On the other hand, the person the teacher speaks to is of very high social status, “the moment the workers saw Dad strolling around his land, they would hold their hoes with both hands and respectfully call out Master. When he went into the city, all the city people would call him Sir” (Yu, 2003, p.9).

By comparison, the particular tenor in the ST is overlooked in the C-E translation. The English version only conveys the literal meaning of the underlined expression without taking the embedded modality system into consideration. A Subject is intentionally added in the sentence “I guarantee you”, revealing it is the teacher’s subjective inclination to ensure Fugui’s father how terrible his son is going to be, which varies evidently from the objective description in the ST. “He will be nothing but trouble” raises the high possibility in the ST up to one-hundred-percent certainty. Both the probability and inclination have been mis-conveyed in the TT judging from the perspective of modality, leading to the failed transference of the interpersonal meaning.

Even though the above example displays the translator’s failure in absorbing Chinese culture in the C-E translation, it doesn’t mean he doesn’t make an active effort in the spreading of Chinese culture to the west, which can be highly summarized from his following translation of culture-loaded expressions.

(9) 队长陪着城里请来的风水先生在村里转悠开了，说是要找一块风水宝地煮钢铁。(Yu, 2004, p.87)

TT: The team leader accompanied the town *fengshui* expert on a leisurely stroll around the village. He wanted to find an ideal spot with perfect *fengshui* to smelt iron. (Annotation: *Fengshui*, also known as geomancy, is the Chinese art of

determining the geographic location of a house ...) (Yu, 2003, p.105)

(10) 村里人下地干活开始记工分了，我算是个壮汉…… (Yu, 2004, p. 99)

TT: When the other villagers went down to the fields to work, they started to keep track of work points. (Annotation: A unit indicating the quantity and quality of labor performed and the amount ...) (Yu, 2003, p. 120)

(11) 城里的文化大革命是越闹越凶，满街都是大字报……凤霞他们的枕巾上印着：千万不要忘记阶级斗争。(Yu, 2004, p. 158)

TT: Meanwhile, the Cultural Revolution was raging more and more intensely in town. All the streets were filled with big character posters... and printed on Fengxia's pillowcase was "Never Forget Class Struggle." (Annotation: Big character paper, or da zi bao, are large posters...) (Yu, 2003, p. 192)

(12) 她看看队长，对我们大伙喊：“那走资派有没有？” (Yu, 2004, p.159)

TT: Keeping an eye on the team leader, the girl yelled at us, "Then are there any capitalist roaders?" (Yu, 2003, p. 194)

In above cases Berry adopts the literal translation plus annotation strategy dealing with culture-loaded words like “风水”，“工分”，“大字报”，and “阶级斗争”，without any personal evaluation or comments affiliated. The connotations of those words are embedded in the unique Chinese culture and national conditions in certain historical backgrounds, which is beyond the cognitive framework of the foreign readers. But given the translation time of the novel in 2003, both the translator and the target readers are exposed to a more inclusive sociocultural environment, making it possible for them to get insight into the Chinese culture and history judging from their own perspectives. The relative foreignization strategy may not largely impede the interpersonal transference while providing an objective platform for the target readers who is interested in the underlying cultural factors to find more references besides the novel.

2.2.2 Discussion and Summary

Berry has managed to convey the interpersonal relationship and the protagonist's personality into the TT from the angle of mood system transference, even though minor problems exist in the process. The translator's skillful transformation of the modality system could also be found in the handling of the same Chinese expression “谁知(道)”. The grasp of the interpersonal meaning of the ST lies in the translator's universal sympathy towards the Chinese people. The original author Yu Hua (Yu, 2003, p.249) once shares his view on the common feeling of humans, “Human experience, combined with the power of the imagination and understanding, can break down all barriers, enabling a person truly to understand that thing called fate at work in his life...Perhaps this is what makes literature magical.” His point is confirmed by the translator, “Beyond the violence and blood that seem to haunt Fugui, Xu Sanguan and so many other inhabitants of Yu Hua's fictional universe, there lies a sensitivity and humanity that speaks to us all” (Yu, 2003, p.244).

The examples given make an objective analysis of the C-E translation by taking the modality system as benchmark. Even though the translator's shortcoming in the full understanding of Chinese culture indeed exist in the C-E translation, it is fair to say that he makes an active effort in the cultural communication and expression. Berry regards it as his responsibility to introduce Chinese Culture to western readers. Susan Bassnett, an English theorist on translation, once compared language as the heart of the body of culture. She remarked: “As People cannot neglect other parts of the body, when doing the surgery, we cannot take the risk of separating language from culture, when doing translation” (Bao, 2001, p.12). Since China is playing a greater role in the world, lots of foreigners have changed the stereotype in mind, eager to appreciate the magnificent Chinese culture from an objective perspective. Sun Zhili (2002) once pointed out that “the Chinese literary translation in the 21st century will be foreignization-oriented.” (p.22-24)

2.3.1 The Textual Function Analysis of the C-E Translation of To Live

As the intrinsic function of language, the text plays a fundamental role in the combination of ideational and interpersonal functions. Whether the translated version has equally displayed the original language characteristics serves as a vital criterion for assessing the textual function transference.

(13) 他的歌声在空旷的傍晚像风一样飘扬，老人唱到——
少年去游荡，中年想掘藏，老年做和尚。(Yu, 2004, p. 194)

TT: The old man sang:

In my younger days I wandered amuck,
At middle age I wanted to stash everything I a trunk,
And now that I'm old I've become a monk. (Yu, 2003, p.235)

In his young age, the narrator picks up the habit of wandering in the countryside to collect folk songs. Folk songs develop in a brief manner, easy to catch and full of the farmers' inornate wisdom. In this case, three short clauses in coordinate structure summarize the distinctive status in three major stages of a man's entire life. As far as the linguistic characteristic concerned, the ST develops in an antithesis way with the plump “ang” as rhyme, making it easier for people to catch. While the marked themes “少年”，“中年” and “老年” signifies different life stages, the Rhemes “去游荡”，“想觉藏” and “做和尚” are the key information emphasized in the end. The absence of the subject will not cause any reading impediments to the Chinese reader; besides, it goes more like a universal truth applicable to anyone.

In comparison, the language structure and feature are both kept intact in the TT by the translator's skillful transformation as follows: the original rhyme is carried by the vowel pronunciation of “amuck”，“trunk” and “monk”;

the three antithesis sentences are rendered into the coordinate structure— preposition phrases followed by the subject-predicate clauses; three marked themes are changed into the preposition phrase leading the whole sentence; the invisible subject is visualized by “I”; the Rhemes are equally emphasized by the predicate- object structure in the end. In addition, the information and logic system in the ST are fully conveyed in the TT as well.

(14) 过一会儿，爹说道，“从前，我们徐家的老祖宗不过是养了一只小鸡，鸡养大后变成了鹅，鹅养大了变成了羊，再把羊养大，羊就变成了牛。我们徐家就是这样发起来的。” (Yu, 2004, p. 29)

.....我常想起我爹在世时说的话，便一遍一遍去对苦根说：“这两只鸡养大了变成鹅，鹅养大了变成羊，养大了又变成牛。我们啊，也就越来越有钱啦。” (Yu, 2004, p. 187)

TT: After a while he continued, “A long time ago, our Xu family ancestors raised but a single chicken. When that chicken grew up it turned into a goose, the goose in turn grew into a lamb, and the lamb became an ox. This is how our family became rich.” (Yu, 2003, p. 36)

...I would always repeat those words to Kugen. “When these chickens grow up they’ll become geese, and when the geese grow up they’ll become lambs. When the lambs grow up they’ll turn into oxen. And us, we’ll get richer and richer.” (Yu, 2003, p. 226-227)

The ST readers are probably impressed by the above fable since it has been repeated for several times. By using metaphor initiated in the ordinary life, the story embodies the wisdom about the growth of a wealthy family, which are passed down from one generation to the next, inspiring the posterity to carry forward in prosperity and to struggle back in hardships. The ST is featured with repetition which, rhetorically speaking constitutes a major strategy for producing emphasis, clarity, amplification or emotional effect. The repetition can be found both in the repeated use of the metaphors within a sentence and the repeated occurrence of the same story, providing the novel with strong artistic appeal. Therefore, how to convey the life philosophy in its original form raises a tough question for the translator. From the English version we may infer that Berry retains the repetition in the TT, either that of the metaphoric images or that of the same family story. What’s more, even the sentence structures are equally reproduced. As a native English speaker, Berry is undoubtedly clear about that the English readers are accustomed to highly-structured logical thinking and sentence patterns. But he is still willing to make target readers exposed to the author’s unique writing style and the special expressive way of Chinese wisdom.

(15) 家珍被拖出去时，双手紧紧捂着凸起的肚子，那里面有我的儿子啊，家珍没喊没叫.....她一个人慢慢往回走。后来我问她，她那时是不是恨死我了，她摇摇头说：

“没有。”

我的女人抹着眼泪走到她爹米行门口，站了很长..... (Yu, 2004, p. 19)

TT: As Jiazhen carried out, her hands firmly clasped her protruding belly, which held my son... She slowly made her way home. Years later, When I looked back on that incident, I asked Jiazhen weather she hated me back then. She shook her head, “No.” (Yu, 2003, p. 24)

Wiping the tears from her face, my wife passed the entrance ... (Yu, 2003, p. 24)

The novel mainly goes in the manner of flashback by the protagonist Fugui. Recalling the past life he has gone through, Fugui describes the story completely in a peaceful mood. When talking about his younger days as a compulsive gambler, what Fugui reviews is not only how incontinent he is in front of the surrounding temptation but also how unmerciful he is to his faithful wife. Filled with deep remorse, Fugui inserts the later conversation with his wife in the recall of the story. “后来” constitutes a significant mark of prenarration, implying the following things happen later than the background story. After a short prenarration about Jiazhen’s attitude towards him, Fugui goes on with the former story telling. Such prenarration reveals Fugui’s endless regret for being so flagitious before, which also reflects the generous love from his wife.

In the C-E translation, if the prenarration is literally translated as “later, I asked Jiazhen”, it is bound to make the target readers confused about the narration logic, even though the disturbed time narration in the ST does not have the slightest difficulty for the Chinese reader to comprehend, given the life experience and thinking pattern they have accustomed to. The invisibility of the specific behavior description of “looking back on the accident years later” lies in the common cognitive background shared by the ST readers. Perceived by such particularity, the translator interpreted the time marker “后来” as “Years later, when I looked back on that accident”, making the implied time logic clear to the target readers. So it is the master of different thinking modes between the east and the west that drives the translator to adopt the free translation strategy here, making sure the accurate transference of the implicit time logic embedded in the ST into the TT.

From the above two cases we may infer the translator has succeeded in the conveyance of the textual meaning in light of the disturbed time narration. As mentioned above, while the logic of a Chinese sentence often appears so implicit that it has to be comprehended through the semantic meaning, the English language always relies on the syntax itself to show the logical relationship clearly. So sometimes it is necessary for the translator to adopt the reconstruction strategy in the C-E translation. The following case will make a detailed analysis in this regard.

The life experience and thinking pattern of Chinese readers guarantee them to fully understand the inner cohesiveness in the ST. However, if the former syntactic structure is kept the same in the TT, it will undoubtedly make the target readers feel unstructured and illogical, difficult to view the connection of actions as a cohesive one, let alone

the underlying emotional factors. Regarding the literature translation, the visualizing phenomenon occurs frequently in the translated version, that is, the translator visualizes the implicit logic relationship in the ST on purpose so as to increase the acceptability of the translated version to target readers indulged in the different cultural and social context, which also in turn has large to do with the translation style of the translator (Yuan, 2011, p.105). Given the above analysis, the substantial reproduction of the TT has done a great job in the transference of the textual meaning of the ST.

2.3.2 Discussion and Summary

In the C-E translation, it is the very first step for the translator to grasp the textual meaning of the ST accurately. Firstly, as the space-time manipulator, the author sets the narrating cycle as the fundamental structure for the novel. The narration mainly unfolds in flashback whose aesthetic value is obvious. Otherwise, if the narration goes on in line with the natural story time, then *To Live* is simply a story full of disasters. And yet, as shown in case (15), it is the mixed use of flashback and prenarration that makes the shuttle of time framework from the past to the present possible. The spatial-temporal switch disturbs the natural story time, taking the readers to the past and bringing them back skillfully. In the switch process, the narration space is considerably enlarged, exciting the readers' interest while getting them involved in the textual meaning creation. Secondly, repetition constitutes an important tool for the author to conduct the story narration and the figure character. As a notable phenomenon in Yu Hua's novels, repetition has long invited considerable controversy among the criticism cycle. Ge Fei (2002) remarked, "In my view, it is a huge mistake to judge a writer by dividing the content and form in his expression because whatever the content is, it will generate the corresponding form required." (p.139) As far as *To Live* considered, repetition plays a vital role in the textual transference. What the plain repeated narration like in the case (14) manifests is a strong and musical melody. The unique repeating narration style has earned Yu Hua the reputation of "repeating poetics". In addition, the aesthetic value of the novel can also be traced to its narrating rhythm and musical tune, which have large to do with the author's indulgence in the classical music.

III. CONCLUSION

As one of the major contemporary novelists, Yu Hua has been continuously challenging himself with the attempt of different writing styles. Deeply impressed by the rich content, unique narrating style and profound theme by the novel itself, the American scholar Michael Berry determines to bring its original flavor in front of the foreign readers. The English version, thanks to Berry's tremendous efforts, made its final publication in 2003, and turned to be an immediate bestseller.

The faithful conveyance of the ideational information raises a high demand for the translator to comprehend the source text accurately. Seeing from this perspective, an objective attitude needs to be adopted to evaluate the translated version. Although it has conveyed the process transitivity to a large extent, the English version strays away from the original ideational meaning sometimes due to the misunderstanding of the inner connotation of certain Chinese sentences. The over-interpretation turns out to jeopardize the original ideational meaning. So it is justified to say that there is still some room left for future improvement in this regard.

The interpersonal function of language always takes a higher priority in the literary works, which is especially true when the source text falls into a novel like *To Live*. Even though minor problems exist in the translation process, the mood system has managed to convey the interpersonal relationship and the protagonist's characteristics into the English version, which also largely reveals Berry's universal sympathy towards the Chinese working masses. With regard to the modality system transference, the translator's deficiency in his comprehension of the Chinese cultural philosophy shows evidently. Taking cultural communication as his own responsibility, Berry makes an active effort in the translation process which could be easily seen from his literary strategy towards the culture-loaded words. Considering the complexity of the interpersonal meaning embodied in a novel, the misunderstanding may occur inevitably once in a while, but it deserves our attention for future improvement.

As the intrinsic function of language, textual meaning embodies the unique narrating style and language characteristic of the original novel, injecting it with high aesthetic values. Given the difference between the two languages' syntactic rules and between the users' respective thinking patterns, the textual function transference is by no means an easy task. However, the above detailed analysis witnesses that Berry has done a great job in this part, which can be attributed to several factors. The foremost reason lies in the fact that Berry has perceived the textual meaning of the source style accurately, including the disturbed narration time, the unique language characteristics such as repetition and musical tune. In addition, taking the advantage of being a native English speaker, Berry has succeeded in visualizing the implicit logic and coherence embedded in the source text through skillful conversion or reconstruction, making it acceptable for the target readers accustomed to the logical thinking and structured syntax. It also has large to do with Berry's respect for the original author.

Generally speaking, generous recognition should be given to Michael Berry, whose tremendous efforts make it possible for the foreigners to appreciate the beauty of the original novel. The translated version, as the only English version published just in 2003, still waits for the test of the target readers from all walks of life. By no means to challenge the expertise of the translator, this thesis makes an objective study on the translated version, intending to provide constructive reference for the comprehensive assessment of Berry's version and the improvement of future translation.

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Daqing Zu was born in Xuzhou of Jiangsu Province of China in 1974. He received his Bachelor of Arts at Soochow University in 1996, his M.A. in literature from China University of Mining and Technology, China, 2001, and worked as a visiting professor at Yale University in U.S.A. in 2014. Daqing Zu is currently an Associate Professor of Linguistics in School of Foreign Studies at China University of Mining and Technology. His research interests include functional linguistics, pragmatics, applied linguistics and second language acquisition.

Ying Xu received her Bachelor of Arts at China University of Mining and Technology in 2009, her M.A. in literature from Southeast University, China in 2012. Ying Xu is currently working as a recruiter in Citadel (Hong Kong) Limited.

A Comparative Study of the Strategies Employed in "The Old Man and the Sea" Translated from English into Persian on the Basis of Vinay and Darbelnet's Model

Vahideh Sharei

Department of English, Science and Research Branch, Islamic Azad University, Tabriz, Iran

Abstract—Translation as a culture-based phenomenon has been investigated from various perspectives and it is a field of knowledge that is wide open and has not been exhausted yet. The aim of this study is to examine the use of Vinay and Darbelnet's translation strategies in translation of the novel "The Old Man and the Sea" from English to Persian by Najaf Daryabandari and Mohammad Taghi Faramarzi. It also made an attempt to investigate which of the two main categories of translation strategies (direct and oblique translation) is the prevalent tendency in translation of this novel by the two translators.

Index Terms—Vinay and Darbelnet's model, direct translation strategy, oblique translation strategy

I. INTRODUCTION

Literature and translation, two old companions, have been the subjects of numerous studies. Literary translation, particularly, plays a vital role among cultures. Translation and also transmitting ideas and emotions are still difficult between two different cultures. However, because of the differences between the nature of SL and TL and differences in the cultures associated with each one, transmitting meaning from one language to the other changes to be a difficult task. Nabokov believes that "the person, who desires to turn a literary masterpiece into another language, has only one duty to perform, and this is to reproduce with absolute exactitude the whole text and nothing but the text" (as cited in Venuti, 2000, p. 121).

In case of English and Persian, languages are alliances to each other, they have different cultures, expressions, slangs and so on and it needs a wide area of knowledge to overcome these difficulties and make the translation understandable and readable. It has been long taken for granted that translation deals only with language.

So, many translators applied a series of methods or translation procedures in translating a novel or literarily text or non-literal text. In this regard, according to Vinay and Darbelnet (Venuti 2000, p.84) there are two procedures of translating: direct or literal translation, and oblique translation. Literal translation occurs when two languages are equal in terms of structural, lexical and morphological items. A large amount of papers and thesis written on this object only constitute a statement of how sometimes these concepts have been interpreted by different authors in different ways and different times. Landers mentioned "a myriad of fine pieces of literature appearing in hundreds of languages is of the best argument for doing literary translations" (Landers 2001 p. 5).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Translation

The experts in translation, such as Catford, Bell, Larson, and many of them have proposed various definitions on translation. Everybody knows that knowledge of the language is not enough for having a good translation. Every target text must be meaningful and acceptable to target readers living in the target culture. Venuti states that translation is a process by which the chain of signifiers that constitutes the source language text is replaced by a chain of signifiers in the target language which the translator provides on the strength of an interpretation. He further states that the aim of translation is to bring back another culture as the same, the recognizable, even the familiar; and this aim always risks a wholesale domestication of the foreign text, often in highly self-conscious projects, where translation serves an appropriation of foreign cultures for domestic agendas, cultural, economic, political (Venuti 1995, p.7-19). Translation is not just a "window opened on another world," or some such pious platitude. Rather, translation is a channel opened, often not without a certain reluctance, through which foreign influences can penetrate the native culture, challenge it, and even contribute to subverting it (Lefevere, 2003).

B. Translation and Culture

According to L. A. Samovar “intercultural communication occurs when a member of one culture produces a message for consumption by a member of another culture” (Samovar, 2000, p.9). The culture repertoire needs to become a source of pride for members of the entity, so as to build a collective identity (Even-Zohar 2000, p.395), which can be said to be the pre-condition for cohesion. It seems that translation is a large and complex entity which involved a large number of meaning, senses, and cultural elements and so on. In this regard, the translator should know not only the languages involved, but also their cultures and rhetorical traditions in the process of translating a text (Enkvist 1991, as cited in Bahaa-eddin, 2011).

By studying an article by Peeter Tropic seems that culture and translation is two different fields that each of them has its own characteristics and can't come to a point. Culture is about the way people, their opinions, beliefs and etc. but translation of it is the way which transfers all of these aspects to the receptive language in order to make a connection between two cultures (Tropic, 2010).

C. *Literary Translation*

Literary translation exerts great influence on the target culture, and at the same time, the target culture has never stopped restraining the process of literary translation. Literary translation has always been the matter of discussion among translation scholars. According to these theorists' views, any literary work should only be read in the original language in which it has been written. Thus Lefevere (2003) maintains that:

text linguistics, having developed ‘the second phase of linguistics-based thinking about translation’ by viewing the text in a certain situation or culture as the unit of translation, adds a necessary ‘functional dimension’ to the study of the translation that is of the ‘utmost value for literary translation’ (p.9).

Also there are some characteristics of literary translation which the translator must consider in translating a literary work. Belhaag (1997, p. 20) summarizes the characteristics of literary translations as “expressive, connotative, symbolic, focusing on both form and content, subjective, allowing multiple interpretation, timeless and universal, using special devices to heighten communicative effect, and having a tendency to deviate from the language norms” (as cited in Hassan, 2011, pp. 2-3).

