Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

What is EAP? — From Multiple Literacies to a Humanistic Paradigm Shift[*]

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Abstract—**EAP researchers have proffered definitions of EAP; however, some of these are contradictory. Therefore, effectively defining the scope, aims, and pedagogy of EAP can prove problematic. This essay will extract the shared aspects from popular EAP approaches and then place them into the broader context of EAP development, language teaching and literacy history, and the changing history of the educational landscape. This will make it possible to thematise current EAP theories critically, to further defined the nature of EAP as a combination of multiple literacies, including academic literacy, disciplinary cultural literacy, critical literacy, and digital literacy. Without opportunities to experience the research process directly, the multiple literacies of EAP remain in the domain of classroom knowledge, failing to include preparation for the realities students will encounter when doing research. However, if EAP students, future academics, are well equipped with techniques for doing research and writing papers, but perform research to benefit themselves only, who will speak out for the needs of society? Therefore, in a Neo-liberalism influenced higher education society, EAP should not only be viewed as a utility but should stress the humanistic goals of academic research and the moral responsibilities of those who become academics. Current study suggests a theoretical and pedagogical shift bending towards humanistic EAP.**

Index Terms—**EAP, English for academic purposes, multiple literacies, humanistic paradigm shift**

I. INTRODUCTION

Since its development as a variant of ESP, EAP has been influenced by the language theories of general language teaching and literacy movements. However, its concepts and approaches can, at times, appear too diverse for learners and practitioners to identify. This literature review aims to extract shared features of popular EAP approaches to then locate them into the broader context of EAP development, language teaching and literacy history, and the changing history of the educational landscape. It will also critically thematise current EAP theories and aims, in order to examine the nature of EAP's multiple literacies further, which include academic literacy, disciplinary cultural literacy, critical literacy and digital literacy.

II. PROFFERED DEFINITIONS OF EAP

Theories in the field of EAP are chaotic, not only because there are (1) quarrels over defining EAP, (2) battles between schools, (3) mixed use of jargon, and (4) debate over instructions, but also because a wide range of concepts have been associated with EAP. In addition to ELT theories, it has, since its creation, been influenced by diverse theories, including: "linguistics, applied linguistics, sociolinguistics, communicative language teaching, writing across the curriculum, learning theories" (Benesch, 2008, p.4), register analysis, genre analysis, systematic functional linguistics, writing in discipline (WID), American second-language composition, critical theory, and new literacies (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987; Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001; Chazal, 2014).

In terms of the problems encountered when defining EAP, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998, p.34) define EAP as "any English teaching that relates to a study purpose". Meanwhile, Gillett (2004, p.11) describes EAP as "the language and associated skills that students need to undertake study in higher education through the medium of English". It has also been defined as having "the aim of assisting learners' study or research in that language" (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001, p.8). Considering all these definitions inadequate, Hyland (2006, p.2) characterised EAP as a "specialised English language teaching grounded in the social, cognitive and linguistics demands of academic target situations, providing focused instruction informed by an understanding of texts and constraints of academic contexts." However, this interpretation fails to satisfy Gunning (2009, p.16), who argues "all tertiary English education should fall under the rubric of ESP/EAP". Sometime later, Hadley (2015, p.23) described EAP as "tertiary level English instructional training that enables learners to improve their language proficiency within higher educational institutions, irrespective of the

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country within which that instruction takes place". The literature review portion of this study aims to reorganise the definitions of EAP listed, whilst also recognising that they are not exhaustive, as EAP researchers rarely agree.

In terms of the arguments that have arisen between schools, some EAP concepts completely contradict others. For example, Benesch (2008, p.60) signposted critical EAP as the protection of the "interests of greater equity and democratic participation (of students) in and out of educational institutions", arguing that without criticality the EAP teachers practiced would be diminished: "EAP is at the point in history where it is ready to consider its ethics… Are they (EAP teachers) to be trainers, carrying out target aims uncritically, or educators… imaging students a more just world?" (Benesch, 2008, p.130). However, this view was later challenged by Deane and O'Neil (2011, p.32), who suggest that, "WID, from this perspective (of critical EAP), be critiqued as being naïve, or even as complicit in disciplinary power and dominance and in silencing alternative voices and ways of doing… but we argue that they may be misplaced."

Arising from the mixed use of jargon associated with EAP, is the term academic literacies. The terminologies 'EAP' and 'academic literacies' have been used interchangeably, and sometimes to refer to different concepts, as a result of the plethora of contributions from researchers with different backgrounds and standpoints, as evidenced in the following examples. (1) In New Zealand and Australia, McWilliams and Allan (2014) use the term 'embedding academic literacies', rather than EAP, to refer to approached towards training students in academic English; (2) Wingate and Tribble (2012) and Lillis and Scott (2007) separate EAP and academic literacies, using the former in reference to text and the latter when describing practice; (3) Lea and Street (1998) consider academic literacies rather than EAP the broadest concept, claiming it brings together all other elements of academic English; (4) Hyland (2006) opines that EAP is an overall concept, and that academic literacies form only one approach. Academic literacies have been referred to as a plural form of literacy, encapsulating disciplinary socialisation and study skills (Hyland, 2006), an approach that has come under attack not only for its impracticality (Lillis, 2010) but also for its focus on ideology (Deane and O'Neil, 2011), which arises from its critical pedagogy orientation. However, it is argued that these commentators have forgotten the very nature of Lea and Street's (1999, 2000) academic literacies, which refer to any system comprising more than mere critical pedagogy approaches.

On the topic of the debate arising as a component of EAP instruction, Dudley-Evans and St John (1998) define EAP as essential to teach the four macro skills of speaking, listening, interacting, and literacy (namely reading and writing), with the addition of micro skills taught within each macro skill (e.g. being able to use discourse markers when writing), and EGAP (e.g. generic skills transferrable through disciplines). This thereby imports the concept of ESAP (the teaching of language related to a specific disciplinary discourse) (Dudley-Evans and St John, 1998). Lea and Streat (1999, 2000) introduced the notion of the significance of the critical approach and disciplinary cultural socialisation of EAP, in addition to EAP's focus on skills. Deane and O'Neill (2011), as proponents of WID (Writing in Discipline), confirm that the language related to disciplines is an appropriate skill of academic writing, similar to the view of ESAP held by Dudley-Evans and St John (1998). However, they dispute the affordance of generic skills and academic literacies. Bearing in mind the conflicts inherent in approaches to EAP instruction, Wingate (2015) suggested an integrated model of EAP, one that would absorb all the advantages derived from previous approaches. However, with the development of ICT, Wingate's integrated model appears to neglect the affordances and new meanings created by new digital ICT, which Chun (2015) further argues should be included in EAP.

III. REDEFINITION OF EAP AS MULTIPLE LITERACIES

In the absence of efforts to integrate EAP concepts and approaches, it can be difficult for learners and practitioners to decide upon what course of action to follow, particularly when the inexperienced face a 'jungle of jargon'. This section therefore extracts the common features of popular EAP approaches, before placing them into the broader contexts of EAP development, language teaching and literacy history, and the changing history of the educational landscape. Stern (1983, p.76) states that, "Knowing the historical context is helpful to an understanding of language teaching theories". This study thus aims to organise schools and strands in EAP. The following four subsections are listed under the educational trends of traditionalism, progressivism, criticalism, and digitalism, aiming to demonstrate the landscape of EAP as combining multiple literacies.

A. Under Traditionalism: Language as a System and EAP as Academic Literacy

From Ranciere's perspective, modern education underwent three theoretical stages: traditionalism, progressivism, and criticalism (cited in Biesta & Bingham, 2010). Traditionalism viewed education as the dissemination of the necessary common sense and knowledge required for people to live in society. However, this knowledge is generally regarded as authoritative and objective and not usually associated directly with learners' experiences (Biesta & Bingham, 2010). In such circumstances, from the early 20th century onwards, language was defined as and believed to be a system of structures, firstly as stated by Saussure (Stern, 1983) and later as defined by Chomsky (Kumaravadivelu, 2009), both of whom argued that "a language is a highly integrated system" (Langacker, 1972, p.18) with mutually connected and supportive structural components (Stern, 1983). By following such a systematic structure, people could "combine phonemes to form words, words to form phrases, phrases to form sentences, and sentences to form spoken or written texts" (Kumaravadivelu, 2006, p.5). From this perspective, learning a language was viewed as mastering

autonomous and objective knowledge, or codes containing meaning, as produced by writers or speakers (Stern, 1983; Hyland, 2002). Kumaravadivelu (2006) thereby categorises this spectrum of language as a system.

Such a model suggests beliefs with considerable similarity between language use across disciplines (Hutchinson and Waters, 1987), and advocates English language skills as generic and transferable (Hyland, 2006) in EAP. For example, register analysis involves teaching sentence grammar through subjects (Halliday, McIntosh, and Streven, 1964); rhetoric analysis analyses how sentences are connected into paragraphs to provide meaning (Allen and Widdowson, 1974). While the broader view of EAP purports that similar academic English strategies could usefully be taught across disciplines (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001); EGAP emphasises the need to learn general English before moving on to learn English for specific purposes (Dudley-Evan and St John, 1998), as does generic skills EAP or skill-based EAP (Lea and Street, 2000; Hyland, 2006). The enhancement of such approaches has been accompanied by an increase in the number of non-traditional and international students studying at universities in the UK and in the US (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001; Hyland, 2006). These students reportedly encounter difficulties with both the English language and the academic context, which is unfamiliar to them, thus requiring an EAP programme that delivers a range of academic skills in addition to linguistic systems.

Therefore, in general, in the context of EAP, under the guise of traditionalism, students not only learn English as a code and set of systems, but also practice generic academic skills likely to be required in order to complete assignments and dissertations at university. This description reflects Henderson and Hirst's (2007, p.26) traditional and neutral definition of academic literacy: "Academic literacy is just a set of skills that students must master in order to perform successfully as 'scholar'… its norms and conventions are considered unitary and monolithic".

B. Under Progressivism: Language as Discourse and EAP as Disciplinary Cultural Literacy

The second wave of the education model was defined by Ranciere and is cited by Biesta and Bingham (2010, p.110) as progressivism; an approach concerning the relationship between learners' private experiences and those of wider society: "the progressive orientation shares the desire to create a common body of knowledge that will enable the communication of citizens in the public sphere". Regarding acceptance of knowledge as the mode of communication between particular people in specific contexts has changed how people perceive language.

Contrary to the Chomskyan systematic structure of language, Halliday (1973) argued that language is not a fixed and autonomous code, but rather has optional meanings subject to the interlocutors present in specified contexts. The process of communication is not a process of communicating meaning-containing codes but rather the interaction of locution (literal meaning of language), illocution (connotation of language), and perlocution (anticipated results of language use in context) (Austin, 1962). Therefore, language in context not only concerns grammatical competence, but also, most importantly, sociolinguistic competence (Hymes, 1972).

A large body of evidence has identified components of textual difference between the genres in a number of different disciplines (Bracken and Oughton, 2006; Hyland, 2008, 2009). Different disciplines have also developed their own professional discourse, making it challenging for those working outside the discipline to understand (Hyland, 2006). Wingate (2015) indicates that the use of English by members of different disciplines is designed for the purposes of intra-disciplinary communication. The phenomenon of specialised knowledge for special institutions expresses Foucault's idea of discipline as discourse (1979). Kumaravadivelu (2006) categorises this spectrum of language as discourse.

As with EAP, in order to be proficient in the discourse, being able to communicate with peers requires genuine immersion and interaction (Wingate, 2015). In other words, it is necessary to become a participant member (Norton, 2003). Moreover, proficiency in disciplinary discourse not only concerns whether new members are clear about the English language's use of expert members, but also involves "an understanding of the disciplines' epistemology", "an understanding of the sociocultural context", and "a command of the conventions and norms that regulate these interactions" (Wingate, 2015, p.13).

In practice, Hyland (2006) encourages the attainment of discourse membership by learning about specificity in relation to the targeting of individual disciplines in EAP. A representative of this school of thought is disciplinary socialisation, which encourages students to adopt roles as novice members of the discourse community, members who are guided, modelled, and educated by more mature members (Lea and Street, 2000; Hyland, 2006). In addition to disciplinary socialisation, researchers also described writing in disciplines (WID) (Deane and O'Neil, 2011); genre analysis (Swale, 1990; Thompson & Diani, 2015); English for specific academic purposes (ESAP) (Dudley-Evan and St John, 1998); and the relatively narrow scope of EAP (Flowerdew and Peacock, 2001). However, Benesch (2008) has criticised such approaches for assuming an academic hierarchy of mature members with authority over the novice.

Many scholars also advocate methods requiring that membership be attained via pedagogic discourse and participation in EAP instruction. For instance, many EAP scholars insist on the authenticity of their disciplinary discourse; some having begun to use authentic research articles to teach EAP in a number of different disciplines, and others suggesting that subject teachers should join forces with language teachers to deliver specificity to the EAP class (Dudley-Evans, 2001; Deane and O'Neill, 2011; Wingate, 2015). However, this refers to discourse participation in pedagogical discourse (Woodward-Kron, 2002), and the potential results in terms of students' written work might differ from their writing in genuine mature discourse (Freedman and Adam, 1996). As Widdowson (1998, p.707-712) stated: "The classroom context serves a learning community, and the purpose of any discourse enacted therein is a pedagogic

one. So whatever pragmatic activity goes on has to lead to the internalisation of the language as a semantic resource."

These criticisms have led other schools of EAP to emerge, with regard to membership in a mature discourse (Woodward-Kron, 2002). According to Wingate (2015, p.15), students' understanding of the epistemology of the discipline should take place through "interaction between experts and novice in the relevant social situation". Recognising its usefulness, Benesch (2008, p.60) organised an EAP course for those studying anthropology, to help them become involved with and "organise themselves to create a more conducive environment for engaged learning". Similarly, Breen and Littlejohn (2000), Canagarajah (2002), and Purser (2011) all suggested increasing students' participation in learning by relating course content to their disciplines in a number of different ways, albeit with a concrete pedagogy.

A disciplinary discourse, from the perspective of Giroux and McLaren (1994), could be a subculture group, as the members of the discourse might share similar norms and forms of behaviour valued by the discourse (Hyland 2009, 2012). Moll and Arnot-Hopffer (2005, p.33) stated "Culture provided particular rules for behaviours". Thus, members of the same culture are expected to share genre, register, and language. Due to his sociological background, Hyland (2012) later added that the identity of a person is not something that proceeds from him/herself, but is instead formulated in confirmation by others, and whether a person is established as a member of a disciplinary discourse community depends on whether he/she is recognised by other members of that community. One aspect of recognition proceeds from understanding of whether the person shares a genre and language register with others.

Hyland's (2012) description of disciplinary identity is influenced by cultural literacy theory, in which identity is seen as a by-product of culture: "the development of identity is a result of interactions in social settings… how one engages with cultural symbols and tools, such as texts, how one interacts with others … (lead to) who one becomes" (Clark and Flores, 2007, p.10). Therefore, learners need to obtain knowledge about the culture of the disciplinary discourse community to which they belong or are preparing to enter; in other words, they must acquire disciplinary cultural literacy. However, as Giroux and McLaren (1994) have claimed such perspectives on culture are stereotypical and static, as all members of a culture differ, and people in different subcultural groups are likely to have overlapping memberships.

C. Under Criticalism: Language as Ideology and EAP as Critical Literacy

The third wave of the educational paradigm shift is criticalism, which derived from modernism and post-modernism (Biesta & Bingham, 2010). It exists as a critical reflection on previous traditionalism and progressivism, revealing both as creating some degree of inequality in education. Education creates hierarchies of knowledge (traditionalism) and for people (progressivism). The previous two educational models are, according to Ranciere, making "truth … to be found in the ideological and structural inequality that privilege some people and oppress others" (Biesta & Bingham, 2010, p.111). They further assert that the guiding principle of criticalism in education is the aim of unveiling the ideological obfuscation before students obtain a truth.

Simultaneous with criticalism, a critical revolution has begun in the field of language education, described as postmethod in relation to ELT (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; 2006), critical literacy (Wray, 2007), and critical discourse analysis (Hammersley, 1997). These movements, which are based on criticalism, examine language as ideology (Kumaravadivelu, 2009). Thompson (1990, p.56) describes ideology as a means to "study the ways in which meaning serves to establish and sustain relations of domination". Literally speaking, language ideology aims to examine dominance and inequality in and/or produced by language. Similarly, according to Kroskrity (2000, p.8-18), learning a language as ideology requires students to have "the perception of language and discourse that is constructed in the interests of a specific social or cultural group… (to have) varying degrees of awareness of local language ideologies."

In the domain of EAP, Lea and Street (2000) observe the dangers inherent in treating and teaching disciplinary discourse as static, and those that arise when viewing students as passive learners to be socialised (Woodward-Kron, 2002). Similarly, Ivanic (1997) uses a large body of evidence to show how learners' heritage, identity, and context can be neglected and become voiceless in the face of learning a new target discourse, and how students' heritage, identity, and personal contexts are reciprocated in their EAP learning. Furthermore, a critical component in academic literacies (Lea and Street, 2000; Wingate and Tribble, 2012), and critical EAP (Benesch, 2008) is the intent to compensate for the limitations of the previous EAP stages and to uncover the "mystifying epistemology and practices of disciplines, which may not be clear to students" (Deane and O'Neil, 2011, p.32). This can involve helping students to gain a critical understanding of their discipline (Hyland, 2006), and giving them the skills to question the academic status quo (Cherryholmes, 1998; Benesch, 2006, 2008). Because the practices and values of EAP are not innate, but are instead formed in response to sociocultural and historical factors, the tradition of a disciplinary discourse should not be deemed sacred, but should rather be subject to challenge, regardless of whether it is part of a coercive following free from disputes (Benesch, 2008).

Critical approaches in EAP are framed by Morgan and Ramanathan (2005) as critical literacy. However, Wray's (2007) definition of critical literacy makes this description more understandable. Wray (2007, p.2) argued: (1) critical literacy encourages students to investigate and question the "relationships between language and social practices that advantage some social groups over others"; (2) it admits that texts in whatever form are inseparable from "the cultural and social practices in which and by which they are constructed… the way we use language … is never neutral or value-free"; (3) critical literacy encourages students to be more willing to analyse and evaluate phenomena; and (4) it

helps students become more attuned to social justice.

The critical approach in EAP interrogates the established hierarchy, which prioritises experience and demeans newcomers (Lea and Streat, 2000). This is well reflected by Wray's (2007) first point; i.e. that the critical approach confirms EAP has arisen as a product of history and social economic development (Benesch, 2008). The second point, which urges students not to act as passive recipients of knowledge, but instead to connect with broader social realities (Chun, 2015), also addresses the third point; which describes the benefits of critical literacy to students and society as described by Wray (2007). As outlined by Benesch (2008, p.130): "EAP is at the point in history where it is ready to consider its ethics… Are they (EAP teachers) to be trainers, carrying out target aims uncritically, or educators… imaging students a more just world?" Therefore, EAP programmes should also endeavour to teach critical literacy.

However, criticalism has been criticised for a lack of pedagogy (Wingate and Tribble, 2012), it is arguably misguidedly spreading ideology (Deane and O'Neill, 2011) and twisting the true meaning of academic literacy, as students learn by participating in discourse activities (Wingate, 2015), yet it seeks to deconstruct the discourse they have yet to enter or become established within (Haque, 2007). The conceptualisation of EAP in terms of language as ideology emphasises its function in raising students' awareness of the formation of and fitting into disciplinary discourse (Norton and Toohey, 2004; Hyland, 2012). In particular, Chun (2015) notes its affordance in linking discourse and learning with a broader context and the wider world, stressing the necessity of criticalism to protect students' rights to information.

In the broader macro context, as English becomes the lingua-franca of the world (Graddol, 1997; Hyland, 2006), scholars in countries with no historical relationship to English are now commonly expected to publish in English to guarantee promotion (Hamp-Lyons, 2011). English is thereby implicitly taking over the cultural identity of its non-inner circle users, as learning English ideologically maintains learners' criticality as local-global citizens (Kumaravadivelu, 2003; 2012).

D. Under Digitalism: New Meanings of Language and EAP as Digital Literacy

Along with the popularity of ICT and mobile devices, the Internet and mobile digitalism have become ubiquitous, rendering learning portable, affordable, accessible, situated, immediate, connected, individualised, and personalised (Melhuish and Falloon, 2010). Language and language teaching have also been influenced by this. Walker (2014, p.581) states that "digital technologies are becoming part of the way that people communicate and part of the context in which language is used", resulting in a "decline in more linear approaches to reading or more reflective approaches to writing" (Dudeney, Hocky, and Pegrum, 2013, p.14).

Aside from the practical changes, meaning making in language has also been transformed by the ubiquity of digital data: (1) people now have to manage and understand language printed using electronic materials; (2) they are exposed to more written language because of the increasing volume of material available online; and (3) they can also contribute themselves to sites such as blogs and Wikipedia (Walker, 2014). Conversely, the form of language has also changed, due to the existence and structure of presentation skills, such as Powerpoint and Prezi, which require language consistent with the format of software (Walker, 2014).

In reference to the growing abundance of digital resources, Cope and Kalantzis (2009, p.175) suggested redesigning EAP pedagogies to nurture learners as "fully makers and remakers of signs and transformers of meaning" of the "multimodal discourses in textbooks, websites and classrooms" (Chun, 2015, p.29). As early as 2002, Hyland and Hamp-Lyon (2002, p.8) argued that the domain of EAP includes not only the skills for textual production, but also the ability to produce visual materials, stating: "the ability to produce and understand text-visual interrelations is now an essential component of an academic literacy, and the EAP research is to understand and detail these meanings". For example, students not only have to learn to produce the oral academic language required in the form of Powerpoint or Prezi, but also to submit assignments or ideas in the form of either an online discussion forum or e-portfolio (Walker, 2014), and using multi-media tools such as YouTube videos (Jewitt and Kress, 2010). Moreover, the widespread availability of digitalised materials and digital resources requires that EAP teachers should assist their students on how to select, manage, and understand those resources; for example this includes determining how to add links or footnotes to e-materials, how to search for materials from digital databases, and how to quote and reference e-materials (Walker, 2014). Hyland and Hamp-Lyon also failed to mention the dangers of online plagiarism, the possibility of purchasing assignments and collusion (Walker, 2014). It is critical, therefore, that EAP teachers teach students about how to use software like Turnitin and further emphasise the importance of maintaining their academic integrity in a digital world (Walker, 2014).

The aim of introducing new components to EAP pedagogy is, Cope and Kalantzis (2009) argue, to keeping abreast of methods for communicating meaning and knowledge. Indeed, Chun (2015) opines that it is essential to provide students the skills to keep well informed about the ongoing changes in academic language formation. Either way, it is necessary to level up the nature of literacy, because according to Dudeney, Hocky, and Pegrum (2013, p.16), literacy is partially "grounded in language" and partially "connected with the communication of meaning." To be specific, this involves levelling up digital literacy, which is defined by White (2015, p.24) as literacy involving "all aspects of developing the knowledge, skills, competencies, confidence … capabilities … to make use of digital technologies in a productive, creative, critical, safe, and ethical way". These features of digital literacy are consistent with what EAP policy makers suggest should be taught under the auspices of digitalism.

However, some EAP teachers are themselves lacking in the ability to use the available technology proficiently. Thus, they are obliged to learn how to (1) prepare students to study in ubiquitous technology environments, and (2) enhance their teaching using the Internet and associated technology (Walker, 2014). Some researchers dispute the supposed significance of the role of the Internet in changing the landscape of learning. For example, Bowen (2012) claims the Internet and new technology have simply added new tools for learning that are no different from those offered by paper and pens. However, it is apparent that today, generally speaking, EAP involves teaching a variety of literacies; e.g. academic literacy, disciplianry cultural literacy, critical literacy and digital literacy. Understanding EAP as communicating multiple literacies reduces the demand on readers' cognitive processing of the meaning of EAP overall, by classifying it according to its separate components.

IV. CALLING FOR A HUMANISTIC PARADIGM SHIFT IN EAP

EAP has long been viewed as a rehearsal tool for novice researchers, before their entrance proper into the arena of academic discourse. However, regardless of the fact that its focus is on knowledge (whether academic, disciplinary cultural, critical or digital literacy), the crucial aspects of how to 'do' research have been largely untouched; i.e. how to interact with research participants, how to conduct experiments, how to locate flaws within complex phenomena, how to filter arguments from different layers of bias, how to evaluate the opportunities and limitations embodied in one's own research, and how to make ethical decisions.

In other words, contemporary EAP theories fail to include preparation for the realities students will encounter when doing research. Thus, without opportunities to experience the research process directly, the multiple literacies of EAP remain in the domain of classroom knowledge. Even though scholars like Hyland (2006), and Lea and Street (2000) have recommended disciplinary socialisation be taught within EAP, from their description, their aim appears to have been merely to encourage students to interact with the discipline through reading and writing materials. However, academic research contains more than simply writing up research, considerable additional work is necessitate both before and after this step.

Being responsible academics and changing society to benefit humanity appears to describe an unspoken goal of teaching EAP. Although this might not appear to relate to current trends descried in reference to EAP literacies, in the context of China for example, it could be considered risky to teach students multiple literacies without emphasising the ethical and moral components associated with humanity. Indeed, accusations of a lack of academic ethics have previously been targeted at the academic community in China (Douglass, 2012; Beach, 2013). Historic examples from China of academic misconduct are diverse, ranging from copyright offences, to plagiarism, commissioning ghost writers, buying other people's products, faking transcripts, and faking degrees (Beach, 2013).

The problems above are exacerbated by competition. China has one of the largest populations in the world, and is home to more than 2000 tertiary institutions, with estimates suggesting that by 2020 there will be 195 million graduates surging towards the job market (Bradsher, 2013). Thus, the job market is fiercely competitive, and jobseekers with undergraduate degrees, and even postgraduate degrees are not rare. At the end of the 20th century, China's government enlarged their university enrolment rate by 470% (Jacques, 2009), leading some to doubt the quality of higher education output. These factors contribute to students having utilitarian attitudes towards education and learning (Beach, 2013). This leads to the question: If EAP students, future academics, are well equipped with techniques for doing research and writing papers, but perform research to benefit themselves only, who will speak out for the needs of society? Therefore, EAP as a tool to hone academic research is potentially beneficial to all humanity.