B.1. *The Relationship between Culture and Literary Translation*

There is a huge bond between culture and literary translation. Culture is a complex ‘system of systems’ composed of various subsystems such as literature, science, and technology so within this general system, extra literary phenomena relate to literature not in a piecemeal fashion but as interplay among subsystems determined by the logic of the culture to which they belong (Steiner, 1984, cited in Lou, 2009). Most people who are not aware of other peoples and other nations, through translated texts can reach to it, so in this case literary translation has never occupied a small proportion (Gu Jun, 2001, as cited in Lou, 2009). It can be said that, at the time when cultural elements enter the society once, the translated texts act as a medium to convey foreign ideas and concepts to the culture of recipient nation. What makes culture enrich, is the entry of such heterogeneous elements that are different in source and target languages. On the other hand, the target social and cultural system provides sources for the translator and has a certain impact on the literary translation. So a translated work is always made in a certain socio-cultural background and the process of translating is a cultural bound activity. Literary translation is no exception, which is influenced not only by the source culture at one end but also the target culture at the other end. Literary translation shows the culture and language of a society which people on that society live on the basis of it (Lou, 2009).

D. *Translation of the Novel*

Different writers and linguistics in the field of translation, explained it in many ways on how they view language and culture. Lawrence Venuti states that:

A translation of a foreign novel can communicate, not simply dictionary meanings, not simply basic elements of narrative form, but an interpretation that participates in its potentially eternal afterlife in succeeding generations and this interpretation can be one that is shared by the foreign language readers for whom the text was written. (Venuti, 2000, p.100)

E. *Procedures of Translation*

Calque Translation:

In linguistics, a calque or loan translation is a word or phrase borrowed from another language by literal, word-for-word, or root-for-root translation. (Vinay&Darbelnet, 2000, as cited in Munday, 2001) sometimes this translation strategy will cause difficulties in conveying messages in the TL. Calque expressions consist of imitating the manner of expression of the ST in the TT.

1. Borrowing

In borrowing translation the SL word is transferred directly to the TL (Munday, 2001). It means that borrowing is the taking of words directly from one language into another without translation. Using this strategy is a way to combine new cultural elements with local cultural elements. The application of this is also a common way to bring into native combination. For keeping harmony of words and their original meaning in some texts, translator to achieve textual equivalence should adopt this “original translation” method to translate rather than translating these borrowing words into TL. Sometimes this borrowing strategy adds local color to the TL. For example: SL: computer TL: computer

2. *Literal Translation*

This a 'word for word' translation, which Vinay and Darbelnet (as cited in Munday, 2001) describe as being most common between languages of the same family and culture. Also they believe that sometimes literal translation may be unacceptable because:

- √ Gives another meaning
- √ Has no meaning
- √ Is structurally impossible
- √ Does not have corresponding expression within the metalinguistic experience of the target language or
- √ Has a corresponding expression, but not within the different level of language (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000, as cited in Munday, 2001).

1. *Transposition*

According to Vinay and Darbelnet transposition involves replacing one word class with another without changing the meaning of the message and there are two types of transpositions, obligatory and optional transposition: obligatory transposition is when the target language has no other choices because of the language system but optional transposition is translator's choice and they use it when it is necessary and is better for the style (Vinay & Darbelnet, 2000, as cited in Munday, 2001). For example: 'she give her mother a kiss' semantically it is the same as 'she kiss her mother' but with this difference that in first sentence 'kiss' is noun but in second sentence 'kiss' is verb. The first expression is base expression and the second one is transported expression.

2. *Modulation*

It occurs when the translator reproduces the message of the original text in the TL text in conformity with the current norms of the TL, since the SL and the TL may appear dissimilar in terms of perspective. (Newmark, 1988, p.88) There are two types of modulation: optional modulation and obligatory modulation.

3. *Equivalence*

Vinay and Darbelnet stressed that two texts by using completely different stylistic and structural methods can render a situation (cited in Munday, 2001, p. 58). In such cases they are dealing with the method with equivalent text. By this equivalence strategy history and culture of one language affect the culture of another language. Because some word and expression have different meanings in another language, in one language mean one thing and in the other mean another expression.

4. *Adaptation*

According to Vinay and Darbelnet, adaptation is used in those cases where the type of situation being referred to by SL message is unknown in TL culture and just used in plays, poetries, and themes (1958/2000, p.91). A translation procedure whereby the translator replaces a social, or cultural, reality in the source text with a corresponding reality in the target text this new reality needs to be more usual to the audience of the target text, in adaptation something specific to the source language culture is expressed in a totally different way that is familiar or appropriate to the target language culture (Munday, 2001). For example: SL: computer _TL: kampter, when this word translate from English into Persian there is no equivalence to this word and TL readers just adopted this word and use it as SL readers.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. *Materials for Analysis*

In this study the researcher made an attempt to analyze two translation procedures (direct and oblique) in two Persian translations of the novel "*The Old Man and the Sea*" on the basis of Vinay and Darbelnet's model. To do so, the whole novel was meticulously read and instances of "direct and oblique" translations according to Vinay and Darbelnet's model were identified. The instances were analyzed based on the model suggested by Vinay and Darbelnet. After identifying the samples of direct and oblique translation, the researcher put them in a table, compared both source texts and target texts according to translation procedures. Afterwards, following Vinay and Darbelnet's model, she investigated whether they have been translated directly or indirectly (oblique). Since the model concludes seven procedures, borrowing, calque and literal translation were clustered under the category of direct translation and transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation were analyzed under the category of oblique translation.

B. *Procedure*

The analysis started with presenting an English sentence, and providing the two different Persian equivalents. Each sentence was presented underlined and bold-type and put in a table for the ease of identification. Every analysis began with the explanation of the kinds of direct and oblique translation procedures according to Vinay and Darbelnet (1995). Then the analysis was continued according to the procedure adopted in translating the source language data into the target language. Finally, after determining the kinds of direct and oblique translation procedures adopted by the translators, the analysis was directed to find out whether the sentences had been translated directly or in an oblique way.

IV. DISCUSSION

According to Vinay and Darbelnet's model of direct (borrowing, calque, literal translation) and oblique translation (transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation), some samples were chosen and put in tables in order to investigate the extent to which these two translators, namely Najaf Daryabandari and Mohammad Taghi Faramarzi had followed the seven procedures proposed by Vinay and Darbelnet. These procedures are: borrowing, calque, literal translation, transposition, modulation, equivalence and adaptation.

TABLE 1:

SAMPLE 1:

SL Text	You are with a lucky boat. Stay with them.
Daryabandari's translation	((قایق رو شانسه با همونا باش.))
Translation procedure	Equivalence
Faramarzi's translation	((تو در قایق خوشبختی کار میکنی. پیش همان ها بمان.))
Translation procedure	Transposition

In both translations the translators used oblique translation procedure. Daryabandari used equivalence and translated this expression as an idiom (قایق رو شانسه), but Faramarzi used transposition and changed the style of SL and rendered it differently to TL.

TABLE 2:

SAMPLE 2:

SL Text	The iridescent bubbles were beautiful.
Daryabandari's translation	حباب نورانی عروس دریا زیباست.
Translation procedure	Modulation
Faramarzi's translation	بادکنک های رنگین کماتی خیلی زیبا می نمودند.
Translation procedure	Calque

According to this translation, Daryabandari used oblique translation and modulation procedure. Through adding (عروس دریا) he wanted to show that these bubbles were related to a sea creature. So, he used modulation by saying it in another way. But Faramarzi used direct translation and calque procedure, because he didn't add or omit anything and tried to translate the text according to the SL text. He kept the style and structure of the original text.

TABLE 3:

SAMPLE 3:

SL Text	What are birds coming to?
Daryabandari's translation	مرغاهم دیگه اون مرغای قدیم نیستن
Translation procedure	Transposition
Faramarzi's translation	راستی این پرنده ها برای چه اینجا می آیند؟
Translation procedure	Calque

This part is related to the lines of novel when the old man was talking to a bird; the bird was tired and wanted to rest on line. The old man asked the cause of its tiresome. In order to translate the rest of their conversation, Daryabandari used transposition procedure because he translated a question form to positive sentence in TL and translated it as an idiom.

But Faramarzi used calque procedure and imitated the style of source sentence and translated according to the style and structure of SL.

TABLE 4:

SAMPLE 4:

SL Text	I can remember the tail slapping and banging and the thwart breaking and the noise of the clubbing.
Daryabandari's translation	صدای تخماق می اومد.
Translation procedure	Transposition
Faramarzi's translation	صدای ضربه هایی که تو می زدی هنوز در گوشم هست.
Translation procedure	Modulation

At first translation, Daryabandari used transposition and changed a verb to a word. This word (تخماق) is a Turkish word which is used for hitting something and here the old man used it to hit the fish's head in order to kill it. Here, the use of transposition by translator is optional because it does not destroy the meaning of the sentence.

Faramarzi, through modulation, describe that sense and did not mention any tool for fighting fish and expanded his translation, but here use of modulation is optional because the meaning is the same.

TABLE 5:

SAMPLE 5:

SL Text	A small tuna rose in the air
Daryabandari's translation	یک گباب کوچک به هوا جست
Translation procedure	Modulation
Faramarzi's translation	یک ماهی کوچک تن از آب بیرون جهید
Translation procedure	Adaptation

Here Daryabandari translated obligatory with the use of modulation procedure. He used (گیاب) for (tuna), and somehow domesticated this translation and gave other meaning. (گیاب) is a kind of fish which in foreign countries used with this expression (tuna). This meaning for tuna is a special southern accent which people in Bushehr use it. Daryabandari by using modulation leads readers to target language.

Faramarzi translated according to adaptation procedure for the fact that nowadays people in their daily life use this expression for tuna and target readers are familiar with this word. Here he foreignized this translation.

TABLE 6:
SAMPLE 6:

SL Text	The iridescent bubbles were beautiful.
Daryabandari's translation	حباب نورانی عروس دریا زیباست.
Translation procedure	Modulation
Faramarzi's translation	بادکنک های رنگین کمانی خیلی زیبا می نمودند.
Translation procedure	Calque

According to this translation Daryabandari used oblique translation and modulation procedure, by adding (عروس دریا) he wanted to show that these bubbles were related to a sea creature so here by modulation bring this meaning by saying in another way, but Faramarzi used direct translation and calque procedure, adding or omitting nothing, just translating according to the SL text. He kept the style and structure of the original text.

V. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this research, as it was stated in the introduction, has been to study the methods of translation which are hidden in the translation of *"The Old Man and the Sea"* and to know whether the translators used more direct or oblique translation strategies. Considering the study conducted on translation processes and strategies in translation of *"The Old Man and the Sea"* based on Vinay and Darbelnet's model (on 40 samples), the following results were concluded:

- 1- Modulation strategy has the highest frequency in Najaf Daryabandari's translation.
- 2- Literal translation strategy has the highest frequency in Faramarzi's translation.
- 3- Adaptation strategy occurred just in Faramarzi's translation and there is no adaptation in Daryabandari's translation.
- 4- Indirect translation strategy has the highest frequency in Daryabandari's translation and direct translation strategy has the highest frequency in Faramarzi's translation.

The findings manifest Faramarzi's translation is more faithful to the source language structure and culture. In other words, it is source-oriented and the most prevalent procedure here is direct translation. For a more detailed result, the following section is the explanation of translation procedures used in translating the *"The Old Man and the Sea"* according to Vinay and Darbelnet's model.

Frequency of direct and oblique translation strategies in translation of the novel *"The Old Man and the Sea"* by Daryabandari and Faramarzi

	Daryabandari	Percentage	Faramarzi	Percentage
Direct translation	10	25%	25	62.5%
Oblique translation	30	75%	15	37.5%
Number of Sentences	40	100%	40	100%

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Vahideh Sharei was born in 1982, Tabriz -Iran. She holds an M.A. in Translation Studies from Science and Research University of Tabriz, Iran. She lives in Tabriz and received her B.A. in the field from Azad University of Tabriz, Iran in 2013. Her main areas of interest include Translation Quality Assessment, Literary Criticism.

A Survey of Foreign Students' Cross-cultural Adaptation in Chongqing Normal University—A Case Study of Sri Lankan Students

Xuelian Zhang

School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Meiling Zhao

School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Xiangcao Xie

School of Foreign Languages and Literature, Chongqing Normal University, Chongqing, China

Abstract—Cross-cultural adaptation research is an important part of study for foreign students. With theories of Searle & Ward and John W. Berry, mainly from two aspects: psychological adaptation and social-cultural adaptation, the research investigates Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University and analyzes the problems of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University in four aspects: Chinese reading and vocabulary, communication and exchange, adaptation of learning and teaching styles and knowledge of Chinese culture. Combined with the survey and problems of Sri Lankan students' adaptation, the research will be used to give relevant suggestions to help Sri Lankan students adapt Chinese culture better.

Index Terms—cross-cultural adaptation, Sri Lanka, students, problems, suggestions

I. INTRODUCTION

The research of oversea cross-cultural adaptation firstly came from psychologist Oberg (1960) who put forward the notion "Culture Shock". Then, several representative theories such as U-Curve Hypothesis and W-Curve Hypothesis were put forward by Lysgaard (1995) and Gullahorn (1963) separately. After that, Bochner (1977) came up with Friendship Patterns of Overseas Students: A Functional Model. In 1936, Redfield, Linton, and Herskovits provided the first widely used definition of acculturation as: "Those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous first-hand contact, with subsequent changes in the original cultural patterns of either or both groups" (p. 149-152).

Searle and Ward (1990) divided cross-cultural adaptation into two parts: psychological adaptation and social-cultural adaptation. Ward (2004) viewed that, cross-cultural adaptation process actually affects both two different cultures, thus, we should consider from two dimensions: keep the traditional culture & identity orientation and other cultural groups' orientation of the communication (p. 179).

With the development of globalization and the internationalization of higher education, China and Sri Lanka associate closely with each other in aspects of education. Recently, with the increasing numbers of foreign students studying in China, some researchers draw attention to their problems of adapting Chinese (e.g., Yulan Lu, 2000; Hui Chen, 2003; Longyun Lei, & Yiqun Gan, 2004; Leqin Sun, 2009). Under the requirement and development of "One Belt And One Road" strategy put forward in 2013, Chongqing Normal University has set up a Sri Lankan research center, aiming to broaden the channels of international education. By far, there are more than 80 Sri Lankan students studying in Chongqing Normal University.

While, there are few researches investigating Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing. Therefore, the survey takes Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University as an example, aiming to analyze the current situation of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing. The research mainly focuses on language learning and adaptation of cultural customs, which will enrich the research about Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation, especially in Chongqing. Through the analysis of the survey, the survey found some problems existing in the cross-cultural adaptation of Sri Lankan students in Chongqing and put forward relevant suggestions. It will strengthen the development of education for foreign students in Chongqing and help Sri Lankan students adapt to Chinese and Chongqing culture.

II. RESEARCH METHODS AND SUBJECTS

A. Purpose & Significance & Subjects of the Survey

The survey aims to analyze the current situations of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University through a survey thereby finding problems existing in their cross-cultural adaptation, and then putting forward relevant suggestions to help them adapt better in Chongqing. The survey of Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adaptation in Chongqing Normal University responds to the national strategy "One Belt and One Road", and enhances Sri Lankan students' understanding and recognition of Chinese and Chongqing culture. Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University are subjects to be investigated in the survey. There are 80 Sri Lankan students, among which the youngest is 17 years old, the oldest is 28 years old and the average age is 21.5.

B. *Methods & Contents of the Survey*

The survey was mainly conducted by questionnaire. Comprehensive analysis method and statistical analysis are also used in the survey. Based on the social-cultural theory of Searle & Ward and John W. Berry, the questionnaire was designed as 20 single choices, which were divided into two aspects: language learning and cultural customs.

The study was carried out in the middle of October, 2016. The members of the research group were divided into three groups to do the survey. In order to ensure the reliability and validity of the survey, the research used on-site dispatch and on-site recycling in the process of issuing and filling in the questionnaires. With 80 questionnaires distributed and 80 valid questionnaires collected, the effective rate was as high as 100%.

The members of the research group made comprehensive and statistical analysis of the effective samples and then analyzed the current situations and problems of the cross-cultural adaptation of Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University so as to put forward relevant suggestions to help them adapt Chinese culture better.

III. DATA ANALYSIS

A. *Basic Information*

Under the guidance of the instructor, the team members made the comprehensive analysis and statistical analysis and assessed the current situations of cross-cultural adaptation of Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University. Among effective questionnaires which were recycled, the basic information of 80 Sri Lankan students in Chongqing Normal University is shown in table 1:

TABLE 1
BASIC INFORMATION OF SRI LANKAN STUDENTS

Item	Category	Number	Proportion (%)
Gender	Male	24	30
	Female	56	70
Chinese level before coming to China	HSK1-2	19	23.75
	HSK3	13	16.25
	Chinese training or optional courses	37	46.25
	Not at all	11	13.75
Career intention	Homeland	66	82.5
	Chongqing	12	15
	Undetermined	2	2.5

According to analysis of 80 valid questionnaires, the proportion of females studying in Chongqing Normal University is as high as 70%, which demonstrates the gender ratio is unbalanced. On the whole, the Sri Lankan students' Chinese language level is average. There are 16.25% of the students have passed HSK3 examination. And most of the students have participated in Chinese language training or Chinese optional courses before coming to China. However, there are 13.75% of the students whom said they have not learned Chinese before coming to China. It showed that the Sri Lankan students need further improvement in terms of Chinese language as Chinese language learning is critical to their cross-cultural adaptation.

Secondly, up to 82.5% of Sri Lankan students would like to go back to their hometown after graduation, which is beneficial to disseminate Chinese language and Chinese culture, deepen Sri Lankan's understanding of China and enhance the communication and friendship between Sri Lanka and China.

B. *Language Learning*

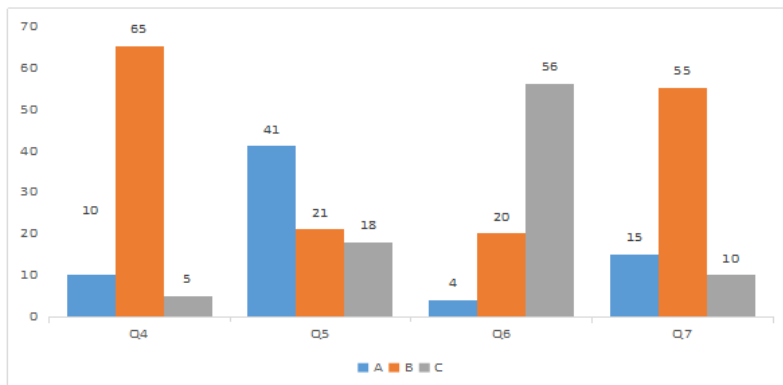


Chart 1 Language learning (Q4-Q7)

As shown in chart 1, up to 93.75% of them think poorly of their Chinese proficiency on question four: Self-assessment of Chinese level while only 6.25% of them consider that they can communicate with others in Chinese fluently. And regarding question 5: I've known () Chinese words, 48.75% of Sri Lankan students who come to study in Chongqing Normal University think they just have mastered 150-300 and 51.25% of them have a better mastery more than 600 Chinese vocabulary. In addition, the options of vocabulary are set strictly in accordance with the requirements of the HSK. Up to 81.25% of the Sri Lankan students are lack of Chinese reading on the seventh question: in daily life, the amount of my Chinese reading is. It can be deduced that Sri Lankan students' quantity of Chinese vocabulary and reading are not enough. However, vocabulary and reading are particularly crucial for language learners. Therefore, students should read more Chinese books and be encouraged to be confident.

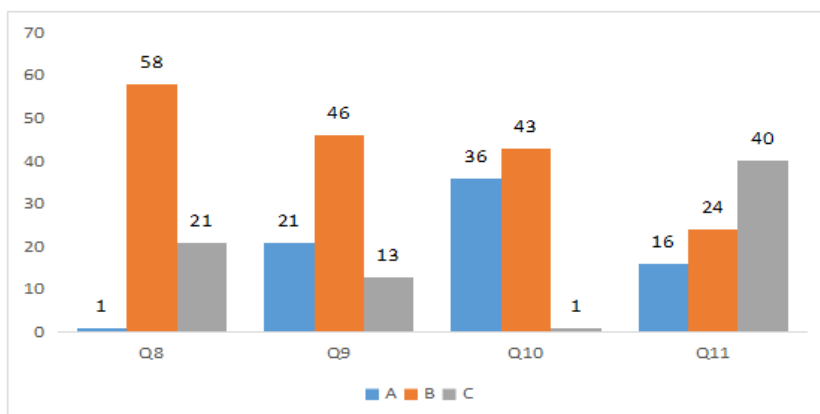


Chart 2 Language learning (Q8-Q11)

On the eighth question “ The knowledge of Chinese grammar()”, according to the survey, 72.5% of the students think that they can understand Chinese grammar in class and even 1.25% of them are completely understandable. Moreover, with regard to question 9: “I think Chinese grammar is ()”, 57.5% of students believe that Chinese grammar is not difficult, and even 16.25% of students believe grammar learning is very easy, which is different from our initial expectations. It reveals that Sri Lankan students grasp the Chinese grammar much better than predicted.

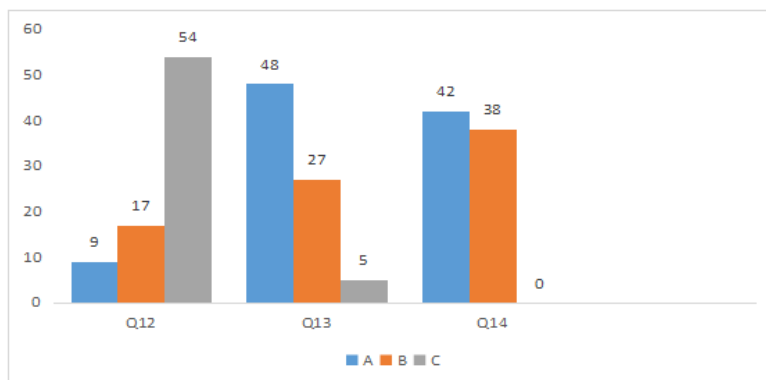


Chart 3 Language learning (Q12-Q14)

All of the students are satisfied with the teaching of Chongqing Normal University on the 14th question in the

questionnaire, “Regarding Chinese language teaching in CQNU, I’m ()”. Up to 60% of them hold that the study pace here is fast, while 6.25% of them take the opposite view that the study pace in CQNU is too slow. The reason may be their different paces of teaching and learning in their homeland before coming to Chongqing.

C. Cross-cultural Adaptation

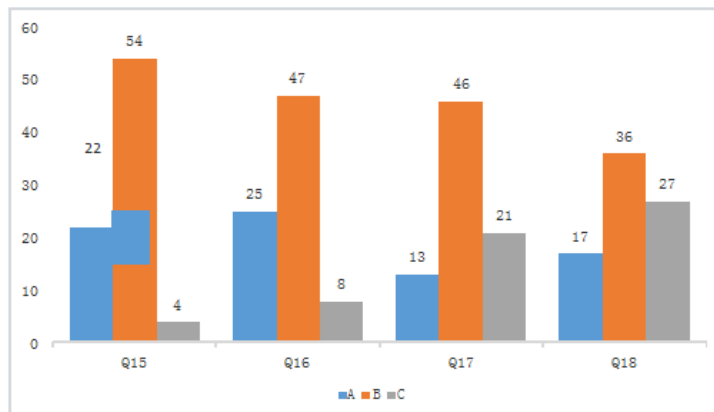


Chart 4 Adaptation of Chinese cultural customs (Q15-Q18)

Language is the carrier and a part of culture. Therefore, to adapt to the Chinese culture better, foreign students need to learn not only the knowledge of Chinese language, but also traditional Chinese culture. Regarding to question 15: Could you understand Chongqing dialect? There are 67.5% of Sri Lankan students who are able to understand some Chongqing dialect, only 5% of them totally don’t understand. It proves that most of Sri Lankan students’ language adaptation is relatively good. In regard to local food, there are 58.75% of the students who have tasted 4 to 6 kinds of local snacks, only 10% of the students tasted almost all kinds of local snacks. The reason for this may with respect to the frequency that they go out. Regarding Chinese traditional festivals and art, 57.5% of the students have knowledge of 4 to 6 traditional festivals, and 45% of the students showed their interests in traditional Chinese art, such as shadow play, drama, etc.

Generally, Sri Lankan students’ knowledge of Chinese cultural customs should be further improved. One of the reasons for this probably is teachers offer them few learning materials and make few interpretations of Chinese and local culture.

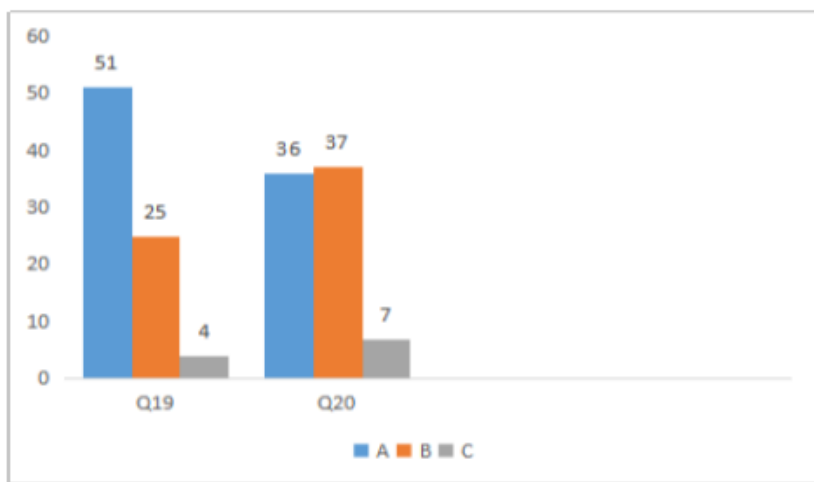


Chart 5 Adaptation of Chinese cultural customs (Q19-Q20)

According to chart 5, 63.75% of Sri Lankan students went to a few local tourist attractions, whereas only 5% of the students went to 6 to 9 or even more spots; Regarding local tourism services, only 8.75% of the students are not satisfied with the service and 45% of them are satisfied.

For the foreign students, learning Chinese is not only about the understanding of Chinese words, grammar and so on but also the knowledge about Chinese culture, customs, local conditions and other factors. Therefore, in Chinese teaching, it is necessary to increase the input of Chinese culture to enhance Sri Lankan students’ knowledge of Chinese and local culture.

D. Main Problems

After the above analysis, the author has found the following questions:

First, the Sri Lankan students don't have enough Chinese vocabulary and reading. Chinese vocabulary and reading are subject to the understanding and mastery of word meaning, collocation, grammar, rhetoric, pragmatic environment and material situations. Moreover, Chinese strokes and pronunciation are so complicated that they lack of confidence in learning Chinese as well as put a burden on their Chinese learning. At the same time, Chinese vocabulary and reading are difficult for them to overcome and difficult for teachers to teach, for instance, how to teach and help students to apply what they learn.

Second, Sri Lankan students are less likely to use Chinese in daily communication and interactive activities. Students can't adapt to communicate with local students in Chongqing. It shows that 50% of the Sri Lankan students are more willing to use their mother tongue to communicate with others and 30% of the students choose to communicate with others in English. Only 20% of the students will use Chinese to communicate. An Ran mentioned that the main reason could be the lack of a good environment and opportunities to use Chinese to communicate. Furthermore, there are too few specific activities for them to apply Chinese knowledge and culture they learned from classes (2015).

Third, students feel it is a little difficult to understand and adapt to the teaching styles and curriculum contents. Some factors may cause Sri Lankan students to fail to follow their study pace: differences in teaching styles between Chinese teachers and foreign teachers, the difficulty of contents of Chinese courses for foreign students. Therefore, they cannot digest the contents of Chinese courses well.

Fourth, the knowledge of Chinese culture and customs for Sri Lankan students is preliminary, and further comprehension should be made in many areas, mainly in the aspects of knowledge and understanding of Chinese traditional festivals and red tourist spots. Only 5% students know 6-9 red tourist attractions in Chongqing. Knowing little knowledge about Chinese culture may due to little involvement in Chinese culture in their learning. And in the aspect of teaching methods, it may lack of vividness and in-depth explanation. Regarding Chongqing Normal University, it has not organized enough activities of Chinese culture or promoted sufficient opportunities and platforms to get to know Chinese traditional culture.

IV. RELEVANT SUGGESTIONS

To solve the problems, the author gives the following suggestions:

First, the Sri Lankan students don't have enough Chinese vocabulary and reading. Suggestions: At first, set up special courses and lectures. Chinese vocabulary after thousands of years of evolution has a variety of forms, like polysemy, homonym and others. As for Sri Lankan students, their learning difficulties in this area can be imagined. Therefore, regarding these problems, the university should set up special vocabulary and reading courses and give academic lectures, teaching Chinese history and culture, simple lexical collocation and learning methods so that gradually expanding their interests in Chinese vocabulary and cognition of reading. Then, carry out plans of Chinese learning in each class. If Sri Lankan students lack an effective management, it will greatly reduce their Chinese learning achievements. According to this situation, each student should set up their own vocabulary and reading task weekly or monthly with teachers' direction. Having completed a stage of the plan, they will get reward which will arouse their interest in learning Chinese vocabulary and reading. Besides, Chinese teachers should also help the Sri Lankan students to summarize the classification of words so as to expand students' vocabulary.

Second, Sri Lankan students are less likely to use Chinese to communicate in daily life and in interactive activities. Suggestions: during the teaching process, teachers are supposed to encourage students to use Chinese to answer questions and discuss in groups. For example, after analyzing a poem in class, the teacher can ask students to express their own feelings by using Chinese. In the teaching design, there should be more games about Chinese and Chinese culture. For example, a game named Describe and Guess. The rule of this game is that two students are in one group, one describes the picture which is about Chinese culture in Chinese and the other should guess what is in that picture so as to attractive students to learn and speak Chinese happily.

As Lu Wei (2015) suggests, outside the classroom, there could be interactive activities between Sri Lankan students and local students. Teachers can organize some local students whose Chinese and English are good and set up a voluntary association to hold some interesting interactive activities between foreign students and local students. During the activities, there is only Chinese can be used except for explaining the rules. These ways can be used to encourage students to use Chinese to communicate with local students in Chongqing. There should be more Chinese communicative activities such as meetings where they can share some interesting things or experiences by speaking Chinese such as some travelling experiences. Moreover, teachers can organize and hold some Chinese language contests, such as telling Chinese stories, Chinese debate competition, singing Chinese songs and so on. In these ways, students will be encouraged to practice and use Chinese to communicate as much as possible.

Third, students feel a little difficult to understand and adapt to the teaching styles and curriculum contents. Suggestions: Based on the present situation and the problems, this paper analyzes the main courses offered by the Chinese Language Department of Chongqing Normal University, aiming at proposing better strategies for Sri Lankan students. The courses offered for Sri Lankan students include "Modern Chinese", "Selected Readings of Ancient Chinese Literature", "Mandarin", and "Calligraphy". And this paper mainly takes the course of "Selected Readings of Ancient Chinese Literature" edited by Xianhao Yu and Caimin Zhang for example to make an elaborate analysis.

Shipei Liu (2004) mentioned that, the aim is to make the students study the literary works easily and grasp the

essence and artistic characteristics of the works and the ancient literary achievements so as to improve the reading ability and appreciation of literary works and understand ancient Chinese culture better. As this course is much difficult for Sri Lankan students because lacking of Chinese knowledge. And teachers in the Chinese-style classes fail to help students understand contents of courses well, here are some suggestions for teachers' teaching and for Sri Lankan students' learning:

Teaching suggestions: First, the main textbook "Selected Readings of Ancient Chinese Literature of the first volume" could be ordered by development in Chinese literature in time order, writers and their works. Teachers can make the complex literary phenomenon systematic as much as possible so that Sri Lankan students can understand the literature from a macro level after a brief analysis of the contents and have much less learning pressure. Second, some of the courses which associate with this course are "Simplified Chinese Ancient Literature", "Ancient China" and "Introduction to Literature". If Sri Lankan students didn't study Chinese before, it must be difficult to learn the ancient Chinese literature. So in order to make them have a better understanding of Chinese literature, teachers can recommend students to read these relevant books mentioned before because after getting a full picture of ancient Chinese literature, it will be much easier for Sri Lankan students to understand and learn the textbook named "Selected Readings of Ancient Chinese Literature".

Learning suggestions: This course is more practical than other literature courses. Therefore, teachers can help Sri Lankan students understand the contents of the course from two aspects. The first one is "reading": Teachers can lead the Sri Lankan students to focus on reading the text aloud. When they encounter unknown words or make pronunciation mistakes, they can be corrected immediately. In this way, students can get a deeper and better understanding. If possible, some great poems and phrases articles are best to recite so that Sri Lankan students can ensure they can really absorb the contents. Second, teachers also need to focus on writing, in order to cultivate the habit of taking notes every day and help students learn to write more Chinese characters to help Sri Lankan students improve Chinese.

Fourth, the knowledge of Chinese culture and customs for Sri Lankan students is preliminary. Suggestions: Firstly, Li Guilin believes Chinese culture should be considered and taught in more materials and arrangements to upgrade Sri Lankan students' understanding of Chinese traditional culture from many aspects and angles (2014). For example, when celebrating the Dragon Boat Festival, Chinese teachers not only can tell the origin and the ways of celebration of the Dragon Boat Festival, but also can teach students to package traditional Chinese rice-pudding, which bring about an active atmosphere and improves students' interests in Chinese traditional culture and customs. In order to make students themselves understood the Spring Festival, Chinese teachers can hold a traditional arts party where some students perform on the stage while others sit around the desk to appreciate the performance with friends and get together to experience the cheerful, boisterous atmosphere of the Spring Festival. After the party, the teacher presents some couplets, teach some Chinese New Year blessings and then have an activity of role-playing called visiting relatives. For the sake of highlighting the biggest features of the Spring Festival, the teacher prepares some red envelopes with a four-word note before the class so that students feel more authentic atmosphere for the spring festival, which allows them to feel the happiness and sweetness of traditional Chinese festivals. Chinese teachers should create a light-hearted academic environment which is capable of promoting intensive comprehensible and interesting input, such as watching the famous Chinese movies, documentaries and drama to let students have a better understanding of the traditional culture. In addition, Chongqing Normal University can specifically set up a series of optional courses concerning Chinese traditional culture for them, such as paper-cutting course, dance course, Tai Ji course so that students fully feel the charm of Chinese culture, which attracts them to actively explore the profound culture. Then, Chongqing Normal University should organize students to visit the red tourist attractions around Chongqing. At last, the school should also conduct some traditional cultural activities and competitions, like ancient poetry contest, guess riddles games and costume play, whose activities and competitions aim to have a better understanding of Chinese culture.

V. CONCLUSION

With the increasing number of foreign students from Sri Lanka, the problem of cross-cultural adaptation is becoming more and more important. And cross-cultural adaptation research has been given more and more attention. The research mainly analyzes the current situation of Sri Lankan students studying in Chongqing Normal University from the aspects of language learning and cultural customs. The problems mainly include lacking of Chinese reading and vocabulary, less communication in Chinese, difficulty in adapting to the teaching in China, less understanding of cultural customs and other issues.

So this study aims to help improve Sri Lankan students' cross-cultural adapting ability by establishing language self-confidence, developing Chinese communication activities, adjusting instructional design and increasing the content of courses of Chinese culture in these four areas. However, there are shortcomings, for example, it would be better if did the interview. We hope to make up for these shortcomings in future research and make the research more detailed, objective and accurate. In short, Sri Lankan students encountered a cultural conflict, but harvest a lot of useful experience for their own growth.

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Xuelian Zhang was born in Sichuan, China. She received Bachelor degree in English Teaching from Chongqing Normal University, China in 2016. Currently, she is an MA candidate in Chongqing Normal University.

Meiling Zhao was born in Chongqing, China. She received Bachelor degree in English Teaching from Chongqing Normal University, China in 2016. Currently, she is an MA candidate in Chongqing Normal University.

Xiangcao Xie was born in Chongqing, China. She received Bachelor degree in English Teaching from Chongqing Normal University, China in 2016. Currently, she is an MA candidate in Chongqing Normal University.

A Comparative Corpus-based Analysis of Genre Specific Discourse: The Quantitative and Qualitative Academic Papers in the Field of the TEFL

Masoud Khalili Sabet

English Department, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Roya Minaei

English Department, University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran

Abstract—This study attempts to analysis the different parts of quantitative and qualitative research articles in the field of TEFL comparatively to present a convenient pattern for novice EFL students or researchers in a non-English context. Benefited from mix method, current study investigated the similarities and differences between the two genres-specific corpora. In order to induce accurate and creditable result, data-analyzing process was implemented through both computer-based programs and hand- tagged analysis. Fifty quantitative and qualitative TEFL research articles from high-ranking ELT journals were selected and then analyzed. Swales CARS model (2004) was considered as a framework of analysis. Moreover, interpreting of obtaining results from the vocabulary profile program, the readability statistics of two corpora, fulfilled through non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test. The conducted results according to significant level of $\alpha < 0.5$ or $\alpha = 0.05$ demonstrated that the differences between quantitative and qualitative research articles from lexicogrammatical and rhetorical features were insignificant. On the contrary, move-structure analyzing of both genre indicated that there are some variation between some exercise of move-step structure. These findings may provide confirmatory and useful evidences for academic researchers in the EFL context.

Index Terms—discourse analysis, academic writing, CARS model, qualitative and quantitative articles, TEFL, Mann-Whitney U test

I. INTRODUCTION

Academic writing has always been one of the controversial issues in the process of second language learning, especially for novice writers. In spite of many years training in the field of EFL, non-native students confront with a great deal of difficulty in professional writing. As Johns (1997) argued that, “ESL students often fail to recognize and appropriately use the conventions and features of academic written prose”. Moreover, recognizing the genre of writing is considered as an essential part of social communication. Therefore, it is worth mentioning that, in the field of rhetoric, one of the most discussed subjects is a genre.

Genre Analysis is known for its various pedagogical implications. For instance, Kay and Dudley-Evans (1998) asserted that genre is a “very powerful pedagogic tool” because it defines the types of discourse that the students need to be able to produce, and it also is considering of social context which can explain “why a discourse is the way it is” (p. 310).

In the last decades, according to Işık Taş (2008, p. 1) “genre has become a widely utilized framework for analyzing the form and function of nonliterary discourse such as the genre specific discourse of research”. Genre analyzing from the move structure point of view was introduced by Swales in 1981 to illustrate the rhetorical pattern of research articles (Biber, Connor & Upton, 2007). A rhetorical pattern is a type of organized technique that is used by writers to communicate ideas with the readers of a text. Kanoksilapatham (cited in Biber et.al 2007) expressed that the aim of this pattern is to convey “the communicative purpose of a text by categorizing the various discourse units within the text according to their communicative purposes or rhetorical moves. Thus, a move can be defined as “a section of a text that performs a specific communicative function” (cited in Biber, Connor &Upton, 2007, p. 23).

Swales (2004) interpreted genre as ‘Genre network’ that is “in fact the overall frame that can also capture other concepts within a genre constellation: genre chains, genre hierarchies and genre sets” (Cited in Işık Taş, 2008, p. 1). Swale (2004) stated that in the research world, “genres form intertextual relationships with other genres. In addition, he points out that presentation can lead to research articles, but just as likely, research articles can lead to presentations”.

As pointed out by Kanoksilapatham (2007), “A closer examination of Swales’ move structure, or framework, for these introductions helps elucidate the interaction between moves and steps in performing communicative functions in scientific texts” (cited in Biber, Connor &Upton, 2007, p. 25). Swales’ three-move schema or move – structure pattern

for article introductions is known as the Create a Research Space (CARS) model. Genre specific analyzing of the move-structures between qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of TEFL is the central issue of this study.

Many novice EFL students endeavor to formulate their thoughts and research onto paper in readable text. Writing a research paper seems to be challengeable issue for non-native students, especially when they have been requested to publish their papers on high impact-factors journals. Choosing the method of collecting data is also another issue. There has been an inconclusive debate about whether qualitative or quantitative method would be preferred. The best reason why this remains unresolved until now is that, each method has its own strengths and weaknesses that actually vary depending upon the topic the researchers want to discuss. Obviously, academic writing is considerate as an influential skill within the acquisition of a second language. As noted by Lea and Street (1998) "Tertiary or higher education involves adapting to new ways of understanding, interpreting and organizing knowledge" (p. 158).

The present study seeks to fill the research gaps by exploring the lexio-grammatical, discoursal and rhetorical features of abstract, introduction, result and discussion, and conclusion sections of qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of TEFL. Having suitable pattern in writing an article can be considered as a prominent factor in the process of conveying the rationale behind of a text. As mentioned by Gosden (1995) "this procedure might be particularly crucial for non English-speaking academic writers, since they must deal with both apprenticeship as novices in their fields of academic research and the challenge of a new genre" (p. 39).

In the present study, the major issue under scrutiny is recognizing the similarities and differences between the move structure, lexico- grammatical feature of quantitative and qualitative research articles in TEFL. This present study also aims to provide empirical-basis evidences for non-English students who confront with a great deal of difficulty in academic writing. Four important elements of research article structure were selected for the purpose of consideration. The significance of this study was an investigation about the lexio-grammatical, discoursal and rhetorical features of text production in order to yield valuable insights for practitioners and researchers on how non-native undergraduates to utilize rhetorical features.

Research questions and hypothesis

The following questions and hypothesis were the major issue of the present study to be explored:

Research question 1: What is the Genre – Specific feature of different parts of the qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of TEFL?

Research question 2: What is the lexico- grammatical feature of the qualitative and quantitative research articles in the field of TEFL?

Research question 3: What is the move structure of different parts of the qualitative and quantitative research articles in the case of TEFL?

Null hypothesis (H0): there is not any difference or similarity between these two disciplines and field of study in terms of move structure.

II. THEORITICAL AND RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Genre was first introduced in the area of ESP in the 1980s. Various influences on Genre Analysis have been provided by scholars, namely the examination of children's writings in Australia, composition studies and new rhetoric in North America, and also Miller's (as cited in Paltridge, 2007, p. 931) notion of "genre as social action". For Swales (1990, p. 58), a genre "comprises a class of communicative events, the members of which share some set of communicative purposes." In other words, particular genres share similarities in their structure, style, content, intended audience, and rhetorical movement.