On a more philosophical basis, the aforementioned academic misconduct and enlarged students enrollment is a by-product of the dissemination of neoliberalism throughout higher education. Neoliberalism, sometimes termed social Darwinism, conveys the view of "see(ing) competition as the defining characteristic of human relations. It redefines citizens as consumers, whose democratic choices are best exercised by buying and selling, a process that rewards merits and punishes inefficiency" (Monbiot, 2016, n.p.). Higher education is inevitably influenced by neoliberalism (Steger and Roy, 2010), seeking to offer vocational training for students, by equipping them with cookie-cutter knowledge, so they can perform in different posts after graduation. This phenomenon is particularly apparent among low ranking universities, who use students' hopes that a degree will assist their job hunting as bait to attract student enrolments (Hadley, 2015). Therefore, it is necessary to consider that teaching students practical EAP as multiple literacies will help students with their job hunting, and that this is perhaps the logic of the most EAP theories producers.

In humanism, knowledge resulting from the human experience multiplies sensitivity, the latter meaning the reflection and realisation of experience (Harari, 2016). Human experience counts as the foundation of learning: "learning is facilitated when the learner participates in the learning process responsibly. When the learner choose their goals, discovers learning resources, formulates problems, decides on a course of action, and lives with the consequences of each of these choices, then significant learning occurs" (Rogers, 1969, p.157-164, cited in Gould, 2012, p.83). Thus, humanistic philosopher Carl Rogers (1995) pointed out that universities pay too much attention to rational knowledge delivered by professors or other disciplinary experts, often ignoring the significance of students' authentic experience and reflections upon learning. Without such processes, in Rogers et al' words (1989), the self-actualisation of students' potentiality cannot be guaranteed. An important characteristic of researchers being self-actualised is an active concern for the "welfare of humanity" (Maslow, 1967, cited in Nolen-Hoeksema et al., 2009, p.487). Just as those who use their

academic knowledge to produce fake essays and those who used their academic writing skills to get paid as "ghost-writers, or those who engage on other academic misconduct are not actualising themselves as true researchers and are not concerned with the welfare of humanity.

However, to date, almost all EAP pedagogy, even that stressing disciplinary socialisation, remains a classroom based method involving reading and learning from selected materials, even though the classroom environment and materials are simulating they do not guarantee the same learning effect as authentic contexts (Freedman & Adam, 1996). Furthermore, reading literature and writing up research papers is just one component of the academic research process; researchers need to either experiment, enter the field, or conduct interviews to address real world problems. Isolating students into classrooms would lead to learning without participation in students' experiences; in other words, the curriculum lacks humanity (Rogers, 1995). Echoing with calls from Grasso and Martinelli (2010), King, Miller, and Klawe (2010) report that today's professional education should not only incorporate subject knowledge, but also affordances for wider society; thus, EAP as initial training for future researchers should extend beyond the classroom and paper work.

From a linguistic perspective, Widdowson (1998) suggested students learn English through experience. English language studied in the classroom, no matter how similar to real world contexts, it is not as authentic as that acquired naturally, because the classroom environment is not localised. Classroom English teaching emphasises the semantic meaning over the pragmatic meaning of language; however, in localised or authentic contexts, people just "pay only as much attention to the language as it is necessary to make this connection and no more…for it is only when listeners connect language up to contextual conditions of one kind or another that they can do things with it" (Widdowson, 1998, p.707-709). Similarly, if students are able to learn EAP while conducting their own academic research, the research contexts and processes could then afford greater support for their writing, rendering it more purposeful.

Widdowson's (1998) opinions regarding learning English through experience echo ideas put forward by Carl Rogers (1967), the humanistic philosopher. EAP's aim has always been to prepare students for a future as academics; however, from the perspective of humanistic education, former EAP experts have failed to address the importance of students' context related experience (Rogers, 1967). In the example of China, where many students are demotivated to learn, and when academic misconduct in China is severe, EAP should not only be viewed as a utility but should stress the humanistic goals of academic research and the moral responsibilities of those who become academics.

V. Conclusion

EAP has become popularised by the acceptance of English as the global language of academia, the workplace, and higher education. Historically, EAP has, since its creation, been influenced by language theories drawn from both general language teaching and literacy movements. However, its concepts and approaches at times appear to be too diverse for learners and practitioners to identify readily which course of action to follow, particularly those who are inexperienced. This essay therefore reorganized EAP as a combination of multiple literacies, including academic literacy, disciplinary cultural literacy, critical literacy, and digital literacy. Furthermore, contemporary EAP theories including the EAP as multiple literacies fail to include preparation for the realities students will encounter when doing research. Thus, without opportunities to experience the research process directly, the multiple literacies of EAP remain in the domain of classroom knowledge. EAP as initial training for future researchers should extend beyond the classroom and paper work, and it should be concerned with the welfare of human. Therefore, this essay suggests a humanistic paradigm shift in EAP theories and pedagogies.

Acknowledgments

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Quest to Freedom: Reclaiming Individuality through Sado-Masochism in *Faggots* by Larry Kramer

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Abstract—Individuality is the quality or character of a particular person that distinguishes them from others of the same kind. In other words, it is the mark which separates its existence from the rest of the group. According to Fromm, the process of individuality begins at infancy level when the child is separated from the mother. This then takes an emotional toll on the child as he suffers from loneliness and anxiety which stem from the prior separation. The child will henceforth acquire his individuality through the process of socialization which requires constant interaction with people in his life. For this paper, we have selected a novel, *Faggots*, authored by Larry Kramer, to be the main text for our research. This article argues that the characters in the text are conflicted with feelings of anxiety and loneliness as they embark on respective quest to eradicate the feeling of loneliness by looking for a potential life partner. However, these characters go through a series of promiscuous relationships by living an active sexual lifestyle on the ground that they are in search of the "right" one. Therefore, this paper will look into the sadistic and masochistic (sometimes both; otherwise known as sadomasochistic) tendency practiced by the characters in the novel in their quest to reclaim their lost individuality. This research draws in the concept of freedom, sadism, and masochism as proposed by Erich Fromm to further consolidate the findings.

Index Terms—*Faggots*, freedom, individuality, masochism, sadism, socialization

I. INTRODUCTION

In its broadest sense, individuality is the quality or character of a particular person that distinguishes them from others of the same kind. In other words, it is the mark which separates its existence from the rest of the group. According to Fromm, individuation is a process which starts from childhood. Initially, the child believes that he and his mother are one, sharing the same body. However, after a while, he slowly notices that he is a completely separate entity, a brand new being on his own. The child perceives that the outside world and his body are separate and at this point the process of individuation starts. As a result of this process, the child gains maturity in the sense of mentality, physicality and emotion. However, there is a negative effect which derived from this process. As stated by Fromm, the process of individuation leads to the child to a state of loneliness. When the child recognizes that he is separated from others and that he is "different", he becomes aware of being his being "alone". As such, the sense of loneliness renders the child anxious and powerless. In order to overcome this loneliness and its negative feelings, the child attempts to submerge himself with outside world by interacting with other humans.

When the child submits to the process of socialization, he loses the original individuality that he initially had, due to various influences by other individuals. Therefore, one can notice that despite people are constantly in search of freedom throughout history, they ultimately choose to be with someone and remain grounded. This is because when it comes to the process of individuation, they feel alone and thus seeks to escape the freedom which brings them the negative feeling of loneliness. As Fromm mentions

The battles for freedom were fought by the oppressed, those who wanted new liberties, against those who had privileges to defend. While a class was against those who had privileges to defend. While a class was fighting for its own liberation from domination, it believes itself to be fighting for human freedom as such and thus was able to appeal to an ideal, to the longing for freedom rooted in all who are oppressed. (1942, p. 1)

As far as history can date, humans from across the world have constantly strived to attain freedom; be it personally, sexually, or even on a bigger scale, such as nation-level. On a global scale, battles are fought and blood shed – all for the purpose of gaining freedom. However, on a smaller scale, in which this case refers to individuals, they seek to renounce their "freedom", which according to Fromm, essentially means the state of being by oneself. This freedom usually leads the child to state of loneliness, whereby he will look for alternatives to eradicate the feeling through social interaction. "The individual was left alone; everything depended on his own effort" (Kariel, 1957, p. 645). Knight emphasizes that all sorts of responsibilities and problems that each individual faces alone leads to a feeling of

inadequacy, confusion, and helplessness (1942, p. 299). As a result from bearing the burden alone, it would be easier for the child to shape and mold himself to a person or character which belongs in the society. The social bonds fostered through interaction form ties which, in return will bind them from his prior quest, which is to regain his individuality. By submitting themselves, not only do they lose their individuality but also freedom. The submerging and forced attachment with other individuals can happen in various ways, and this paper will focus on the concepts sadism and masochism.

In general, sadism refers to the tendency to derive pleasure, especially sexual gratification, from inflicting pain, suffering, or humiliation on others. Sadists intend to let people to be dependent on them which, in return, gives them the power over them. In this sense, sadists might exploit, use or manipulate the other person, which sometimes leads the person to physical or mental suffering. They hurt, humiliate and embarrass the other person with their maniac treatment. By possessing power and control, a sadist feels powerful as he gains satisfaction and gratification from his devious act. As Fromm notes, "the sadist needs the person over whom he rules, he needs him very badly, since his own feeling of strength is rooted in the fact that he is the master over someone" (1942, p. 125). This then leads to the subject on the other side of the situation – who would willingly submit themselves to such torturous and humiliating act inflicted upon them?

As probed earlier in the previous line, it is the masochist who enjoys being subjected to acts of torture. Masochism generally refers to the tendency of deriving sexual gratification from one's own pain or humiliation .He sometimes inflicts pain on himself to gain the attention of others. Fromm asserts that "there are people who indulge in self-accusation and self-criticism which even their worst enemies would scarcely being against them" (p. 123). Tay and Sedehi mention that "masochism indicates the deviant behavior or psychological illness whereby one takes pleasure in suffering" (2016, p. 242). Hence, this paper intends to focus on the concepts of sadism and masochism by Eric Fromm and apply them to Larry Krammer's *Faggots*. Findings will illustrate how characters deal with one another in their quest to regain their individuality by getting involved in promiscuous relationships, which the paper argues for its sadistic and masochistic elements.

II. Conceptual Framework and Methodology

For the purpose of this study, the researchers employed a novel written by Larry Kramer entitled *Faggots* (1978). Further, the paper utilizes the concepts of sadism and masochism as proposed by Erich Fromm in his book, *Fear of Freedom* (1942), focusing on various homosexual characters in the novel in regards to their quest of regaining their individuality which they lost after the separation from their mothers. It is important to note that the relationship between a sadist and a masochist in most cases is referred to as master-slave.

Richard Von Krafft-Ebing developed the neologisms *sadism* and *masochism,* stated in 1890 that "masochism and sadism appear as the fundamental forms of psycho-sexual perversion, which may make their appearance at any point in the domain of sexual aberration" (1965, p. 217-218). According to Fromm, humans are social beings who need to be in contact with others. They do not want to be alone because individuality scares the characters; "when one has become an individual, one stands alone and faces the world in all its perilous and overpowering aspects" (Fromm, 1942, p. 24). As a result, the characters indulge themselves in a series of promiscuous relationships solely because they cannot stand the price of freedom which is the feeling of loneliness. As such, their decisions are seen as acts of sadism and masochism due to the violent nature of their relationships. It is imperative to note that one character can sometimes inhibit both tendencies and is addressed as sadomasochism. In this case, the character takes pleasure in either inflicting pain on someone else, or being the subject of torture himself. But for those who are distinctly either one or another, they develop a codependent relationship with one another because both parties need each other for the fulfillment of their twisted desire. Consequently, both the sadist and masochist lose their individuality as they submit themselves to the will of the other party. This attempt to reclaim their lost individuality proves to be ironic as it contradicts the initial motive which is to find a steady and loving relationship.

The novel is written in a fragmented manner which stylistically highlights the distorted reality for the characters in the novel. The overall plot includes a highly complicated and complex string of relationships between all characters in one way or another but one thing they share in common is that they constantly bound to a chain of miserable lifestyle due to poor decisions. This justifies the reason as to why this paper contains only several characters as the main focus for the analysis. On that note, there is one particular character who stand out above rest, which the researchers deem to be the protagonist, Fred Lemish, who also seeks his lost individuality in the story. All in all, the current article focuses on the how the characters: 1) regain their individuality by attaching themselves to people through sadomasochistic tendency; and 2) realizes that the only way they could reclaim their individuality is through self-love.

III. Analysis

The novel starts with various characters who are in promiscuous relationships. They are looking for potential relationships everywhere as their main concern is to find love. During this process, they gradually turn into characters who practice masochism and sadism, in which it becomes a habit and then a lifestyle later on. The sexual slave should keep silence and be obedient whenever the master asks him to. "Yet here Fred was, viewing the Slave on the bed. He

wondered, too, what it was like to be a Slave. The Slave remained prone and silent, up- ended, as any good slave must obviously remain" (Kramer, 2000, p. 6). Whatever the master suggests, the slave does and acts upon it without question and hesitation. Palazzolo mentions that "the desire to dominate the will of other people can be viewed as a depravity of a genuine sense of potency borne out of helplessness, powerlessness and inferiority" (2007, p. 154). This notion highly resonates with Freud's idea of projection whereby the perpetrator is projecting his own insecurity unto the partner as an outlet and coping mechanism to his own flaws. To be specific, Freud parallels masochism as a destructive dynamic that inclines towards self-destruction (ibid. 170).

At the beginning, the protagonist Fred Lemish is seen to be experimenting with his sexuality and loneliness by cruising around night clubs where people are conducting perverse sexual actions. He is simultaneously revolted and excited by the scene because of his curiosity and fear. He isolates himself from the action but continues to observe other people. He thinks that he can overcome the loneliness by mere observation but sinks into depression gradually throughout the story. This reflects his masochistic tendency in his attempt to overcome his loneliness because he suffers by not participating in the social process. As Fromm puts it:

Alienation, however, does not lead our hero out of society, but deeper into it, for he is impelled by a curiosity to known, down to the smallest detail, the corrupt world that he wishes to escape. Concealing his opposition, he takes part in the intrigue of his day with the secret aim of proving to himself, by the very falseness of his conduct, the distance that separates him from his contemporaries. (1942, p. 9)

The excerpt above stresses on the ironic effect of alienation in a sense that the curiosity of a person will eventually triumph over the physical isolation because one will always look for alternatives to be in the social circle. It sums up Fred's life as well as his decision to remain detached. He proves to be masochistic as he imposed loneliness onto himself.

For these characters, sexual intercourse is just a way for them to be together as they are scared to be alone. Even though the relationship is that of sadomasochistic nature, they do not seem to mind it because they are temporarily content with having someone to be intimate with. "I haven't sucked you out yet!" the Master/Pisser pleaded. Fred ran out of the cubicle, not listening as the Master apologized to Slave: 'it's all right, honey, I'll find you another time'" (Kramer, 2000, p. 12). They satisfy their needs and complexities by becoming as sadists and masochists. On one hand, being punished can be sexually gratifying while the other one enjoys dominating the other person. Loneliness is a constant struggle for these characters because it highlights the detachment and sorrow of the process of individuation. Therefore, the instant solution which they settle on is meaningless hookups which ultimately results in failure and disappointment. "I repeat: what love? Are you not confusing sex and love?" (Kramer, 2000, p. 29). There is no sense of love or any form of emotional bond between the characters at all. In this sense, physical intimacy is seen as an immediate release for them which highlights the severe sadomasochistic tendency in them. They deal with the inner loneliness by having promiscuous relationships which eventually grow into self-hatred. For instance, Fred says "[b]ut when I look around me, all I see is fucking, all we do is fuck. With dildos and gallows and in the bushes and on the streets" (Kramer, 2000, p. 31). Promiscuity is rampant among these gay characters as they are in search of love in various relationships, but they cannot find it anywhere.

Richard is another masochistic character which is introduced in the novel. He kidnapped himself as he needed attention from others. By inflicting pain on himself, he attracts the attention. "His own self-inflicted kidnapping" indicates how far the masochists can go when they need attention (Kramer, 2000, p. 22). Moreover, he hated his mother because of the way she treated him, but still he played the news of him being kidnapped in which the mother reports to police. He "knew he would cry when he saw his mother on the news", but still he watches it as he is a masochist and finds pleasure in torturing himself (Kramer, 2000, p. 22).

On the contrary to masochists who accept other people's order, and enjoy being tortured and enjoy the suffering, some people are sadists. They enjoy ordering others and impose suffering on them. In this novel, Fred is a sadomasochist character. Based on Fromm, "sadomasochistic love is born out of the inability to stand alone and bear solitude" (Palazzolo, 2007, p. 144). The fear of being alone, lead these characters to perverted kind of love. The true love will not hurt the other person; however, in their cases, they take pleasure by imposing pain on others. For instance, in some cases Fred shows his sadist side and in others in indicates his masochist side. When he is a sadist he thinks that he has ownership of other characters. "Fred was glorifying in the knowledge of true ownership: this Perfection is Mine! I love it!" (Kramer, 2000, p. 20). He claims that he loves those who are in relationship with him, but at the same time, he considered himself as the master. He owns those humans like a master owns a slave.

The characters are aware of their dependence on each other; however, when they have the freedom to choose, they are so petrified that it stifles them. One of the characters in the novel who is also in search of his subjectivity is Abe. "He does not know it, but the horrors he is to confront in this latest chapter of his search for Meaning, Enlightenment, Where Is the Rational?, on which the emancipated Jew so prides himself, will be such as to make him… what? A Job? A Hitler? An Abe?" (Kramer, 2000, p. 41). As indicated, his lack of self-identification in terms of his prospect in life has made him an unsure individual. He does not have a stable stance on who he is as a Jew and therefore, hulls himself into the world of promiscuous relationships whereby he sticks to the ways of the other person. In return, he gets superficial assurance of his life for once and does not have to trouble himself by the overbearing thoughts.

Similarly to Abe, Fred too, goes through a series of uncertainty in his life as an adult man. While he is described as a perfectly good looking and functional man with good physique, he struggles with his own subjectivity as well. Although he is single and looking, he cannot seem to engage himself in the social interaction with other characters. In fact, he is horrified with the world and how it has reached to such decadence in morality; thus, he is scared of exploring new things. His freedom in being an individual proves to be too extreme for him; listing out the many fears he suffers from.

1: Algonqua smothered me to death with her "Love"; 2: Lester hated me; 3: I want to be Hurt; 4: I don't want to be Hurt; 5: I want to Hurt somebody else; 6; I seek the tensions of my shitty childhood; 7: I seek as lovers only those who embody the identical responses that Algonqua and Lester, those cocked- up fronts from whence all patterns flow, programmed into me; 8: I refuse to compete in anyway with ultra- straight brother Ben; 9: I'm still trying to be accepted as "one of the boys" I never was in youth, 10: I have a bad relationship with my body and need constant re-affirmation by a bevy of parading beauties that I Am Hot… (Kramer, 2000, p. 105)

Fred lists down all the reasons in order not to search for his individuality as freedom of choice is threatening. Palazzolo states that "[i]t is a fleeing from aloneness that generates the desire to submerge the self with others and/ or with the things of the world so that we can be relieved from the unbearability of anxiety and panic that is set off by each person's sense of isolation (2007, p. 149). The characters in the novels have an intense codependency with each other because of their respective fear of being alone. Their quest in reclaiming individuality is juxtaposed with a negative lifestyle filled with social vices. As mentioned before, Fred is a masochist who takes pleasure in rejection of others and by living in denial. This is highlighted in a scene where he does not have the courage to be firm with his "boyfriend" on fixing a date night. He is constantly rejected and rescheduled, to a point where the two scarcely meet, and yet he remains stagnant where he is, content with the situation. In fact, Fred is so accustomed to this habit that he has experienced the same thing with other men previously in his life;

Recalling a night in London when a handsome French man he'd picked up in Piccadily Circus had threatened him with knives, recalling how First Love Feffer had one mysterious evening in New Orleans tried to tie him up and whip him with a belt, recalling how Feffer ever thereafter claimed Fred to be a true masochist, sending vibrations out to all the world's true sadists that he was just begging to be punished- all of these nocturnal emissions prompted Fred to immediately jump into his clothes, leave this one at the tubs. (Kramer, 2000, p. 170)

Accordingly, Fromm notes that the masochists enjoy making themselves insignificant and being belittled (1942, p. 133). The sadomasochists are extremely dependent on each other solely because of the perverted nature of their sense of self and relationship. Fred

found a thick membership directory to Inter-Chain, a world- wide organization of leather and slavery and bondage and Master- Slave with its information under Adams, D., that he was he was interested only in supervising bondage and light whipping and punishment and Master-only rites, together with twenty further copies of that photograph, his Dinky standing tall, cold, immobile, the whipping Master just waiting to be summoned to command, all in those leather items. (Kramer, 2000, p. 191)

The society is a complex mechanism, complicated with various social, political, and economic factor but one thing which persists through all societies is that – it functions on a binary plane. For as long as there is men, there will be women. For as long as there is masculinity, there will be femininity. For as long as there is wealth, there is poverty. The same applies to the twisted relationships of these gay characters in the novel – for as long as there are people who enjoy torturing, there will be people who takes pleasure in being the subject of torture. That then solidifies the codependency amongst the characters but thus, losing their individuality which they so seek for at the very beginning of the process of individuation.

Masochism can be broken down to few levels depending on the extremity of the action. Some of the more intense masochists enjoy being sexually inferior and punished physically. Paulie enjoys being punished and Timothy is gratified sexually by being harsh to Paulie as Timothy is sadist. As mentioned before, the sadist and masochist satisfy each other's needs and at the same time they lose their individuality. "Paulie said: 'I want you to punish me harder hardest hardingest!' to which young Timothy replied: 'this is the most wicked awfulest most punishing pole stick I ever seen I am going to punish you so good you will never forget it'" (Kramer, 2000, p. 232). They both enjoy punishing and being punished as their mentality works this way. Power, according to Krafft-Ebing, is one of the central defining factors of sadomasochism, more fundamental to than the pleasure-pain complex usually assigned to sadomasochistic erotics (Davis, 2012, p. 50).

Eventually, the characters realize that their constant living in denial and seeking for temporary affection prove to do more harm than good. Their codependency amongst each other has changed them into someone that they are not. Their willingness to change in the process is forged by the sense of isolation and loneliness that they felt when they were alone. As such, they rather mold their characters according to the desire of their respective partners, betraying their true self.

I've been looking, seeking, demanding, the love of Lester all my life. As if… as if… as if a dinky Lester's love would make me whole and everything all right. As if wrestling Lester's love from Dinky's stone would make everything all right. Lester would have loved me. I chose another Lester and tried to make him love me. So I could be lovable. (Kramer, 2000, p. 358)

Originally, the characters set out on a quest to find themselves, going through the process of individuation because of their fear of freedom. The solitary freedom which they had from being alone proves to be overwhelming and thus, seeking partners to fill that gap. However, it is observed repeatedly in the novel that the characters find themselves being involved in wrong relationships and ultimately ends up having a sense of loathsome and depreciation for their dignity. They do it nonetheless because of the destitution faced when being alone. Therefore, their situation can be equaled to that of a double-edged sword, for the result of their attempt is just as malicious as compared to when they were lonely. On one hand, the characters lost their individuality from the separation at birth, and on the other; they suffer loss of identity. Despite everything, they managed to come to their senses concerning their situation. They emphasize the fact that all this while they played the roles to fit in with everybody else and not being true to themselves.

At this point tears turn to anger. Anger finally arrives. How dare we have treated ourselves and each other so badly? Anger. For love unrealized. For settling for so little. For humiliation and its pleasure. For foolishness revealed. For having loved half a person. And therefore having hoped only half fully. For being putty. For cowardice and being Lester's sissy. For selfishness. For playing the petty game of dangler and dangle. For life still undefined. For lies. To self and others. For the lack of courage to be faithful. To self and love. You and Me, Dinky. We've been both the same. I fell in love with a role player, not a role model, and I've been just the same. It was my fault. (Kramer, 2000, p. 359)

They acted all this while and they did not show their true nature as they were scared their true self might scare the other person away. At this point of time, the characters sense of individuation which is "the process by which an individual emerges" (McLaughlin, 1996, p. 245). They were oblivious to the fact that being ignorant to themselves leads to self-hatred. The newfound awareness brings about another perspective of appreciation and fresh start. With much hope and conviction, they finally come to terms with their personal individuality by acknowledging their sense of worth, dignity, and self-love.

IV. CONCLUSION

To recapitulate, a child starts to undergo the process of individuation upon his realization that he is separated from his mother and that he is his own being. That is when the feeling of loneliness comes in due to the loss of attachment with his mother figure previously. As such, in order for the child to overcome the feeling of loneliness, he goes out attempting to look for similar bond which will secure his feeling again as a person – whole, as though his individuality is attained and in perfect harmony as before. In this paper, the characters go through a series of rough and unpredictable relationships; all of which possesses hints of sadism and masochism. The grotesque nature of those relationships do not seem to faze the characters as they face it boldly, claiming that it is part and parcel of "life" that they have to endure in order to regain their individuality again. However, it is observed repeatedly in the case of the characters in this paper that their quest not only proves to be futile but contradictory to the aim of their quest of identity. As the findings show, the characters ultimately learn to accept themselves as a lone being and that it is only through self-love that they get to slowly and gradually regain what was lost in the first place – their individuality.

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Integrating Thinking into L2 Learning: What do We Learn from Students' Learning Experience

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Abstract—**This study conducted a higher-order thinking approach in the L2 classroom and examined students' attitudes towards and perceptions of learning with high cognitive thinking. Teaching higher-order thinking is essential for learning and teachers are encouraged by education authorities to integrate high cognitive thinking into teaching. Yet, little is known about the extent to which students who are used to learning with lower-order thinking skills like reciting and comprehension in the L2 classroom can adapt to learning using higher-order thinking. This paper addresses this issue by exploring students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the importance of thinking in L2 learning and how it impacts on learning through the analysis of data collected from a case study design, including 40 self-completed questionnaires and semi-structured interviews with 16 students. This study shows that three-quarters of the students hold positive attitudes towards learning using higher-order thinking, and such learning facilitated their learning performance and learning behavior, while one quarter resisted. The findings of the study reflect on teaching higher-order thinking, and provide recommendations for integrating thinking skills into L2 teaching.**

Index Terms—**higher-order thinking, L2 learning, attitudes & perceptions**

I. INTRODUCTION

Teaching thinking has been strongly advocated by educators and researchers to raise educational standards and to prepare learners for lifelong learning and has become a desirable goal in higher education worldwide (Halx & Reybold, 2006). The teaching of thinking is also important in terms of cultivating learners' competitiveness in a global job market (Au, 2006), and strengthening economic growth (World Bank, 2011). Thus, it is argued that the language learning should go beyond the acquisition of basic literacy skills, and it is now essential to equip learners with the ability to think critically by integrating thinking skills into L2 teaching. A number of researchers (e.g., Atkinson, 1997) postulated that it is difficult for non-native English-speaking students, in particular, Asian students, to learn to think critically because of their collective and hierarchical cultural backgrounds where students rarely challenge what they learned from the teacher. However, empirical studies (e.g., Author, 2015; Yang & Gamble, 2013) have shown that students who possess hierarchical cultural background can be trained with activities to foster a thinking-skills approach, resulting in an enhancement of L2 proficiency and cognitive ability.