Genres, as perceived in linguistic approaches, are characterized in terms of communicative functions they serve, and can be analyzed into "generic structures" (Flowerdew & Dudley-Evans, 2002) or obligatory and optional elements which comprise these functions. Swales (1990) classified these elements as follows:

A. *Moves*

Moves represent the writer's social purpose and include *steps*. Move is defined by Nwogu (1997) as "a text segment made up of a bundle of linguistic features which give the segment a uniform orientation and signal the content of discourse in it" (p. 122).

B. *Steps*

Steps are optional textual elements, which may or may not exist in any specific text.

Due to the importance of analyzing discourse, there have been abundant studies on various disciplines of the research articles, thesis, PhD dissertations, etc. One of the most extensive corpus-based genre analysis studies were held by Biber in 1988. In this study, Biber (1988) provided a unified linguistic analysis of the whole range of spoken and written registers in English. Computational analysis of the linguistic characteristics of 23 spoken and written genres resulted in the identification of the basic, underlying dimensions or parameters of variation in spoken and written English.

Salager-Meyer (1992) utilized a corpus of 84 medical English abstracts written by native speakers of English to consider the verb tense and modality usage in these abstracts. The three main genres were research papers, case reports

and review articles. In addition, in order to analyze how the meaning conveyed by the different tenses and modal verbs, the study also involved a move analysis.

Brett (2002) analyzed a corpus of 20 research articles from the discipline of sociology to present a provisional, pedagogically usable description of the communicative categories or moves found in the “results” sections. In this study, these categories or moves were described in terms of function, lexis, and grammatical form.

Hyland (2004) examined the purposes and distributions of meta-discourse in a corpus of 240 doctoral and masters dissertations including four million words written by Hong Kong students. The analysis suggested how academic writers used language to offer a valuable representation of themselves and their work in different fields, and thus how meta-discourse could be seen as a means of detecting something of the rhetorical and social differentiation of disciplinary communities

Öztürk (2007) investigated the degree of variability in the structure of article introductions within a single discipline. The study analyzed a corpus of 20 research articles to reveal the differences between two sub disciplines of applied linguistics, namely second language acquisition and second language writing research, within the framework of Swales’ CARS model. The two disciplines seemed to employ different and almost unrelated move structures. In the second language acquisition, corpus one type of move structure was predominant while in the second language writing corpus two different types of move structure were almost equally frequent.

Eda Işik Taş (2008) explored 50 PhD theses and research article introductions, in order to find out what are the move- structures, lexio-grammatical, and discoursal features, differences between those corpora. Consequently, she concluded that “the language of the RA introductions was structurally more academic, lexically dense, and thus, more difficult to read compared to the PhDT introductions”.

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Data

The data in this study were genre specific corpora: the qualitative and quantitative academic writing in TEFL. The analyses included computer- supported and hand-tagged analysis of these two corpora. The 204175 words as a corpus of the research articles were utilized as the reference corpus in this study. The data in this study comprised 50 research articles published between the years 2012 and 2016 by nonnative English speaking TEFL researchers of different nationalities in major academic journals. For accurate and faultless investigating purpose, the journals were chosen according to their impact factor and their field of this study. (See Appendix A for the list of the qualitative and quantitative research articles included in the corpus).

B. Instruments and Materials

The fifty qualitative and quantitative research articles in this study selected from different TEFL journals. The criteria to accomplish this issue were the journals’ impact factor and their field of studies.

The data were analyzed in two stages. The first stage was the computer-supported analysis of the lexico-grammatical features of the qualitative and quantitative research articles. In the second stage, a hand-tagged analysis of the discoursal and rhetorical features of the texts was carried out. Computer supported analysis of selected texts accomplished through Ant mover1.0 software (a text structure analyzer software program developed by Laurence Anthony of Waseda University Japan), Web VP Classic version 4 (a vocabulary profiling software developed by Tom Cobb of the University of Quebec). In addition, Easy PDF to Word Converter version 2.0 program were utilized in order to convert research articles to *.txt* files and made it possible to analysis by ant mover software. Moreover, the readability statistics of the corpora were obtained by using the readability analysis feature of the Microsoft Word Program.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Data Analysis

In this study, the data collected and then processed in response to the questions posed in the introduction section of this study. This study considered the lexio-grammatical, discoursal, and rhetorical features of the two corpora.

Lexico-Grammatical Features of the qualitative and quantitative Research Article (RA) abstracts

According to the statistical facts, it is conspicuous that qualitative RA abstracts 1.62 in comparing to the quantitative RA abstracts 1.79 were *Exact Sig. / p = 0.015* were different in tokens per type. The qualitative RA abstracts 1.11 contained *Exact. Sig. / p = 0.25* nearly the same amount of types per family in comparison with the quantitative RA abstracts 1.13. In addition, the lexical densities (content words) of the quantitative RAs 0.64 abstracts were not as much as different *Exact Sig. / p = 0.33* in compare to the qualitative RAs 0.63. Therefore, analyzing findings of qualitative and quantitative abstracts represented that the researchers of those papers utilized the same amount of corpora in compare to each other.

Vocabulary Profile of the quantitative and qualitative RA abstracts

According to perceived facts, it is found that *P-value Exact Sig. 0.17* of K1 words in quantitative abstracts 67.31 compared to qualitative abstracts 68.83 were insignificant in an arithmetic expression. Moreover, K2 words in both quantitative 5.35 and qualitative abstracts (5.18) indicated that the authors of these academic writings benefited from

the similar set of most used lexical resources; *P-value* was equal to 0.97. Academic words (AWL words) and Off-list words were the other subjects that were considered then. As result suggested, quantitative AWL words 13.56 and qualitative AWL words 14.90 *P-value* is equated with *Exact Sig.* = 0.21. Therefore, it can be induced that the authors of research articles on both methods are interested in using words that are more academic in compare to K2 and off-list words similarly.

Readability Statistics of the quantitative and qualitative research article abstracts

In concerning the readability of the texts, the results *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.084 revealed that both qualitative 6.0 and quantitative 7.12 RA abstracts included approximately similar number of sentences per paragraph in comparing to each other. In addition, the average number of words per sentence was not significantly *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.52 different 27.32 in the quantitative RA abstracts compared with the number of words per sentence in the qualitative RA abstracts 28.19. Over and above that, the average number of characters per word, which was 5.76 for the quantitative RA abstracts, was 5.75 for the qualitative RA abstracts. This difference was also found to be insignificant *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.84. Furthermore, the number of passive sentences was significantly *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.068 different in both quantitative RA abstracts 32.28% compared to qualitative RAs abstracts 22.64%. These findings revealed that the qualitative RAs and quantitative RAs abstracts included similar level of paragraphs, and words compared to each other. Lastly, the Flesch Reading Ease results was found to be similar *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.69 for the quantitative RA abstracts 19.65, compared to the qualitative RA abstracts 20.51, which means that both qualitative and quantitative RAs abstracts in this study were at the same level of difficulty to read.

Move Structure of the qualitative and quantitative RA Abstracts

In order to clarify the details of using the move structure pattern in quantitative and qualitative papers, all of the papers were scrutinized. According to Move-Step Structure patterns (CARS Model), it is revealed that the three moves in the CARS Model namely, M_1 , M_2 and M_3 occurred in approximately all of the 50 qualitative and quantitative research articles.

Obtained results suggested that about twenty-one papers out of 50 papers benefited from M_1S_2 pattern. In addition, M_3S_2 , M_3S_1b , and M_3S_3 patterns of structure were the most utilized template in all of the qualitative and quantitative papers. Moreover, the most commonly preferred move-structures combination in the qualitative and quantitative RA abstracts was M_1-M_3 . In comparing Quantitative research articles abstract, qualitative research articles authors were more interested to use a M_1S_3 move structure pattern. This indicated that those authors reviewed more items from previous researches than quantitative articles' author did. Alternatively, quantitative research articles, authors utilized more M_3S_4 patterns compare to qualitative research articles. Using M_3S_4 pattern implies that those researcher evaluated research articles numerical findings. Using $M_1-M_2-M_3$ pattern of the CARS Model indicates that, the researchers utilized Swales move structure pattern respectively. By "establishing territory" (M_1), they aimed to state that how the topic is useful, significant, and relevant. They also made a topic generalization in order to concern the current state of knowledge and description of phenomena. By referring to other investigators through providing citations, they reviewed other items in previous research. In the second move (M_2) of the $M_1-M_2-M_3$ pattern, "establishing the niche", the authors provide a research space for their studies by either counter claiming in their field of study (M_2S_{1a}), by indicating a gap (M_2S_{1b}), by making question (M_2S_{1c}), or by continuing a tradition (M_2S_{1d}) in their own research study.

Finally, on the third move (M_3) of the $M_1-M_2-M_3$ pattern, the authors present their work by occupying the niche. In this move, they aimed to represent their research outline, clarify certain terms, announce current research purposes, state the value of their research descriptively and outline the structure of the paper. According to the obtained results, M_1S_1 pattern occurred 9 times on qualitative RAs and only once on quantitative RAs. M_1S_2 pattern was equal to 10 on quantitative RAs abstracts and it was 11 on qualitative research article abstracts. The amount of M_1S_3 move structure patterns of quantitative and qualitative RAs abstracts was equal to 6 and 4 respectively. This indicated that quantitative RAs authors have referred more frequently to previous investigators' works than qualitative authors have. In "establishing niche", both quantitative and qualitative research article writers benefited almost the same amount of move-structure patterns. After establishing territory and a niche, the researchers have revealed their solution in responding to already mentioned move structures pattern on this stage. M_3S_1a pattern perceived totally 5 times on both quantitative and qualitative papers. M_3S_1b pattern, the most commonly preferred combination, was utilized 19 and 23 on qualitative and quantitative RAs abstracts respectively. The next common pattern was M_3S_2 that occurred 44 times on both QN and QL research article abstracts totally. M_3S_3 was also another most used pattern; according to the results qualitative RAs authors' abstract (M_3S_3 pattern = 14) in comparison with quantitative RAs authors have employed more M_3S_3 move-structure pattern (M_3S_3 = 20). M_3S_4 move structure pattern of quantitative and qualitative RAs abstract was equal to 16 and 11. These results indicated that quantitative authors preferred to evaluate the outcomes more descriptively.

Lexico-Grammatical Features of the qualitative and quantitative Research Articles (RAs) introductions

Concerning the qualitative RA introductions tokens per type 2.13 the quantitative RA introductions 2.02 was *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.21 statistically insignificant. In addition, the qualitative RA introductions contained *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.13 nearly the same amount of types per family 1.18 in compare to the quantitative RA introductions 1.16. In addition, the lexical density of the quantitative RAs 0.63 introductions were significant *Exact Sig. / p* = 0.07 compared to the

qualitative RAs 0.61. The findings indicated that the authors of the quantitative and qualitative RA introductions utilized almost lexical dense vocabulary in compare to each other's.

Vocabulary Profile of the quantitative and qualitative RAs introductions

According to the perceived findings the vocabulary profiling of the introductory sections of the two corpora revealed that quantitative 69.09 and qualitative 72.37 RAs introductions contained significantly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.12* the same amount of K1 words. This outcome also was true for K2 number of words in both quantitative (4.3) and qualitative (4.6). In other words significance level of K2 words was equal to *Exact Sig. / p = 0.77*. Moreover, in comparing AWL words in quantitative 13.21 and qualitative 11.35 introduction parts, the result *Exact Sig. / p = 0.79* indicated that there is not any difference between those parts, and they are significantly similar. The results indicated that the authors of the qualitative quantitative RAs employed the similar amount of K1, K2, and AWL words.

Readability Statistics of the quantitative and qualitative research article introductions

In concerning the readability of the texts, obtained result *Exact Sig. / p = 0.64* indicated that both qualitative 6.2 and quantitative 6.9 RA introductions included a similar number of sentences per paragraph in compare to each other. In addition, the average number of words per sentence was remarkably similar *Exact Sig. / p = 0.38* in the quantitative RA introductions 23.8, compared to the number of words per sentence in the qualitative RA introductions 26.9. Moreover, the average number of characters per word, which was 5.6 for the quantitative RA introductions, was 5.7 for the qualitative RA introductions. This similarity was also found to be salient *Exact Sig. / p = 0.89*. Lastly, the number of passive structures was nearly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.70* in the same level in both quantitative RA introductions 23.4% and qualitative RA introductions 21.4%. The findings revealed that the qualitative RAs and quantitative RAs introductions included similar level of passive sentences, sentences per paragraphs, character per sentences and words compared to each other. Besides, the Flesch Reading Ease was found to be similar *Exact Sig. / p = 0.80* for the quantitative RA introductions 25.0, compared to the qualitative RA introductions 21.8, which means that both qualitative and quantitative RA introductions in this study were at the same level of difficulty to read.

Move Structure of the qualitative (QL) and quantitative (QN) RAs introductions

According to perceived Move-Step Structure patterns (CARS Model) on qualitative and quantitative RAs introductions, it is revealed that about forty-seven papers out of 50 papers benefited from M₁S₃ pattern. These results indicated that, almost all of the authors interested to state their essay structures on the opening part of their article. The remaining parts of RAs introduction included a variety of move- structure combinations with pattern cycling. For instance, M1-M3-M1-M3 was occurred in nearly all of the articles. The number of move units in the M3S2 pattern of the quantitative and qualitative papers was equal to six. This indicates that research articles authors have a low tendency to discuss about the result of the research articles in the introduction section. In addition, M₃S₃ and M₂S_{1b} patterns of structure were the most utilized template in all of the qualitative and quantitative papers. Moreover, another most common structure in the qualitative and quantitative RA introductions was M₃S_{1b}.

Lexico-Grammatical Features of the qualitative and quantitative Research Articles results and discussions

The obtained results from this section represented that both the qualitative RAs result and discussion section 3.80 and the quantitative RAs result and discussion section 4.13 were statistically similar in tokens per type *Exact Sig. / p = 0.52*. Therewith, analyzing of result and discussion sections of quantitative and qualitative research article types per family displayed that, the qualitative RAs result and discussion 1.39 contained nearly the similar amount of types per family *Exact. Sig. / p = 0.21* in comparison with the quantitative RAs result and discussion 1.36. Considering the lexical density of the quantitative RAs 0.59 results and discussion were prominently different *Exact Sig. / p = 0.00* compared to the qualitative RAs 0.55. In sum, the authors of the quantitative RA result and discussion utilized significantly different sets of the lexicon in compare to authors of qualitative RAs.

Vocabulary Profile of the quantitative and qualitative RAs results and discussions

The vocabulary profiling of the two corpora revealed that qualitative RAs results and discussions 76.47 contained significantly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.003* the different number of K1 words, compared to the quantitative results and discussions 72.34. The number of K2 words was nearly at the same level *Exact Sig. / p = 0.55* on the quantitative RA results and discussions 4.82 compared to the qualitative RAs 4.50. However, the number of AWL words was significantly different *Exact. Sig. / p = 0.003* for the quantitative RAs result and discussion 11.55, than for the qualitative RA results and discussions 9.42. These findings indicated that the authors of the qualitative RA results and discussions tended to use frequently more K1 words than K2 and the author of the quantitative writing utilized more academic words (AWL words) compared to the authors of the qualitative RAs.

Readability Statistics of the quantitative and qualitative research articles results and discussions

The readability analyzing of the qualitative 5.9 and quantitative 6.2 RAs result and discussion indicated that, both of those research articles result and discussion authors used similar number of sentences per paragraph in compare to each other *Exact. Sig. / p = 0.77*. Moreover, the average number of words per sentence was significantly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.060* different 25.1 in the quantitative RAs result and discussion, compared to the number of words per sentence in the qualitative RAs result and discussion 23.6. In addition, the average number of characters per word, which was 5.2 for the quantitative RAs result and discussion, was 4.6 for the qualitative RAs result and discussion. This similarity was also found to be insignificant *Exact Sig. / p = 0.77*. Lastly, the number of passive structures was significantly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.91* in the same level in both quantitative RAs result and discussion 18.4% and qualitative RAs result and

discussion 15.4%. These findings revealed that the qualitative RAs and the quantitative RAs result and discussion included similar level of passive structures, paragraphs, compared to each other. Thus, the Flesch Reading Ease was found to be similar *Exact Sig. / p = 0.37* for the quantitative RAs result and discussion 33.08, compared to the qualitative RAs result and discussion 34.22, which means that both qualitative and quantitative RAs result and discussion in this study were at the same level of difficulty to read.

Move Structure of the qualitative and quantitative RAs results and discussions

As was expected, the most commonly used Move-Step structure pattern in this section was M3S2 pattern. The general move-structure pattern here was M3M1M2M3M1M3. Other obtained results were as follow: the number of move units of M₁S₁ pattern was equal to 3. In addition, the number of M₁S₂ pattern was equal to 8 on qualitative research article and 5 on quantitative articles. This indicated that qualitative RAs authors referred to previous research more than quantitative authors did. Another most commonly used sketch was M₂S_{1b}, this mean that the authors of both qualitative and quantitative articles filled the gaps with clarifying expressions. In order to outline the niche, researchers utilized 25 instances of M3S1b pattern, 25 instances of M3S3 pattern, and 58 instances of M3S4 pattern respectively. Findings showed that M3S4 move structure pattern existed approximately on most of the quantitative research articles in comparison with qualitative articles. This can be interpreted as quantitative authors were interested to demonstrate their results descriptively.

Lexico-Grammatical Features of the qualitative and quantitative Research Articles (RAs) Conclusions

In compare to the qualitative RA conclusions 1.96, the quantitative RA conclusions 2.17 were statistically insignificant *Exact Sig. / p = 0.16* in tokens per type. In addition, the quantitative RA conclusions 1.19 contained different amount of types per family *Exact Sig. / p = 0.027* in compare to the qualitative RA conclusions 1.16. In addition, the lexical density of the quantitative RAs conclusions 0.60 was not much different *Exact Sig. / p = 0.44* compared to the qualitative RAs 0.59. These outcomes indicated that the authors of the quantitative and qualitative RA conclusions benefited from almost the same set of lexicon in compare to each other's.

Vocabulary Profile of the quantitative and qualitative RAs conclusions

The vocabulary profiling of the two corpora revealed that quantitative RAs conclusions 72.13 contained significantly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.56* the same amount of K1 words, compared with the qualitative conclusions 72.63. Moreover, the number of K2 words was also nearly *Exact Sig. / p = 0.16* similar in the quantitative RA conclusions 4.39, compared to the qualitative RA 5.06. These outcomes also were true for the number of AWL words *Exact Sig. / p = 0.91* in both quantitative RA conclusions 12.64 and qualitative RA conclusions 12.78. These results indicated that the authors of the quantitative and qualitative RA conclusions utilized the same number of content and academic words.

Readability Statistics of the quantitative and qualitative research articles conclusions

Obtained result from readability statistics of the texts demonstrated this fact that *Exact Sig. / p = 0.36* both qualitative 6.31 and quantitative 5.78 RA conclusions included a similar number of sentences per paragraph in comparing to each other. Moreover, the average number of words per sentence was not significantly different *Exact Sig. / p = 0.45* in the quantitative RA conclusions 27.46, compared to the number of words per sentence in the qualitative RA conclusions 27.32. In addition, the average number of characters per word, which was 5.57 for the qualitative RA conclusions, was 5.49 for the quantitative RA conclusions. This similarity was also found to be insignificant *Exact Sig. / p = 0.41*. Lastly, the number of passive structures was significantly in the same level *Exact Sig. / p = 0.22* in both qualitative RA conclusions 21.9% and quantitative RAs conclusions 19.84%. These findings revealed that the qualitative RAs and quantitative RAs conclusions included similar level of passive structures, paragraphs, sentences and words compared to each other. The Flesch Reading Ease was also found to be similar *Exact Sig. / p = 0.57* on the qualitative RA conclusions 26.57, compared to the quantitative RA conclusions 26.08, which means that both qualitative and quantitative RAs conclusions in this study were at the same level of difficulty to read.

Move Structure of the qualitative and quantitative RAs conclusions

The most commonly existed patterns in the conclusion part of research articles were M1S2 and M3S2. On the other hand, the most general move-structure pattern was M1M3-M3M1 in the cycling manner. Total result showed that M2S1a exercise (claiming centrality) was dispreferred option in both corpora. Further analysis of the moves of two corpora revealed that two genres shared a number of similarities in the use of steps. For instance, the number of move units of M3S4 pattern was the same and it was equal to 93.

V. CONCLUSION, PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE STUDIES

A comparative corpus-based analysis of genre specific discourse is a very common practice. Swales (2004) "emphasizes the shift in the definition of the genre from a static entity towards a dynamic entity by introducing the concept of genre networks". As Işık Taş (2008) stated "writing a research article is not an easy task for novice researchers, who begin their study as outsiders in the academic community". The focus of this study was specifically the abstract, introduction, result and discussion, and conclusion parts of the quantitative and qualitative research articles, in order to provide a general template for novice scholars who are interested to study meticulously in the TEFL domain. These are the most challengeable area for the academic writers who are addressed to choose one of those data collecting methods to study. Opening sentence for abstract part should be appealing enough in order to provoke readers. In addition, the abstract section should be compendious and profound enough to convey the purpose of the study. The

introduction part of research does not have a word limit unlike abstract sections, but it should be as concise as possible to inform readers about the rationale behind the study. Result and discussion part of research article was another part that was under consideration in this study. Obviously, the writers in this part present their assumed results and their interpretations respectively. Lastly, conclusion, which is concerned as a closure of research, provides a final perspective on the topic to the readers. This study employed both qualitative and quantitative approaches, comprising fifty papers from high impact factor language and linguistic magazines to do provide valuable evidences for the future researchers and novice practitioners.