Though it has been proven that the teaching of thinking benefits L2 learners, the implementation of integrating thinking into L2 instruction has been peripheral (Li, 2011). The learning of thinking has been included in L2 curricula around the world like Taiwan (Ministry of Education, 2008). To allow this part of the curricula to be implemented more effectively in the L2 classroom, an exploration of L2 teachers' conceptions of and practice in teaching thinking shows that teacher training to develop both content and pedagogical knowledge of teaching thinking is essential (Li, 2016). In addition to an enhancement of teachers' professional knowledge of teaching thinking, the present study argues that it is also crucial to understand students' attitudes towards the learning of thinking and to what extent the teaching of thinking impacts on their learning process, so that the design of thinking-based curricula can be more effective for student learning in general. As Brown (1989) argues, to improve the effectiveness of a language program, students' learning situations and attitudes within the context involved should be taken into account. Students' attitudes affect their willingness to participate in learning activities (Fushino, 2010). Yet, there is little research reporting students' attitudes towards and perception of the role of thinking in L2 learning and to what extent the teaching of thinking affects student learning. Identifying this gap in the literature, this study attempts to make the first contribution to the comprehending students' attitudes towards and perceptions of learning thinking skills. The findings are of interest to educators and researchers interested in the teaching and learning of higher-order thinking.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Thinking Skills & L2 Learning

Thinking skills is interpreted differently by researchers. In the present study they are referred to the mental processes of knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation by Bloom (1956). Knowledge, comprehension and application are classified as lower-order thinking skills. In L2 classrooms lower-order thinking skills are fundamental and used to acquire the linguistic competence like memorizing, understanding the text and imitating (Ding, 2007). Lower-order thinking is often utilized for rote learning and answering lower-order or

comprehension-check questions which require students to recall facts, explain, and apply the vocabulary or grammar rules learned in class tests. Analysis, synthesis and evaluation are categorized as higher-order thinking (HOT) skills. This type of thinking is mainly used for active learning where students need to think critically and creatively such as reasoning, solving problems, forming concepts, considering opinions, making decisions and judgments, and generating new perspectives. It is important to note that in the process of using higher-order thinking, lower-order thinking is also operated as a pre-requisite of higher-order thinking. As Bloom (1956) suggests that value or judgment cannot be applied until one knows the facts, understand the facts, can apply the facts, is able to take the facts apart and put the facts back together. Thinking skills can be seen as a learning strategy and, importantly, it is a strategy that enhances learner autonomy (Wenden, 1991).

Thinking skills can be developed through experience, education, and training (Fisher, 1998) and taught at all levels to improve learners' achievement (Lipman, 2003). Research (Author, 2016) suggests that thinking skills can be promoted through the use of higher-order questions, sufficient wait-time, communication skills, collaboration, and social interaction (e.g., small group interaction). Vygotsky (1978) and Swain (2000) stated that social interaction is a key mechanism for cognition and language development. It allows for the occurrence of socio-cognitive conflicts (Mugny & Doise, 1978) where different perceptions arise and are readjusted and this process contributes greatly to cognitive and language development. Social interaction promotes active learning (Watson, 2001; Vygotsky, 1978), transferring, and boost self-confidence (Watson, 2000).

B.   Thinking Skills Used in Taiwanese L2 Learning Context

English is the most commonly studied foreign language in Taiwan. Yet, exposure to English use outside the language classroom is rather limited. Two main teaching approaches are commonly used in English language teaching in higher education in Taiwan, namely the Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) and the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) Approach (Liu, 2005). GTM mainly focuses on teachers explaining the grammar rules and vocabulary use and students utilizing mainly lower-order thinking skills like understanding the grammar rules, remembering the vocabulary, and applying the grammar rules and vocabulary learned in some form of test. CLT emphasizes the active communication which provides more opportunities for students to speak and use higher-order thinking skills like reasoning, solving problems and making judgments. However, it may be questioned as to whether this approach has been fully implemented in the way promised. As Coyle (2002) argues, this so-called 'communicative approach' in most L2 classrooms, with its prescribed syllabus topics based on transactional language, unintentionally promotes a reactive rather interactive role for learners. Most Taiwanese non-English major students arguably have lower motivation to learn English and higher anxiety when required to respond to teacher questions or engage in speaking activities (Liao, 2008). Nunan (2003) also points out that a lack of teacher training indicates CLT has not been fully put into operation in Taiwan. These teaching approaches mainly focus on the gain of linguistic competence and do not offer many opportunities for students to think critically and independently and to speak authentically. From a pedagogical perspective, the teaching methods applied in Taiwan provide learning opportunities mainly with lower-order thinking skills.

Taiwanese students have a collective and hierarchical cultural background where they are used to sitting quietly to listen in class, respond passively to comprehension-check questions, and practice speaking with mainly written dialogues (Liu, 2005); they tend to be inactive about L2 learning and rarely challenge what they learn from the teacher. Students' learning styles indicate that lower-order thinking skills like recalling linguistic knowledge and understanding the text are mainly used and higher-order thinking skills are rarely utilized. While students are used to learning with lower-order thinking skills, the extent to which higher-order thinking skills are considered important in L2 learning needs to be explored.

C.   Thinking Skills & L2 Studies

Empirical studies have utilized a variety of thinking activities like critical thinking activities and higher-order questions to improve students' L2 and cognitive performance (Alcón, 1993; Author, 2015; Godfrey, 2001; Mehta & Al-Mahrooqi, 2015; Yang & Gamble, 2013; Zhang, Anderson, & Nguyen-Jahiel, 2013). On affective aspects, it was found that university students have negative attitudes towards answering higher-order questions in a teacher-led setting since they lack the confidence to speak English and it can be difficult for them to thinking critically in front of the class (Tan, 2007). Yet, research has shown that integrating thinking into L2 instruction can motivate students to take risks (Shahini & Riazi, 2011), enhance students' attitudes towards learning and decrease their language-use anxiety (Zhang, Anderson, & Nguyen-Jahiel, 2013), and arouse interest in learning with better interaction (Yang & Gamble, 2013). In particular, students with high positive attitudes towards the thinking tasks improve their L2 oral production (Dörnyei & Kormos, 2000). In addition to the benefit of the improvement of L2 and thinking performance, it is believed that a pedagogy mixing thinking skills and language learning promotes language transfer (Jones et al., 1987).

III.   RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study aimed to conduct a higher-order thinking (HOT) approach (see below) in a L2 classroom and explore how students perceive the importance of thinking in L2 learning, their attitudes towards the approach, and the

extent to which the approach affects student learning. Research questions are as follows:
   1. What are students' perceptions of the importance of lower-order and higher-order thinking in L2 learning?
   2. What are students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the HOT approach?
   3. What are students' perceived impacts of the HOT approach on their learning?

IV. Methods

The present study was designed as a case study of an intervention. Yin (2003) asserts that an empirical inquiry investigates a current phenomenon within its real-life context and a case study is one means that researchers can use. A case study method allowed the researcher to explore students' attitudes towards and perceptions of the impact of the HOT approach on student learning in depth.

A. Participants

One EFL class of non-English major freshmen students (N = 40) at a university in Taiwan participated in this study. They were aged between 18 and 19 years. The research purpose and procedures were explained to participants and informed consent was obtained.

B. The HOT Approach

The present study aimed to conduct a HOT approach, based on social constructivist perspective, to motivate students to think and speak by engaging them in thinking-task group discussion. This approach consisted of thinking tasks designed with higher-order questions (Morgan & Saxton, 1994), including a use of wait-time (Tobin, 1987), probing (Wu, 1993), and communication skills (Long, 1996). The procedure had two steps (for a HOT lesson plan, see Appendix A). First, the teacher modeled the thinking tasks for students in a teacher-fronted setting, concentrating on activating students' background knowledge and demonstrating how to respond to higher-order questions, communication strategies and language use. Second, thinking tasks were implemented in small groups. Students were first required to present their opinions on the questions listed in the thinking-task handout and then encouraged to think critically about their group members' contributions to the discussion and interact by commenting on one another's opinions. Students were required to reach a consensus within a group through discussion. At this stage students applied the skills learned in the first step.

Four types of thinking tasks (an example of a thinking task, see Appendix B), including *5Ws*, *Odd One Out*, *Make-Up-A-Story*, and *Guess What I Say*, were used. Each task provided opportunities to exercise particular skills of higher cognition. Three different topics were developed for each task type, totaling 12 tasks in all. The topics used in the thinking tasks were related to the textbook contents and life experiences of the learners and links to related vocabulary and sentence patterns were provided to facilitate the discussion. A summary of the tasks is as follows.

5Ws (Butterworth & O'Conner, 2005) activates students' analysis, synthesis, and evaluation thinking, mainly asking questions such as "why," "how," and 'which is better….."

Odd One Out (Leat, 1998) fosters classification skills, and requires students to classify three objects and pinpoint which one differs from the others.

Make-Up-A-Story develops synthesis thinking, requiring learners to create a story based on provided pictures.

Guess What I Say requires students to arrive at an answer (e.g., an idiom) using analytical thinking.

The intervention was conducted for 12 weeks. This class had 2-hour lesson per week. The students received a 50-minute lecture in the first lesson focusing on vocabulary, grammar, and reading comprehension. In the second lesson the HOT approach was implemented.

C. Data Collection

The questionnaire exploring the students' perceptions of the importance of thinking in L2 learning (see appendix C) was designed based on Bloom's six thinking levels with three questions for each thinking level, with a total of 18 items based on six-point Likert scales (from 'strongly agree' to 'strongly disagree') and was distributed to the 40 participants before the pre-test and after the post-test. Some of the concepts associated with thinking levels might be rather abstract for the respondents to understand. To make the questions more concrete for the respondents, an additional example was included. The questionnaire was piloted in Chinese version with a convenience sample of 30 university students in a college in Southern Taiwan. Some wordings and examples which were found inappropriate for the students were modified based on informants' feedback. A Cronbach's alpha internal consistency reliability was calculated and achieved the satisfactory level of .94.

This study adopted a semi-structured interview to find out how different students view the HOT approach. The interview was conducted one to one with 16 students who volunteered to be interviewed after the post-test. Interview questions mainly related to participants' attitudes towards and perceptions of the HOT approach and the impact on their learning. Questions included whether they liked the thinking approach, and whether they perceived any impact of the thinking approach on their English speaking, thinking, and learning in general. Interviewees were required to provide reasons and examples when responding to the questions. The students were interviewed in Chinese and all the interviews were audio recorded.

D. Data Analysis

Eighteen questions in the questionnaire regarding students' perceptions of the importance of thinking in L2 learning were classified into lower-order thinking (knowledge, comprehension, application) and higher-order thinking (analysis, synthesis, evaluation) and were analyzed using paired-samples t test. The transcripts of the interview data were first analyzed using 'open coding' (Merriam, 2009). I discussed the coding remarks with a trained researcher using a sample of the interview data. We then individually marked the data. The coding units were tallied. The interrater reliability reached a satisfactory agreement of 92.5%. The discrepancies in the initial coding results were discussed and a mutual agreement was reached. We then looked through the remarks, attempting to identify the themes through an iterative process to examine commonalities and differences in the remarks. Having identified the themes, we then categorized the remarks into the themes individually. The interrater reliability for the theme classification reached 97.3%.

V. RESULTS

A. The Perceived Importance of Thinking in L2 Learning

There was a significant difference in the perceived importance of using lower-order thinking in L2 learning after the intervention ($p = .028$, $p < .05$) while students' perception of using higher-order thinking did not change ($p = .878$, $p > .05$), as shown in Table 1. The mean score of perceived importance of using lower-order thinking at pre-test was 1.88 and 2.14 at post-test, meaning that students considered the use of lower-order thinking in English language learning important; however, they perceived it as significantly less important after the intervention. This can be explained by the fact that students used to enhance their English proficiency by reciting vocabulary and understanding grammar, yet through the training of higher-order thinking students realized that their speaking improved (see below) by using higher-order thinking skills. Thus, students decreased the perceived importance of lower-order thinking in L2 learning.

Students were of the opinion that higher-order thinking played an important role in L2 learning (mean = 2.42 at pre-test, 2.43 at post-test) and their attitudes remained the same after the intervention. However, it is interesting to see that students did not consider the use of higher-order thinking more important after they had perceived an improvement of their speaking and thinking performances. It seems possible that the result is due to the pressure and high cognitive demand required by the thinking tasks (see below).

Comparing the perceived importance of lower-order thinking to higher-order thinking, students considered lower-order thinking was more important than higher-order thinking. This can be explained by the facts that the exam-oriented education system has deeply influenced students' learning style. Students needed to recite vocabulary and understand the grammar rules, so they could apply the linguistic knowledge while taking a test. They also considered reciting more vocabulary essential while expressing opinions because they sometimes encountered a lack of vocabulary during discussions (see below).

TABLE 1.
PAIRED-SAMPLES T TEST ON THE PERCEIVED IMPORTANCE OF LOWER-ORDER AND HIGHER-ORDER THINKING

	Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Thinking	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper	Lower	Upper
Lower-order	-.25556	.70954	.11219	-.48248	-.02863	-2.278	39	.028
Higher-order	-.02339	.93219	.15122	-.32979	.28301	-.155	37	.878

B. Attitudes towards the HOT Approach

1. Enjoyment

The majority of students had positive attitudes towards the HOT approach. They considered the learning process to be interesting and motivating. Sample responses are as follows.

"I could express any opinion I wanted. I felt good."

"I really practiced English authentically. Speaking is very important because the main aim of learning English is to communicate with others, not to take exams."

2. Pressure and anxiety

Higher-order questions requires more effort and challenge in the use of the target language and as such was not universally popular. Around half of the student comments were related to pressure and anxiety. Responses showed that this attitude was due to low speaking proficiency, unfamiliar topics, and cognitive demands. Samples responses are as follows.

"I suffered a lot of pressure from it [the HOT approach]. I prefer the previous teaching method [a method similar to the grammar-translation method]."

"It was cognitively demanding when translating Chinese answers into English…It was tiring…Then I felt down."

To complicate the findings, half of the students who felt pressure held a positive attitude toward this pressure. They appreciated the pressure they were under because it supported their learning. Sample comments include:

"I improve with that pressure."

"I felt very afraid in the beginning. It seemed there was always pressure in class…I didn't pay any attention to the pressure. I just kept discussing and discussing. Later on I had the courage to speak, so the pressure was relieved."

3. Resistance

A quarter of the students resisted this approach and preferred the teaching method which was similar to grammar-translation. Sample reasons are as follows.

"I learned more with the old method. I didn't learn more vocabularies with this approach."

"I don't like this thinking approach. I felt pressured, yet I didn't learn more."

C. Perceived Impacts on Student Learning

The results also revealed the HOT approach had a wide impact on student learning, ranging from immediate effects on student learning to a wider impact on long-term learning. Figure 1 reveals a summary of the overall perceived impacts found.
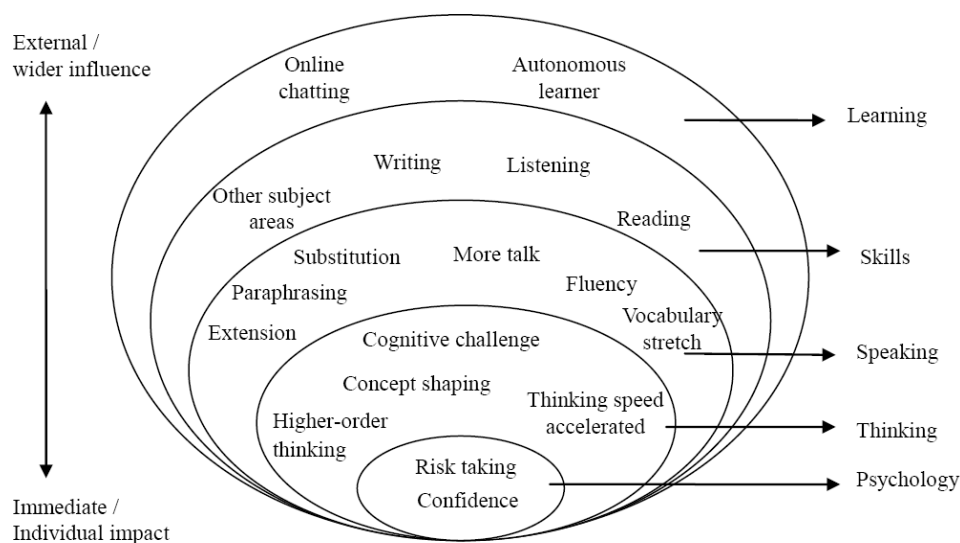

Figure 1. Perceptions of the effect of the HOTS approach on student performance

1. Psychology

The HOT approach was perceived by students to have an effect on psychology. As mentioned above, students felt pressure and expressed a reluctance to speaking English due to a fear of making mistakes. It was not easy to conquer such a psychological barrier. However, students argued that they gained more confidence and were more willing to speak and were able to take risks in language use. The majority of students rationalized that their confidence towards speaking English increased because they had gotten used to expressing ideas in English. Sample responses include:

"I have more courage to speak and to take risks."

"I have more confidence and feel that I am improving."

2. Thinking

More than half of the students claimed that the thinking tasks were intellectually challenging and they had to think hard, which they rarely did before. Sample responses are as follows.

"My brain would go blank with the previous teaching method. Now I force myself to think in class."

"It was cognitively demanding the first time we played Odd One Out."

Socio-cognitive conflicts occurred in the process of arguing and reasoning. As a result, students noticed that their concept had been shaped; their viewpoints and values had changed, as commented below by a student.

"I sometimes noticed that my group members had different viewpoints and values from mine. I listened to their reasons. If their reasons and evidence could convince me of their viewpoints and values, I would agree with them. For example, once I considered appearance important when choosing an ideal mate. However, my group members disagreed with me and argument ensued. Finally, I was persuaded and agreed that appearance should not be seen as an important feature."

The majority of students believed that their higher-order thinking developed and they could express their ideas more logically, providing reasons and evidence. The findings indicate that most students had benefited from the thinking approach in terms of their thinking performance. Sample comments include:

"I can use evidence, examples, and my viewpoints in my argument. My reasoning skill has become more logical."

"I would analyse others' viewpoints and evidence and evaluate whether what they said made sense to me. I also compared their thoughts with my ideas."

A quarter of students perceived their thinking speed to have accelerated. They claimed that at the beginning it took

them much longer to think and to express their ideas. That means students could process information and respond faster. Sample comments are as follows.

"At the beginning I thought in Chinese, translated Chinese answers into English and then elaborated. Now I think in Chinese and elaborate immediately in English."

"My CPU [brain] used to run slowly and sometimes it froze…Now I feel that my CPU has upgraded."

3. Speaking

The thinking tasks required student to express their thoughts and comment on others' opinions, resulting in plenty of speaking opportunities provided. While most of the students considered they talked more, less than half of students believed that their speaking fluency improved. Although the number of the students holding positive belief about fluency was not high, it does indicate a greater opportunity for students to speak fluently was provided by this thinking approach. The impact on speaking performance also reflects on the use of vocabulary items which students had rarely used previously. It stretched the speakers in terms of lexical processing due to the need to express their ideas and opinions. Sample responses include:

"I do not clearly know how much I improve, but I am sure I talk more."

"The fluency really improves…That means I can speak more fluently."

"[Now I often use words which] I wouldn't use before."

Students also claimed that their language communicative skills improved. They were able to use substitute words or paraphrase when lacking lexical items. Also, they perceived that their ability to extend the topic was enhanced. Sample responses include:

"I can use other words to substitute. For example, I don't know the word '*humble*', I would explain it as *don't tell others I am good*."

"When we played Guess What I Say, I used alternative words to explain without mentioning the idiom."

"I could extend the topic for further discussion."

4. Skills

The effect of the HOT approach on skills, such as writing, listening, and reading was also commented on by a quarter of respondents. They realized that they could compose English writing much faster than before and were aware of the improvement in listening and reading. Most significantly, the reasoning skills were applied to other subject areas. Sample responses are as follows:

"It used to take me a long time to compose one email in English. Now I can write one very quickly. I can do it more directly and do not need to think for a long time."

"I used to feel that a little piece of information was missing [when listening to others]…just like playing jigsaw; I sometimes missed one piece, so I did not quite understand what it meant. Now I feel 'oh, oh, oh, I see'… My listening and reading comprehension is improving."

"I can talk more about art work in art class. I used to be quiet but now I start to express my views and apply the thinking skills to justify and evaluate the imposition of values on a piece of artwork, including mine and others' work."

5. Learning

It was also very surprising that a quarter of students perceived that the HOT approach had influenced their learning styles. They were more aware of the autonomous learning and gained the courage to chat in English online. They felt this was due to the intervention. Sample comments include:

"The aim for me to learn English used to be passing exams. I was interested in learning English, but I would not study if there was no exam. Now I become more like an autonomous learner. I sometimes read English articles and advertisements which I would not do before."

"I met a foreign net pal recently. I didn't dare to talk to foreigners before because I did not know what to say and how to say it in English. This time I did it on purpose in order to give myself a chance to use English."

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Practicability

The practicability of introducing higher-order thinking skills into an L2 classroom mainly depends on students' perceived importance of thinking in L2 learning and attitudes towards the thinking tasks. The results reveal that students considered both higher-order and lower-order thinking important in L2 learning and they hold positive attitudes towards the HOT approach, indicating that students are able to adapt to high cognitive training in the L2 classroom. This finding is in contrast to the results of Tan (2007) who investigated students' attitudes towards higher-order questions in a teacher-led setting and encountered student resistance to higher-order questions. The present study found that students came to like the approach adopted in the current study, participated fully, and articulated their thoughts increasingly in English over time, as shown in the interview data. This positive attitude may be explained by student perceptions of an improvement in their own L2 speaking and thinking performance, as well as in that of other group members. A further explanation is the fact that in small group discussions pressure and anxiety can be alleviated, so students feel more at ease and confident to speak and conduct deeper thinking (Tsui, 1996).

The HOT approach however was not universally popular. The interview data revealed that one-quarter of the students resisted this approach and preferred the teaching method which was similar to grammar-translation. This resistance can

be explained by the following reasons. Firstly, the HOT approach is cognitively challenging and requires more effort. Secondly, students may not benefit or learn more than using the old methods; it could be that their learning styles enable them to benefit more from the more didactic teaching approach similar to grammar-translation (Coffield et al., 2004). A third reason is that the 12-week intervention was not long enough for these students to adapt to or fully benefit from it, which could be corroborated by the work of Eisenman and Payne (1997).

The problem of a negative attitude could be solved by two means. One is to include other types of thinking tasks, such as problem solving tasks so as to increase the variety and the likelihood of a match with students' preferences. The other possible solution could be offering a mixture of pedagogies. It can be argued that there is no 'one size fits all' pedagogy. As Nakatani (2005) stresses, training does not always improve learning for all students. Thus, to meet the demand of different learning styles, applying different types of pedagogy can be considered.

B.   The Importance of Higher-order Thinking

It should be noted that it is through the use of high cognitive thinking more learning opportunities occur. In L2 learning, some commentators argue that lower-order thinking skills are the fundamental skills required. For example, Ding (2007) explored the learning strategies used in L2 learning by successful learners and found that memorization and imitation were the fundamental skills used for acquiring linguistic competence. Learners, according to Bloom (1956), need to use lower-order thinking skills to recall from their memory and to activate their schemata, so high cognitive skills can be operated. However, lower-order thinking does not facilitate creating more learning opportunities. Lower-order thinking can be seen to be a prerequisite for activating higher-order thinking. Overall, it is higher-order thinking that provides L2 learners with more language learning opportunities, leading to better student learning.

C.   Transfer

The authentic scenarios created by thinking tasks impacts on L2 transfer. Students claimed that they were able to apply the target language learned to other fields like online communication. James (2006) states that the notion of *authenticity* is fundamental in learning transfer. When it matches with instructional materials and tasks in L2 classrooms, then students are more likely to see the relationship with the world outside the classroom and this may stimulate learning transfer. This finding supports Jones et al.'s (1987) proposition that a pedagogy mixing thinking skills and language learning promotes language transfer. This evidence suggests that L2 transfer could occur through the use of the HOT approach. However, the validity of this finding needs to be considered due to the limited number of cases reported. Overall, this finding indicates that the thinking approach may provide a greater possibility for L2 transfer, but further research is essential to explore the generalizability of this phenomenon.

The learning of higher-order thinking in the L2 also impacts on the transfer of thinking skills. Some students claimed that they could apply higher-order thinking skills learned to other subjects and online communication. For instance, they were able to critically comment on the art work presented in art class which they had rarely done before and elaborate their thoughts more logically with reasons in online chatting. Though the reported cases are limited, this finding is encouraging because it indicates that the teaching of a HOT approach facilitates the transfer of higher-order thinking skills. To the author's knowledge, the empirical research has not reported the transfer of thinking skills through thinking activities. Future research can focus on the extent to which thinking skills can be transferred to other subjects.

D.   Learning Behavior

Evidence from the interview data reveal that students' disposition towards risk taking was developed. The thinking tasks were designed to require students to articulate their own thoughts and reach a consensus. When the desire to express thoughts occurs, it stimulates students to speak. In the present study students overcame a psychological barrier in terms of speaking in the target language and intellectual barriers when they started to think out loud and take on board the challenge involved. The change in observed behavior, breaking through these barriers, as found Shahini and Riazi (2011), enhanced risk taking. Arguably, the environment created by the use of group work produced less anxiety and facilitated this action. The participants in the current study claimed that at the beginning of the intervention they were afraid of making mistakes and did not have the confidence to speak. The finding of the present study supports Chen's (2002) study, which observed that Taiwanese students feel great stress when faced with oral activities in L2 classrooms. It is through the HOT approach training and the nature of thinking tasks they started to give it a try. This can be seen as a milestone in the learning process of L2 speaking. This result implies that the thinking approach encourages students to change, take risks and step into the real realm of L2 speaking, even though the utterances produced may be segmented and lack fluency.

The finding obtained from the interview data further showed there was an additional impact on students with low listening comprehension. A couple of students reported that they were not able to understand the questions or to follow the group discussion. As Godfrey (2001) found, students' English proficiency can hinder students from participating fully and also limit the degree to which they benefit from higher-order questions. This appears to be the case here. Therefore, any teacher considering a HOT approach needs to take this issue into account. This problem might be solved by employing questioning strategies, such as rephrasing, simplification, repetition and decomposition (Wu, 1993), both by the teacher or students. With further explanation, these students will still have the chance to voice their opinions.

The findings also show that students became autonomous learners in which they would proactively read English

articles and chat with online English speaking communities, which they rarely did before. The result of the present study supports Wenden's (1991) statement that thinking skills can be seen as a learning strategy and that such strategies fosters learner autonomy. This can be explained by a reduction in student anxiety levels when speaking English and a gain in the willingness to take risks. This finding also supports Zhou's (2016) study which investigated the roles of social anxiety, autonomy, and learning orientation in L2 learning, and found that students who experienced social anxiety in language learning were less autonomous; that is, students with less anxiety can be more autonomous.

VII.   CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The present study found that the majority of students hold positive attitudes towards the HOT approach and the importance of using higher-order thinking in L2 learning and perceived an improvement in their L2 speaking, thinking performance and their learning behavior. This study has indicated that incorporating the use of higher-order questions and a variety of thinking tasks offers a greater opportunity for students to adapt to the thinking approach and the hard work associated with it. This study provides some recommendations for teachers who intend to encourage the development of higher-order thinking in their students through a use of the HOT approach in the L2 classroom. First, some essential strategies (e.g., communication strategies and probing) to facilitate provoking higher-order thinking need to be applied while implementing the thinking tasks, and the means to manipulate these strategies can be found in Author's (2016) framework for incorporating thinking skills into L2 teaching. Second, teachers can use a variety of thinking tasks to encourage higher-order thinking, so students will not feel fatigue and therefore a negative attitude. Third, a mixture of pedagogies can better meet the demands of different learning styles. Fourth, when designing instruction material to promote the transfer of learning, some techniques for maximizing the potential of teaching for transfer in general education (James, 2006) could be applied. Last, instruction in appropriate questioning strategies (Wu, 1993) is necessary to facilitate a comprehension of higher-order questions. Finally, further research is essential within the L2 context to explore the extent to which language and thinking skills can be transferred through a use of thinking tasks.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

APPENDIX A.   AN EXAMPLE OF A HOT LESSON PLAN

I. Objective: At the end of the lesson, the students should be able to: ☐ evaluate the best traveling package for freshmen; ☐ take other's opinions into account; ☐ reason with examples and evidence; ☐ conduct higher-order thinking including evaluation, analysis, and synthesis.
II. Thinking task: Travel packages. Students are required to assess the six travel packages and choose the best one for them to explore life and culture abroad. The six travel packages include building homes for street children in Peru, Hiking in Himalayas, learning to surf, community work with children in Kenya, wild animal safari in South Africa, and sightseeing in Europe. Material: Thinking task handouts and ppt. Values: Develop higher-order thinking; develop the ability to assess the best travel package for students to explore other cultures, taking factors like the value of the travel package, budget, and enjoyment into account. Means: Teacher modeling & group discussion
III. Procedure A.   Teacher modeling (15 min) Aiming to activate students' schemata, and demonstrating how to respond to higher-order questions, communication strategies and language use. The teacher asks questions related to traveling as follows: "Do you like traveling?", "Have you been abroad?", "Do you like to experience lifestyle of different culture?", "What do you expect to see or to learn while travelling abroad?", "Do you like to help others? Why or why not?", "Would you spend your holidays building homes for street children?", "After studying for a semester, do you thinking it is a good idea to spend your holidays helping others?" The teacher can choose one student to answer the question and make comments on the response by saying, "I agree/disagree with you because…", or "That's a good idea, but I would..." Then the teacher invites other students to comment on the thoughts expressed to foster interaction among students. At this stage it is important to provide sufficient wait-time for students to come up with an answer. Also, the teacher can demonstrate communication skills like asking for clarification by saying "Could you please say that again?", "Do you mean…?", "Could you please explain what is meant by…?", etc. B.   Thinking-task group discussion (30 min) The teacher gives students thinking task handouts and explains what students need to do. C.   Wrap up (5 min) Have each group present their answers. Then the teacher invites the class to comment on the answers.
IV. Assignment Writing Students write down the best travel package for them with reasons provided. Also, they need to justify why the other travel packages are less suitable for them.

APPENDIX B.   AN EXAMPLE OF A THINKING TASK

Topic: What do you consider the best travel package to explore other cultures? Task Type: 5Ws

Higher-order thinking: Evaluation, analysis Task: Select the best travel package to explore other cultures. You are required to elaborate the best travel package you consider and then persuade others of your opinions with reasons, evidence and examples, reaching a group consensus.

Travel package 1: Build homes for street children in Peru

Who can volunteer? If you are 18 or over, you can be involved in this exciting project. Length: 17 days. Fee: NT$55,800. Activity: 1. Spend two weeks to build homes for children there. 2. Spend 3 days to visit Machu Picchu.

Travel package 2: Hiking in Himalayas

This trip is physically demanding.   Location: India Length: 12 days Fee: NT$39,800 Activity: Hiking in Himalayas for 7 days, see magnificent rivers and mountain range Accom.: Wild camping x 7 nights, Hotel x 2 nights, night train x 2 nights

Travel package 3: Learning to surf

Location: Golden Cost in Australia. Length: 7 days. Fee: NT$68,200 Activity: 1.Learn to ride a wave within a day. 2.Surf instructors will progress you through the basics of standing up, paddling, wave selection and ocean knowledge. You learn to turn and take the drop. Accom.: Cabin x 5 nights, Camping x 1 night

Travel package 4: Community work with children in Kenya
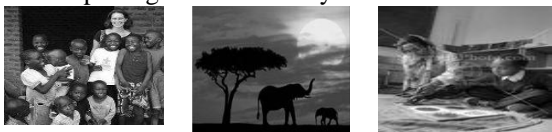
You can learn the different culture. Length: 2 weeks. Fee: NT$34,000 Activity: 1. Help those children with AIDS virus in Kenya. 2.You can provide some basic skills and companionship, e.g. cooking meals, teaching English, art work, playing sports.

Travel package 5: Wild animal safari in South Africa

Length: 7 days Fee: NT$52,100
Activity: Riding in a jeep to see wild animals and experience the nature.
Accom.: Wild camping x 4 nights (no water for shower), Safari Lodge x 2 nights

Travel package 6: Sightseeing in Europe

Length: 15 days Fee: NT$133,800 Accom.: 4 star hotels x 13 nights. Activity: bicycle-riding in Holland, cruising on River Rhine, visiting castles, German beer tasting, Opera night in Vienna, Jungfrau (mountain), the beach in Nice, shopping in Paris

APPENDIX C.   QUESTIONNAIRE ITEMS

1. It is important to memorize what I have learned in English class.
2. It is important to recite English passages to practise English.
3. It is important to be able to recall what I have learned in English class.
4. It is important to understand the learning materials in English class.
5. Being able to summarize what we have read or listened to is important in English class.
6. Being able to retell what we have read or listened to is important in English class.
7. It is important to apply what we have learned in English class, e.g. to use the reading strategies learned in class to read English newspaper after class.
8. Being able to think what I would do as a character in a novel is important in English class.
9. It is important to be able to think 'alternative ways' to explain when people do not understand me in English class.
10. It is important to be able to give reasons in English class, e.g. to justify a decision I have made.
11. It is important to use comparison and contrast skills in English class, e.g. to tell similarities and differences of the two characters in a novel.

12. It is important to be able to analyse articles in English class, e.g. to analyse the strengths and weaknesses of a plan.

13. Being able to solve problems is important in English class, e.g. to think about a solution to save money.

14. Creativity is important is English class, e.g. to make a new ending for a story.

15. It is important to be able to design things in English class, e.g. to design an itinerary for a two-week holiday.

16. Being able to assess is important in English class, e.g. to assess which travelling package is better for students and provide reasons and evidence.

17. It is important to be able to make a good argument supported with reasons or evidence in English class, e.g. to argue for not having dress code on campus and provide with reasons or evidence.

18. It is important to be able to make judgment based on evidence or reasons in English class, e.g. to show my position, agree or disagree, and give reasons or evidence.

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Metacognitive Knowledge and Metacognitive Control of Writing Strategy between High- and Low-performing Chinese EFL Writers

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Abstract—This study investigated metacognitive knowledge and control of writing strategy in English among 65 Chinese EFL learners in two argumentative writing tasks. Metacognitive knowledge was measured using a questionnaire written in simple present tense. Metacognitive control required writers to respond to a questionnaire written in simple past tense immediately following completion of each writing task according to the actual strategy use in the writing tasks. Students were grouped into high- and low-performing EFL writers using one standard error above or below the Mean scores of the writing tasks. One-way ANOVA was conducted on the four kinds of writing strategies (i.e., planning, cognitive, monitor-control, and evaluating). We found that while there were no differences on any type of the writing strategies for metacognitive knowledge, the two groups differed in the actual writing strategy use on each occasion. For the more familiar and easier writing topic, high- and low-performing students differed only in cognitive writing strategies. For the less familiar and more challenging writing task, high-achievers adopted significantly more planning, cognitive, and evaluating strategies than low-achievers. This research supported for distinction between metacognitive knowledge and control in EFL writing.

Index Terms—metacognitive knowledge, metacognitive control, writing strategy, Chinese EFL writers

I. INTRODUCTION

It has long been acknowledged that writing in a foreign language (FL) is highly complex because it involves multiple interactions between internal factors (e.g., language proficiency, age, first language (L1) writing abilities, and knowledge of the writing topics) and external factors (e.g., guidance of writing tasks, audience, and time pressure; see Hyland, 2003 for an overview). In these highly complicated processes, writers' metacognition plays a key role (e.g., Stevenson Schoonen, & de Glopper, 2006). Metacognition is different from cognition as the former helps an individual understand and regulate how to perform the task, whereas the latter helps a person perform a task (Hacker, 1998; Schraw, 1998).

Metacognition consists of two components: metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control. Metacognitive knowledge, located in the long-term memory, is what a person knows about his/her own cognitive process, whereas metacognitive control, functioning in individuals' working memory, is reflected as one's ability to use metacognitive knowledge to achieve certain goals through various cognitive activities, such as planning, making decisions, and monitoring (Batha & Carroll, 2007; Westby, 2004; You & Joe, 2001).

One of the problems in the FL writing strategy research is that researchers rarely make distinction between metacogntive knowledge (i.e., knowledge about writing strategy use in general) and metacognitive control (i.e., the actual writing strategy use in a specific writing task) (e.g., Alnufaie & Grenfell, 2012; Gupta & Woldemariam, 2011). The distinction between metacognitive knowledge and control is important because having metacognitive knowledge does not ensure that writers are able to execute metacognitive control during writing processes (Han, 2012, 2013; Han & Stevenson, 2008). In order to fill the gap, our study investigates metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control of writing strategy in two argumentative writing tasks among a cohort of learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) at university level in China. Our specific focus is on to what extent high- and low-performing EFL writers differ in metacognitive knowledge and control of writing strategy. By making proper distinction between metacognitive knowledge and control in FL writing strategy research will allow EFL writing instructors to identify whether levels of writing quality are affected by EFL writers' lack of writing strategy knowledge repertoire or by their inability to execute knowledge in actual writing processes (or a combination of both), so that corresponding interventions can be designed and carried out.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The writing processes

In the research of writing, researchers have made attempts to represent writing in a wide range of models: such as Flower and Hayes' (1981) cognitive processes of writing model, Hayes' (2000) revised cognitive processes of writing model, and Zimmermann's (2000) FL writing formulation model, just to name a few. Among these models, Chenoweth and Hayes' model (2001) is a commonly adopted one, because it is a comprehensive description of sub-processes involved in writing (see Figure 1 for a visualization of the model). From Figure 1, we can see that there are three levels involved in the writing processes proposed in the model, namely the resource level, the process level, and the control level. The resource level is the cognitive elements which are used in the writing, including working memory, long term memory, and reading processes, such as reading task instruction, reading source materials to generate ideas for writing, as well as reading one's own draft for revising (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001).

The process level has two sub-levels: one is concerned with internal aspect of writing and the other is associated with the writing task, which is an external aspect. The internal sub-level is comprised of four parts: a Proposer, a Translator, a Transcriber, and a Reviser. The Proposer is the "pre-linguistic source that produces ideas to be expressed" (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001, p. 84). The Proposer is responsible for ideas and thoughts to be generated and organized according to some kinds of logic order so that the information is ready to be arranged into structured scripts. The Proposer is closely related to the sub-process of planning in writing. The Translator, which associates with formulation processes in the writing whereby ideas and thoughts are converted into linguistic elements, serves as bridges for "pre-linguistic ideas into strings of language with appropriate word order and grammar" (Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001, p. 84). The linguistic elements are then transcribed into the written forms either as hand-written scripts or as computer-processed scripts by the Transcriber. The Translator and the Transcriber are jointly involved in the sub-processes of the actual writing. The Reviser is mainly used in the sub-process of revising, which modifies and improves what has been translated and transcribed in order to ensure the quality of information flow. The third level in this model is the control level, which operates between the task schema and the other two levels.

Using the Chenoweth and Hayes' model as a departing point for researching writing strategy has two advantages. First, the writing strategies can be examined in the three sub-processes of writing from planning, writing, to revising. Second, the resource level including both long-term and working memory provides an additional theoretical justification for the distinction between metacognitive knowledge and control as the former is located in one's long-term memory while the latter is operated in one's working memory.
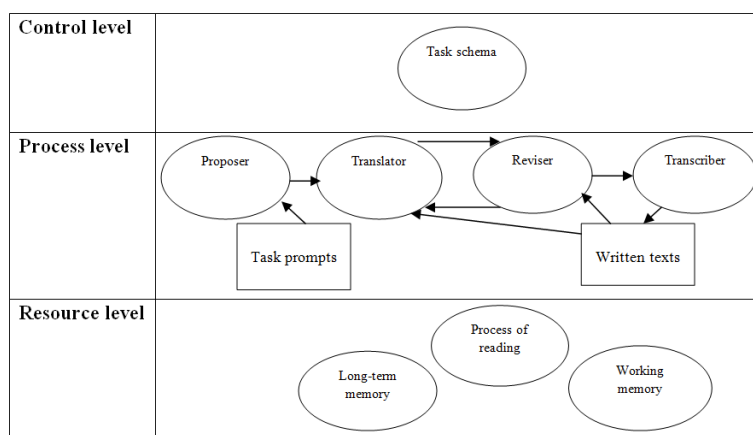
Figure 1. Chenoweth and Hayes' (2001) model of the writing process (adapted from Chenoweth & Hayes, 2001)

Metacognition and FL writing

Metacognition is defined as "a person's knowledge and beliefs about the human mind and its doings", which includes "one's conscious knowledge, cognitive process and states such as memory, attention, knowledge, conjecture and illusion" (Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002, p. 106). In simple words, metacognition is essentially an individual's cognition about cognition, thinking about thinking, and knowing about knowing (Flavell, Miller, & Miller, 2002; Phakiti, 2006), as reflected by their knowledge on thoughts and ability to regulating thoughts and behaviors (Flavell, 2016; Hacker, 1998).

As has been mentioned, metacognition comprises of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control (Schraw, 1998, 2001). The former refers to as knowledge about cognitive processes during an activity and can be classified into three types, namely knowledge about things (i.e., declarative knowledge), knowledge about how to do things (i.e., procedural knowledge), and knowledge about when and why to do things (i.e., conditional knowledge) (Dart, Boulton-Lewis, Brownlee & McCrindle, 1998; Olivares-Cuhat, 2002).

In the FL writing, for instance, declarative knowledge may include knowing the structure of an argumentative essay and knowing the differences between readers' expectation of different text types. Procedural knowledge in FL writing may include how to construct a grammatically correct sentence in the target language and how to select appropriate

lexical items according to the level of formality of the texts. With regard to the conditional knowledge in FL writing, this may be realized by an understanding of what kind of writing strategies to use in a particular writing situation. For instance, when a writer do not know how to spell a word, they may consider looking the word up in a bilingual dictionary, or they may think of using a sentence to explain the meaning of that lexical item when the situation does not allow them to consult dictionaries, such as in a testing situation.

The researchers agree that both procedural and conditional knowledge is hard to capture, because such knowledge is most likely to be reflected in the actual writing processes through undertaking a specific writing task (Schraw & Graham, 1997; Schraw & Moshman, 1995; Robert & Feurer, 2016). As a result, most of the research on metacognitive knowledge is primarily restricted to the declarative knowledge, which is often measured through using a self-reported questionnaire (Sénéchal, LeFevre, Smith-Chant, & Colton, 2001).

The distinction between declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge seems to be able to explain differences between writing strategies and writing skills. Oxford (2011) argues that "when strategy use is developed into an automatic operation (proceduralized) through repeated practice, it is no longer a strategy but an unconscious habit" (Oxford, 2011, p. 51). Similarly, Cohen (1998, 2007) concurs with this operationalization of writing strategy and maintains that intentionality and consciousness are essential characteristics of strategy use. The automatic and unconscious operations of cognitive activities in writing are often regarded as writing skills (Petric & Czarl, 2003). Writing skills or unconscious operations of strategic behaviors in writing are hard to be measured because writers are simply unaware of using them. For our research, we are concerned with writing strategies rather than writing skills, and correspondingly we operationalized metacognitive knowledge as declarative knowledge about FL writing.

The other component of metacognition – metacognitive control, or regulation or cognition, is one's ability to use metacognitive knowledge to monitor and regulate one's thinking processes during cognitive activities and performance according to context-specific situations to achieve certain goals (Han, 2012; Han & Stevenson, 2008; Schraw & Graham, 1997; Schraw & Moshman, 1995; Phakiti, 2006; Westby, 2004). Having metacognitive knowledge is a necessary but not a sufficient condition for metacognitive control to be executed, and one of the important elements for successful operation of metacognitive control depends on individual's working memory (Han, 2012, 2013; Han & Stevenson, 2008; Phakiti, 2006). In FL writing, writers' working memory may be occupied largely by their slow and effortful processing of linguistic codes, such as retrieval of lexical items, construction of sentences, and coordinating conceptual ideas into semantically related units. This means that it is especially important for a distinction to be made between metacognitive knowledge and control in FL writing.

Empirical studies of metacognition in FL writing

The majority of studies of metacognition in FL writing predominantly focused on metacognitive knowledge rather than metacognitive control (e.g., Olinghouse & Graham, 2009; Schoonen et al., 2002, 2003; Wong & Storey, 2006). In general, a wide range of metacognitive knowledge in writing has been explored and writers with two languages are found to have a wide range of metacognitive knowledge, including knowledge of discourse, text structure, the purposes of writing, and the audience of the written texts (e.g., Olinghouse & Graham, 2009; Ruan, 2004; You & Joe, 2001). The research has also shown that there is positive association between writers' metacognitive knowledge and the quality of written texts (e.g., Kasper, 1997; Olinghouse & Graham; Polio & Friedman, 2017; Schoonen et al., 2002, 2003; Sasaki & Hirose, 1996; Schoonen, Snellings, Stevenson, & van Gelderen, 2009). Compared to metacognitive knowledge in writing, metacognitive control has been studied to a lesser extent, and the research has shown that good FL writers are more skilful and have better ability to monitor and regulate their cognition in the writing processes than poor FL writers (e.g., Baker, 2002; Ruan, 2004; Wong & Storey, 2006).

Little research, however, has been carried out to examine both metacognitive knowledge and control in FL writing between good and poor FL writers (Farahian, 2015; Victori, 1999). In other skills of FL learning, there are a few studies which made an initial attempt to study both metacognitive knowledge and control. For instance, In FL listening, Goh (1998) compared the 16 high-ability and low-ability EFL learners' use of metacognitive and cognitive listening strategies using retrospective interviews immediately after the participants completed listening to short English texts. The results showed that while high-ability listeners were able to use a much wider range of strategies and tactics, low-ability listeners were only applied a few listening strategies and in particular they exhibited a lack of using metacognitive strategies in planning, monitoring, and evaluating.

In FL reading, Phakiti (2007) examined the relationship between trait and state strategy use, which resembles metacognitive knowledge and control of strategy use, even though the context of the study was in a reading test. With Thai EFL learners, the metacognitive knowledge of FL reading, the actual use of reading strategies, and the reading test performance, were examined on two occasions: in the mid-term and final examinations. Phakiti required the participants to answer a questionnaire probing into the knowledge of reading strategy (written in the simple present tense), and a questionnaire measuring what reading strategies learners had used in the tests immediately following the reading tests (written in the simple past tense). The results showed that (1) knowledge of metacognitive strategy directly and strongly affects knowledge of cognitive strategy; (2) knowledge of metacognitive strategy directly affected control of metacognitive strategy and indirectly affected control of cognitive strategy in the reading tests; (3) knowledge of cognitive strategy did not have much impact on cognitive strategy use in the reading tests; and (4) cognitive strategy use directly affected reading test performance.

In the FL writing research, there is a lack of study exploring both metacognitive knowledge and control (Farahian, 2015; Victori, 1999). To our knowledge, Victori (1999) conducted a case study, which examined both metacognitive knowledge and control between two good and two poor advanced EFL writers. The result indicated that: (1) the good and poor writers differed in their metacognitive knowledge about person, task, and writing strategies. The two good writers had a much broader repertoire of metacognitive knowledge in all the three aspects and also held a more flexible view towards writing, than the two poor writers. (2) The metacognitive knowledge only partially affected the actual writing strategy use during composing. (3) However, metacognitive knowledge could not fully account for differences in the metacognitive control, other factors, such as the attitude towards FL writing, also played an important role on how the writers approached the writing task. Viewed together, this study seemed to indicate that the deployment of metacognitive control was not always affected by metacognitive knowledge. Although illuminating, the case study design and the small number of the participants did not permit the generalization of the results. Therefore, our study continued to pursue this line of research on metacognitive knowledge and control in FL writing by adopting a quantitative approach.

The present study

Our study focused on investigating metacognitive knowledge and control of writing strategy in FL between high- and low-performing EFL writers. We examined metacognitive control of writing strategy use on two occasions using two writing tasks. We used a questionnaire through retrospective reporting to gather information of metacognitive control, which is considered more suitable than using time-consuming think-aloud method, because we had a relatively large number of participants and we collected writers' writing strategy use on two occasions following each writing task. For the reliability of the retrospection, the interval between retrospection and the tasks should be kept to minimal (Yamashita, 2002). Therefore, the administration of the metacognitive control questionnaires immediately followed the completion of the writing tasks.

Our study sought to address the following research questions:

1. To what extent does metacognitive control of writing strategy differ between high- and low-performing Chinese EFL writers in two writing tasks?

2. To what extent does metacognitive knowledge of writing strategy differ between high- and low-performing Chinese EFL writers?

III. METHOD

Setting and participants

Our research was carried out at a national university in a northern province of China. The participants were 65 students, who majored in English language education. The study program required students to study English language skills intensively and to participate in an internship of teaching English in primary or middle schools. The participants aged between 19 and 23 with a mean (*M*) age being 21. By the time of participation in the study, the students had been studying English for approximately seven years.

Instruments

The writing tasks. We used two writing tasks to measure students' writing performance. The two tasks were also used for learners to report their metacognitive control of writing strategy use in the processes of completing the writing. In order to make sure that the use of writing strategies was not affected by different text types, both of the writing tasks were argumentative tasks, as the participants' English teachers revealed that argumentative writing was more familiar to the students than any other text types. In order to make sure that the participants' background knowledge would not affect their use of writing strategies, the chosen topics were related to the participants' life experience. However, the topics differed in terms of the familiarity: the first topic was more closely related to personal life than the second topic. Below are the detailed descriptions of the two writing tasks:

Writing task one. Write an argumentative essay on the following topic: Do you prefer to have friends who are similar to you or different from you? Why or why not? You should use your own ideas, knowledge, and experience to support your arguments. You have 50 minutes to complete this writing task and you need to write at least 250 words.

Writing task two. Write an argumentative essay on the following topic: Some people believe that one cannot learn everything in schools and that experience is the best teacher. Others argue that formal education is a more effective way to learn. Which is more important for you: things learned through real life experiences or learned at school? You should use your own ideas, knowledge, and experience to support your arguments. You have 50 minutes to complete this writing task and you need to write at least 250 words.

Measures of metacognitive knowledge and metacognitive control of writing strategy. Two questionnaires were used to measure students' knowledge of writing strategy in English argumentative writing and metacognitive control of strategy use in the two argumentative writing tasks. The items in the questionnaires were mainly based on Petric and Czarl's (2003) writing strategy questionnaire because of two reasons: (1) the questionnaire was consisted of writing strategies in different processes of writing, including planning, writing, and revising; (2) the questionnaire was properly validated with detailed description of validating processes and had good reliability.

Both questionnaires had 30 items measuring four kinds of writing strategies: planning (6 items), cognitive strategies (5 items), monitor-control (7 items), and evaluating (12 items). The questionnaire evaluating metacognitive knowledge

was written in the simple present tense, which reflected writers' knowledge about writing in English irrespective to specific writing tasks. The questionnaire measuring metacognitive control, on the other hand, used the simple past tense and required students to retrospect what strategies they had used and to respond to the questionnaire immediately after completion of each writing task. Both questionnaires were on a 5-point Likert Scale, with 1 suggesting "totally agree" to 5 meaning "totally disagree". To ensure that the participants understand the items fully, the questionnaires were translated into Chinese. The reliability of each strategy was calculated and reported in Table 1, which shows all the values of the Cronbach's alpha was above .70, a commonly agreed acceptable level of reliability.

TABLE 1.
CRONBACH'S ALPHA RELIABILITY OF THE METACOGNITIVE CONTROL AND METACOGNITIVE KNOWLEDGE QUESTIONNAIRES

Strategies	metacognitive control 1	metacognitive control 2	metacognitive knowledge
Planning	.75	.70	.72
Cognitive	.76	.87	.80
Monitor-control	.79	.76	.79
Evaluating	.84	.90	.86

Marking rubrics and scoring of the writing tasks. We followed Weir's (2005) suggestions on scoring written production and adopted analytical scoring processes to create analytical marking rubrics, which considered four main dimensions: (1) structure and organization, (2) content, (3) argumentation, and (4) language use and mechanics. Under each main dimension, there were a number of sub-dimensions and each sub-dimension was judged separately and was assigned a score from 1 to 5 representing "very poor" and "very good" respectively. The average of the sub-dimensions represented the score for each main dimension (the detailed scoring rubrics are presented in the Appendix). The each dimension was then converted to 100 and each dimension was assigned with a percentage accounting for different proportions in the total writing score. As the content and argumentation were more important than structure and organization and language and mechanisms, the former two dimensions were given 30% each, and the latter two dimensions were given 20% each. In order to ensure the reliability of scoring, two raters scored the written texts separately and the inter-rater reliability was calculated for each dimension in each test. The inter-rater reliability was reported in Table 2, which showed that all the values were above .70, indicating good inter-rater reliability.