Further analyses of two corpora from discursal and rhetorical aspects revealed that the authors of qualitative articles due to applying M3S1 pattern were more interested to refer to previous research than the quantitative authors were. On the other hand, the quantitative article's authors were more interested to use the M3S4 move- structure pattern to indicate their findings numerically in compare to qualitative article authors were. In order to indicate the uniqueness of the papers, both qualitative and quantitative papers' authors used self-mention phrases in their papers. This strategy interpreted as self-promotional strategies by Harwood (2005). The results of Mann Whitney non-parametric U test as well as other statistical procedure revealed that, except for some variation on the move- structure pattern on both corpora, the differences of lexio-grammatical and rhetorical features of qualitative and quantitative research articles were insignificant. In spite of time-consuming procedure of this study, the findings of this study can be useful for non-English novice researchers who would like to publish their papers in the high impact academic journals.

Further studies should be undertaken in the following areas: language and linguistic field, English language literature thesis and research articles, English for academic or specific purpose (EAP/ESP), other abundant area of second language learning as well as non-English fields of study.

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APPENDIX A. LIST OF QUALITATIVE AND QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH ARTICLES

List of Qualitative Research Articles Corpus

- RA 1. Abukhadrah, Q. A. (2015). The difficulties of learning English as perceived by a group of international students: A case study. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(8), 40-48.
- RA 2. Ahmadi, P., & Samad, A. A. (2015). Oral Academic Discourse Socialization of In-Service Teachers in a TEFL Program. *English Language Teaching*, 8(4). doi:10.5539/elt.v8n4p97
- RA 3. Al Khaiyali, A. (2013). Comprehension strategy instruction in language learning classrooms selecting and using childrens' picture books for explicit reading comprehension instruction. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 1(2), 1-16.
- RA 4. Amara, T. M. (2015). Learners' perception of teacher written feedback commentary in an ESL writing classroom. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(2), 38-53.
- RA 5. Arnó-Macià, E., & Mancho-Barés, G. (2015). The role of content and language in content and language integrated learning (CLIL) at university: Challenges and implications for ESP. *English for Specific Purposes*, 37, 63-73.
- RA 6. Chen, Y. (2015). Chinese learners' cognitive processes in writing email requests to faculty. *System*, (52), 51-62.
- RA 7. Eddy-U, M. (2015). Motivation for participation or non-participation in group tasks: A dynamic systems model of task-situated willingness to communicate. *System*, 50, 43-55.
- RA 8. Farrell, T. S. (2013). Reflecting on ESL teacher expertise: A case study. *System*, 41, 1070-1082.
- RA 9. Hiratsuka, T. (2016). Actualizing Exploratory Practice (EP) principles with team teachers in Japan. *System*, (57), 109-119.
- RA 10. Huong, T. T. (2015). The study of grammar instructions for communicative purpose in high schools of Vietnam. *International Journal of English Language Teaching*, 3(8), 71-78.
- RA 11. Ke, I., & Cahyani, H. (2014). Learning to become users of English as a Lingua Franca (ELF): How ELF online communication affects Taiwanese learners' beliefs of English. *System*, 48, 28-38.
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List of Abbreviations

AWL: Academic Word List of Coxhead (2000)

CARS: Create a Research Space

K1: Most frequent first 1000 words in the BNC (British National Corpus)

K2: Most frequent second 1000 words in the BNC

QN: Quantitative

QL: Qualitative

RA: Research Articles

TEFL: Teaching English as a Foreign Language

APPENDIX B. SAMPLE MOVE-STRUCTURE PATTERN (RAS ABSTRACTS)

Quantitative RAs Abstract	The Move and Step Patterns	Number of move units
RA 1	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 2	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₂ S _{1a} - M ₃ S _{1a} - M ₃ S ₂]	4
RA 3	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₄ - M ₃ S ₂]	4
RA 4	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₁ S ₂ . M ₃ S ₃]	4
RA 5	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 6	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ . M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 7	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1a} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 8	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₂ S _{1a} -M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	5
RA 9	[M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 10	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₁ S ₃ -M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	6
RA 11	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 12	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 13	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 14	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₁ S ₃ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	5
RA 15	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 16	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 17	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 18	[M ₁ S ₂ -M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	4
RA 19	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 20	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂ -M ₁ S ₃]	4
RA 21	[M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 22	[M ₁ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 23	[M ₁ S ₂ -M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	6
RA 24	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	6
RA 25	[M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₂ -M ₃ S ₄]	4

Qualitative RAs Abstracts	The Move and Step Patterns	Number of move units
RA 1	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	3
RA 2	[M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 3	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₂]	6
RA 4	[M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ -M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 5	[M ₁ S ₁ -M ₂ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₁ -M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂ -M ₃ S ₄]	6
RA 6	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₁ S ₂ -M ₂ S _{1b} -M ₃ S _{1a}]	4
RA 7	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₁ S ₂ - M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S _{1a} - M ₃ S ₄ -M ₃ S ₂]	6
RA 8	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₂ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 9	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₃]	4
RA 10	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 11	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂ -M ₃ S ₄]	4
RA 12	[M ₁ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ M ₃ S ₃]	3
RA 13	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 14	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ -M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 15	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₁ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₁ S ₃]	5
RA 16	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₃ S ₄]	3
RA 17	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 18	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S _{1b}]	2
RA 19	[M ₁ S ₃ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 20	[M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	3
RA 21	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S _{1b} - M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂ - M ₃ S ₄]	5
RA 22	[M ₁ S ₁ - M ₃ S ₃ -M ₃ S _{1a} - M ₃ S ₂]	4
RA 23	[M ₃ S _{1b} -M ₁ S ₁ -M ₃ S ₃ - M ₃ S ₂]	4
RA 24	[M ₁ S ₂ - M ₂ S _{1b} -M ₃ S _{1b}]	3
RA 25	[M ₁ S ₂ -M ₂ S _{1b} -M ₁ S ₃ -M ₃ S _{1b}]	4

APPENDIX C. SAMPLE STATISTICS RESULTS

Vocabulary profiling analyzing through SPSS software (QN and QLconclusion parts)
Academic Words(AWL)

Test Statistics^a

	AWL
Mann-Whitney U	306.500
Wilcoxon W	631.500
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.912
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.456
Point Probability	.004

a. Grouping Variable: G7

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
AWL	50	12.7126	3.13247	6.61	20.19
G7	50	1.5000	.50508	1.00	2.00

Readability analyzing samples of conclusion part (Passive Sentences/ PS)
Passive sentences

Test Statistics^a

	ps
Mann-Whitney U	249.000
Wilcoxon W	574.000
Exact Sig. (2-tailed)	.221
Exact Sig. (1-tailed)	.111
Point Probability	.002

a. Grouping Variable: g4

Descriptive Statistics

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Ps	50	1.3007	.16447	.10	.80
g4	50	1.5000	.50508	1.00	2.00

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Masoud Khalili Sabet, PhD in TEFL is currently a member of English Department and presenting EFL courses at the state University of Guilan-Iran. His major teaching and research interests as well as international conference paper themes include L1 & L2 syntax acquisition, L2 reading and writing strategies, ESP and testing English as L2.

Roya Minaei is an M.A. student of TEFL at University of Guilan, Rasht, Iran. Her research interest includes Language skills and components, learning strategies, L2 reading and writing and teaching English as a foreign language.

Elaboration of the Philosophical Values of Paradigmatic Excerpts of “The Analects of Confucius”

Qiang Xiong

College of Foreign Languages, Hunan University, China

Abstract—“The Analects of Confucius” authentically keeps a record of the words and deeds of Confucius and his disciples. It’s one of the four classical works of Confucian culture. By citing many exemplary texts from “Confucian Analects” and delineating and expounding on their connotational significance, the ethical and philosophical importance and values of “Confucian Analects” are emphatically manifested; meanwhile, their mirroring and guiding values on one’s behaviour are further specifically illustrated.

Index Terms— “The Analects of Confucius”, Confucius, filial piety, benevolence, virtue

I. INTRODUCTION

During the period of feudal societies, “The Analects of Confucius” had always been a necessary enlightenment textbook for students. It occupies an immensely important position in Chinese educational and cultural history. The essence of this great work focuses on the general principles of filial piety, reverence of tutors and elders, social etiquette and propriety, acquisition of knowledge, social conduct and personal behavior, etc.

One of the deepest teachings of Confucius may have been the superiority of personal exemplification over explicit rules of behavior. Because his moral teachings emphasize self-cultivation, emulation of moral exemplars, and the attainment of skilled judgment rather than knowledge of rules, Confucius's ethics may be considered a type of virtue ethics. Confucius' moral system was based upon empathy and understanding others. (2016; <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Confucius>)

His teachings rarely rely on reasoned argument and ethical ideals and methods are conveyed more indirectly, through allusions, innuendo, and even tautology. This is why his teachings need to be examined and put into proper context in order to be understood. A good example is found in this famous anecdote:

When the stables were burnt down, on returning from court, Confucius said, “Was anyone hurt?” He did not ask about the horses.

(Analects X.11, tr. A. Waley, 1941, p51)

The passage conveys the lesson that by not asking about the horses, Confucius demonstrated that a sage values human beings over property; readers of this lesson are led to reflect on whether their response would follow Confucius's, and to pursue ethical self-improvement if it would not. Confucius, an exemplar of human excellence, serves as the ultimate model, rather than a deity or a universally true set of abstract principles. For these reasons, according to many Eastern and Western commentators, Confucius's teaching may be considered a Chinese example of humanism. (2017; <http://zhidao.baidu.com/link>)

II. BODY

Chapter 2 of “The Analects of Confucius” reads,

Filial piety and fraternal submission are the foundation of all virtuous practice.

1. The philosopher Yû said, “They are few who, being filial and fraternal, are fond of offending against their superiors. There have been none, who, not liking to offend against their superiors, have been fond of stirring up confusion.

2. “The superior man bends his attention to what is radical. That being established, all practical courses naturally grow up. Filial piety and fraternal submission! -- are they not the root of all benevolent actions?” (tr. James Legge, 1893, p75)

Yû believes that, if a man is pious to his parents and submissive to his elder brothers at home, then he will be loyal to his fatherland. One’s filial piety and fraternal submission are the premises of his loyalty. And one’s loyalty is the aim of his filialness and brotherly obedience. This point sheds much guiding light on the cultivation of patriotism. If a nation’s youth are filial at home, there is no doubt that they will be patriotic towards their motherland. Filial piety and fraternal submission are the fundamentals of benevolence, which is key to comprehending Confucius’ philosophical and ethical thought whose core is benevolence. Benevolence is shown as friendliness in social intercourse. So one’s friendliness shown outside corresponds to the affection between family members at home.

Chapter 3 of "Confucian Analects" reads,

Fair appearances are suspicious.

The Master said, "Fine words and an insinuating appearance are seldom associated with true virtue." (tr. James Legge, 1893, p43)

In this chapter, Confucius argues about the converse of "benevolence", i.e., plausibility; adept at flowery language. The Confucianists uphold simplicity and unpretentiousness and oppose to sweet words. They advocate that one should be careful about and consistent with his utterances; action precedes speech; they argue against doing as one wishes in words and deeds and being all talk and no deed or only remaining at the talking stage. This manifests that Confucius and Confucianists value one's practical action and specially stress that one's action should suit his words; empty talk and such practice as speaking one way and thinking another should be strictly avoided. All these qualities are characterized by "integrity". As a matter of fact, such practicality and plainness have had a long-term impact on Chinese people and have become the quintessence of Chinese traditional ideology and culture.

Chapter 4 of "Confucian Analects" reads,

How the philosopher Tsang daily examined himself, to guard against his being guilty of any imposition.

The philosopher Tsang said, "I daily examine myself on three points:-- whether, in transacting business for others, I may have been not faithful;-- whether, in intercourse with friends, I may have been not sincere;-- whether I may have not mastered and practiced the instructions of my teacher." (James Legge, 1893, p45)

Confucians attach great importance to personal moral integrity in order to mould ideal personality. Actually, the self-examination discussed in this chapter is the basic way for self-cultivation.

During the Period of Spring and Autumn, the society had been undergoing violent changes. Reflected in the domain of human consciousness, people's ideological beliefs had begun to be wavering, i.e. the conventional beliefs in people's minds had become unsteady. In view of this, Zen Shen, one of Confucius' favorite disciples, introduced such method of self-cultivation as "looking into one's heart" by constantly examining one's speeches and actions, in order to perfect one's personality. This "introspective" approach to moral cultivation is worthy of reference even today, since it particularly stresses the initiative and awareness to self-cultivate.

Also in this chapter, Zen Zi proposed the categories of "loyalty" and "faith". "Loyalty" is characterized by "being thorough or exhaustive". i.e. sparing no effort in fulfilling a task. Or, doing one's best till one's heart ceases to beat. "Faith" has two connotations. One is "confidence"; the other is "credit", which signifies "probity and no cheat". This is applied to manage the relations between friends or between superiors and subordinates. "Faith" is especially related to "speech"; denoting "speaking truth" and "keeping one's word". This is the cornerstone of conducting oneself in society.

Chapter six of "Confucian Analects" reads,

Rules for the training of the young:-- duty first and then accomplishments.

The Master said, "A youth, when at home, should be filial, and, abroad, respectful to his elders. He should be earnest and truthful. He should overflow in love to all, and cultivate the friendship of the good. When he has time and opportunity, after the performance of these things, he should employ them in polite studies." (James Legge, 1893, p56)

In Chapter two, the topic of filialness and fraternal submission was touched upon, in this chapter the issue has been referred to again. Confucius demanded his disciples, first of all, to be devoted to filial piety and brotherly obedience, sincerity and truthfulness, philanthropy and closeness to the benevolent. He also required his pupils to foster good moral concept and favorable moral conduct. Besides these, if their time and energy remain, they can employ them to the study of famous ancient books and increase of their cultural knowledge. This demonstrates that Confucian teachings are centred around moralism and focused on cultivating his disciples' virtues. However, the learning of their book knowledge is allocated secondary importance.

Chapter 7 reads,

Tsze-hsiâ's views of the substance of learning.

Tsze-hsiâ said, "If a man withdraws his mind from the love of beauty, and applies it as sincerely to the love of the virtuous; if, in serving his parents, he can exert his utmost strength; if, in serving his prince, he can devote his life; if, in his intercourse with his friends, his words are sincere:-- although men say that he has not learned, I will certainly say that he has." (James Legge, 1893, p62)

In last chapter, we read "When he has time and opportunity, after the performance of these things, he should employ them in polite studies." (James Legge, 1893, p56) Whereas what Tsze-hsiâ says in this chapter is a further development of what his Master purported in the previous chapter.

Tsze-hsiâ holds that to judge whether a man is learned or not, or whether he conducts his studies well or poorly, the major attention should not be paid to his book knowledge; instead, the highlight should be focused upon if he applies such traditional ethical moralities as "filial piety", "loyalty" and "faithfulness", etc.. So long as he has materialized the few last points, he is viewed as a gentleman who is immersed in moral cultivation, even if he should himself claim he is not a real scholar. Therefore, if the theme of this chapter is associated with that of the last, we can see more clearly that Confucian teachings are deeply rooted in the cultivation of virtues.

Regarding Contemporary international community where moral integrity is in real crisis, we should say this point possesses its strong realistic implications.

Chapter 8 of "Confucian analects" reads,

Principles of self-cultivation.

1. The Master said, "If the scholar be not grave, he will not call forth any veneration, and his learning will not be solid.
2. "Hold faithfulness and sincerity as first principles.
3. "Have no friends not equal to yourself.
4. "When you have faults, do not fear to abandon them." (James Legge, 1893, p78)

In this chapter, Confucius puts forward the virtues that a noble man should have, i.e. being serious and dignified, being keen on studies, being prudent in making friends, being able to rectify one's faults, etc.. A gentleman with ideal personality should present himself as grave and stately in appearance, making others feel he's reliable and worthy of being entrusted. He should attach great importance to learning, not be self-reclusive, be adept at making friends and be sure to correct his faults. These four principles are of key importance. As a person with sound character, he never fears to abandon his faults if he has them. This is certainly the right attitude towards one's errors and lapses. It glitters with the brilliance of truth and reflects the consummate morality envisioned in Confucius' mind. And it assumes great value for us to decode Confucianism.

Chapter 9 reads,

The good effect of attention on the part of superiors to the offices of the dead:-- an admonition of Tsâng Shan.

The philosopher Tsang said, "Let there be a careful attention to perform the funeral rites to parents, and let them be followed when long gone with the ceremonies of sacrifice;-- then the virtue of the people will resume its proper excellence." (James Legge, 1893, p89)

Confucius actually didn't believe in the existence of spirits. This is attested by his words---"keep supernatural beings at a distance" Although he didn't advocate such proposition as "one's soul exists after his death", he attached great importance to the rite of mourning. In Confucius' concepts, sacrifice had been alienated. It is not only in memory of somebody dead; rather, it is regarded as the continuation and expression of fulfilling one's filial piety. Moreover, it can carry on and cultivate one's feeling of filial piety towards his parents and forefathers. Therefore, this chapter develops in depth the details of such moral concept and moral act as filial piety. The reason why Confucianists stress the morality of filial piety is that filialness is the basis of loyalty. He who wouldn't fulfill his filial piety towards his parents is not supposed to show loyalty to his motherland. So loyalty is the extension and externalization of filialness. That the topics of loyalty and filial piety appear time and again in "Confucian Analects" indicates how much importance Confucianists attach to these moral ethics. They hope that, by way of such moralizing, people can be shaped into such cultured noble individuals who possess both qualities of loyalty and filial piety. This idea corresponds to the patriarchal system practiced during the period of Spring and Autumn. Once loyalty and filialness are actualized, both the society and the individual family can enjoy peace and stability.

Chapter 10 reads,

Characteristics of Confucius, and their influence on the princes of the time.

1. Tsze-ch'in asked Tsze-kung, saying, "When our master comes to any country, he does not fail to learn all about its government. Does he ask his information? or is it given to him?"
2. Tsze-kung said, "Our master is benign, upright, courteous, temperate, and complaisant and thus he gets his information. The master's mode of asking information! -- is it not different from that of other men?" (James Legge ,1893, p92)

In this chapter, the individual behaviorism of Confucius has been delineated through the conversation between Tsze-ch'in and Tsze-kung. The reason why Confucius was well received and valued by the rulers of all states is that he possessed such moral characters as being mild, kind-hearted, respectful, thrifty and simple and modest and humble. Confucius believes that trying to preeminent pushes one to strive for good reputation; overstating one's accomplishment makes one fight for fame and wealth. If one fails to acquire them, then he harbors rancor against others; if he has insatiable desire for fame and wealth, then he violates the principle of "giving way to others". From these we can see that the valuable point for "giving way to others" to evolve into a desirable social custom lies in : in terms of human feelings, humility helps one take more after others' strong points and caution against others' weak points. This can incline people to unity, harmony, friendliness, goodness and charity; whereas the social atmosphere of competing for fame, wealth and higher social position induces one to be jealous of man of talent. The social effects of these two tendencies are at opposite poles.

The Master said, "It is virtuous manners which constitute the excellence of a neighborhood. If a man in selecting a residence do not fix on one where such prevail, how can he be wise?" (James Legge, 1893, p95)

Everyone's moral cultivation is not only a personal matter, but also necessarily associated with the external surroundings where one reside. Paying attention to one's residential circumstance and the choosing of one's friends is a consistent issue to which the Confucius attach much importance. As the old saying goes, he who touches rouge will be stained red, he who touches pitch will be defiled. If one live with the virtuous, then he will be strongly influenced by these people as the result of his close association with them. Otherwise, it is quite unlikely that he'd foster the righteous sentiment.

The Master said, "Those who are without virtue cannot abide long either in a condition of poverty and hardship, or in a condition of enjoyment. The virtuous rest in virtue; the wise desire virtue." (James Legge, 1893, p98)

In this chapter, Confucius believes that it's impossible for those unkind to stay long either in poverty or comfort. Otherwise, they would engage themselves in wrongdoings or rise in revolt, or indulge themselves in an extravagant and dissipated life. Only those moral men will take comfort in benevolence; moreover, the wise will also perform benevolent deeds. The advocacy of this ideology guides us to mind one's moral integrity, to be absolutely determined and to keep one's moral courage in any circumstances.

The Master said, "It is only the truly virtuous man, who can love, or who can hate, others." (James Legge, 1893, p101)

When the Confucianists discuss "benevolence", they not only talk about "loving others", but also "hating others". To be sure, Confucius here didn't mention whom to love and whom to hate. But, as we know, love and hatred is an inevitable couple. They exist in contrast to each other. So long as "benevolence" is fulfilled, the correct categories of love and hatred will certainly follow.

The Master said, "If the will be set on virtue, there will be no practice of wickedness." (James Legge, 1893, p105)

This chapter closely follows the last. Once you have cultivated kindheartedness, you wouldn't commit wrongdoings, i.e., you wouldn't defy your superiors and start a rebellion. Neither would you do whatever you want and indulge a life of extravagance and dissipation. Rather, you would perform good deeds which are beneficial to your country and common people.

The Master said, "Riches and honors are what men desire. If they cannot be obtained in the proper way, they should not be held. Poverty and meanness are what men dislike. If they cannot be avoided in the proper way, they should not be avoided. (James Legge, 1893, p108)

Confucius said: Everyone is desirous of riches and dignitary. However, if you acquire them through unjust means, you wouldn't enjoy them. Likewise, everyone disgusts poverty and humbleness, however, if you get rid of them through unjust means, you wouldn't cast them off. How can he be called a noble man if he separates from kindheartedness? A noble man wouldn't depart from moral integrity for a single moment. He will behave kindly even at the most pressing time. He is bound to act benevolently even when he drift from place to place homeless and miserable.

The passage above reflects Confucius's Doctrine of Ethics and Desire. No one is willing to lead a poverty-stricken, hard, destitute and homeless life. All is hoping for a rich, honourable, easy and comfortable life. But this must be obtained through valid means and approaches. Otherwise, one would rather be poor than enjoy wealth and rank. The value of this concept still can't be underestimated even today.

The Master said, "I have not seen a person who loved virtue, or one who hated what was not virtuous. He who loved virtue, would esteem nothing above it. He who hated what is not virtuous, would practice virtue in such a way that he would not allow anything that is not virtuous to approach his person.

"Is any one able for one day to apply his strength to virtue? I have not seen the case in which his strength would be insufficient.

"Should there possibly be any such case, I have not seen it." (James Legge, 1893, p113)

Confucius particularly stressed individual morality, especially the sentiment that cultivates benevolence. But in that chaotic society, the men who are fond of moral integrity were seldom seen. Therefore Confucius said he had seen none. Nonetheless, Confucius believes that the cultivation of kindheartedness mainly depends upon individual's conscious efforts. Because through one's personal endeavors, he absolutely can reach the state of benevolence.

The Master said, "The faults of men are characteristic of the class to which they belong. By observing a man's faults, it may be known that he is virtuous." (James Legge, 1893, p115)

Confucius believes that the fundamental reason why a man commits a fault is that he isn't kindhearted. A benevolent man, in most cases, would avoid errors. Whereas a man without moral integrity would inevitably make mistakes. Therefore, from this we can say the faults the unkind men commit are similar in nature. This point, from another perspective, stresses the importance of strengthening moral integrity.

The Master said, "The superior man, in the world, does not set his mind either for anything, or against anything; what is right he will follow." (James Legge, 1893, p118)

In this chapter, Confucius proposed one of the fundamental points required of the noble man: "to follow what is right." A noble man with great personality is supposed to be upright in character, amicable, conduct himself seriously and flexibly in society, not to make a fish of one and flesh of another. This chapter again discusses the issue of individual morality.

The Master said: "He who acts with a constant view to his own advantage will be much murmured against." (James Legge, 1893, p125)

This chapter still discusses the issue of righteousness and profit. Confucius believes that being a man of noble personality, he wouldn't always think about the gains and losses of his personal profit. Much less would he indulge himself in the headlong pursuit of his own benefit. If he did, his egoistic practice would incur resentment and censure from various sources. Confucius here still upholds such a viewpoint as "righteousness first, profit second."

The Master said, "The mind of the superior man is conversant with righteousness; the mind of the mean man is conversant with gain." (James Legge, 1893, p128)

Among Confucian teachings, this saying has exerted much influence upon following generations and has become a well-known phrase. It has clearly put forward the issue of righteousness and profit. Confucius believes that profit should

be subordinate to righteousness. Justice should be valued above material gains. The justice in his mind is on a par with the morality that complies with the hierarchical order. If one is in blind pursuit of personal interests, he will defy his superiors and start a rebellion, thus, disrupt rank order. Consequently, those who pursue personal gains are regarded as base men. Through the further development of subsequent Confucianists, this ideology has evolved into the concept of righteousness and profit where these two contradictory entity are in sharp contrast, i.e., either this or that.

The Master said, "When we see men of worth, we should think of equaling them; when we see men of a contrary character, we should turn inwards and examine ourselves." (James Legge, 1893, p132)

This chapter raises the issue of individual's morality. This is one of the approaches to self-cultivation, i.e., "emulate those who are better than oneself; introspect oneself regarding an unworthy person." Actually, this equals to "by learning others' merits, we correct our own faults. In the meantime, with the faults of others as a mirror, not repeating someone else's old track." This is a rational attitude, today still serves as an insightful opinion.

The Master said, "The reason why the ancients did not readily give utterance to their words, was that they feared lest their actions should not come up to them." (James Legge, 1893, p134)

Confucius constantly states that one should speak and act cautiously. One should not promise readily or declare where one stands easily. If you fail to implement your promise, then you'd break the promise made to others. Consequently, your prestige would be decreased. So Confucius said that the ancients tended to guard their tongues, let alone speak out whatever words in their mind, because they'd feel ashamed if they couldn't keep their promise. Altogether, this idea is highly advisable.

The Master said, "Fine words, an insinuating appearance, and excessive respect;-Tso Ch'iu-ming was ashamed of them. I also am ashamed of them. To conceal resentment against a person, and appear friendly with him;-Tso Ch'iu-ming was ashamed of such conduct. I also am ashamed of it." (James Legge, 1893, p138)

Confucius was averse to fine words and an insinuating countenance. He advocated integrity, open-mindedness and honesty and opposed to duplicity and inconsistency of one's outside and inside. All these conform to Confucius's basic requirements to cultivate sound personality. This ideology is still significant to a certain extent even today. And it holds strong pertinence towards those hypocrites.

The Master said, "It is all over. I have not yet seen one who could perceive his faults, and inwardly accuse himself." (James Legge, 1893, p142)

Throughout the ages, It's been often the case that some can instantly spot others' faults and shortcomings, but are blind to their own mistakes. Or, there are such men who refuse to admit their own defects even though they are conscious of them, either out of the fear of losing faces or for some other reasons. So certainly it's even more impossible for these men to accuse themselves inwardly. What's more dramatic is that there even exists such more unscrupulous men, where although it is they themselves who committed mistakes, they went so far as to lay the blame at the door of others, instead of examining themselves conscientiously. Surely these men should be classified as absolute hypocrites. Confucius said that he had not seen men who knew their distance and who could rectify upon errors.

As a matter of fact, have we seen such hypocritical people fewer in our realistic social life?

Tsze-hwa being employed on a mission to Ch'i, the disciple Zan requested grain for his mother. The Master said, "Give her a fu." Yen requested more. "Give her a yi," said the Master. Yen gave her five ping. The Master said, "When Ch'ih was proceeding to Ch'i, he had fat horses to his carriage, and wore light furs. I have heard that a superior man helps the distressed, but does not add to the wealth of the rich." (James Legge, 1893, p145)

Confucius held that "the superior man helps out the needy instead of the rich." This idea originates from the Confucian "benevolence" ideology. Confucian "affection" doctrine is not narrowly limited to caring for one's family members and friends; rather, it possesses certain universality. He also thought the recipients of the alms should be the poor instead of the rich. The material relief should be offered in such a mode as "providing timely help" instead of "adding brilliance to one's present splendor." This thought conforms to humanitarianism.

Yuan Sze being made governor of his town by the Master, he gave him nine hundred measures of grain, but Sze declined them.

The Master said, "Do not decline them. May you not give them away in the neighborhoods, hamlets, towns, and villages?" (James Legge, 1893, p148)

Treating others with "benevolence" is one of the Confucian traditions. That Confucius advocated "provided alms to the needy" manifested that he was catholic in his sympathies. This can be associated with the gist of the last chapter.

The Master said to Tsze-hsia, "Do you be a scholar after the style of the superior man, and not after that of the mean man." (James Legge, 1893, p154)

In this chapter, Confucius differentiated between "Confucian scholar" and "base scholar". He demanded that Tsze-hsia be a confucian scholar, not be a mean scholar. "Confucian scholar" refers to those with status of dignity, having a good knowledge of law and discipline rite and of ideal character. Whereas "base scholar" designates those with lowly status, having little knowledge of etiquette and of mediocre character.

The Master said, "Where the solid qualities are in excess of accomplishments, we have rusticity; where the accomplishments are in excess of the solid qualities, we have the manners of a clerk. When the accomplishments and solid qualities are equally blended, we then have the man of virtue." (James Legge, 1893, p156)

This passage is concise and comprehensive. It categorically states the proper relationship between one's plain character and his literary grace as well as the personality frame of superior man. It's highly generalized the "wen zhi"(one's simplicity and exploits) ideology of Confucius. These two categories are a unity of opposites. They are interdependent, undivided and equally important. This ideology of Confucius has undergone continuous practice of more than two thousand years. It has been constantly enriched and developed. It has greatly influenced our thought and behavior and produced profound impact on us.

The Master said, "Man is born for uprightness. If a man loses his uprightness, and yet lives, his escape from death is the effect of mere good fortune." (James Legge, 1893, p162)

"Uprightness" is the moral norm of the Confucian school and conforms with benevolence, signifying straight state of mind. It's synonymous with integrity, frankness, honesty and decency. It' in sharp contrast with hypocrisy and treachery. Naturally an honest man doesn't harbor much evil idea. However, there also exists in society some dishonest men. They are able to live and even live better. This is simply because they luckily avoid catastrophes. It doesn't indicate that their dishonesty is exemplary.

"Now the man of perfect virtue, wishing to be established himself, seeks also to establish others; wishing to be enlarged himself, he seeks also to enlarge others. "To be able to judge of others by what is nigh in ourselves;-this may be called the art of virtue."(James Legge ,1893, p165)

This doctrine is a cardinal principle to practice "benevolence". "Putting oneself in the place of another" fulfils the principle of "benevolence". These are the basic opinions of Confucius about "benevolence" and constitute an important part of Confucian thoughts. These basic social codes of ethics are still valuable today.

III. CONCLUSION

To sum up, many doctrines and lessons of "Confucian Analects" glitter brilliant ancient philosophical wisdom. They also hold practical and realistic sense in terms of directing one's proper social behaviour. Last but not least, it exerts strong positive energy and motivates us actively in today's global society.

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Qiang Xiong, aged 46, graduated from the Department of English of Peking University, is currently associate professor of English of the School of Foreign Languages of Hunan University. His research field encompasses English lexicology; British and American literature.



A Qualitative Study of EFL Teachers' Emotion Regulation Behavior in the Classroom

Ramin Akbari

Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Reza Ghafar Samar

Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Gholam Reza Kiany

Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Mohammad Tahernia

Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran

Abstract—This study aimed to explore the nature of emotion regulation behavior among EFL teachers. To this end, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 18 EFL teachers teaching general English courses in both private language institutes and public schools in Iran. All interviews, conducted in Farsi, were first transcribed and translated into English. Then, through the use of conceptual content analysis technique, the data were scrutinized for emotion regulation strategies. Overall, five main categories, namely, Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance, Teaching Context Adjustments, Attention Direction, Reappraisal, and Reactive Strategies emerged in the interviews. The emerging categories from the conceptual content analysis corresponded, to a great extent, to the Process Model of Emotion Regulation proposed by Gross (1998).

Index Terms—emotion regulation, teacher education, Gross's Process Model

I. INTRODUCTION

Interest in studying teachers has burgeoned in the discussions of mainstream education and, to a lesser extent, applied linguistics in the last few decades. Second language teacher education profession has come to the realization that teachers play a significant role in teaching contexts (Burns & Richards, 2009) and that, as Woolfolk and McCune-Nicolich (1984) put it, "... teachers make many decisions affecting the lives of students" (p. 432) and "teachers do make a difference" (p. 433). From both theory and research perspectives, tackling different teacher variables and classroom behaviors is a logical and natural corollary of such an acknowledgment.

In the meantime, the literature in both mainstream education (e.g., Day & Leitch, 2001; Hargreaves 1998a, b, 2000; Nias, 2002; Yin & Lee, 2012) and, though not notably, second language education (e.g., Aragao, 2011; Cowie, 2011; Méndez López & Fabela Cárdenas, 2014) has witnessed an increasing interest in the studies of emotions and emotional experiences in both learning and teaching contexts in recent years. This heightened interest reflects the recognition of the fact that emotions remarkably influence both students' and teachers' lives and play a crucial role in quality teaching, educational reform, and student-teacher interaction (Cross & Hong, 2012).

Teachers indeed go through a number of emotional experiences throughout their careers where they have various types of relationship with colleagues, students, parents, administrators and other individuals related to their professional lives (Cowie, 2011). Teachers get contented with their practice when course objectives are fulfilled, they experience pleasure and a sense of satisfaction when their students succeed in performing a task, they become upset and, at times, impatient when learners are not able to understand a particular issue, they get annoyed when they see instances of misconduct, and the list goes on (Sutton, 2004). However, in addition to experiencing emotions, teachers have reported that they control, manage, and even conceal their emotions in order to accomplish a certain objective (Sutton & Harper, 2009). They attempt, for instance, to calm down when they come across a problem (Capa-Aydin, Sungur, & Uzuntirya, 2009), be relaxed when parents criticize them, or be patient with annoying colleagues (Hargreaves, 2000).

Despite a recent interest in the literature regarding the role of emotions in teaching (e.g., Day & Leitch, 2001; Hargreaves, 1998a, b, 2000; Jeffrey & Woods, 1996; Kelchtermans, 1996; Lasky, 2000; Little, 1996; Nias, 2002; Schmidt, 2000; Zembylas, 2002a, b, 2003a, b), research into this area is still in its infancy in teacher education, and the EFL/ESL context is not an exception in this regard.

Moreover, from a practical point of view, most pre-service teacher education programs do not pay due attention to the interaction at play between teachers' emotions and the practice of teaching (Sutton et al., 2009). Pointing to "the disturbing neglect of the emotional dimension in the increasingly rationalized world of educational reform", Hargreaves (2000) lamented this loss along the following lines:

Educational policy and administration, and most of the educational research community pay little or no attention to the emotions. What is at stake for them are increasingly rationalized, cognitively driven and behavioral priorities of knowledge, skill, standards, targets, performance, management, planning, problem-solving, accountability, decision-making, and measurable results (p. 812).

Furthermore, with regard to L2 education, most of the few studies on emotions have dealt with the emotional side of language learning (e.g., Aragao, 2011; Méndez López & Fabela Cárdenas, 2014), not language teaching (Cowie, 2011). Along with the renewed emphasis on emotion in language learning, emotion is expected to stand on a par with its cognitive counterpart which has dominated the field for a long time. (Bown & White, 2010). To be sure, when it comes to teachers, research in this area lags far behind. Therefore, the present study seeks to unveil the nature of emotion regulation behaviors among EFL teachers by exploring the emotion regulation strategies adopted by them in the classroom.

II. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Background

Emotions have taken center stage in psychological studies only within the last twenty years and had been, to a great extent, neglected in academic circles due to the dominance of behavioristic and cognitive paradigms (Fried, 2011). Nyklíček, Vingerhoets, and Zeelenberg (2011) define emotion as “a basic phenomenon of human functioning, normally having an adaptive value enhancing our effectiveness in pursuing our goals in the broadest sense” (p. 1). Emotions are also considered by James (1984) as “adaptive behavioral and physiological response tendencies that are called forth directly by evolutionarily significant situations” (cited in Gross, 1998b, p. 272). Two prominent roles of emotions have made them quite relevant to social-psychological studies focusing on different aspects of humans’ everyday lives (Denollet, Nyklíček, & Vingerhoets, 2008), educational and professional issues being no exception. These roles have been recognized at inter-personal and intra-personal levels. At the inter-personal level, emotions function as a useful aid which let others know about one’s conditions and the goals behind particular demeanor (Frijda, 1986). At the intra-personal level, emotions are of paramount importance since they bring into light what is actually of significance to us as our life values, which functions as a key element in making sound decisions (Bechara, Damasio, & Damasio, 2000). Moreover, they assist us in managing contextual impositions (Denollet et al., 2008).

Recent conceptualizations of emotions regard them as “processes involving multiple components arising from experiential, behavioral, and physiological systems” (Sutton & Harper, 2009, p. 390). Emotion regulation, in a sense, entails making effort to either consciously or unconsciously manage or modify any of such processes (ibid). Theorizing about emotion regulation dates from almost a century ago and is rooted in analytic studies on psychological defensive strategies and the ‘stress and coping’ practice which have paved the way for current research on emotion regulation in both kids and adults (Gross, 2002). Generally speaking, it is hypothesized that emotion regulation is a key determinant of good health and effective performance (Cicchetti, Ackerman, & Izard, 1995). The educational discourse community has now come to the understanding that emotions are, undoubtedly, integral to any educational system. New insights into the nature of student and teacher emotional behaviors have been provided and, as a corollary of such realization, our understanding of how emotions can be regulated has been improved (Fried, 2011). The current scientific and intellectual inquiry into teachers’ emotion regulation “is built on the empirical results and theoretical models of the psychological research that assumes everyday emotion regulation is typically adaptive” (Sutton & Harper, 2009, p. 389). Now, for instance, it is known that emotion regulation has relationship with desirable educational results (e.g., Boekaerts, 2002; Gumora & Arsenio, 2002).

B. Definitional Issues

In spite of the development of a seemingly shared set of notions to define emotion regulation, the literature indicates that emotion regulation means different things to different people. Thompson (1994) defined emotion regulation as “the extrinsic and intrinsic processes responsible for monitoring, evaluating, and modifying emotional reactions, especially their intensive and temporal features, to accomplish one’s goals” (pp. 27–28). Based on this definition, emotion regulation entails not only the maintenance and enhancement of emotional excitement but also the inhibition and control of such experience. Moreover, since emotion regulation mostly occurs in a social context, emotion regulation involves two pathways: a) the processes which are the result of internally acquired skills to self-regulate emotions and b) the various external factors which intervene and influence one’s emotion regulation.

From a rather different perspective, Cole, Michel, & Teti (1994) define emotion regulation as “the ability to respond to the ongoing demands of experience with the range of emotions in a manner that is socially tolerable and sufficiently flexible to permit spontaneous reaction as well as the ability to delay spontaneous reactions as needed” (p. 74).

In yet another different definition, Gross (1998b) believed that emotion regulation “refers to the processes by which individuals influence which emotions they have, when they have them, and how they experience and express these emotions” (p. 275). This definition puts emphasis on self-emotion regulation and ignores regulating others’ emotions. Emotions can be automatic, for example when we are frightened by a snake and retreat from it. They can be also triggered upon reflection and consideration, such as when we get annoyed after a person tries to underestimate our potentialities (Gross, 2002).

Koole (2009) saw emotion regulation as an avoidance strategy. He enunciated his idea about emotion regulation along the following lines in which he defines emotion regulation:

... as the set of processes whereby people seek to redirect the spontaneous flow of their emotions. In a broad sense, emotion regulation refers to the set of processes whereby people manage all of their emotionally charged states, including specific emotions, affect, mood, and stress. Emotion regulation determines how easily people can leave a given emotional state. It can thus be distinguished from emotional sensitivity, which determines how easily people can enter an emotional state. (p.29).

As evident, each theoretical definition has focused on some aspects of emotion regulation that, in turn, will lead to a model which takes a slightly different angle on emotion regulation. In the following section a detailed description of some of these models will be provided.

C. *Models of Emotion Regulation*

Different models have been proposed for explaining emotion regulation. The Hot/Cool System of emotion regulation put forward by Mischel and colleagues (e.g., Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999; Mischel & Ayduk, 2004) equals regulation with “willpower”. The model uses a 2-system framework consisting of hot and cool systems to explain the nature of emotion regulation processes. The cool, “know” system (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999) is “cognitive, complex, slow, contemplative, and emotionally neutral. It consists of a network of informational “cool nodes” that are elaborately connected to each other, and which generate rational, reflective, and strategic behavior” (Sutton & Harper, 2009, p. 391). It is the very mechanism which helps individuals to remain calm in the face of intensive emotional disturbances. By contrast, the hot, emotional “go” system “is specialized for quick emotional processing and responding on the basis of unconditional or conditional trigger features” (Metcalfe & Mischel, 1999, p. 4). In other words, the hot system is in charge when quick and simple processing of emotion is required. The hot system is composed of hot “spots” which emerge and develop in the initial stages of life, and in the early childhood the hot system indeed predominates. The hot system is negatively correlated with age and it gives way to the cool system when individuals reach adulthood. That is to say, the cool system becomes more and more sophisticated after infancy to the effect that the number of cool “nodes” corresponding to the hot “spots” soar dramatically. Sutton and Harper (2009) extended this dual system to teaching along the following lines:

According to this model teachers who successfully regulate their emotions change the “hot” representation of the immediate situation to a cool one by ignoring the stimulus (e.g., ignoring mild misbehavior of students), distracting themselves (e.g., thinking of a serene place when trying not to laugh at a student’s inappropriate joke), or reframing the meaning of the stimulus (e.g. reminding oneself not to take students’ misbehavior personally). At high levels of stress, the cool system becomes dysfunctional, leaving the hot system to dominate cognitive processing making emotion regulation difficult. Teachers working in particularly stressful environments may have more hot spot dominance than teachers working in less stressful environments (p. 391).

Based on this model, teachers’ work experiences can have a crucial role in how successful they could be in handling emotional situations. By the accumulation of work experience, teachers would be able to develop more cool nodes and as a result their behaviors would be more dominated by the cool system. By contrast, less experienced teachers more often than not undergo higher levels of stress and anxiety and consequently are less prone to make use of the cool system when they experience emotional trajectories (Sutton, 2004).