TABLE 2.
INTER-RATER RELIABILITY OF WRITING TASKS ONE AND TWO

	Structure and organisation	Content	Argument	Language and mechanics
writing 1	.83	.90	.90	.85
writing 2	.76	.80	.75	.80

Data collection procedure

Ethics approval was obtained from the Ethics Committee of the researchers' university before the implementation of the study. The participants were informed the voluntary nature of the participation and they were assured that all identifiable personal information would be kept strictly confidential and that no names would be mentioned in the dissemination of the research results. The data collection took place outside the normal class time and the research was conducted in three phases: phase one collected data about the participants' metacognitive knowledge. One week later, students were required to complete the first writing task. Immediately following the completion of writing task one, the metacognitive control questionnaire was administered. On another occasion, the same procedure was repeated for completion of the second writing task and the metacognitive control questionnaire in relation to writing task two.

Data analysis

In order to answer the first research question, we conducted two separate sets of analyses for the two writing tasks. The analyses were exactly the same. We first grouped students into high- and low-performing EFL writers using one standard error above or below the M scores of the writing tasks. We then performed a series of one-way ANOVA in order to find out if the two groups of students differed in metacognitive control. To answer the second research question, we grouped students into high- and low-performing EFL writers using the average scores of the two writing tasks followed by performing one-way ANOVA on writers' metacognitive knowledge.

IV. RESULTS

Metacognitive control of writing strategy use for writing task one

For the first writing task, 30 students were classified as high-performing EFL writers and 31 students were as low-performing EFL writers. The results of a *t*-test confirmed our grouping ($t = 15.12$, $p < .01$), that high-performing EFL writers ($M = 77.99$, $SD = 4.12$) obtained significantly higher marks for the writing task one than the low-performing EFL writers ($M = 59.70$, $SD = 6.03$). The results of one-way ANOVA were presented in Table 3, which shows that there were no significant differences on use of planning strategies, $F (1, 59) = 0.00$, $p = .96$; use of monitor-control strategies, $F (1, 59) = 0.35$, $p = .56$; and use of evaluating strategies, $F (1, 59) = 3.09$, $p = .09$, between the high- and low-performing EFL writers. The only significant difference was use of cognitive strategies, $F (1, 59) = 4.73$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.65$. The high-performing EFL writers adopted significantly more cognitive strategies ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 0.72$) than low-performing EFL writers ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 0.62$) when completing the first writing task.

TABLE 3.
ONE-WAY ANOVA OF METACOGNITIVE CONTROL OF WRITING STRATEGY BETWEEN HIGH- AND LOW-PERFORMING WRITERS FOR WRITING TASK ONE

Strategies	Groups	M	SD	F	p
Planning	high ($N = 30$)	2.94	0.65	0.00	.96
	low ($N = 31$)	2.94	0.78		
cognitive	high ($N = 30$)	4.10	0.72	**4.73**	**.03***
	low ($N = 31$)	3.73	0.62		
monitor-control	high ($N = 30$)	3.58	0.47	0.35	.56
	low ($N = 31$)	3.51	0.71		
evaluating	high ($N = 30$)	3.46	0.60	3.09	.09
	low ($N = 31$)	3.32	0.66		

Metacognitive control of writing strategy use for writing task two

As students' writing performance in the two writing tasks differed, students in the high- and low-performing groups were not necessary the same. For the second writing task, 33 students were grouped as the high-achievers whereas 32 students were as low-achievers. The *t*-test showed that the writing scores of the two groups significantly differed from each other ($t = 13.25$, $p < .01$). The scores of the high-achieving EFL writers ($M = 79.05$, $SD = 3.09$) were significantly higher than those of the low-achieving writers ($M = 65.56$, $SD = 6.48$). The ANOVA results of metacognitive control were presented in Table 4, which shows that high- and low-performing EFL writers differed significantly in terms of three types of strategy use: namely planning strategy, $F (1, 63) = 4.46$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.55$; cognitive strategy, $F (1, 63) = 4.23$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.55$; and evaluating strategy, $F (1, 63) = 6.71$, $p < .05$; $d = 0.65$. We found that the high-performing EFL writers used more planning strategies ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 0.55$), more cognitive strategies ($M = 4.23$, $SD = 0.67$), as well as more evaluating strategies ($M = 3.80$, $SD = 0.72$), than those low-performing counterparts (planning: $M = 3.48$, $SD = 0.58$; cognitive: $M = 3.88$, $SD = 0.71$; and evaluating: $M = 3.33$, $SD = 0.72$). However, no statistically significant difference was observed on the use of monitor-control strategies between the two groups, $F (1, 63) = 0.10$, $p = .76$.

TABLE 4.
ONE-WAY ANOVA OF METACOGNITIVE CONTROL OF WRITING STRATEGY BETWEEN HIGH- AND LOW-PERFORMING WRITERS FOR WRITING TASK TWO

Strategies	Groups	M	SD	F	p
Planning	high ($N = 33$)	3.79	0.55	**4.46**	**.04***
	low ($N = 32$)	3.48	0.58		
cognitive	high ($N = 33$)	4.23	0.67	**4.23**	**.04***
	low ($N = 32$)	3.88	0.71		
monitor-control	high ($N = 33$)	3.53	0.78	0.10	.76
	low ($N = 32$)	3.47	0.81		
evaluating	high ($N = 33$)	3.80	0.72	**6.71**	**.01***
	low ($N = 32$)	3.33	0.72		

Metacognitive knowledge of writing strategy

To find out if the high- and low-performing EFL writers had different metacognitive knowledge of writing strategy, we first grouped students using the average scores of their two writing tasks. The *t*-test ($t = 17.94$, $p < .01$) showed that on average, the high-achieving group ($M = 79.94$, $SD = 3.24$) was significantly better than the low-achieving group ($M = 63.82$, $SD = 3.81$) in writing performance. The ANOVA results on the metacognitive knowledge of the four types of the strategy are presented in Table 5, which showed that none of the strategy differed significantly between the high- and low-performing students: planning strategy, $F (1, 63) = 1.10$, $p = .30$; cognitive strategy, $F (1, 63) = 0.13$, $p = .72$; monitor-control strategy, $F (1, 63) = 0.06$, $p = .82$; and evaluating strategy, $F (1, 63) = 0.63$, $p = .43$. These results suggested that students with different levels of writing performance had similar metacognitive knowledge in FL writing.

TABLE 5.
ONE-WAY ANOVA OF METACOGNITIVE KNOWLEDGE OF WRITING STRATEGY BETWEEN HIGH- AND LOW-PERFORMING WRITERS

Strategies	Groups	M	SD	F	p
Planning	high ($N = 33$)	3.23	0.91	1.10	0.30
	low ($N = 32$)	3.01	0.79		
cognitive	high ($N = 33$)	4.04	0.62	0.13	0.72
	low ($N = 32$)	3.99	0.58		
monitor-control	high ($N = 33$)	3.52	0.89	0.06	0.82
	low ($N = 32$)	3.47	0.85		
evaluating	high ($N = 33$)	3.33	0.65	0.63	0.43
	low ($N = 32$)	3.21	0.61		

V. DISCUSSION

Our findings indicated that the EFL writers with different levels of writing performance did not differ on the metacognitive knowledge about writing strategy use in the whole writing processes from planning to revising, despite differences in their FL writing performance. However, the two groups of students differed in terms of metacognitive control in the two writing tasks. This finding was consistent with the argument that it is necessary to distinguish between metacognitive knowledge in general and metacognitive control for specific cognitive tasks (e.g., Han, 2011,

2012; Han & Stevenson, 2008; Phakiti, 2006, 2007). The deployment of metacognitive control is rather context-specific and can fluctuate from context to context, and such deployment may depend on a number of factors, such as the writers' motivation at the time of writing, their attitudes towards the writing tasks, the familiarity with the writing topics, and FL writers' processing efficiency (Schoonen et al., 2002, 2003, 2009; Phakiti, 2007; Purpura, 1999).

As has been mentioned, metacognitive control operates in one's working memory, efficient processing can leave working memory with sufficient cognitive energy for the metacognitive knowledge to be retrieved from the long-term memory and to be applied strategically in the writing processes (Han, 2012, 2016; Han & Stevenson, 2008; Phakiti, 2003, 2007; Purpura, 1999). In our research, we did not measure learners' efficiency of linguistic processing in writing, such as speed of lexical retrieval and speed of sentence construction, therefore, whether efficiency of linguistic processing affects writers' use of writing strategy remained unexplored.

Across the two writing tasks, we found that the patterns of metacognitive control of writing strategy between high- and low-performing writers were not consistent. For the first writing task, the only difference lay in the cognitive strategies, whereas in the second writing task, the two groups of students differed in terms of both cognitive and metacognitive strategies (i.e., planning and evaluating strategies). This shows that deployment of cognitive strategies exhibited consistency across the two tasks: the high-performing EFL writers used more of this kind of strategies than their low-performing counterparts irrespective to the writing tasks. This was in line with Purpura's (1999) emphasis on the importance of the cognitive strategy use.

The cognitive strategies are primarily concerned with "intentional and goal-oriented process that individuals employ to use language to understand or learn for some purposes" (Phakiti, 2007, p. 6-7), whereas the metacognitive strategies are mainly used to regulate cognitive strategies and linguistic processing (Phakiti, 2007). The different functions between cognitive and metacognitive strategies could be why the patterns of using planning and evaluating strategies between our good and poor EFL writers differed for the two tasks, because high-performing EFL writers might not feel a need for use of many metacognitive strategies when completing the first writing task possibly due to the reason that the topic was more familiar and easier compared to the topic of the second writing task.

Indeed, Manchon, Larios, and Murphy (2007) suggested that topic familiarity is an important factor that affects writers' writing strategy use. The first writing topic was concerned with making friends, which was more closely related to students' everyday life experience, and hence could be more familiar to them. The second writing topic was discussion on an educational issue, which seemed to be further away from the students' daily experience. The more familiar topic, presumably easier one (the first writing task) might not have triggered the high-performing writers to actively use metacognitive strategies in the writing process as many as those used in the less familiar and more challenging writing task (the second writing task), hence no differences were found between good and poor writers on using metacognitive strategies.

This might be why we only found use of cognitive writing strategies differed between high- and low-performing writers in the more familiar writing topic. In the less familiar and more difficult writing task, which presumably required the writers to carefully plan before writing and to constantly evaluate what had been converted into the written texts after writing might have created opportunities for good writers to apply metacognitive strategies more frequently in order to handle the more challenging writing task. Consequently this might enable the differences on the metacognitive strategy use between the proficient and less-proficient EFL writers to show.

In summary, our study suggested that while the high- and low-performing EFL writers did not differ from each other in terms of the metacognitive knowledge they possessed in FL writing, they differed in terms of actual use of writing strategies depending on the writing task. When the participants were undertaking a writing topic which was more familiar and easier for them, the two groups of writers only differed in using cognitive writing strategies, whereas when the writing task appeared to be more challenging and difficult, in addition to using more cognitive strategies, the good readers might have used more metacognitive strategies to help them coordinate cognitive processes in terms of planning and evaluating for their writing. The results of our research highlights the importance of making a clear distinction between metacognitive knowledge – the knowledge about writing strategy use, and metacognitive control – the actual writing strategy use in specific writing tasks, in FL writing strategy research. The differences of the metacognitive strategy use contrasting good and poor EFL writers in the more difficult writing task may point to the potential that training programs targeted on metacognitive strategies could be more beneficial. A recent intervention study which compared the effects of metacognitive and cognitive writing strategy training might support this speculation. Tabrizi and Rajaee (2016) found that Iranian primary school students who received metacognitive writing strategy training achieved better performance in English writing performance than students who received cognitive writing strategy training.

Conclusion

Owing to the scope and design of the study, a number of limitations should be pointed out and possible avenues for future research are also outlined. First, the participants in our study were English majors, who could not represent a vast majority of Chinese EFL learners learning English only as a required course. Future studies may investigate metacognitive knowledge and control of writing strategy with non-English major students. Another major limitation is that we only used retrospective questionnaire for measuring students' metacognitive control, which might not accurately represent students' concurrent strategy use during writing. Think-aloud method would be a better method for concurrent

strategy use, although such method is quite time-consuming and may only be feasible with small sample size. With relatively large sample, such as ours, we recommend that a combination of both retrospective questionnaires and the think-aloud method on a sub-sample of participants, who are carefully selected based on writing performance can be used in future studies to investigate FL writers' metacognitive control. In conclusion, our research highlighted the importance to distinguish between metacognitive knowledge and control in EFL writing research.

APPENDIX.   MARKING RUBRICS

Circle: 1 = Very poor   2 = Poor   3 = Moderate   4 = Good   5 = Very good

Criteria	Score
1. Structure and Organization (20%)	
1.1 Title: The essay has a title which clearly corresponds with the content of the essay.	1 2 3 4 5
1.2 Structure: The essay contains a clear division in: introduction, argumentation and conclusion.	1 2 3 4 5
1.3 Lay-out: The essay is well-organized. There is a clear division in paragraphs. Paragraphs are divided by: a blank line, indenting or are started on a new line.	1 2 3 4 5
1.4 Relations between Paragraphs: There is a clear 'train of thought' between paragraphs. It is easy to determine coherence relations between paragraphs in the text.	1 2 3 4 5
1.5 Continuity: Information which belongs together is a presented together.	1 2 3 4 5
Total	
2. Content (30%)	
2.1 Introduction: The thesis statement is presented in the introduction and (possibly) the writer's own opinion on the thesis statement is also provided.	1 2 3 4 5
2.2 Persuasion: It is clear what the writer wishes to persuade the reader to believe: a choice for or against the thesis statement.	1 2 3 4 5
2.3 Reader Orientation: The essay is easy to comprehend for readers who have not read the essay.	1 2 3 4 5
2.4 Conclusion: The essay contains a clear conclusion, which corresponds with the rest of the text and which indicates the writer's own opinion.	1 2 3 4 5
2.5 Closing: It is clear that the essay is finished, for example by a brief summary of the content of the essay or by a closing statement. There are no loose ends left.	1 2 3 4 5
Total	
3. Argumentation (30%)	
3.1 Writer Position: The position is clear, and strongly and substantially argued.	1 2 3 4 5
3.2 Support: The argument consists of multiple arguments, which support the writer's opinion.	1 2 3 4 5
3.3 Relevance: The argumentation does not contain too much superfluous information, i.e., information which does not help support the writer's opinion.	1 2 3 4 5
3.4 Argumentation: The arguments are clearly recognizable; e.g. *"therefore I do (not) think that…", "I think…", "I do (not) agree with…"*	1 2 3 4 5
3.5 Referential and Coherence relations: The referential and coherence relations are clear if they are implicit, or else are marked explicitly; e.g.: *therefore, so, because, firstly, secondly, thirdly, subsequently*	1 2 3 4 5
Total	
4. Language Use and Mechanics (20%)	
4.1 Sentence Structure: There is an effective balance of simple and complex sentence patterns with coordination and subordination.	1 2 3 4 5
4.2 Vocabulary Knowledge: The essay demonstrates a sophisticated range of vocabulary knowledge.	1 2 3 4 5
4.3 Grammar: There are few errors of agreement, tense, word order, articles, pronouns and prepositions.	1 2 3 4 5
4.4 Mechanics: There are few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization and paragraphing.	1 2 3 4 5
4.5 Handwriting: The whole essay looks tidy and neat and the handwriting is good.	1 2 3 4 5
Total	

Total score: _____

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Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners' Vocabulary Inferencing Strategies: A Qualitative Study

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Abstract—**The present qualitative and interpretative study aims to investigate Iranian EFL learners' L2 vocabulary strategies. The distribution of strategy types and what factors contribute to the success of the inferencing strategies are the two main purposes of the study. Using think-aloud procedures with 15 Iranian EFL learners, the present study explored L2 learners' inferencing strategies and the relationship with their success. Sixteen types of inferential strategies were revealed to be employed by the participants and two types of inferences were identified: successful and less successful inferences. The results of the study are discussed in the light of the similar studies and the suggestions for future research are made. The study has a number of pedagogical implications for L2 research and practice, L2 teachers, syllabus designers, and educational psychology.**

Index Terms—**L2 vocabulary learning, lexical inferencing strategies, L2 teaching**

I. INTRODUCTION

Vocabulary development is an essential part of second language (L2) acquisition (Laufer, 1992; Nation, 2006; Schmitt, 2008; Yousefi, 2015; Yousefi & Biria, 2015, 2016). There is a general consensus in the field of SLA that lexical inferencing (LIF) is among the most commonly used techniques that L2 learners use to generate meaning for unknown words they encounter in context (Deschambault, 2012).

Learner's knowledge of efficient strategy use in lexical inferencing research has been presumed to be a determining issue for learner's vocabulary learning achievement (Nassaji, 2004). Some studies centered on the signs apply in lexical inferencing (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999); whereas other studies reveled the achievement speed of lexical inferencing (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004). When sufficient signs are accessible in the context, learner's L2 ability is one of the important things to proper signs employ and successful meaning construction for new words. This has been confirmed by the studies on the relationship among learner's lexical inferencing success and their vocabulary size, or the width of vocabulary knowledge (Laufer, 1997) and the depth of vocabulary knowledge (Qian, 1999).

Literature Review

Lexical inferencing means "making informed guesses as to the meaning of a word, in light of all available linguistic cues in combination with the learner's general knowledge of the world, her awareness of context and her relevant linguistic knowledge" (Haastrup,1991, p. 40).Over the past decades, researchers have spent considerable amount of time theorizing and exploring what successful language learners do and what strategies they employ in the process of acquiring a second language (Hu & Nassaji, 2014). A word with a derived meaning is more likely to be retained in an L2 lexical system than a word with a glossed meaning (Nation, 2001). Recently, there has been an increased research interest in the infenceing strategies of L2 learners and factors affecting the use and success of them (Hu & Nassaji, 2012 ; Nassaji, 2003, 2004; Nassaji & Hu, 2012; Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Wesche & paribakht, 2010). Research also indicated that lexical inferencing was widely used by L2 learners when dealing with unknown words in their reading (Paribakht & Wesche, 1999; Parry, 1993). Lexical inferencing has also been found to be closely associated with incidental vocabulary learning (Nagi, 1997).

Besides, a number of researchers (e.g., Coady, 1993; Stein, 1993) claim that inferring word meaning from context is often an unreliable method of vocabulary learning. For instance, Ko (2012) argues that due to their lack of vocabulary knowledge or proficiency level, L2 learners cannot make intelligent guesses In the same manner, Nagy (1997) believe that learners must know the majority of the vocabulary in any text to be able to guess the meanings of unknown words successfully. As stated by Ko (2012), guessing unknown words would be more problematic in the case of L2 beginners whose overall L2 knowledge is limited.

Hu and Nassaji (2014) have determined several important characteristics of successful inferencers included frequent use of evaluation and monitoring strategies, a combination of both textual and background knowledge, self-awareness, and repeated efforts to infer the target word meanings. Advanced vocabulary knowledge necessitates knowledge of lexical knowledge (Meara & Wolter, 2004) and also involves understanding the affect or attitude conveyed by different word choices (Qian, 1999). Additionally, Corrigan (2007) posited that the notion of vocabulary depth is important

because it has been shown to make a unique contribution (i.e., beyond vocabulary breadth in predicting reading comprehension (Qian 1999).

In the same way, Nassaji (2006) examined the relationship between English as a second language learners' depth of vocabulary knowledge, their lexical inferencing strategy use, and their success in deriving word meaning from context. In this study, participants read a passage containing 10 unknown words and attempted to derive the meanings of the unknown words from context. Introspective think-aloud protocols were used to discover the degree and types of inferencing strategies learners used. Nassaji found that the stronger students made more effective use of certain types of lexical inferencing strategies than their weaker counterparts. And depth of vocabulary knowledge made a significant contribution to inferential success over and above the contribution made by the learner's degree of strategy use. Nassaji provided empirical support for the centrality of depth of vocabulary knowledge in lexical inferencing.

Nassaji (2006) also lend countenance to the hypothesis that lexical inferencing is a meaning construction process that is significantly influenced by the richness of the learner's preexisting semantic system. To make successful meaning inferences , learners not only need to be attentive to the functions and meanings of affixes, but should be able to integrate structural (morphological structure) and contribution of morphological awareness and lexical inferencing ability semantic (morpheme meaning) information of each target word (Zhang & Koda, 2012).

In their mixed design, Hu and Nassaji (2014) explored L2 learners' inferential strategies and the relationship with their success. Twelve types of inferential strategies were found to be used by all the learners, and two groups of learners were identified: successful and less successful inferencers. The results of the study confirmed a number of differences between successful and less successful inferencers which pertained to not only the degree to which they used certain strategies but also when and how to use them successfully. Research (Nassaji, 2004; Haastrup, 1991; Wesche & aribakht, 2010) has also found that learners' knowledge of effective strategy use is a determining factor for learners' vocabulary learning success.

Most significantly, Kintsch (2004) argued from a psycholinguistic view that an inferencer must build a situation model, in which the information is provided by the text and the schemata. Kintsch proposed that there are at least two ways in which the meaning selection could occur: one is that the schema acts as a filter in a top-down manner and the other is that the meaning selection takes place in a bottom-up manner. In the former case, the context suppresses irrelevant information due to its mismatch with the contextual meaning (P.28). To sum up, Nassaji and Hu (2012) concluded that task-induced involvement had significant effects on the use of lexical inferencing strategies and word retention.

II. METHODOLOGY

Iranian EFL learners are rarely taught L2 vocabulary inferencing strategies at schools and universities. Deriving the meaning of unknown words from context is a demanding challenge for Iranian EFL learners. Accordingly, they have difficulty in understanding, reading and deriving the meaning of unfamiliar words from context. Another problem is that we as language teachers do not have knowledge whether Iranian EFL learners employ a repertoire of inferencing skills or not.

The purpose of the present study is to determine different types of L2 lexical inferencing strategies that Iranian EFL learners employ for deriving the meaning of unknown words from context. Another purpose is that to determine factors hinder Iranian EFL learners to successfully derive the meaning of unknown words within context. Finally the study aims to determine factors contribute to the difficulty of L2 vocabulary inferencing among Iranian EFL learners.

As (Bengeleil & Paribakht, 2004; Nassaji, 2004) stated that although many studies of lexical inferencing have been took out in the context of English as a secondary language with their participants from varied language and cultural backgrounds, there are limited studies aiming to discover lexical inferencing in the context of English as a foreign language with all participants distribution one particular language and culture.

Research Question

The following question is addressed in the present study:

1. What types of L2 lexical inferencing strategies do Iranian EFL learners employ deriving the meaning of unknown words from context?

Participants

The Participants of the present qualitative study were 15 Iranian EFL learners (11 female and 4 male), aged between12-30(mean=18) who had been in intermediate level of Engl;ish proficiency. The participants were from private language institute in Miyandoab, Iran. They had different L1 background including; Azarbayjani Turkish, Persian and Kurdish. The class met three times a week. The focus was on reading book. All of participants volunteered for the study. The participants were told that the results of the study had nothing with their final exam scores. All the participants achieved a satisfactory threshold level to be able to infer the meaning of unknown words.

Materials

A reading passage was selected as a means of data collection. Ten words were selected as the target words and highlighted in bold fonts in the text .The target words were chosen from content words and low frequency words. The content words were considered significant for understanding the main ideas of the text. In order to make sure that the

target words were unknown by the participants, the pilot study was conducted with five learners. Those words that were known by these learners were replaced with other target words.

Procedure

The participants were received a target text with target words bold in it. They were asked to read the text for comprehension and to infer the meaning of the target words from the context. They were asked to verbalize what they would be thinking aloud to passage while inferring the target words. They were asked to think-aloud by reporting their thoughts when they inferring the meaning of the words. They were permitted to do the think-aloud in the language they felt most relaxed with it (either their own L1 or English). Afterwards, the learners were then given a test of five multiple-choice comprehension questions. They had been given 5-10 min to answer the comprehension tests. The aim of giving a reading comprehension test was to make sure that the participants read the text for comprehension while inferring the target words. After transcribing think-aloud protocols, they were translated to English.