Another model of emotion regulation which has been put forth by Baumeister and colleagues (e.g., Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven, & Tice, 1998; Schmeichel & Baumesiter, 2004) is called the Resource or Strength Model. This model is based on the idea that self-regulation in general and emotion regulation in particular “takes energy or inner resources but that self-regulatory strength is a limited resource” (Sutton & Harper, 2009, p. 392). It is believed that the employment of more emotion regulation strategies can whittle away the regulatory resources available to a person making it gradually more difficult to be effective when trying to regulate emotional behaviors (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007). Some relevant questions are raised here in this regard. How would it be possible for teachers to avoid the depletion of resources? What factors might help teachers in order to restore strength? While interacting with students, colleagues, parents, and other school staff, teachers are always engaged in emotion regulation and as a consequence they inevitably have to tap into their regulatory resources. While resting is said to be a first physiological solution (Sutton & Harper, 2009), research studies on the strength or resource model point to the fact that motivation can positively contribute to the revitalization of the eroded resources (Muraven & Slessareva, 2003). Therefore, the implication for the teaching profession is that “teachers who are sufficiently motivated may be able to overcome their depleted self-control resources and successfully regulate their emotions even in taxing situations” (Sutton & Harper, 2009, p. 392).

Gross (1998b) proposed a more complex, elaborate and process-oriented model of emotion regulation (Fig. 1). He has elaborated on five emotion regulatory processes including: situation selection, situation modification, attention deployment, cognitive change, and response modulation. These five emotion regulation processes have been integrated into a model called the Process Model of Emotion Regulation (see Figure 2.3.). The theoretical philosophy behind the model is that emotions are complicated mechanisms that mature with the passage of time and that regulation of emotion can take place at five stages between the arousal of an emotional reaction and its manifestation (Sutton & Harper, 2009). As its point of departure, the model relies on the modal model of emotion which determines the order of the processes at work in emotion generation (Gross, 2014), each of which functions as a prospective point for emotion regulation

(Gross & Thompson, 2007). With the exception of response modulation, the rest of these processes are “preventive”, i.e., what happens before the emotional reaction is thoroughly activated. The response modulation process, by contrast, is “responsive” and includes the adjustment of behavioral and physiological emotional reactions (Gross & Munoz, 1995). Simply put, in this process model of emotion regulation, “a particular situation is selected, modified, attended to, appraised, and yields a particular set of emotional responses” (Gross, 2014, p. 8).

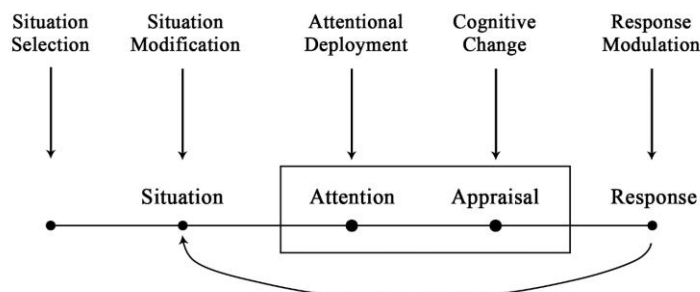


Figure 1. The Process Model of Emotion Regulation

The next preventive process or strategy of emotion regulation in this model is cognitive change which “refers to modifying how one appraises a situation so as to alter its emotional significance, either by changing how one thinks about the situation or about one’s capacity to manage the demand it poses” (Gross, 2014, p. 10). Cognitive change may be employed to enhance the emotional arousal, to decline it, or even to transform the nature of the emotion itself (Gross, 2002). Resorting to self-talk, e.g., saying to oneself, “These are just children,” is an example of a cognitive change strategy use among teachers (Sutton, et al., 2009). By contrast, response modulation emerges a posteriori, i.e., after response inclinations have been fully activated (Gross, 1998b). It “refers to influencing physiological, experiential, or behavioral responding as directly as possible (Gross & Thompson, 2007, p. 15). A classic example of response modulation includes concealing one’s distress and discomfort after failure in a test (Gross, 2002). However, the scholarship in this area is still insubstantial and more studies are needed to be conducted to increasingly enhance our knowledge of this concept in educational settings. Therefore, the present study, prompted by the rarity of research on emotion regulation in L2 education, would be a small step forward in filling the gap and shedding more light on a concept most crucial to the practice of language teaching.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

The participants who took part in this qualitative study were 18 English language teachers teaching general English courses in both private language institutes and public schools in Iran. The purposive sampling technique, in which participants with particular pre-specified criteria are chosen (Ary et al., 2010; Farhady, 1995), was used to select these participants. An attempt was made to draw a demographically diverse sample of ELT teachers by considering a variety of criteria such as teachers’ age, gender, years of teaching experience, teaching context, field of study (major), academic degree, learners’ age, and proficiency level of students. To cover a full range of characteristics, therefore, the teachers were heterogeneous in terms of these criteria.

The age range of the 18 participating teachers in this study was between 22 and 41. Of these 18 participants, nine were male and nine female. With respect to their academic degrees, eight of the teachers had a BA/BS degree, five of them had an MA/MS degree, and one a PhD degree. The number of teachers who had studied English at university was 15 in contrast to the three teachers whose field of study (major) had not been English at university. Regarding years of teaching experience, there were six novice teachers (with less than three years of teaching experience) and twelve experienced teachers (having more than three years of teaching experience). Furthermore, in terms of teaching context, 13 of the teachers taught at private language institutes while five taught at both private language institutes and public schools in Iran. They were teaching English learners from different age groups and proficiency levels. In order to make sure that the interviews would yield a multitude of teachers’ emotion regulation strategies, certain combinations of these characteristics and features were determined prior to select a diversified sample of teachers.

B. Instrument

Interview, as one of the most primary, practical, and worthwhile means of exploring a person’s thoughts, attitudes, knowledge, and feelings about a phenomenon (Groom & Littlemore, 2012), was used in this study. The interview type used in the present study was semi-structured in the sense that specific questions were asked in an informal situation from all of the participants but not necessarily in a predetermined order (Flick, 2009). The interview questions were first derived from a comprehensive review of the related literature. Then some minor modifications were made to suit the questions to ELT context. The interview was divided into two sections, namely, warm-up and main questions. A complete explanation about the development of interview questions will be proposed in the following section.

C. Procedure

First, an interview schedule was prepared by the researcher. The schedule included a set of open-ended questions to evoke response. The interview questions were divided into two parts: warm-up questions and main questions.

The warm-up questions included background questions and questions which probed into the participants' views of their personalities, their beliefs about their teacher self, and the teaching career. These 'opening' questions were used to allow the interviewees to feel comfortable about the interview context; plus they triggered lengthy responses from the interviewees (Richards, 2003) about their teaching philosophy and personality which indirectly contributed to the main topic of the interview. The main questions were related to the main topic under investigation, i.e., teacher emotions and emotion regulation. Formulating the main questions involved a thorough search of the background research on teacher emotion regulation, followed by the specification of question categories. The categories reflected the general topics of inquiry. The categories included: concerns about students, feelings before and after class, memorable events in the teaching practice, experiencing feelings of anxiety, anger, frustration etc., and the strategies used to regulate emotions. As such, the categories were formed in advance of the data collection by thoroughly reviewing the literature. Next, questions related to each category were developed to get the required information. In order to obtain reliable data, an attempt was made to devise appropriate questions based on the related literature. A substantial body of the main questions was devised by consulting Sutton (2004) who developed her interview questions based on some core questions used in some life span studies. These questions have been subsequently used in studies on emotion regulation in teachers in one way or another (e.g., Jiang, Vauras, Volet, & Wang, 2016; Arizmendi Tejada, Gillings de González, & López Martínez, 2016). Therefore, the main interview questions were a combination and modification of the interview questions employed in the above-mentioned inquiries as well as the ones developed and grouped by the researchers. The wording of the questions were in a way so that they would deal with a single point at a time while providing the necessary data. Moreover, the questions were structured and ordered in a way to boost the interviewees' motivation, interest, and willingness to respond. This is achieved by moving from general questions about the participants' general outlook on their career and its merits and demerits to more specific questions addressing the strategies that teachers usually adopted in emotional encounters in their classes. A scenario-based approach was employed by asking the participants to fully describe the emotional encounters they had experienced in their classes.

The first draft of the interview questions was reviewed by two experts and was slightly modified. Since the interviews were of a semi-structured type, different probes were used during the interview process depending on the flow of the interviews and the participants' responses (Richards, 2003). Quite in line with an underlying feature of interview research which demands that the interviewer get involved in active listening when the interview is conducted, the researcher employed a number of active listening strategies in the interviews. These strategies included the repetition of the interviewee's utterances for clarification purposes, summarizing, paraphrasing, and even remaining silent whenever necessary. In the course of preparing the interview questions and conducting the semi-structured interviews, leading and biased questions were avoided as much as possible.

After making appointments with the participants of the study, the interview was carried out by one of the researchers. The interviewees responded to 20 open-ended interview questions in a face-to-face talk between the interviewer and the respondents. The semi-structured interviews lasted from 45 to 75 minutes. The language of the interview and the setting at which the interview was conducted were adjusted in accordance with the priorities of the respondents. The language of the interview was Persian, and the interviews were carried out at either the English language institutes or schools the participants taught in. The rationale behind choosing the Persian as the language of the interview was that the participants felt more at ease with their mother tongue. The interviews were audio recorded and later on transcribed for data analysis purposes.

D. Data Analysis

In order to analyze the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews in this study, "conceptual content analysis" was used as the data analysis technique. Conceptual content analysis is "a systematic, replicable technique for compressing many words of text into fewer content categories based on explicit rules of coding" (Stemler, 2001, p. 1). During the content analysis, the heterogeneous English language teachers' responses to the interview questions were systematically checked for identifying their textual-thematic features using two coding techniques: descriptive and In Vivo. Descriptive coding "summarizes in a word or short phrase – most often as a noun – the basic topic of a passage of qualitative data" (Saldana, 2015, p. 70). On the other hand, In Vivo coding is the actual word or phrase mentioned by a participant in the recorded data (ibid). In the next step of the analysis, categories were created and labeled – a step considered as the core feature of qualitative content analysis. A category refers to a group of content that shares a commonality (Krippendorff, 2004) and often includes a number of sub-categories. An example of descriptive and In Vivo coding and their related categories based on the content analysis of the data are as follows:

TABLE 1
AN EXAMPLE OF AN INITIAL (FIRST CYCLE) & FINAL (SECOND CYCLE) CODING FRAMEWORK

<i>Interview transcript</i>	<i>Initial coding framework</i>	<i>Final coding framework</i>
<i>Teacher: I get along well with female students, however I prefer boys' classes because they are really lively and active in the class.</i>	LEARNERS' GENDER (Descriptive Coding)	Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance
<i>Teacher: Before the class I always think of the teaching aids and materials I need to take to class and use in that session. And if there is something wrong or they are not ready I have to think of an alternative solution.</i>	ANOTHER TOOL (In Vivo Coding)	Situation Modification

This qualitative analysis technique helped to discover the underlying patterns built into the participants' responses and thus provided evidence of the strategies for regulating emotions by English language teaching (ELT) teachers.

At the same time, to check the inter-rater reliability of the qualitative content analysis, i.e., coding and category creation/labeling, a colleague familiar with the research analytic framework, was asked to re-inspect 25% of all the transcribed data. This reexamination has been considered a helpful procedure to obtain more reliable results and findings (Gass & Mackey, 2000). The results of this second round of content analysis showed 91% of consistency between the researcher's analyses and those of the outside examiner.

All interviews, conducted in Persian, were first transcribed and translated into English by one of the researchers. Then, a professional translator thoroughly checked 20 percent of the translated interviews to confirm accuracy.

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The interview transcripts were carefully scrutinized for strategies adopted by the participants to regulate their emotions. Although some categories had been already identified in the literature, care was taken not to confine the analyses just to those suggested categories. In other words, to discern the strategies utilized by ELT teachers to regulate their emotions in the class, an inductive data-driven approach was applied. The following is a detailed description of those strategies.

A. Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance

The most salient point that almost all participants of the study referred to was the fact that they preferred some teaching contexts over others in order to be emotionally more responsive and effective in their classes. While admitting that they were not usually given a choice as to which teaching contexts they preferred, some teachers mentioned that, if possible, they preferred to keep their distance from some teaching contexts. In the interviews they enumerated a number of factors they deemed highly important in their efficacy to regulate their emotions. One determining factor which was frequently referred to in the interviews was the age group of the learners. In the following extract, Teacher 4 (T 4)¹ displays her preference to avoid a certain age group, namely kids:

Extract 1

Teacher 4 (T4): Considering that I'm in my late 30s, I don't think I can teach kids' classes and if given a choice I prefer to steer clear of them. I also don't like to teach those classes in which students are just radiating negative energy.

Another factor which some teachers referred to with regard to teaching context preference was the students' gender. Some teachers found themselves emotionally more at ease with the students from one gender rather than the other. When asked why she preferred to teach male students, T 15 explained that they tended to be more lively compared to their female counterparts who are generally more lethargic in the class:

Extract 2

Teacher 15 (T15): I get along well with female students, however I prefer boys' classes because they are really lively and active in the class. Nobody's feeling sleepy. They display a lot of exuberance. I feel I can teach them better compared to female students; there is a feeling of lethargy in girls' classes.

Still another factor which came up in the interviews related to teaching context preference was the students' proficiency level. Some teachers regarded themselves emotionally more competent to teach a certain proficiency level. A teacher, for example, said that due to level adaptation difficulties, he found himself hopelessly inadequate when he was made to teach lower level classes.

Extract 3

Teacher 11 (T11): I am at a loss in lower levels. I really find it difficult to adapt my language to these levels and this makes me frustrated in the class. So, I've talked to the Institute's supervisor and begged him to offer me upper-intermediate or advanced classes only.

A subject which also surfaced in the interviews with teachers who were teaching mainly at school was tutoring as an English teacher. As it can be seen in the following extract for T 7 being hired as a tutor to one's own school students is negative to teachers' professional image and can diminish their standing among the students.

Extract 4

Teacher 7 (T 7): I always refuse to act as an English tutor. I think it's beneath your dignity as an English teacher. I don't feel comfortable in these situations at all.

¹ To preserve the anonymity of the participants a code (1-18) was assigned to each participant.

These extracts apparently indicate that teachers obviously have a preference for the teaching contexts probably because they find themselves emotionally more capable in some teaching situations rather than others, to deal with the students. To put it another way, teachers prefer to stay in their emotional comfort zone so that they minimize the emotional labor required to put in to regulate their emotions. Therefore in anticipation of a possible emotional conflict, they select a situation which most perfectly suits them.

B. Teaching Context Adjustments

The second most frequently reported strategy was employing a set of practices to make some minor alterations to the teaching context in advance to improve the emotional atmosphere of the classroom. As an example, one of the teachers used some short inspirational videos and interesting clips related to the topic of the lesson in order to effectively combat possible boredom in his classes.

Extract 5

Teacher 8 (T 8): It's really a bad feeling when you notice that the students are bored and not paying enough attention to the class. So, I usually take some educational clips and inspirational videos to my classes. Whenever I feel that the students are beginning to get bored I play those short videos and this has proved to help them refresh. Then we continue with our lesson plan.

Another practice referred to in the interviews to refresh the class and lighten the atmosphere from time to time was playing games. This was more often reported by teachers who were teaching kids. They said that games could reenergize the students and this in turn will lead to a more positive atmosphere which is conducive to language learning and teaching.

Extract 6

Teacher 18 (T 18): When I have a class with kids, in advance I think of some games to play in the class. They become bored very quickly, and this may make you feel bad. Games will do the trick.

C. Attention Direction

Another strategy commonly utilized by the participants in anticipation of emotional encounters with the students, was directing their attention so that they would be able to adequately prevent undesirable emotions to be stirred up. The most frequently used technique in this category was turning a blind eye to a misbehavior observed in the class. For instance, referring to classroom management aspects of teaching, one teacher said that she generally decided to overlook the misbehavior of those students who could become a bit of a handful in the class instead of having a spontaneous emotional reaction.

Extract 7

Teacher 5 (T 5): Once I remember one of my students was misbehaving in the class. Seeing a student misbehaving in the class makes me angry, so I just decided to turn a blind eye to his behaving badly. And it worked. This is a strategy that I generally use and think it's effective in the majority of the cases.

D. Reappraisal Strategies

Another group of cognitive oriented strategies emerged in the interviews was when the teachers were undertaking a reappraisal of an emotional encounter. Employing these strategies, teachers could change their attitude towards a potentially annoying behavior in the class. The first strategy in this category was neutralization of possible bad feelings by considering or reconsidering the personality traits of the students at a certain age. One teacher said that on second thought and considering the age of the students he justified her misbehavior:

Extract 8

Teacher 9 (T 9): I can remember a time when one of my teenage students said something which I suppose was intended to make fun of me. I was about to strike back when I thought to myself that she is just a teen and this kind of behavior is natural at their age. Just this made me calm down.

The second strategy was to see what was happening in the class in a broader perspective. For example, as it is illustrated in the following extract, teachers sometimes blame the broader social and cultural context for the laziness and irresponsibility seen among the students in the educational system.

Extract 9

Teacher 3 (T 3): It is really demotivating and upsetting when you see that the students attend the class totally unprepared. They haven't even done the assignments they were supposed to. However, sometimes it calms me down when I asked myself whether they are to entirely blame for this highly irresponsible behavior or we need to put the blame, at least partially, on the broader educational and social context in which they have been raised and taught.

E. Reactive Strategies

Unlike the aforementioned strategies that are adopted by teachers in anticipation of a possible emotional experience, reactive strategies come into scene when a particular emotion is fully aroused. In response to deeply stirred emotions, the participants reported that they used a variety of different strategies to bottle them up or slightly dilute them. For example, one teacher said that in times of anger he might leave the class for a short while to let off some steam:

Extract 10

Teacher 12 (T 12): Just recently in one of my classes some students were goofing off and not paying any attention to the lesson. For a number of times I asked them to pay attention but all was in vain. I just started to feel angry but decided to leave the class to blow off some steam.

Other teachers reported that when they felt angry with a student's misbehavior in the class or when the students have not completed an assignment they were supposed to they would keep quiet for a while rather than giving vent to their anger. This, they believed, could make the anger drain away and help them to control their emotion in a more effective way.

Extract 11

Teacher 1 (T 1): When I get angry I tend to go quiet for a while. I usually give my students an assignment to complete and will try to sit quiet for a couple of minutes until I get over it.

Table 2 illustrates the results of the initial and final coding of the transcribed interviews:

TABLE 2
RESULTS OF THE INITIAL (FIRST CYCLE) & FINAL (SECOND CYCLE) CODING

<i>Initial coding framework</i>	<i>Final coding framework</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Learners' Gender • Learners' Age Group • Learners' Proficiency Level • Tutorial Classes 	<i>Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Alternative Materials • Playing Games 	<i>Teaching Context Adjustments</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ignoring Misbehaviors 	<i>Attention Direction</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Considering Learners' Characteristics • Considering the Broader Social Context 	<i>Reappraisal Strategies</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Leaving the Class • Keeping Quiet 	<i>Reactive Strategies</i>

In addition to being analyzed qualitatively, the transcripts were also scrutinized using quantitative methods. To do so, all strategies used by the participants were tallied. Table 3 presents the frequency of use of general and specific strategies adopted by the participants to regulate their emotions in the classroom:

TABLE 3
FREQUENCY OF USE OF STRATEGIES & SUB-STRATEGIES UTILIZED BY THE PARTICIPANTS

<i>General Strategies</i>	<i>Sub-strategies</i>	<i>Frequencies</i>	<i>Overall Frequency</i>	<i>Percentage</i>
<i>Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance</i>	<i>Learners' Gender</i>	16	43	49.43%
	<i>Learners' Age Group</i>	14		
	<i>Learners' Proficiency Level</i>	11		
	<i>Tutorial Classes</i>	2		
<i>Teaching Context Adjustments</i>	<i>Alternative Materials</i>	8	15	17.24%
	<i>Playing Games</i>	7		
<i>Attention Direction</i>	<i>Ignoring Misbehaviors</i>	9	9	10.34%
<i>Reappraisal Strategies</i>	<i>Considering Learners' Characteristics</i>	7	12	13.79%
	<i>Considering the Broader Social Context</i>	5		
<i>Reactive Strategies</i>	<i>Leaving the Class</i>	3	8	9.2%
	<i>Keep Quiet</i>	5		

As it is evident, the most frequently used strategy is Teaching Context Preference / Avoidance. It made up just under half of the total strategies used. As discussed earlier, to keep clear of the situations which might evoke negative feelings almost all teachers reported that they considered some factors such as students' gender, age, proficiency level, and etc. They simply favored some teaching contexts over others because they thought those situations were emotionally more welcoming.

Teaching Context Adjustments and Reappraisal Strategies were almost equally popular with the participants with the frequency of use of 15 and 12 respectively. While Teaching Context Adjustments is considered a contextual and external strategy adopted by teachers to make some changes to the teaching context to make it emotionally more pleasant, Reappraisal Strategies are cognitive in nature which are put in use to alleviate the conditions.

The next two strategies which were least frequently used by the participants were Attention Direction and Reactive Strategies. They each comprised approximately 10% of the total number of strategies used.

Overall, antecedent-focused strategies (namely, Teaching Context Preference or Avoidance, Teaching Context Adjustments, Attention Direction, Reappraisal Strategies) made up about 91% of the total strategies used. The remaining 9% belonged to the Reactive Strategies which were utilized after the emotion had been fully aroused.