Data collection

Concurrent think-aloud protocols were collected from the participants while they were engaged in lexical inferencing task. The protocol was employed since it was thought that some part of the information might be missing while participants were producing verbal reports. After data collection, data were transcribed by the second researcher. Then, the data were codified inductively. The researchers analyzed the data by going from examples to the main taxonomy of the Lexical Inferencing Strategies by Iranian EFL learners. Based on the reading of the transcriptions, a coding scheme was designed. The strategies recognized were refined based on the subsequent readings of the transcriptions of the think-aloud data. Firstly, sixteen types of inferential strategies were recognized. These strategies were as follows: analyzing, associating, repeating, using textual clues, using prior knowledge, paraphrasing, confirming-disconfirming, stating failure, reattempting, analyzing + using textual clues, associating + using textual clues, analyzing + paraphrasing, associating + using prior knowledge, making inquiry + stating the failure, analyzing + stating the failure, analyzing + confirming-disconfirming. These strategies then regrouped into eight major categories: Form-focused, Meaning-focused, Evaluating, Monitoring, Form-focused + Meaning-focused, Evaluating + Monitoring, Form-focused + Monitoring, Form-focused + Evaluating strategies.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSES

TABLE 4.1.
FREQUENCY OF EACH STRATEGY TYPE ALONG WITH CORRECT AND INCORRECT INFERENCES

	Frequency	Strategies	Frequency	Partially correct	Correct	Incorrect	Sum	Mean
Form-focused	49	Analyzing	13	1	11	1	13	6.5
		Associating	35	6	28	1	35	17.5
		Repeating	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
		Total	49	7	39	3	49	24.5
Meaning-focused	71	Using textual clues	40	4	26	10	40	20
		Using prior knowledge	18	2	15	1	18	9
		Paraphrasing	13	1	3	9	13	6.5
		Total	71	7	44	20	71	35.5
Evaluating	5	Confirming-disconfirming	5	2	2	1	5	2.5
		Total	5	2	2	1	5	2.5
Monitoring	2	Stating the failure	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
		Reattempting	1	0	1	0	1	0.5
		Total	2	0	1	1	2	1
Form-focused + Meaning-focused	14	Analyzing + Using textual clues	5	0	5	0	5	2.5
		Associating + Using textual clues	2	1	1	0	2	1
		Analyzing + Paraphrasing	6	2	3	1	6	3
		Associating + Using prior knowledge	1	0	1	0	1	0.5
		Total	14	3	10	1	14	7
Evaluating + Monitoring	1	Making inquiry + Stating the failure	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
		Total	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
Form-focused + Monitoring	1	Analyzing +Stating the failure	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
		Total	1	0	0	1	1	0.5
Form-focused + Evaluating	1	Analyzing + Confirming-disconfirming	1	0	1	0	1	0.5
		Total	1	0	1	0	1	0.5
No strategy	6	No strategy	6	1	0	5	6	3
		Total	6	1	0	5	6	3
		Sum	150	20	97	33	150	
		Total Mean	16.67	2.22	10.78	3.67	16.67	

Table 4.1. shows the each strategy type along with it sub-strategies. As it is evident meaning-focused strategies are the most frequently strategies with form—focused ones following them. However, as far as the success of inferences is concerned, form-focused strategies have triggered the most correct inferences on the part of the participants.
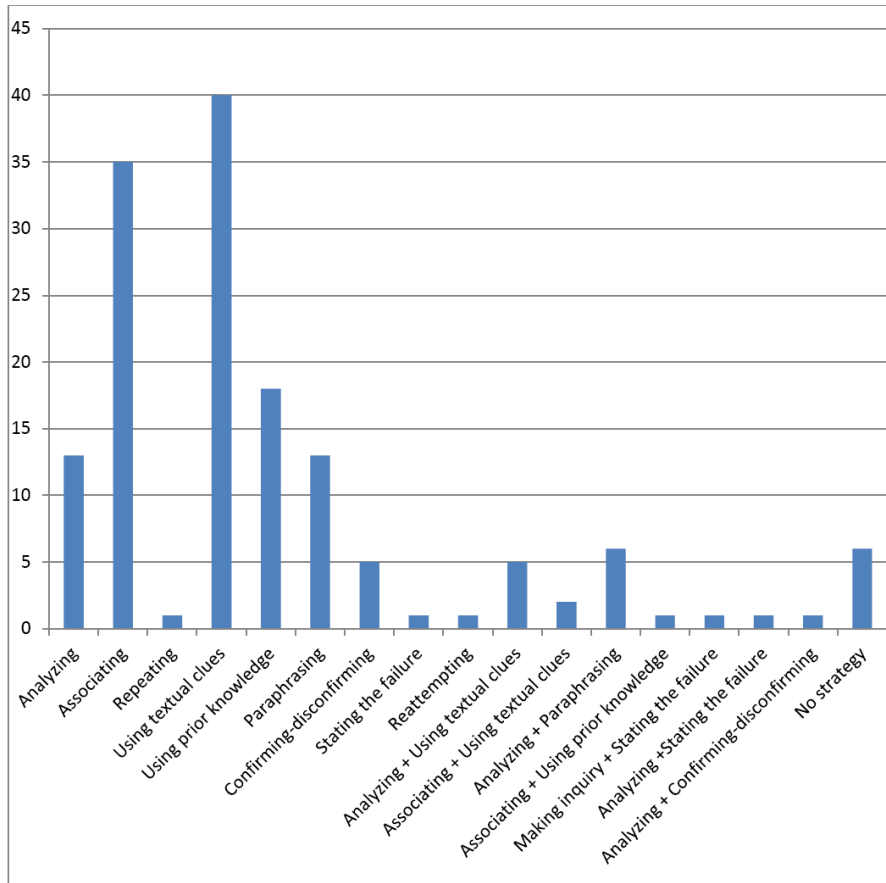
Figure 4.2 the mean for all strategy types

Figure 4.2 demonstrate mean for all strategy types that employed by learners. For example the highest mean belongs to using textual clues (it is 20). And the least mean for repeating, stating the failure, reattempting, associating + using prior knowledge, making inquiry + stating the failure, analyzing + stating the failure, analyzing + confirming-disconfirming, it is 0.5.
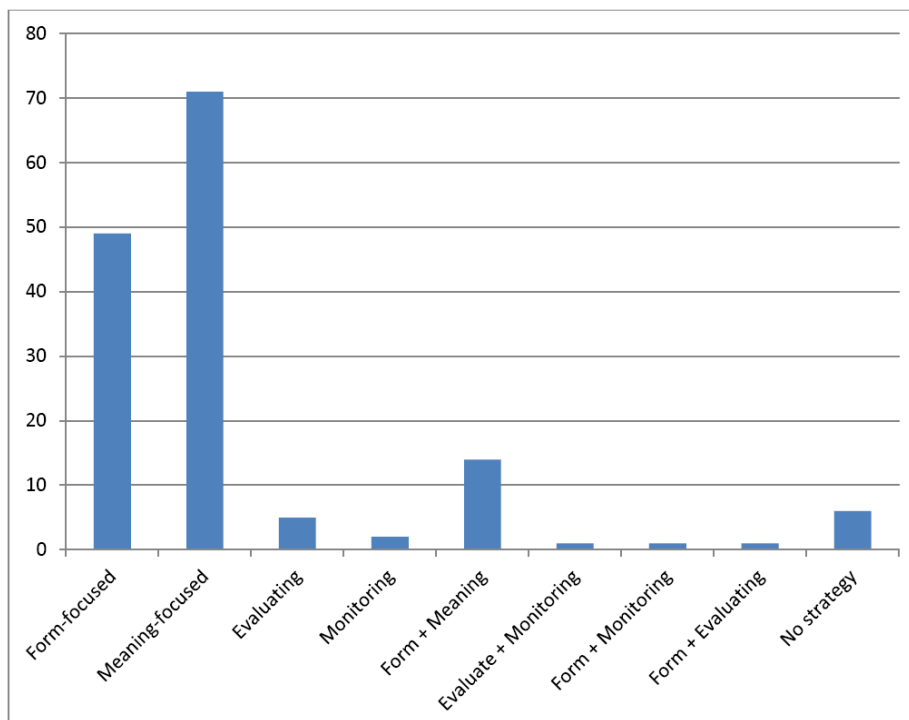

Figure 4.3 Figure for main strategies that used by participants

Figure 4.3 demonstrates that participants used 71 times Meaning-focused strategies. It is the most frequently strategy type. This figure also demonstrate that Evaluating strategies + Monitoring strategies, Form-focused strategies + Monitoring strategies, Form-focused strategies+ Evaluating strategies used less frequently by participants 1 time. In this figure there is no strategy. Participants guess the meaning of words 6 times with No strategy, they just say the mean for words.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

The present qualitative and interpretive study sought to investigate Iranian EFL learner's use of different types of lexical inferencing strategies in order to derive the meaning of unknown words from context. The results of the present study revealed that Iranian EFL learners have a rich repertoire of strategies to infer the meaning of the unknown words. They simultaneously employed more than one strategy (e.g Form-focused strategies + Meaning-focused strategies).

The findings suggest that meaning-focused strategies were the most commonly used strategies that Iranian EFL learners employed deriving the meanings of unknown words. This can be attributed to the fact that the participants most frequently relied on using contextual clues, both linguistic and non-linguistic, their prior knowledge and paraphrasing.

The findings also give countenance to the fact that successfully applying prior knowledge to making meaning out of the reading task and deriving the meanings of unfamiliar words should be encouraged by the language teachers. Furthermore, to drive the meaning of unknown lexical items in reading task, L2 learners should be taught strategies to capitalize on textual clues. They also should be made aware of the different part of speech, discourse markers, synonyms, antonyms, and elaboration techniques employed by authors.

Among most frequently used strategies are form-focused strategies. Associating is the first and foremost strategy on this regard. The participants employed it about three times more than analyzing and 11 out of 13 strategies were successful. This might be attributed to the fact that associating has saliency among cognitive tasks and hence the participants have propensity to apply the strategy more than the other strategies. It is recommended that language teachers emphasize the strategy teaching reading skill.

That is because they guess, they think. One of the contributes of the present study is to highlight (no strategy use) in the current study sometimes participants report using any strategy. That is because many teachers don't teach strategies.

The results of the present study demonstrate that Iranian EFL learners, under some circumstances, simultaneously employed more than one strategy type. They tend to utilize Meaning-focused Strategies (using contextual clues) than any other strategy type. It might be because of the fact that the participants read the text for comprehension purpose. Although participants simultaneously used both strategy types (e.g Analyzing + Paraphrasing), but a small number of participants employed these strategies. I think because they didn't know the strategies and didn't know how they used these strategies.

Pedagogical Implications

The present study has a number of pedagogical implications for syllabus designers, language teachers, curriculum developers and applied linguistics. It is suggested that language teachers should incorporate teaching inferencing strategies in teaching reading courses. Due to the fact that the lexical items which once successfully inferred will have greater chance of retention and recall, it is strongly recommended that L2 learners encouraged to infer the meaning of unknown words in the first place.

Limitations of the study

The present study has a number of limitations that should be confessed. First, the study was conducted with small number of the participants. Thus future studies are suggested to be done with a large number of the participants. Second, the participants were intermediate EFL learners. Caution should be exercised since advanced learners may have difficult patterns and reports of vocabulary unfencing strategies.

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George Eliot's Feminine Assertion in
Middlemarch

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Abstract—As a female writer, especially the one capable of winning a unique reputation among the male-dominated literary circle during the Victorian era, George Eliot was sensitive and much concerned for women's living circumstances and difficulties in the community. The article aims to make a tentative interpretation on Eliot's feminine perspectives by a closing reading of her representative novel, *Middlemarch*. The article concludes that George Eliot was not a feminist, and she herself might refuse to be entitled a feminist. Through analysis of her female images, it is clear that George Eliot never put man and woman on the two contradictory extremes, and she didn't contend that women's pursuit for social worth and individual values should be obtained at the loss of feminine qualities, such as to be a wife and mother. Thus, George Eliot is definitely not a feminist; instead, she is a female writer with advanced consciousness of women's independence, social worth and individual values. Instead of emphasizing women's sexual identity, Eliot puts priority on women's social identity--- a human being equal to men. No matter a man or a woman, they should enjoy the same rights and undertake the same obligations. Just like herself, she succeeded in writing and didn't give up her pursuit for love and marriage.

Index Terms—feminine, social value, independence

I. INTRODUCTION

In *A Literature of Their Own*, Elaine Showalter states in the Chapter IV "Feminine Heroines: Charlotte Bronte and George Eliot that: "Women beginning their literary careers in the 1840s were seeking heroines-both professional role-models and fictional ideals-who could combine strength and intelligence with feminine tenderness, tact, and domestic expertise. At the same time, they perceived themselves and their fictional heroines as innovators who would provide role-models for future generations"(Showalter, 2004, p.100). It is much of the truth that George Eliot emphasizes the feminine qualities of women. She believes that women's strength and intelligence are equal to, even greater than those of men. When comparing George Eliot with Charlotte Bronte, Elaine Showalter maintains that in terms of Charlotte Bronte, she chose a volcanic literature of the body as well as of the heart, a sexual and often supernatural world, thus she is usually seen as the romantic, the spontaneous artist who pours forth her feelings without premeditation. While George Eliot, on the contrary, is a writer and a woman in the Jane Austen tradition, studies, intellectual, cultivated (P.104). In her reviews of the silly lady novelists, Eliot defined her own professional ideals, the really cultured women, who "is all the simpler and the less obtrusive for her knowledge…she does not make it a pedestal from which she flatters herself that she commands a complete view of men and things, but makes it a point of observation from which to form a right estimate of herself. She neither spouts poetry nor quotes Cicero on slight provocation. …she does not write books to confound philosophers, perhaps because she is able to write books that delight them. In conversation she is the least formidable of women, because she understands you, without wanting to make you aware that you can't understand her" (Showalter, 2004, p.104).

George Eliot's views and her unconventional life experiences incurred much doubts and disgust from the contemporary female writers. "Victorian women writers, when they contemplated George, had felt somewhat betrayed. They thought she had rejected them because she had avoided intimacy; they thought she had despised them because she had held them to a rigorous standard. They could not equal her, and they could see no way around her" (Showalter, 2004, p.111).

The feminists berated her for her compromise and submission to male-dominated social values, and concluded that Eliot was subject to the ideological limitations in the Victorian era. However, it's fair to say that Eliot is a mild philosopher rather than a radical social activist. As an outstanding writer with realistic spirit, George Eliot was sensitive to women's living conditions and social circumstances at the era. Thus, George Eliot didn't strongly advise women to pursue social values at the cost of love, marriage and family life, for she was aware that no one should encourage women to slap the door behind and applaud for their courage and volition of running away from women's identity without providing the feasible suggestions for them to live in the current male-dominated society.

It was not until Virginia Woolf that female writers changed their views on George Eliot. Virginia Woolf

complimented Eliot and regarded her as a heroine instead of a rival. In 1919, Virginia Woolf wrote an essay helping restoring Eliot to her rightful position after a period of Victorian and Edwardian backlash. While Woolf admitted that there were flaws in Eliot's novels, she appreciated Eliot's fidelity to female experience depicted in the heroines. To explore the feminine assertions of George Eliot, the best way is to explore the characters, especially the female images in her works.

II. MIDDLEMARCH

First published during 1871 and 1872, *Middlemarch, A Study of Provincial Life* is set in the fictitious Midlands town of Middlemarch during 1829 to 1832. The novel is composed of several different but interweaving stories and quite a large cast of characters. *Middlemarch* is centered on the lives of the residents of Middlemarch. The narrative consists of three or four plots of unequal emphasis: the life of Dorothea Brooke; the career of Tertius Lydgate; the courtship of Mary Garth by Fred Vincy; and the disgrace of Bulstrode. Dorothea and Lydgate are the main characters and their stories are those of the main plots in the novel. Dorothea is the female representative to reflect explicitly Eliot's feminine thoughts.

Dorothea Brooke is a 17-year-old lady. After her parents' death, she lived with Celia, her younger sister, under the guardianship of her uncle, Mr. Brook. Dorothea is an ambitious and pious young woman, who always dreams of being useful and exerts efforts to do something great. However, her uncle discourages her several times for her identity of being a woman. Dorothea turned down Sir James Chettam, a young man close to her own age, instead, she is attracted to Casaubon, a much older and ugly scholar despite her uncle's advice and sister's misgivings. Dorothea accepts Casaubon for the reason that she might be useful to her husband in his great work and assists in achieving something great. However, Dorothea soon becomes disappointed and gets depressed during their honeymoon in Rome, for she finds that her husband has no intention to involve her in his intellectual pursuits. Casaubon's cousin Will Ladislaw is attracted to Dorothea. Oblivious as she remains to him, the two become friendly. When Casaubon returns from Rome, he suffers an attack and diagnosed by the doctor that he only has about fifteen years left if he takes it easy and ceases his studies. In poor health, Casaubon attempts to extract from Dorothea a promise that, should he die, she will "avoid doing what I should deprecate, and apply yourself to do what I should desire"(Eliot, 1994, P.367). Casaubon dies before she can reply, and she later learns that Casaubon leaves the will that if she marries Ladislaw, she will lose her inheritance. In the end, Dorothea denounced her heritance and married Will Ladislaw.

III. FEMININE THOUGHTS REFLECTED FROM *MIDDLEMARCH*

Virginia Woolf drew a perfect conclusion about the character of George Eliot's novels on the combination of Aesthetics and ethical value: "George Eliot makes us join in their (characters in novels) life with sympathy not deigning and curiosity… Her broad mind contains a group of main factors of human nature, she loosely gets them together with a sound understanding, and we read them again and again, not only finding that her characters are dynamic, free and unconstrained, but also surprisingly finding that they can control our laughter and tears" (Showalter, 2004, p.136). In *Middlemarch*, George Eliot explores the awakening of self-independent consciousness of women, the rebellion and struggle undertaken by women who are in pursuit of their personal independent personality, and the confused state because of its unavoidable limitation of the times and the pressure from the patriarchal society, thus she reveals her concern for women and exhibits her feminine consciousness.

A. *Dorothea's Pursuits*

Dorothea Brook, as the premier character in the novel, is first introduced to readers as a 19-year-old woman brimming with youthful vitality and noble ambition. Dorothea and her sister Celia are brought up by her bachelor uncle, Mr. Brook. As ladies of the landed gentry class, she and her sister have been educated in convert school abroad. Quite similar to Maggie in The Mill on the Floss, Dorothea is an intelligent girl with pursuits beyond duty imposed on women in the Victorian era. Insightful as Dorothea is, when compared with other women at her day, George Eliot set that the meagre education received, enforced by her ardent nature, theoretic mind and a rather dull, reclusive life, has inspired the young lady onto a precarious road of life and vocation.

Dorothea grows into an extraordinary woman, a young lady of "eccentricities", as is known in the neighborhood. She is not satisfaied by the prospect of a life of ease and comfort typical of women of her class at the time, but sincerely hopes to rise above her peers, above their trivial, pitiable confinement of femininity, and to mold her life into something wider in scope and profounder in meaning. Her religious zeal finds vent in her eagerness to embrace the holy doctrines she can lay hold of and in her yearning for a life of glory through religious martyrdom.

Dorothea seems always different from others for her excessive ambition. As her sister Celia says, she always sees what nobody else sees and never sees what is quite plain. Unlike the young ladies of the day, Dorothea doesn't like jewelry at all. Dorothea doesn't like the jewels not because the jewels are not beautiful but that the jewels don't match her soul and her higher quest for spiritual contentment. Dorothea's refusal to jewels is a symbol of her refusal of stereotypes imposed on women. For Dorothea, women should have nobler quest other than dressing up like dolls.

To satisfy her puritanical self-sacrificial ideal, she even withdraws from the activities she enjoys most. She devotes

herself to reforming the living conditions of her uncle's cottagers and busying herself with visiting the poor and helping the sick. When her efforts are not readily appreciated by the people around, and certainly inconvenienced by her own maidenhood dependency, she transfers her hope and ambition onto Casaubon, a crusty old scholarly priest, in hopes of attaining the final realization of her ideal. The Reverend Edward Casaubon, noted for his profound learning, is said to have been engaging on a great work concerning religious history; without much understanding and contact, Dorothea grows inclination for Casaubon, mainly from his being called a knowledgeable scholar. When Celia says how ugly Mr. Casaubon is, Dorothea defends that he is one of the most distinguished-looking men she ever saw, and he is remarkably like the portrait of Locke with the same eye-sockets (Eliot, 1994).

It is obvious that Dorothea's self-realization is not limited to a pious religious follower, but, rather, as noted in Prelude, she aspires to be a new St Theresa. In other words, with a life which combined great practical achievement with continual prayer and religious sanctity, she hopes to reach a state of spiritual marriage with God. And a most holy and glorious life like St. Theresa's is what Dorothea has in mind when she sets out on her journey of life. Whatever noble ideal Dorothea has in mind, she wishes to achieve the greatness of St Theresa, her ignorance about herself and the society, and her personal experience of the narrowness of this small world she is dwelling in makes her seek her martyrdom rather blindly. Since there is no way for her to do anything socially practical, she naturally turns her eyes to learning, the profound, holy knowledge which seems to hold the key to her fantasy of sainthood.

Apparently, everyone is clear that the reason Dorothea chose Casaubon was not out of passion and love from a woman to man, but admiration and respect from a student or follower to scholar and tutor. To some extent, Dorothea is not to choose a lover but a mentor. Her love for Casaubon is blind and irrational. Eliot often applies "childlike" and "childish" to characterize Dorothea in her early days. She is confused about the devotion to religion and faith with the devotion to family life and husband. Even worse, she is meddled with the realization of her personal quest for ideal life with the fulfillment of social values. It turns out that her plans are not met with much enthusiasm.

B. Dorothea's Disillusionment

As Mr. Brook and Celia say of Dorothea, her thoughts and behaviors are not in line with the expected roles of women. At the very beginning of Chapter I of Book One, George Eliot quotes from The Maid's Tragedy: Beaumont and Fletcher that: Since I can do no good because a woman, Reach constantly at something that is near it (Eliot, 1994, p.5). "Something" that Dorothea chose is to find an ideal husband. "Ideal" for her is not social status, property or appearance. On the contrary, she despises all of these superficial judgments and claims that the ideal man for her is "who could understand the higher inward life, and with whom there could be some spiritual communion; nay, who could illuminate principle with the widest knowledge a man whose learning almost amounted to a proof of whatever he believed"(Eliot, 1994, p.38).

Too much devoted to her religion and quest for great expectations, Dorothea, instead of being rational and wise, falls into the other extreme. She is blind to people's advice and refuses to accept people's judgment on Casaubon. Casaubon turns out to be indifferent, lack of manly affections for his wife. No wonder that he is ever called "no better than a mummy" by Sir James, a loyal courtier of Dorothea. In the weeks since her marriage, Dorothea's depression grows day by day. When Dorothea told her husband that she wished to be more useful to him and urged him to write book about his research, Casaubon got irritated.

Desperate to be of use to her husband and take part in the great research he's devoting to, Dorothea can't help but show her eagerness to urge her husband to do something as she expects. When it fails to her expectation, Dorothea, out of her natural reaction, is agitated and relentless. Dorothea's failure of the first marriage is resulted from the complicated social elements as well as her personal causes concerning her breed, religion, characters, etc.

In terms of social elements, Dorothea is subject to the identity as a woman. Her devotion to the spiritual perfection, her thirsty for knowledge, her quest to change the world are out of the line with the supposed roles of a woman. Though Mr. Brook was an intellect, he emphasizes the identity of women in a contemptuous tone: Young ladies don't understand political economy, and "I cannot let young ladies meddle with my documents. Young ladies are too flighty" (Eliot, 42). For Casaubon, Dorothea is a companion who can stay and take care of him in his declining years. He never expects his wife to be of use of his work, let alone to involve her in his research and writing. Casaubon doesn't have the passion of love and the spirit of dedication to love that Dorothea has. His lukewarm attitude and his intentional refusal of communion disappoint Dorothea. With more and more understanding, Dorothea finds that her marriage is completely different from what she has expected. Neither can she realize her noble quest for spiritual contentment, nor can she seek warmth and comforts from her husband.

Compared with the social elements, George Eliot reminds reader much of Dorothea's disadvantages in her religion, education and personality. In a sense, Dorothea is the one to blame for the failure of her marriage. In the story, the narrator says that Part of Dorothea's naive formula for marriage stems from her bachelor uncle's Protestant upbringing. In roman, the narrator says that "But let them conceive one more historical contrast: the gigantic broken revelations of that Imperial and Papal city thrust abruptly on the notions of a girl who had been brought up in English and Swiss Puritanism, fed on meager Protestant histories and on art chiefly of the hand-screen sort; a girl whose ardent nature turned all her small allowance of knowledge into principles, fusing her actions into their mold, and whose quick emotions gave the most abstract things the quality of a pleasure or a pain (Eliot, 1994, p.384). From the sentences, it is rational to say that although compared with other women, Dorothea is quite noticeable for her smartness and quick wits,

but it's undeniable that with a limited education, Dorothea is self-indulgent in her noble and selfless devotion to the world.

Education plays a great role in Victorian women's marital choice. From Eliot's view, the educational gap between Victorian women and men reflects their outlook on marriage and further affects their marital choices. The failure of Dorothea's first marriage is first of all due to her meager education. Some critics once compared Dorothea to George Eliot. However, it is reasonable to say that Dorothea is endowed with Eliot's eager desire for knowledge and personal fulfillment, but lack of Eliot's sound and all-round education in languages, theology, philosophy, and even artistic tastes.

Firstly, Dorothea lost parents in her childhood, thus she has no formal domestic education for her parents, especially from her mother. When she and her sister live with her uncle, unmarried uncle still can't guide them in domestic education. The lack of domestic education arouses criticism from the neighborhood, and it's quite unusual and improper for young girls in the Victorian era. Thus, lack of guidance propels Dorothea's premature independence in thought. Despite a little formal education in Swiss, she teaches herself by voracious reading especially that of Greek and other classics. Thus, such education is not enough to cultivate a really independent lady with free and profound thinking, just like George Eliot.

Secondly, Dorothea doesn't receive a sound education. Although Dorothea gets some education, it's far from being called well educated. Details in the plots may suffice to prove it. When Mr. Brook mentions that women don't understand political economy, she feels annoyed but has to admit the truth of her ignorance of political economy, "that never-explained science which was thrust as an extinguisher over all her lights"(Eliot, 1994, p.9). In a sense, her talks about the reforms of farm and land, and her perspectives of ameliorating tenants' lives are not based on the systematic and sound knowledge but on her personal understanding.

In terms of characterization of Dorothea, Eliot's narrator is aware of and intentionally reminding reader of Dorothea's demerits in personalities.

Dorothea, for one thing, is self-indulgent. Dorothea always holds the quest for noble devotion to the world. When Casaubon showed her around his house and welcomed any alteration as she liked, Dorothea answered: "Pray do not speak of altering anything. There are so many other things in the world that want altering--I like to take these things as they are"(Eliot, 1994, p.91). Dorothea believed she is endowed with higher request to devote to the world, and she'd like to sacrifice her own desire at the sake of the welfare of the whole world. The way Dorothea looked at the world and her duty reminds readers of Saint Teresa. However, there isn't much common between Dorothea and Teresa except for Dorothea's eagerness to serve the world. Her ardent pursuits and ignorant incapability results in her rush and hasty decision in marriage, through which she tries to separates herself from the other women around her. However, when she goes to Rome for a honeymoon, she comes to the realization that her own knowledge and experience of the world to date has been woefully inadequate. The worst thing is that She is also despondent that her husband does not return her affectionate attentions towards him. The two have a disagreement one morning towards the end of their honeymoon in Rome in which each misunderstands the other. Casaubon mistakes Dorothea's request to be of aid with his intellectual endeavors to be a criticism of his inability to write a book on his scholarship while Dorothea's feelings of intellectual inadequacy compared to her husband increase. It's clear that Dorothea's Dorothea has always overestimates herself. The narrator has applied the word "stupid" and "conceit" foe many times to describe Dorothea's personality, and Dorothea, for her self indulgence and ignorance, doesn't realize her problems until she gets married. When Casaubon teaches her Latin and Greek as she requires, "Dorothea herself was a little shocked and discouraged at her own stupidity, and the answers she got to some timid questions about the value of the Greek accents gave her a painful suspicion that here indeed there might be secrets not capable of explanation to a woman's reason"(Eliot, 1994, p.180). Besides, Dorothea misjudges herself as well as her husband. When everyone around her reminds of reconsideration about her marriage to Casaubon, she believes that she judges a man from soul. To some extent, Casaubon never cheats her. It is Dorothea herself takes it for granted that Casaubon is a talented genius, who can be compared with the scholars such as Milton. Dorothea's expectation for marriage is based on her ignorance, lack of reason and narrow-mindedness. Thus, it's proper to say that Dorothea falls victim to her self-indulgence and conceit.

For another, Dorothea intentionally suppresses herself for true love and desire. Influenced by puritan creeds, Dorothea follows the rule of self-repression. Take the jewels plot as an example. When Celia advises to divide the jewels left by their mother, Dorothea's natural reaction is that they should never wear them. Not until Celia puts forwards the idea that keeping jewels is in respect to their mum's memory does Dorothea agree to take the jewels out for the first time. Dorothea offers all the Jewels to Celia and claims, "if I were to put on such a necklace as that, I should feel as if I had been pirouetting. The world would go round with me, and I should not know how to walk" (Eliot, 1994, p.89). Besides, she intentionally avoid touching the jewels with careless deprecation, for she believes these jewels unable to match her souls. Celia's reaction is that "she felt a little hurt. There was a strong assumption of superiority in this Puritanical toleration, hardly less trying to the blond flesh of an unenthusiastic sister than a Puritanical persecution" (Eliot, 1994, p.89).