V. CONCLUSION

This study delved into the emotional regulatory behavior of EFL teachers working at public (schools) and private (Institutes) sectors in Iran. The five general categories that emerged in the interviews were 1) Teaching Context Preference or Avoidance, 2) Teaching Context Adjustments, 3) Attention Direction, 4) Reappraisal Strategies, and 5) Reactive Strategies. The emerging categories from the conceptual content analysis were in line, to a great extent, with the model proposed by Gross (1998). In the first category, which is labeled Situation Selection in Gross's Model, teachers reported that they take students' age, gender, and proficiency level into account to choose a teaching context they deemed emotionally optimal. Some of the teachers also preferred public classes over tutorial ones. Almost all teachers showed a preference for some teaching contexts rather than others; they thought when they, against their will, had to teach in a context they did not like, they were bound to experience a particular negative feeling which could have a potentially detrimental effect on their teaching practice (performance). By choosing to be or not to be in a teaching context, teachers lessen the possibility of coming into contact with those negative feelings. Given the fact that in public sector (schools) teachers are not given any choice as to which kind of students they would like to teach, this strategy was reported more frequently among teachers working at institutes.

The second strategy, Teaching Context Adjustments, was adopted when teachers wanted to make some modifications in advance to the teaching context. This is classified as Situation Modification in Gross's model (1998). As reported in the interviews, since teachers thought some elements in teaching context might provoke a particular emotion they would not like to experience, they took the initiative ahead to make a change to the context that was to their emotional benefit. This can be taken as evidence that even when teachers have no choice over the teaching context they do not act passively. However, they become an agent of change to proactively make some necessary adjustments to the context.

Sometimes it seems teachers cannot exert any control over the contextual factors; that is, they can neither avoid nor change a particular teaching situation. Here, they apply some cognitive strategies to help them prevent experiencing some undesirable emotions. Through Attention Direction, teachers deliberately shift their attention from an element in the teaching context, mainly students' misbehavior, which might trigger an unpleasant emotion, and by applying Reappraisal Strategies they reexamine an emotionally charged event in order to change their opinion about it. These are called Attention Deployment and Cognitive Change respectively in Gross's Model. Cognitive reappraisal refers to a "form of cognitive change that involves construing a potentially emotion-eliciting situation in a way that changes its emotional impact (Gross & John, 2003, p. 349). As an antecedent-focused strategy, reappraisal happens beforehand and mediates before the emotional response tendencies have been completely aroused. By implication, cognitive reappraisal has the potential to effectively change the whole later emotional behavior, especially when employed to down-regulate negative emotion where it efficiently decreases both the behavioral and experiential elements of negative emotion (ibid).

The contextual and cognitive strategies are chosen in anticipation of a particular emotion. In other words, before an emotion is stirred, teachers proactively try to prevent it. These strategies have been labeled "preventative" or "antecedent-focused" in Gross's Model (1998). As it was previously elaborated on, in his model, the first group includes those regulatory behaviors which are preventive and occur a priori, i.e., before the full activation of an emerging emotion. Upon utilization of preventive strategies, people endeavor to adjust "how much or what type of emotion they experience before the onset of the emotion" (Sutton, 2004, p. 381).

On the other hand, Reactive Strategies come on the scene when the emotions start to run high. Instead of giving free rein to an unwanted emotion, teachers might decide to mitigate its undesirable effect by resorting to some strategies. In reaction to a misbehavior in the class, for instance, leaving the class and keeping quiet for a while might help teachers mitigate the effect of a negative feeling. The responsive strategies, referred to as "response modulation" by Gross, will be in effect when the emotion has been fully aroused. A representative form of response modulation is expressive suppression which entails impeding continuous emotional behavior (Gross, 1998b).

Any educational system is a system of emotions by default. As Hargreaves (1998a) puts it, "Emotions are at the heart of teaching" (p. 835). Therefore, exploring teacher emotion regulation in an ELT context potentially contributes to the field of teacher education. This qualitative study was just a small step to shed more light on the emotional aspects of language teaching. It is of paramount importance to see teaching in all its dimensions and complexities with the possible relationships among different teacher-related variables which highly influence teacher performance and behavior in the classroom setting.

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Ramin Akbari is an Associate Professor of TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran. He has got his PhD in TEFL from the University of Isfahan in Iran. He has published many books and articles and has presented in a lot of international conferences. His areas of interest research are teacher education and critical pedagogy.

Reza Ghafar Samar is an Associate Professor of TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran. He has got his PhD in TEFL from the University of Ottawa in Canada in 2000. He has published many books and articles and has presented in a lot of international conferences. His areas of interest research are sociolinguistics and discourse analysis.

Gholam Reza Kiany is an Associate Professor of TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran. He has got his PhD in TEFL from the University of Essex in England in 1996. He has published many books and articles and has presented in a lot of international conferences. His areas of interest are program evaluation, language assessment and research.

Mohammad Tahernia is a PhD student of TEFL at Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, Iran. His areas of interest are teacher education and research methodology.

On the Teaching Innovation of Business English Teaching: A study on Multimodal Communicative Competence of Ethnic Universities*

Chunling Geng

School of Foreign Languages, Inner Mongolia University for Nationalities, Tongliao 028000, China

Abstract—Business English teaching is attracting more and more attention and is showing unprecedented strength. But Business English teaching in colleges for nationalities is still facing many problems, which greatly hinders the improvement of Business English teaching quality and the development of Business English. Starting from the connotation of Business English, this paper reveals the common problems existing in Business English teaching, analyzes the causes and puts forward some reform measures, thus cultivating comprehensive Business English graduates for the society.

Index Terms—teaching innovation, Business English, teaching

I. INTRODUCTION

The world economy is open to each other and economic activities are becoming more and more frequent. Nowadays, business English talents should have the ability to combine English language and business activities. The education of English majors is not just a simple combination of "business" and "English". With the globalization of the economy, the demand for English talents in the society has been diversified. The rapid development of the Internet technology and the increase in economic activities requires a large number of applied business talents Business English talents, a kind of applied compound talents, are urgently needed. The former single foreign language majors and the basic skills can not meet the needs of the market economy. The current economic development needs is the application of innovative business English talents.

With the global economic integration and the development of regional economy, the importance of College English teaching to regional economic development has become increasingly prominent. English talents, who have both the combination of culture and regional economy and the profound knowledge in a particular field as well as the good foreign language ability of application oriented foreign language talents has become the focus of the whole world.

II. BUSINESS ENGLISH

Business English, which is a branch of English for Specific Purpose (ESP), is a comprehensive interdisciplinary subject based on linguistics and applied linguistics (Wenzhong Zhu, 2010). Business English is not a simple addition of business and English, but an organic integration of Business and English. It is the inevitable product of economic globalization. Its subject characteristics are influenced by linguistics and some other subjects. In addition to sticking to the characteristics of "quality of the English language", Business English majors should also highlight the characteristics of "Business". (Chuan, Peng Wenzhong Zhu, 2011) It can be said that Business English is a comprehensive subject, which is based on linguistics and absorbs other research methods. The business English teaching has become a new field of study. Business English consists of three elements: business background knowledge; the language used in business context; business communication skills. The content of the business background determines that the emphasis of learning business English lies not only in English language learning, but also in the use of English to communicate with foreign business activities. The talents of Business English not only have outstanding skills in English major, but also have a good knowledge of business activities.

A. Syllabus Design of Business English

As a new subject in our country, the Business English syllabus includes three modules: language knowledge, business knowledge and humanistic knowledge. The Higher Education Department of the Ministry of education of the People's Republic of China requires that the talents of higher education should be based on "serving the regional economy and social development". Therefore, business English talents in higher education should be combined with local economic characteristics, set up the regional economic and cultural development, supply service for the market demand. This combination of courses is mainly provided reference to other countries' business English courses, English

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majors and trade professional courses combined, the prerequisite of the follow-up and lack of full understanding, regardless of context. The contents of professional courses are repeated, and the proportion between theory and practice is not scientific. Some schools pay more attention to Business English theories, and think little of practice (Fenghua Kong, 2009).

According to the local industrial structure and industrial development needs, colleges and universities should set up the formation of a new training mode for modern business English talents, based on the local culture, cultivate practical business talents, who can adapt to regional economic development needs and demands of the global economic integration. Business English education should strengthen professional construction, optimize the curriculum system, reform teaching contents, the establishment of a new type of business ability of foreign language talents training mode, focus on the cultivation of professional and technical proficiency, and be able to successfully carry out cultural exchanges of professional talents; make full use of regional resources to carry out cooperation projects, industrial structure and regional economy to technology link construction and regional economy is closely related to the professional characteristics, promote the coordinated development of the region, to better serve the regional economy.

In the past, the foreign language talents who are fluent in language and empty in their minds have been unable to meet the needs of the society. The modern society needs a wide range of knowledge and broad vision of foreign language talents. Colleges should breaking the professional barriers and set up general education courses. The implementation of general education should be closely integrated with professional education in order to promote professional education. At the same time, the content based foreign language education will enrich students' foreign language proficiency. Foreign language talents training in minority regions should be guided by market demand, reflect the culture characteristics of "direction, flexibility, scalability", according to the training objectives and specifications. Nowadays, many colleges and universities set up business English courses, only in the use of traditional professional English curriculum model, adding a number of economic, management, foreign trade courses. This kind of curriculum has serious deficiencies in the training of business practice ability, affecting the development of students' career. English courses and business courses do not have a good combination; there is a deviation and disconnection. This makes the training of talented people have a certain bias, part of the bias in the language of basic knowledge and skills, part of the bias in the knowledge of business disciplines, there is no combination of them. The unreasonable curriculum makes the training goal of business English can not be fully realized.

As the basic unit of teaching, the scientific nature of syllabus system and the advancement of teaching content are directly related to the development of curriculum construction. The construction and development of the course can be divided into the construction of the curriculum system and the reform of the teaching content, the use of teaching methods and means, the establishment of the test model, the practice teaching of the experiment and practice, etc. In order to make the development of curriculum construction work better, colleges should optimize the curriculum system, rationally allocate the credit and the number of studying hours, evaluate between compulsory course and elective course proportion.

Students should develop into a new type of foreign language talents who are proficient in English and have a systematic grasp of business technology according to the syllabus. The situation and the creation of business English from the current school curriculum can be divided into two major courses, the first one is the business background of English reading, writing and translating, listening and speaking course, such as: International Finance, International Business English, international trade English reading, English business letters, business English translation, business English communication and so on. The second one is the main course, the professional direction of international trade such as: investment, international finance, international commercial law, international trade practice, international marketing, negotiation and communication, marketing, economics, business, marketing and public relations skills, human resources management and practice etc. These courses can ensure that the students can meet the requirements of a complex talent through the systematic study of English skills and business skills. As for the students' comprehensive quality, colleges should pay attention to the integrity and systematization of each course content, but also make great efforts to solve the problem of repetition.

B. Business English Teaching Staff

At present, most of the business English teachers in China are pure language majors, proficient in English language, who are lack of business knowledge, which makes core problem of business English can not be very good grasp. After a simple training, the teaching of business English courses, the lack of practical experience and professional knowledge, both the lack of international vision, but also the lack of business knowledge. In the teaching of professional knowledge, the attitude of avoidance, professional knowledge is not clear, lack of accuracy (Yanling Tang, 2010). Do not understand the special meaning of vocabulary in Business English and explain only word for word and sentence for sentence translation, even business will have special meanings of the words as ordinary words. In the aspect of practice teaching, because of the lack of practical training and practical experience, it is impossible for the teachers to carry out targeted guidance. In the teaching process, the number of teachers who can teach business English courses in English is not enough, which can not meet the requirements of the increasingly fierce competition of economic globalization. This has become an important bottleneck restricting the development of business English in China. Business English is a comprehensive discipline, involving a wide range, covering business management, marketing, e-commerce, hotel and catering business background knowledge, which requires the business English teachers, should have certain experience.

Teachers must update their professional knowledge in real time, and achieve the goal of general education in the cultivation of intercultural communicative competence, the promotion of humanistic quality and the development of mind. At the same time, we should develop the personal characteristics in the subject foreign language ability. Teachers should constantly improve the ability in teaching research, and their education, teaching skills and teaching methods should be applied to more modern business English teaching practice, summed up the experience in the practice of teaching. In order to meet the needs of cultivating internationalized talents, teachers play an important role in the process of establishing a three-dimensional curriculum system. This not only puts forward higher requirements for teachers' knowledge structure and professional quality, but also poses a challenge to teachers' teaching ability.

Teachers should be encouraged to carry out researches and practices to improve their practical ability of business English so as to meet the needs of Business English teaching. Teachers should also actively participate in the training and learning outside the campus, some teachers should strive to get the foreign trade related to the senior vocational qualification certificate, become qualified teachers. Again, the modern education has put forward higher requirements for teachers, who need to keep learning, update professional knowledge and skills, to ensure that the structure of knowledge system and their ability to adapt to the needs of modern education reform.

C. *Textbook Construction*

The quality of textbook will greatly affect the level of curriculum, which is the core of curriculum construction, and is the important guarantee of teaching procedure. Textbook construction is an effective tool for teaching practice, good language teaching materials should be able to be used in different ways by different learners, and for teachers' teaching practice to play a certain role in their initiative and creative space (Xuemei Zhang, 2001). Therefore, selection of appropriate business English textbooks is an important link of cultivating excellent talents. The writing of business English textbooks must be based on the needs of learners. Specifically, the teaching materials should pay attention not only to provide students with practical knowledge of the English language, but also pay attention to and closely combined with the business knowledge, so that students can apply their knowledge in the days after the professional positions. So, in the selection of teaching materials should be selected with the international standards of practical teaching materials, and professional teachers in the course of the lecture, also need to invest a lot of time and energy to prepare for the needs of students and teaching materials. The teaching materials are in accordance with the needs of the real communication and can provide the real communication environment.

The teaching of business English major is the process of cultivating the compound talents. The connotation of business English is "discipline construction and development direction of business + skill" as the characteristics of the practical, occupation type; to establish employment oriented, professional skills as the focus, from the actual situation of students, the teaching mode of training; develop team spirit, focus on training objectives, continuous reform and innovation the teaching management and student management.

The compound talents of business English are versatile talents, which are characterized by the ability to carry out business activities in the field of international business communication. Colleges and universities to adapt to the market and the trend of social development, the establishment of the professional teaching, to cultivate applied talents for the development of our socialist market economy, the characteristics of the decision for everyone to improve their overall quality, it is necessary to expand the personal knowledge. Through the optimization of curriculum and the construction of excellent teachers, colleges can achieve the goal of personnel training. For a long time, China's higher education is the main function of cultivating advanced talents, and is based on the prediction of all walks of life in the social and economic development of specialized personnel to determine the number of admissions for various professional categories, the school for students of professional education in accordance with the professional direction, the basic pattern after graduation to let them according to the professional direction of "employment" as the operation of the university. However, the direction of talents training in Colleges and universities is to serve the society, which is regulated by the market demand, which requires colleges and universities to recognize the situation, change the mode of education and training, and make the best of it as soon as possible.

D. *Innovation in Business English Teaching*

To make full use of computer network and multimedia learning platform of modern information technology, to improve the teaching effect, we should actively explore and try new teaching mode to cultivate students' autonomous learning ability, practical ability and innovation ability (Huaimin Chen, 2009). The classroom teaching of business English courses should be student-centered, teacher led, pay attention to the cultivation of students' learning ability, research ability, problem solving ability, so that is conducive to the cultivation of teaching methods and mode of the practical ability of the students can choose. Such as multimedia teaching method, case teaching method, situational teaching method, etc. In the teaching process, teachers should adhere to the improvement of teaching methods, pay attention to carry out the task as the center, to carry out various forms of teaching activities, and fully mobilize the enthusiasm of students, stimulate students' interest in the whole process, to maximize students' participation in learning. The basic fabric of a Business English course should be tasks, which caters to the task-based teaching approach fairly well (Chunling Geng, 2014).

Multimedia teaching has many merits. Through the multimedia teaching, teachers can give students more information, enrich the teaching material, saving time writing teachers in class, greatly improve the efficiency of the classroom and

enlarge the classroom capacity. Second, they can create similar teaching environment. Multimedia network teaching is a teaching method which integrates image, audio, video and text. This method is to create a learning environment for learners to make the students to actively carry out the activities of thinking and improve the practice of business English. Third, the use of the multimedia courseware, comprehensive text, images, animation, audio and video materials, the traditional teaching mode becomes lively and vivid, inspiring, stimulate students' interest in learning, and improve learning efficiency.

Case teaching method and situational teaching method can be used in class. Both are helpful to cultivate students' initiative and enable students to participate in class discussion. The real case teaching content from companies, teachers can visually and vividly show students, from teacher centered traditional teaching ways, converted to led by the teacher, the student as the main body, can greatly stimulate students' learning initiative.

Teaching modes mentioned above should adjust teaching methods according to the training objectives. Through different teaching methods, teachers can fully mobilize the enthusiasm and initiative of students to enhance the teaching effect. The teacher should adopt the open teaching, make the student become the leading person, play the main role in the classroom, and the teacher's role is to ensure that the teaching activity is carried out smoothly and orderly, play the role of the organizer, the controller. Teachers will be teaching process and teaching content to students, mobilize students to actively participate in the teaching process, cultivate students' critical thinking and improve their abilities.

E. Teaching in Practice

Compared with the traditional English teaching, it emphasizes the effectiveness of using the target language communication, that is, the accuracy, appropriateness and fluency of communication. Therefore, in practice we should put the business skills training in a prominent position. Practical teaching is of great importance in Business English teaching. Business English practice teaching is to enable students to apply their knowledge, to better meet the needs of society, so the practice teaching has any theoretical teaching cannot be replaced by. Business English teaching is a kind of ability education, which is an organic combination of English and business knowledge.

The training of applied talents should be put in the first place as far as the practice of business English teaching is concerned. So based on traditional teaching methods and means, teachers should strengthen the students' language practice in order to cultivate the ability of combining theory with practice, in the process of business English talents training; we should train the students' professional application ability. If you do not have the opportunity to practice on the post, you can actively carry out simulation training in the school, through the simulation of practical training to train students' practical ability, organizational communication ability, and practical ability. Strengthen practice teaching. At the same time, strengthen cooperation between schools and enterprises to build a training base. The communicative approach holds that language is a communicative tool and can be used only in communicative practice (H. G. Widdowson, 1978). There still exists a problem in the current business English teaching, that is the lack of practice. The teachers in Business English classroom still spend a lot of time imparting the knowledge of communication practice in class. So the students will be difficult to carry out the practical activities and carry out effective business communication. Colleges can not achieve the training of compound and applied talents in Business English.

Teachers should strengthen the teaching practice; focus on the cultivation of students' innovation and practical ability, to create a good learning atmosphere, interesting. The students can be divided into several groups, guide students to collaborate on the classroom and extracurricular English practice tasks. At the same time, colleges ought to gradually create opportunities for students to practice, and conduct business English practice activities, and each part of the practice should formulate the corresponding implementation plan. The school should actively open classrooms for business English practice teaching, but also should actively contact with outside enterprises, set up practice base for students, let the student have enough exercise platform and training opportunities, to ensure the smooth completion of school practice. In order to make graduates meet the requirement of market economy after graduation, teachers should pay attention to combining theory with practice, and make students actively participate practices both in school and out of school, strengthen students' business English practical abilities, with the practice teaching hours no less than fifty percent of the total hours of teaching activities. The practices include inside and outside the classroom language practices, also includes the production of foreign trade documents, foreign trade business process simulation training and other business practices and business negotiation and other projects, scenario design comprehensive training.

Besides, practice activities should be included in the assessment of students' achievements, establish a more comprehensive student evaluation mechanism. Examination is only one of the methods to assess the students, and more assesses should be conducted according to the completion of the business English practice tasks and the results of projects of the students.

Practice teaching can improve students' comprehensive quality and cultivate students' innovative spirit and practical ability, so that any theory teaching practice teaching has an irreplaceable role, is an important guarantee to complete the task of teaching, and students to an important warm-up before work. Therefore, we should attach great importance to the practical teaching of experiment and practice. To mobilize social forces, strengthen the construction of practice base, to vigorously carry out the reform and practice of teaching content and teaching method, teaching design, comprehensive research, experiment, guide and encourage students to participate in scientific research activities, carrying out research-based teaching, improve students' practical ability, innovation ability and entrepreneurial ability.

III. CONCLUSION

Business talents in the development of modern society requires higher and higher business skills, so business English teaching should keep pace with the times, constantly deepen the reform, adjust and perfect the curriculum setting, consolidate and improve the construction of teachers, to promote business English teaching materials for the development of the times, strengthen the practice teaching, and according to the social development and constantly explore and improve, cultivate more can understand basic professional knowledge and skills, and good English communication ability of high-quality business English talents, to better serve the sound development of the world.

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- [8] Zhu Wenzhong. (2010). The Context, Characteristics and Aging Analysis of Business English Teaching Model. *Journal of Guangdong University of Foreign Studies*, 7, 22-27.

Chunling Geng was born in Inner Mongolia, China in 1982. She received her Master degree in Arts from Inner Mongolia University for Nationalities, China, in 2008.

She is now a member of the School of Foreign Languages in Inner Mongolia University for Nationalities. Her research interests include Business English and Cross-cultural communication.

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