Dorothea despises the jewels out of her self-repression. She actually intentionally suppresses herself for love for the beautiful stuff that she assumes not to be becoming to her. However, as a young girl, seeing the beautiful gems, Dorothea can't help exclaiming under a new current of feeling, as sudden as the gleam. Dorothea has to admit these

gems are beautifully and "slipping the ring and bracelet on her finely turned finger and wrist, and holding them towards the window on a level with her eyes. All the while her thought was trying to justify her delight in the colors by merging them in her mystic religious joy" (Eliot, 1994, p. 90). The detailed description here illustrates Dorothea's true feeling towards the shining and bling jewels. Seeing Dorothea's reaction, Celia begins to think with wonder that her sister shows some weakness. Once again, Dorothea feels contradictory between her natural spontaneous desire and self-repression for the greater soul. When she was persuaded to keep the ring and bracelet, she conceals her feeling and she says in another tone---Yet what miserable men find such things, and work at them, and sell them! She paused again, and Celia thought that her sister was going to renounce the ornaments, as in consistency she ought to do (Eliot, 1994). Dorothea's reactions show clearly that she actually restrains herself from her nature on purpose. Her refusal to her true nature annoys her and will sooner or later incur unexpected consequences.

Just as Eliot says in front of the chapter one, "Here and there is born a Saint Theresa, foundress of nothing, whose loving heart-beats and sobs after an unattained goodness tremble off and are dispersed among hindrances, instead of centering in some long-recognizable deed"(Eliot, 1994, p.4). Eliot has long predetermines Dorothea's destiny. Loving and ardent as she is, Dorothea falls victim to her self-indulgence, conceit and self-repression as a result of her religion, inadequate education and demerits in her personalities.

C. Dorothea's Self-consciousness

Lack of mutual understanding and enough communions between the couple lead to the unhappiness soon after their marriage. Dorothea experiences several different psychological phases in dealing with her relationship with Casaubon. Dorothea, at beginning, was in the reaction of rebellious anger at her dull and indifferent husband. Dorothea has planned to protest against her husband's indifference, mainly in meditative struggle. However, the religion and the education she has gradually turned her resentment into pity and sympathy on her old husband. Her deep-rooted self-repression for her truly desire overwhelmed again. Finding her husband's face more haggard, hearing her husband's soothing words with kind and quiet melancholy, Dorothea feels like she is devoting to something noble, and feels like she's much needed and appreciated for her tolerance and submission. Dorothea once again convinced herself of the worth and value at the cost of her happiness and personal desires.

Just as Dorothea's intentional repression from jewels and riding horse, Dorothea holds back her affections for Casaubon's cousin, Will Ladislaw. Once again, Dorothea is struggling between her desire for love and self-repression from personal desires. The night before Casaubon's sudden death, Casaubon asks if Dorothea will carry out his wish and avoid doing what he deprecates and apply to do what he desires. Dorothea pleads for more time to give the answer. She lays awake almost the whole night to consider if she should promise to her husband. Her hesitation once again demonstrates her conflicts in self-repression and self-consciousness.

After Casaubon's death, Dorothea is quite clear about her yearning for will's love. When Will came to say farewell before leaving, instead of confessing her love to Will, Dorothea says that she encourages Will to leave and make himself of some mark in the world. Will feels nothing but irritation and disappointment. Dorothea conceals her feelings for Will and tortures herself and her lover as well. A detail well shows Dorothea's self-depression. When Sir James visits, Will bids his farewell. Dorothea put out her hand and said her good-by cordially. "The sense that Sir James was depreciating Will, and behaving rudely to him, roused her resolution and dignity: there was no touch of confusion in her manner. And when Will had left the room, she looked with such calm self-possession at Sir James…" (Eliot, 1994, p.330). Until then, Dorothea's self-depression overweighs her feminine consciousness.

On an occasion, Mrs. Lydgate makes it clear to Dorothea that Will loves no one but her, Dorothea finally bursts out her repressed feeling and fires her desire for love and happiness. After so many years' repression, Dorothea finally follows her heart and makes a decision out of her desire. Dorothea frees herself from some odious provisions in Casaubon's will and she gets married to Will as she wishes. Some critics refer to the second marriage as no better than the first one. For Will Ladislaw, seen by her family as low-bred, is always regarded as a vaguely artistic fellow. Well educated as he is, he is not much gainfully employed. That Dorothea gives up inheritance marries Will even arouses disappointment in Dorothea. Henry James, in his comment on the book, referred to Will as "insubstantial". Some feminists, like Florence Nightingale, are much annoyed that Dorothea didn't devote her post-Casaubon life to social work. George Eliot shows us the growth, especially the psychological development of a young lady like Dorothea. When the girl finally realizes her demerits in education and personality, she should go back to the family life and become one of the angels in the house. That's out of readers, especially the feminists' expectation.

It's natural that feminists wish that Dorothea would renounce marriage and motherhood altogether, and pursue her social values, such as to be a freelance intellectual and novelist like George Eliot herself. However, since the beginning of the novel, George Eliot tends to show us the growing pains of a handsome ad wealthy lady with meager education. Dorothea's ignorant pursuits, inadequate education, demerits in personalities endow the image with much vividness and vitality. In the end, Dorothea gets her happy life. Some feminists criticize that Dorothea compromises with realism, and the originally ambitious young lady goes back to family life and becomes one of the ordinary housewives. However, there is no denying that Dorothea, after so many frustrations, finally has a clear idea of who she is and what she really wants. What's important, Dorothea becomes a psychologically independent human being.

IV. CONCLUSION

George Eliot's feminine assertions have been a hot issue in the literary studies. As Elaine Showalter points out, the feminist literation didn't start until George Eliot's death in 1880. Apparently, it's unreasonable to label George Eliot as a feminist. More likely, George Eliot is a female writer with feminine concerns. Her concerns for women is not as radical as feminist expected. Instead of setting women and men on two extremes, George Eliot is likely to judge them from the same standards, to be a human being. Instead of depicting women as victims of the patriarchal society, George Eliot doesn't hesitate to disclose women's weakness and ignorance. For George Eliot, no matter it is a man or woman, what counts most is their qualities of being a worthy man. Thus, in a sense, Eliot believes that women are equal to men in terms of religion, education, ideology, etc. Consequently, George Eliot's feminine views are beyond the limits of sexual discrimination, thus contain the universal connotations.

George Eliot's feminine views are a combination of tradition and modernity. As a Victorian writer, George Eliot expresses her concern for women's sound growth ahead of the advent of feminism. From her novels, it can be seen that Eliot attaches much significance to women's education. George Eliot was advanced in supporting women's education equal to men and condemned the artificial education women received.

Besides education, George endorsed women's pursuit for social values. Although confronting difficulties in realizing their pursuit, Dorothea is the exemplary model of avant-guard for vocational rights.

As for love and marriage, George Eliot is unique one, both in her life experiences but in her remarkable works. In Middlemarch, for the two marriages, Dorothea discards the standards of property and social status, chooses Casaubon for his knowledge and Will for love and passion. Clearly, the heroin doesn't confine herself to the social values of choosing partners in Victorian era. Thus, it's fair to say that the George Eliot is a female writer with modernity of feminine awareness.

At the same time, Eliot expresses conservative opinion on feminine assertions. Eliot doesn't support the idea that women pursue the individual quest at the cost of sacrificing the feminine qualities. Instead, she praises the traditional womanly qualities and advocates that women should preserve qualities such as tenderness and submission. Women's education, in Eliot' opinion, if inadequate and shallow, will do harm to women. Women's lack of sound and formal education doesn't enable them to get involved in political decisions. Of course, it is by no means to say that George Eliot depreciates women's role in society. On the basis of reality, George Eliot is but to expose the truth to people. For Eliot, the difference between men and women doesn't lie in the sexual identity, thus the standards to judge men and women should be based on the qualities of being a worthy human being instead of anything else. To some extent, George Eliot's views on religion and feminine assertions are consistent with her cherished values of humanity.

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The Exploring Practice of Grading Model in College English Teaching

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Abstract—**This article tries to explore the grading model in college English classrooms in a western university in China. As we know, teaching is an essential service for the society, and it is a regular but challenging task. Faced with new generation of students every year, educational institutions should get prepared and think out better strategies to meet every challenge ahead. The grading model is proved to be a better way out but not a best one. The wiser is to practice, revise, and practice. All done is to promote China college English teaching.**

Index Terms—**grading model, college English, CET-4**

I. INTRODUCTION

Starting from 1999, China colleges and universities at all levels implemented the policy of increased enrollment. Since then, for more than a decade its average rate of admission is 60.81%, while between 1998 and 1977, its average acceptance rate is 23.51%. Concerning the level of English education in such a huge country like China, it has a great variety from region to region and from college to college. But in truth for quite a long time, most universities and colleges at all levels employ "one-size-cuts-all" system and teachers-center model in the actual teaching practice. In universities or colleges with more favorable conditions, English course can be conducted in networked-computer classrooms, where students enjoy great advantages of modern technology. Classroom teaching is more student-centered, teachers talk less, instead, more relevant learning materials in video or MV can be played, and thus related discussion can be carried out. However, most China universities or colleges don't have such favorable sources. In those universities most English classes are given in traditional classrooms where chalk, blackboard and textbooks are greatly favored. In such a learning environment, usually two natural classes are combined into one English class (normally 60 students or so, this term I have one class with 98 students) because of lack of teachers' and teaching resources. To make better use of class time, teachers are compelled to talk a lot as there will be a unitary teaching plan and final exam for all students. Besides, even given time for students' class participation, few shows interest and most (more than two thirds I bet) are looking around and waiting shy. Things are getting worse with new generation of students who are born and grow up with advanced information technologies. Normally after one semester of college English, teachers and students complain lots and they even become "enemies" in class, really no exaggeration.

A. Related Theories

As early as 2,000 years ago, Confucius, a world-known ancient thinker and educator in China, pinpointed that every student is an unique identity, which cannot be overlooked for any reason. Hence various requirements should be laid down elaborately to meet different levels of students, based on which the great theory of "teaching students in accordance with their aptitude" came into being subsequently. Obviously such a wise man like Confucius introduced what we successors follow and well apply to teaching and education till now. In 1960s American educator Bloom Benjamin in his mastery learning methods proposed that "the focus of instruction should be the time required for different students to learn the same material and achieve the same level of mastery. This is very much in contrast with classic models of teaching, which focus more on differences in students' ability and where all students are given approximately the same amount of time to learn and the same set of instructions."(Bloom, 1981) Likewise, "If given proper study conditions, most students will become quite equal and close in learning ability, study efficiency, and further motivation.(Zhu, 1999) On basis of what's introduced above, it is an essential move to make a necessary reformation in accordance to every generation of college students, namely college freshmen.

B. China College English Guidelines

It's known to all, China college English has its nationwide emphasis starting from State (China) Education Commission. For greater efficiency in teaching and learning, since early 1980s, the Commission has issued and

rewritten China's College English Curriculum Requirements (henceforth the Requirements) six phases: 1980, 1985-1986, 1999, 2004, and 2007. In the latest version, the Requirements (2007) proposes that the teaching of College English should follow the principle of instructing students in accordance with their aptitude so as to meet the specific needs of individualized teaching. To improve classroom teaching efficiency, the Requirements highlight three objectives of assessment, namely, they are basic objective, intermediate objective and advanced objective, hence make a detailed list of listening, speaking, reading, writing, and translation, all of which are thought very important for any learner to master a foreign language. In addition, the Requirements put forth that college English course is one part of humanistic education in higher education, possessing the characteristics of being instrumental (a communicative tool) and being in spirit of humanity. In the aspect of being an instrument, college English course is an advancement and extension of basic stage in secondary education, of which aim is to improve students' comprehensive skills in reading, writing, listening, speaking and translating (interpreting). College English overall teaching goals, therefore, are raising students' practical ability in English, strengthening their cross-cultural awareness and fostering their communicative competence; in the meantime, training their self-learning, enhancing their artistic appreciation in order that they can use English effectively in their future life, study, social interaction and career as well.

Back to actual teaching activity, we must take notice of what's been learned before college, how much has been mastered and what will be learned at college. As an American psychologist, David P. Ausubel, put in the preface to his book *Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View*, that "If [he] had to reduce all of educational psychology to just one principle, [he] would say this: The most important single factor influencing learning is what the learner already knows. Ascertain this and teach him accordingly." (Ausubel, 1968) To achieve this end, the scheme grading teaching is aimed at those who have different needs or levels of English learners in China college English classrooms.

II. THE EXPLORATION PRACTICE IN COLLEGE ENGLISH CLASSROOMS

A. Relevant Illustration for Researched College English Teaching

As is stated in the Requirements, China college students have different levels of English proficiency as a result of geographical regions. It is also true that there is a wide gap for English learners in the same university. Take examples of two classes respectively majoring in arts like law and in science like maths. In law class the highest score in gaokao (College Entrance Exam, total score is 150) is 137, the lowest being 90; in the match class, whereas, the highest one is also approaching 130, and the lowest can be 70 below.

Before 2015 fall semester, our university adopted "one-size-cuts-all" teaching system, which specifically meant that all freshmen, regardless of arts, science or engineering, employed uniformed in-class textbooks and identical final exam papers. At that time there was no freshness, every class followed text books because teachers were supposed to finish the same number of teaching units for final exam at the end of each semester. Since teachers followed almost the same teaching plan and syllabus, some of them labored through the whole teaching if adding extra materials outside of textbooks. Despite trying very hard, both teachers and students failed to reach targets. Besides the close proportion of failure in passing final exam, the worse was that even some students who showed interest in English or were good at it started to hate it and stopped making any progress.

For Chinese college students whose English proficiency is high, their ultimate goal is to pass College English Test-band 6; for those who have an above-average level and keep up working hard at college, their great goal is to pass College Test-band 4, and for those who stay at a humble level, their goal is to pass final exam or second test smoothly in order to graduate successfully. Besides that, there are a few students who don't care about taking any nationwide tests though their English is good. What they want is to improve their practical use in English and reinforce their advantages in communicative competence. Regardless, there should be no problem to understand different testings require different techniques to prepare. When students with different goals were arranged in one class to follow textbooks, the results were imaginable. In in all, to meet the needs of students' national test-taking, graduate study or future employment, the current system is in most need of some reformation.

B. First Experimental Practice

1. Grading Principle

Our English department proposed to our university education office the implementation of grading teaching model among grade 2015. In the first week when freshmen entered college, they were required to take an objectively-graded test. Based on their scores, students were graded into two levels, i.e. A and B. In 2015 fall, in our university there were 5678 undergraduates registered. The initial plan was to grade college freshmen in half, but the actual grading result was 2775 students were in level A, another 2903 in level B. Students of level A and B were divided into 86 and 85 classes respectively. Here again a harsh truth is mentioned as in my previous articles, English teachers in our university take heavy workload. Twenty-three English teachers undertook the teaching task of all the 171 classes in total.

2. Teaching practice

Referring to College English Test-4, teachers conduct classes for better strategies of test-taking. For every college freshman, upon entering university, it is a basic to know about what exercises are taken and how to prepare for it. The total score (for CET-4/6) is 710. Its testing emphasis is in listening (account for 35%), reading (30%), and writing &.translation (35%). In class much importance is attached to preparation for this national test held in middle December.

Its types of test exercises are listed in the following table.

TYPES OF CET-4 EXERCISES AND DISTRIBUTION OF SCORES:

Layout of Paper	Testing Contents	Forms	Ratio	Timing
Composition	Writing (No less than 120 Words)	Essay	15%	30mins
Listening Comprehension	Three News Items	Multiple Choice	7%	25mins
	Two Long Conversations	Multiple Choice	8%	
	Three Passages	Multiple Choice	20%	
Reading Comprehension	Vocabulary Comprehension	Banked Cloze	5%	40mins
	Length Reading	Matched Choice	10%	
	Depth Reading	Multiple Choice	20%	
Translation	Chinese into English	Paragraph Translation	15%	30mins

Note: Types of CET-6 exercises are identical to those of CET-4 but with much difficulty in every test exercise.

For this end, in class teachers adopt the concept of test-oriented training courses, introducing test exercises, teaching test-taking methods, and letting students do mountains of exercises in listening, reading, writing and translating, which are tested in CET-4(/-6). In level A class, textbooks act as an aid of reinforcement for basic knowledge. This kind of teaching method is boring and dull, it is very rewarding and students can easily feel a sense of accomplishment though accompanied by occasional failure, because they know what they have done daily is making a step closer to their fulfillment of goals.

Level B students are not allowed to take College English Test-4 in the first semester. In order to reinforce their basic knowledge, all teachers of level B obey traditional model of language teaching, adopt unitary textbooks and teaching plans, more teachers-oriented in class. Two textbooks supposed to be used. One is Reading and Writing book, the other being *Listening and Speaking* book. For the first book there are four modules in each unit: text, vocabulary, exercise and structured writing, and for the second, as its name implies, the listening part and the speaking part. Obviously *New Horizon College English* books are in precise accordance with China's College English Curriculum Requirements. If used scientifically, it will build up students' comprehensive skills in English language, and without doubt, train students in near future CET-4 taking from the angel of basic knowledge.

But it is not the case in actual teaching practice. Most probably due to this, more or less, in level B class, more than half students show little interest in English learning or is less accomplished at it. Teachers' emphasis is laid on basic knowledge like pronunciation, vocabulary, listening, translating and writing. In some cases movies or music are played to arouse students' learning interest. Usually in class teaching activities are as follows: pronunciation correction helped to memorize vocabulary, weekly dictation was to re-correct pronunciation, train their listening and supervise their vocabulary memorization, doing simple translation and composing short essays are for practical language use to build up their confidence. In the same way students feel satisfied after each class as their efforts are paid off and the progress is obvious.

The important thing is that both A and B don't need to worry much about final exam as different tests are designed for them respectively in accordance with their teaching syllabus.

3. The results

In December 19, students of level A took the national CET-4. Its ratio of students passing CET-4 ($\geq$425) is 60.95%, much higher than former ratio of 22.58%, say in 2014. Here is what's done in fall semester. But what should be done in spring semester (2nd semester)? In level A class for most students who pass CET-4, they are happy to move on for CET-6 in the second semester. Sadly a few students have to do the whole preparation for CET-4 from the very beginning. If put in one class, what is the effective way of in-class instruction? For level B students, majority of students who pass final exam feel ready to take CET-4. In truth, most students succeed in passing the exam because their final scores are composed of test paper score (account for 70%) and class-performance score (30%, flexible and subjective). In order not to strike students' enthusiasm in English learning, students are selected to take CET-4 in June of second semester with test paper score over 62 (the total score for final exam is 100). As a result, about one-third meet the requirement. Again how do teachers instruct students more efficiently?

In 2016 spring semester, level A students, whether for those passing CET-4 and failing the test, are following unitary textbooks in class, while level B students are using materials for CET-4. In June 2016, its rate of students who pass CET-4 is 25.09%, far from satisfaction.

As is put in Bloom (1968), "there is a shift in responsibilities, so that student's failure is more due to the instruction and not necessarily lack of ability on his or her part". For the good of what's done for students, it is a must to try a new pattern of language teaching. To vividly practice a spirit of humanity, the new model should combine the principles of practicality, knowledge and interest, facilitate mobilizing the initiative of both teachers and students, and attach particular importance to the central position of students and the leading role of teachers in the teaching and learning process. American linguist Stephen Krashen illustrates in Input Hypothesis that learners progress in their knowledge of the language when they comprehend language input that is slightly more advanced than their current level. Krashen called this level of input "i+1", where "i" is the learner's interlanguage and "+1" is the next stage of language acquisition.(Krashen, 2003) Applying it to teaching practice, "1" can be overall language knowledge higher than students' current average level, i.e. learning goals in next stage.

4. Further exploration

In 2016 fall semester, teaching models are conducted quite similarly as in 2015 fall semester. In December 2016 the rate of students passing CET-4 is 63.03%, which is perfectly encouraging to both teaches and students. Before new terms starts on Feb. 27, our English department implement a further grading scheme. Freshmen of Grade 2016 are graded into four: level A for students passing CET-4, level B for students who fail CET-4 and who meet the requirements taking CET-4 in June, and level C for those who are not allowed to take CET-4 in June 2017.

For level A, as all students succeed in passing CET-4 in December 2016, the teaching emphasis are placed on CET-6 preparation and comprehensive skills especially in listening and speaking mostly with the aid of *New Horizon College English* (coursebook). Ideally since there is no heavy load for a national test like CET-4 because CET-6 is an optional for undergraduates in our university, students are supposed to be very enthusiastic in class participation. So far as I observe in my level A class though new term started three weeks ago, i.e. Feb.27, most students put on an indifferent face in class, and don't try to participate in easy or hard activities in class.

Things in level B seem differently better than level A. This term I am assigned two classes of level B, which are those students who failed CET-4 in December 2016. On the first English class, I offered them lots of encouragements and strength. Most students are quite confident and working very hard in class and stay close to teachers' plan. For sure our learning methods are doing loads of test exercises in accordance to CET-4 types of exercises, and our aim is trying every means to pass CET-4 in June 2017.

Students of level C are the most difficult or easiest to handle. Majority of them have very low level of English. In written exercises, they may use he/she/they in place of him, her, or them; they may put down sentences like "The tree has a bird", "There is a girl study in the classroom", or "Not only he is my teacher, but also my friend." When reading those sentences, teachers feel grateful and relieved as they are trying. The worse is that some students hand in an empty exercise-book and even don't hand in anything besides frequent absence from English classes. There are a few students who have a modestly better mastery of English language. These students feel awfully unfair in such an environment filled with negativity when they really want to improve their English. In class teachers use *New Horizon College English* (coursebook) to such a rigid degree that they never involve any additional materials with some difficulty. From teachers' perspective, it is no good or use putting students into a difficult learning environment.

III. FOLLOW-UPS

A. Advantages of Grading Model

Concerning the advantages of this teaching model, so far better in this way. It helps to stimulate students' motivation and raise their awareness of active participation. Moreover, it can implement the principle of "teaching students in accordance with their aptitude".

1) This model is beneficial for students to make some progress in their own starting point. In grading teaching, the division line is set according to students' performance in a test. When set in a new class, students' level of English is closer than before. If proper teaching methods are employed, students can make progress, especially when their learning interests are maintained.

2) This model improves teachers' efficiency in planning teaching. Before the grading model is adopted in classrooms, students have very different levels of English. When given lessons in the same way, some take it easily while some feel it difficult, which puts teachers and students into a difficult situation. Teachers work hard but students learn little. Things change to better when teachers design class activities in the view of the majority. Thus, it is more effective and pleasant.

3) This model creates a positive environment for teaching and learning. In traditional class environment, students who are good at English before college find it a waste of time to listen to "easy" knowledge, what's worse, they may become lazy and never make any progress in English classrooms. However, what's easy for good students is considered too much for students whose English is bad. They may complain with teachers that they even cannot compose a complete correct simple sentence in English. In the new model of teaching, brilliant students' capacity have been activated, and know clearly what the goal of next stage is and try every means to accomplish them. Likewise students less accomplished in English gain their confidence and start working hard from the very beginning.

B. Drawbacks and Limitations

With regard to its drawbacks and limitations, like reformation or exploration, it is predictable and acceptable. What's the most important of all is to keep trying hard, reflecting objectively and amending with efficiency. After one grade of exploration and another ongoing, three lessons can be concluded as follows:

For one thing, it strikes students' confidence more than encouragement. No exaggeration to say that quite a number of students are put in a wrong level though three levels are set. The span is expected to be thinner. As far as is known, most universities set three levels of English classes which are rough. In the actual teaching practice, teachers can tell even within the same level of the same class, students' levels are quite different. Even if teachers employ the method of "teaching students according to their natural ability", its teaching effectiveness still has been restrained as a result of differences in regions, majors, interests and preferences.

For the second, the testing before grading is not quite scientific. On the first week of freshmen's enrollment, they are supposed to take an objectively-graded rest which determines students' fate in the first semester of English course. The

test paper with total score 70 is composed of two exercises: one is multiple choice accounting for 20 points, and the other is reading comprehension. Multiple choice tests students' knowledge of vocabulary, e.g. The years Tom spent in the countryside is a _____ experience. A. reward; B. to reward; C. rewarding; D. rewarded. Altogether there are 40 sentences and each sentence is 0.5 points. In Reading Comprehension, as its name implies, it tests students' reading skills in mastering main idea and important information or details in passages. There are five passages, with five questions followed for each passage. Two points is for each question. In all the degree of testing difficulty is almost staying at the same level as College Entrance Examination. Maybe here the problem is not lying in the degree of testing difficulty, but in its testing exercises, as in my eyes objectively-graded tests test more in students' luck than English knowledge or ability. The 2007 version of Requirements point out, evaluation is a key component in College English teaching. In the process of teaching and learning, a comprehensive, objective, scientific and accurate evaluation system is of vital importance to the achievement of course goals. Among other things, formative assessment and summative assessment are suggested. The former refers to procedural and developmental assessment conducted in the teaching process, and the latter is conducted at the end of a teaching phase. Here the test before grading is classified as the former assessment which help to track the teaching process, provide feedback and promote an all-round development of the students, in accordance with the teaching objectives and by means of various evaluative methods.

For the third, this model is more exam-oriented. As an exploring practice, this exploring is worth the praise and support. But as is illustrated, its great efficiency and success is vividly shown in increased proportions of students who pass College English Test Band Four (CET-4), which is not satisfactory. For new generation of students, test-taking is not the ultimate goal. What matters most in college English classrooms is for the good of students' further development like future career or success while all-round mastery, especially in communicative competence, is of much significance. That exactly echoes the double qualities of being humanistic and instrumental mentioned in the Requirements. Before college, students are too busy with various entrance exams in English to think a second about for what. As a consequence, they are too much dependent of the teaching methodology: listen to teachers passively and take notes of every detail into their ears. When entering college, they complain lots, what's more, feel frustrated if college teachers let them participate and nothing much left in their notebook after class.

Last but not the least, the final exam is too "humanistic" (soft). At the end of each semester, our English department designs three kinds of test papers for three levels of students respectively. But on the whole, test papers are very easy to pass because teachers think students invest lots of time and energy into English study and their efforts have yielded good results in CET-4. The principle is, the easier the better like a gift for students. In this case tests are not designed to examine students' practical capacity in language use. Instead, repeat the mistakes of traditional model in emphasizing rigid memorization of language knowledge. Even so, the results are not quite satisfactory. The awful truth is: the easier the test is, the lazier students become.

IV. Conclusion

To promote China's overall quality education, for the time being, the grading model is a way out for current embarrassment in China college English education before better models are found. Its implementation and practice facilitate the transformation of traditional mode to modern mode with the support of computer-aid technologies. Because of this, an increasing number of universities and colleges have put it into practice, the division of teaching classes is far from satisfaction. Since it is an exploring practice in our university, it is inevitable and normal to encounter some difficulties and challenges which requires educators and teachers to bear the original intention in mind, keep up further exploration and perform duties well for China college English education. Only by this means of continual practice, down-to-earth improvement in actual teaching activity, can this teaching model be a win-win model, and in the end both teachers and students are happy and fruitful.

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Translation of Persian Mystic Terms into English: A Case Study of *Conference of the Birds* by Attar

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Abstract—**Translation of mystic terms or metaphors is a very important portion of rendering a text from a source language to a target language, because some of mystic terms do not exist in the target language and this point makes the translation harder. This paper aimed at identifying the translation strategies and procedures used by Darbandi and Davis (1984) in *The Conference of the Birds* of Attar Neishabouri. To achieve the objectives, Attar's Persian original work (Shafiei Kadkani, 2010) was read carefully to extract mystical terms. Then, the translated text by Darbandi, and Davis (1984) was carefully read and the corresponding English translations of Persian mystical term were found. The original mystical terms and their Persian translation were analyzed based on Van Doorslaer's (2007) map to find out translation strategies and procedures used by the translators on the one hand and indicate the dominant strategy and procedure in the whole work of translation on the other. The result showed that literal translation strategy (72.41%) was the most frequently used strategy and direct transfer procedure (68.96%) was the most frequently used procedure. This paper may have some implications in literary translation and help translation instructors and translation trainees as well in translation classes.**

Index Terms—**mystic terms, translation, The Conference of the Birds, Van Doorslaer's map**

I. INTRODUCTION

Since some of a source language (SL) mystic terms may not exist in a target language (TL), translation of mystic terms or metaphors is a very important portion of rendering a source text (ST) into a target text (TT). Metaphor, a figurative trope, etymologically originating from the Greek μεταφορά (metaphorá), means "transference of a word to a new sense" (Hawkes, 1972). What metaphor does is to add a new sense or meaning to a singular word or concept.

A poet uses metaphor more often than the writers with the intention of introducing a new concept, offering more clear-cut meaning or presenting a more poetic effect in his/her poems. Therefore, translation of poetry needs something more than translating other genres of literature because of its special features. It should be noted that the main concern in translating Attar's poems, in general, and metaphor, in particular, is how best the translators been able to convey the messages and beauties of the poems. Most of the translators face challenges in translating poetry. Jakobson (2004) believes that this kind of translation is rather not possible. An important feature in poetry translation is its formal characteristics and aesthetic aspects that are hard to transfer to other languages and cultures.

A mystic term is usually classed as a metaphor that changes the sense or meaning of a word, because a metaphor is the main device in any kind of poetry as a universal system of meaning within language. The main problem, on the way of the translator of mystic terms exist is that Persian mystic terms are highly culture-bound and their translation into other languages may be difficult and sometimes even impossible.

To clarify the point, it is necessary that the images be selected according to their underlying meaning and mystical significance. The translator should comprehend the differences between various cultural and social structures in which a poem has been shaped. Therefore, this research did an attempt to find out how these problems have been solved by Darbandi and Davis (1984) as the translators of Attar's *The Conference of the Birds*. In this paper, the researchers intended to compare mystical terms or metaphors in Attar's poem in *The Conference of the Birds* and its English translation by Darbandi, and Davis (1984) based on Van Doorslaer's (2007) map.

II. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

Considering the translation of mystic terms as one of the main issues in poetry translation, this study pursued the following objectives: firstly, it was an attempt to find out what strategies and procedures have been used to find proper equivalents for ST mystic terms. Secondly, it was hoped that the investigation of the translations of the mystic terms in Attar's poems would further address, explore the problems in translating mystic texts by other Persian poets, and suggest instructional points for translation education. Therefore, this study dealt with the existing problems and challenges of translation of the mystic terms in Attar's *The Conference of the Birds*. The study of Attar's work and its English translation can be so interesting and motivating for not only the researchers of this paper, but it is of interest to

all who are familiar with Persian and English languages and enjoy studying serious literature. The results may be of instructional value for translation trainees and professional translators, as well. On the other hand, the results would hopefully shed some lights on the applicability of Doorslaer's (2007) map of translation strategies and procedures when translating literature from Persian into English. To achieve the objectives of this study, the following four questions were posed:

RQ1. What strategies have been used in translation of mystical terms in *The Conference of the Birds* according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) map?

RQ2. Which translation strategy has been the dominant one and why?

RQ3. What procedures have been used in translation of mystical terms in *The Conference of the Birds* according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) map?

RQ4. Which translation procedure has been the dominant one and why?

In order to handle and monitor this study, the researchers have decided to narrow down their subject as much as possible. Therefore, the researchers narrowed the topic to a comparative investigation of mystical terms of *The Conference of The Birds* of Attar based on Van Doorslaer's (2007) map and the English translation of Darbandi, and Davis (1984). As a result, other aspects of the book were not paid attention to. It is noteworthy that the researchers have no real contact with the translators (i.e., Darbandi, and Davis). Therefore, finding their main intentions (whether they translated the book for money, entertainment, or other reasons) for translating this book was almost impossible. It is clear that finding their strategies and procedures needs more study.

III. METHODOLOGY

The present study aimed to find the differences between mystic terms and their meaning in TL. To achieving this purpose, a Persian book – *Mœnteq-o Teyr* [literally The Conference of The Birds] – by Attar and edited by Shafiei Kadkani (2010) was chosen. In addition, this book was translated by Darbandi, and Davis (1984) into English. The translators' strategies and procedures in terms of choosing the mystical items were investigated and compared between two languages (English – Persian). The research method of this paper can be comparative and descriptive, because a corpus of mystical terms was chosen from the Persian text and their corresponding English translation were identified for data collection and analysis.

As mentioned earlier, the purpose of the study was to explore the differences between mystical items in ST and their translation in the TL. In order to do the research, the researchers followed a systematic procedure. After selecting the book and its English translation, the researchers listed the mystical terms and its translation.

In this comparative study, mystical terms were examined in two ways. In the first step, the researchers found the Persian meaning of each mystic term in Moein (1985), Mousavi Sirjani (2002), and Mousavi (2009) and extracted the exact meaning of the Persian mystic terms. In the second step, the researchers found the English translation of each of the mystic terms (those that were translated by translators) and found their exact meaning(s) in *American Heritage Dictionary* (Morris, 1969), and extracted their meaning(s). Then, they compared two meanings to see if they are close to each other or not. After that, the researchers investigated why some differences exist at all. The researchers investigated the translation strategies and procedures based on Van Doorslaer's (2007) map, to understand under what condition such strategies and procedures were used. In addition, both source language and target language cultures in original text and target text were investigated in this paper. Since it was possible that some words or sentences be eliminated or changed completely in the translation, the whole process from collecting data, grouping them, to their analysis was done manually. It is noteworthy that word level was the unit of the analysis. The researchers utilized the Van Doorslaer's (2007) map as well as his translation strategies and translation procedures.

It is noteworthy that the researchers to achieve the objectives of the study utilized Van Doorslaer's (2007) map. In such maps, a distinction is drawn between 'translation' and 'translation studies', reflecting the different centers of interest of research. 'Translation' looks at the act of translating and, in the new map (Van Doorslaer, 2007, p. 223), is subdivided:

- Lingual mode (interlingual, intralingual);
- Media (printed, audiovisual, electronic);
- Mode (convert, overt translation, direst/ indirect translation, mother tongue/ other tongue translation, pseudo-translation, retranslation, self- translation, sight translation, etc.);
- Field (political, journalistic, technical, literary, religious, scientific, and commercial).

Translation studies (ibid: 228-31) is subdivided into:
- Approaches (e.g. cultural approach, linguistic approach);
- Theories (e.g. general translation theory, Polysystem theory)
- Research methods (e.g. descriptive, empirical);
- Applied translation studies (criticism, didactics, and institutional environment).

Linguistic transfer of course still occurs within a sociocultural and historical context and institutional environment that place his or her own constraints on the process.

To achieve the objectives of the study, the researchers chose the following sets of Van Doorslaer's (2007) strategies and procedures. In this research, the following four strategies were chosen to see which strategy has been the most frequently utilized strategy in English translation of *Mæ nteq-o Teyr* [Literally the Conference of Birds]:

1. Free Translation: This strategy produces the TL text without the style, form, or content of the original. As an example, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "mæ refæ t" into the English word "insight". Therefore, they have utilized free translation strategy in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.*

2. Foreignizing: Foreignization is the strategy of retaining information from the source text, and involves deliberately breaking the conventions of the target language to preserve its meaning (Gile, 2009). As an example, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "ʔeblis" into the English word "Eblis". Therefore, they have utilized Foreignizing strategy in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.*

3. Naturalization: This strategy adapts the SL word first to the normal pronunciation, then to the normal morphology of the TL (Newmark, 1988b, p.82). As an example, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "qæbz" into the English word "Despair". Therefore, they have utilized Naturalization strategy in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.*

4. Literal Translation: In this strategy, the translator retains the forms of source text as much as possible. In this type of translation strategy, the SL grammatical structures are converted to their nearest TL equivalents, but the lexical words are again translated singly, out of context (Newmark, 1988b, p.81). As an example, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "cofr" into the English word "Blasphemy". Therefore, they have utilized Literal Translation strategy in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.*

In addition, the following four procedures were chosen to see which procedure has been the most frequently utilized procedure in English translation of Mæ nteq-o Teyr [Literally the Conference of Birds]:

1. Expansion: It refers to the case where the translator exceeds the number of words of the SLT in translation. Expansion procedure also occurs when the translator tries to shift from the implicit to the explicit (Zakhir, 2008). If the French phrase "Homme noir" is translated into "Dark skinned man" in English. It can be stated that Expansion procedure has been used by the translator, because there is a shift from n+adj in French to adj+ptp (compound adj) +noun.

2. Borrowing: According to Harding & Riley (1986), borrowing is reproducing or, where necessary, transliterating the original term. An example of Borrowing is the verb 'mailer,' which is used in Canadian-French utterance. Here, the French suffix-er is added to the English verb 'mail' to conform to the French rules of verb-formation.

3. Adaption: As the freest form of translation, and is used mainly for plays (comedies) and poetry; the themes, characters, plots are usually preserved, the SL culture is converted to the TL culture and the text is rewritten (Newmark, 1988b, p.81). As previously mentioned, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "qæbz" into the English word "Despair". Therefore, they have utilized Naturalization strategy in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.* Accordingly, it can be said that they have used Adaption procedure.

4. Direct Transfer: According to Vinay and Darbelnet (1997), in the strategy of Direct Transfer (also known as Borrowing), a source language (SL) item is transferred directly to the target language (TL). As an example, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have translated the Persian word "tælæb" into the English word "quest-search-seek". Therefore, they have utilized Direct Transfer procedure in this instance extracted from *The Conference of the Birds.*

IV. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

In this study, the researchers tried to compare mystic terms and their meanings in a book entitled *The Conference of the Birds*. The purpose of the researchers was to find the differences between the main meaning of the mystic terms and their translation by Darbandi, and Davis (1984) in English language.

According to Van Doorslaer's (2007) translation strategies, data collection and analysis carried out in a comparative descriptive framework. In other words, each mystic term was interpreted in its own language (Persian) and then its English translation by Darbandi, and Davis, 1984was interpreted again in target language (English) and these two interpretations were compared by using Van Doorslaer's (2007) translation strategies and procedures. Finally, the researchers categorized these strategies and procedures, and calculated their frequencies.

In the following sections, the analysis and its results are presented and discussed. According to Table 1 and Figure 1, from 29 examples extracted from the book *The Conference of the Birds* in the part "the Seven Valleys", according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) strategies, there were 20 instances of Literal Translation, 6 instances of Naturalization, 1 instance for Foreignizing, and 1 instance for Free Translation. It is noteworthy that no instance was found for Van Doorslaer's (2007) other strategies.

TABLE 1.
APPLIED TRANSLATION STRATEGIES IN *THE CONFERENCE OF THE BIRDS*

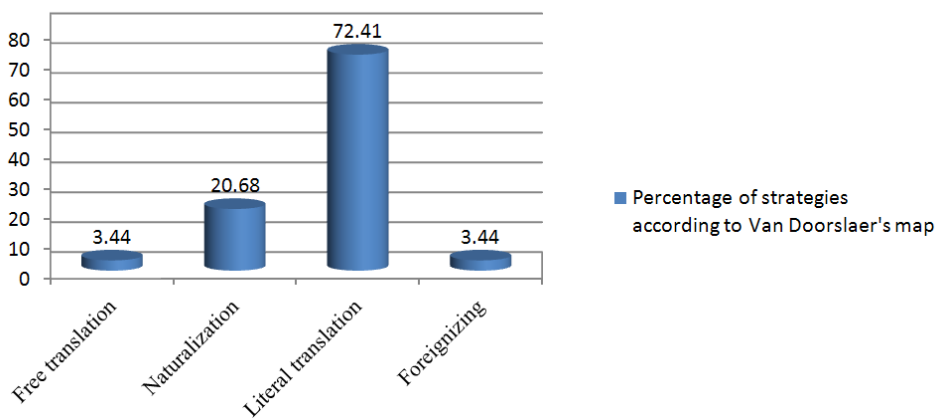| Strategies	Frequency	Percentage
Free translation	1	3.44 %
Literal translation	21	72.41 %
Foreignizing	1	3.44 %
Naturalization	6	20.68 %
Total number	29	100 %

Figure 1. Percentage of Translation strategies applied in in the Conference of the Birds

According to Table 2 and Figure 2, from 29 examples, derived from the book *The Conference of the Birds* in the part "the Seven Valleys", according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) procedures, there are 20 instances for Direct Transfer, 7 instances for Adaption, and one instance for Borrowing and Expansion. It is noteworthy that no instance was found for Van Doorslaer's (2007) other procedures.

TABLE 2.
APPLIED TRANSLATION PROCEDURES IN THE CONFERENCE OF THE BIRDS

Procedures	Frequency	Percentage
Adaption	7	24.13 %
Borrowing	1	3.44 %
Direct transfer	20	68.96 %
Expansion	1	3.44 %
Total number	29	100 %

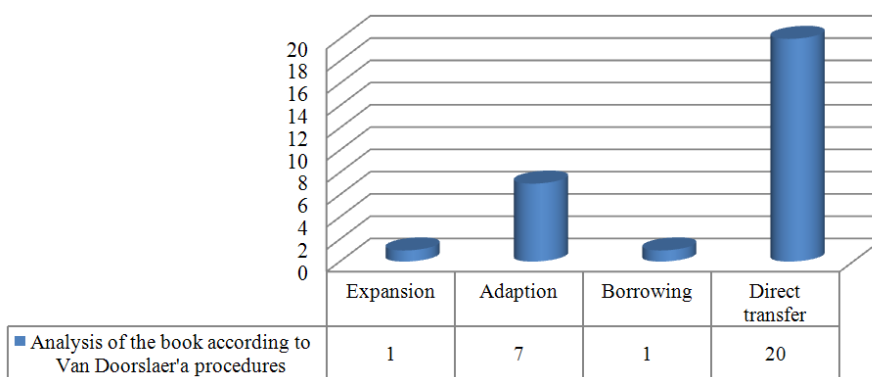|	Expansion	Adaption	Borrowing	Direct transfer
Analysis of the book according to Van Doorslaer'a procedures	1	7	1	20

Figure 2. Percentage of Translation procedures applied in in the Conference of the Birds

Based on the findings of this study, the dominant strategy used in translating this book was Literal Translation that had 72.41% of whole percent. After that, Naturalization was ranked with 20.68% of whole percent. Finally, Free Translation and Foreignizing were ranked with 3.44% of whole percent. It was interesting that the rest of strategies were nothing. On the other hand, the dominant procedure in translating this book was Direct Transfer that had 68.96% of whole percent. After that, Adaption was ranked with 24.13% of whole percent. Finally, Borrowing and Expansion were ranked with 3.44% of whole percent. Accordingly, the researchers may conclude that the mystic terms can be transferred to the TL with their almost exact content of the SL, if the translator has a good choice for any term, and that is what the translators (i.e., Darbandi, and Davis, 1984) had done by using Literal Translation as a dominant strategy of translation and Direct Transfer as a main procedure of translation.

V. CONCLUSION, IMPLICATIONS, AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

To conclude what has been assumed and has been done from the beginning to the end of this research, it is needed to start once more with restatement of the purpose and research questions. The purpose of this study was to find out what strategies and procedures have been used to find an effective equivalence for each of the ST mystic terms.

Based on the comparison made between the original Persian text and its English translation, the researchers found the following results for each of the four research questions:

RQ1. What strategies have been used in translation of mystical terms in *The Conference of the Birds* according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) map?

Based the applied strategies by Darbandi, and Davis (1984) in *The Conference of the Birds*, the result confirmed the logicality and comprehensiveness of Van Doorslaer's (2007) map on the one hand, and the conscious choice of the natural and proper translation strategies by Darbandi, and Davis (1984). Another point that was of interest, for the research and maybe those who enjoy a sense of feeling poetry and its hardship of translating poetry from one language into another was that cultural distance and linguistic gap as to main problems on the way of translating poetry. Some scholars and some translators like Darbandi, and Davis (1984) have been successful to some extend to provide acceptable translation, even for such difficult matter as a translation of Persian mystic terms into English.

RQ2. Which translation strategy has been the dominant one and why?

To give reason why literal translation has been the dominant strategy in *The Conference of the Birds* by Darbandi, and Davis (1984), it is quite the right time to refer to idea and theories presented by some scholars about translation of poetry. For example, Jakobson (2004) believes translation of poetry is in poetry and literal strategy is mostly used. Following a same way, Nabokov (2004) believes that translation of poetry is almost impossible and the only way that he suggests is literal translation.

To think logically we may come to conclusion that the safest way to translate elements of poetry is to stick to literalness and leave the feeling of poetry to the reader himself/herself. Of course, here, by reader we do not mean general reader but a reader who is in the field of literature and especially mystic poetry. Therefore, Darbandi, and Davis (1984) again by innate ability and natural experience has shown the literal translation strategy as the dominant one.

RQ3. What procedures have been used in translation of mystical terms in *The Conference of the Birds* according to Van Doorslaer's (2007) map?

Translation procedures have been used are Adaption, Borrowing, Direct Transfer and Expansion. The findings showed that these strategies were in line with Doorslaer's (2007) map. Here again, Doorslaer's logicality of his theory of translation procedures were confirmed. On the other hand, it showed that the natural feeling of Darbandi and Davis (1984) in choosing procedures that is closely referring the related strategies.

RQ4. Which translation procedure has been the dominant one and why?

To answer question four, results showed that the dominant procedure was direct transfer. This result was also compatible with the literal translation that has been the dominant strategy. In other words, literal translation and direct transfer support each other as closeness of a particular strategy and its corresponding procedures.

According to the information provided in Table 1 and Figure 1, the total amount of literal translation enjoys the highest frequency (72.41%) in the translation strategies. As illustrated in Figure 2 and Table 2, the total amount of Direct Transfer enjoys the highest frequency (68.96%) among the translation procedures of Van Doorslaer's (2007) map.

As it is clear and worth to noting, according to Van Doorslaer's map, the dominant strategy used in translation of Darbandi, and Davis (1984) was literal translation and the dominant procedure used in their translation was direct transfer.

The results of this research may have some instructional implications. Although translation is not a new field of study but much research can be done in this field. The new technologies and movements of the world have changed the traditional face of research. Therefore, these movements intensify the need to accept and emphasize that poetry translation can be studied as a course in Translation Studies. What has been found in this research can also be used in translation training program. Translators can use the results of the study to do research about mystical translation in other genres, fields and even enjoy the results of this study.

Translators must be aware of the fact that the heart of their tasks is not to translate texts, but to translate cultures. They should know that misinterpretation occurs when they do not consider culture. If they translate the cultural words literally, since the meaning would be distorted, the target language readers or audiences will be culturally shocked.

Besides, each language has unique characteristics and one of the main translation problems is to find possible strategies/procedures and analyze specific translations. Hence, it would be helpful for translators to find the norms that govern the choice of translation strategy. In other words, they would be more successful if they know which strategies/procedures are used more and are accepted by competent translators.

In addition, it seems so necessary to make translation students aware of the importance of preserving cultural and linguistic diversities of any language. What is more important is the awareness of the translators in selecting a text, the genre, its author and in adopting translation procedures and strategies. Making use of Van Doorslaer's (2007) map is strongly recommended. The results of this work may help teachers of translation and material developers in the field to review their methods and concepts on translation trainings.

It is hoped that this research can pave the way for other pieces of research. In this regard, the following suggestions were proposed:

1. One may replicate the same or almost the same topic to verify or diversify the found results.

2. The researchers of this study limited themselves only to "Seven valleys of Love". Others may choose different parts of the book.

3. In this research, Van Doorslaer's map was chosen as the framework. Others may choose different strategies selected from the frameworks suggested by other scholars such as Newmark (1988a), Baker (1992), and Chesterman (1997).

4. Since Persian culture enjoys vast literature in mysticism, some other researchers may choose a variety of translated texts from Persian into English by other translators.

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Struggling between Tradition and Modernity: A Feminist Interpretation of Yu Opera *China Women**

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Abstract—Yu Opera China Women (some translated it into Our Company, pinyin: Xiāng Hún Nǚ) (2000) has been well received by audiences for its simple folk description, vivid characters, touching story lines, stunning stage backgrounds and exquisite stage performances. The opera describes a story of Xiangxiang and Huanhuan, mother-in-law and daughter-in-law, two generations of women in the reform and opening up years in the twentieth century in China. These Chinese women try to break the shackles of fate, with the strength to overcome hardships, work hard to gain wealth, and be brave to pursue true love, so it has a strong sense of feminism. However, rooted in the deep traditional Chinese culture, Xiangxiang and Huanhuan are always struggling between tradition and modernity, and they make difficult choices along with the awakening of women's consciousness.

Index Terms—China Women, feminism, tradition, struggle, modernity

I. INTRODUCTION

Yu opera (simplified Chinese: 豫剧; traditional Chinese: 豫劇; pinyin: Yùjù), or Yuju opera, formerly known as Henan bangzi (Chinese: 河南梆子; pinyin: Hénán Bāngzi), is one of China's famous national opera forms, alongside Peking opera, Shaoxing opera, Huangmei opera and Pingju. [1] Yu Opera originated from central China's Henan Province about 400 years ago, and has extended its popularity to other regions along the Yellow River in northern China. [2] Then it spread across China, including the northwest Xinjiang province and southeast Taiwan. The Yu opera not only deeply rooted in the soil of Chinese national culture psychology, but also closely connected with the national cultural psychology all the time. Meanwhile, its creation is based on the Central Plains people's living style, folk etiquette, folk dance and language style, etc. So it reflects Henan people's essence of life. There is a strong local color in Yu opera's features, penetrating Henan province's local customs and people's simple folk customs in the Central Plains. In a word, it has played an irreplaceable role in the development of folk music in the Central Plains since it was born. In May 2006, Yu opera has been listed as part of China's intangible cultural heritage, approved by the State Council of the People's Republic of China. There are thousands of pieces in the list of Yu opera. Some promote patriotism and national integrity, such as *Su Wu Herds Sheep* and *Wu Shi Qing Ying* (the 100-years-old lady to be commander), etc. Some reflect loyalty and the ancient battle life, such as *Mu Guiying Took Command* and *Hua Mulan*, etc. Some put on shows of folk daily life, love affairs and social ethics, such as *The Beheading of an Ungrateful Husband* and *Qingfeng Pavilion*, etc. Today, Yu Opera writers are no longer satisfied with the reflection of history and the recurrence of major historical events, but concentrate on the common people in the real life, their family, their experiences and thoughts, their emotional changes, moral and ethics, love and personal fate, their value of life and other issues. (Zhang Hua: 2013, p9)

Modern Yu Opera *China Women* (2000) is such kind of story. *China Women* demonstrates a typical image of Xiangxiang, a traditional woman who struggles hard to move forward the modern society. In April 2015, the film of Yu opera *China Women* won the music Remi Award and the best art direction award at the 48th World Fest-Houston International Film and Video Festival, USA. Some critics say that the film is well received by American audience for its unique Chinese local opera elements and its touching themes, some audience couldn't help crying as they watch it. Through two generations of women's fate intertwined and their soul's collision, Yu Opera *China Women* reflects the ups and downs of Chinese women living in the patriarchal society and their desire to pursue love and freedom. This thesis intends to reveal the tragic destiny of the two generations of women in the patriarchal society from three levels of society, family and personal, in the light of feminist theory, and finally reveals their awakening female consciousness.

II. THEORY OF FEMINISM

Western Feminism's basic view is that Western civilization is male-centered and controlled by the male, while women are in a subordinate position both in the society and in the family, being oppressed and prejudiced. That is what

Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986) says "the second sex" or "The Other". Feminists advocate criticizing the male-centered western society and fight for the equal rights and status between men and women in all fields of society. The term Feminism first appeared in France, and then came to many countries in Europe, America, and Asia and so on. There have been three waves in the history of Feminism development. The first wave of feminism appeared from the late 18th century to the 1920s, mainly fighting for women's rights to vote, to receive higher education and the right to work. The representative feminists are Christine de Pizan (1364-1430), Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) and Virginia Woolf (1882-1941) and so on. Then the second wave was the women's emancipation movement since the 1960s, mainly criticizing sexism, gender discrimination and male power. Although women had the rights to vote, work and receive education, they still couldn't be equal to men. Simone de Beauvoir pointed out that women were not born as women, but made by the male-centered society. So the feminists advocate eliminating gender differences and realizing the real gender equality. The representative feminists are Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986), Betty Friedan (1921-2006), Kate Millett (1934-) and Germaine Greer (1939-) and so on. At last, the third wave appeared in the 1990s, and the feminists of this wave were usually born during the 1960s or 1970s, influenced by the second wave, these feminists held more ideas, so there were different groups and ideas. The representatives include Alice Walker (1944-) and Doris Lessing (1919-2013) and so on.

In ancient traditional China, women were always in a subordinate position, and a good female must obey the will of her father, her husband and then her adult son when getting old. While in modern times, influenced by western feminism, Chinese feminism is also developing. At the end of the 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century, the main contents of the Chinese women's movements were: to fight for women's participation in the political power, to set up women's industry, to fight for women's social power, such as: to stop binding women's feet, to be free to hair cutting, admission to school and freedom of marriage. The story of Yu Opera *China Women* happened in the 1980s, the reform and opening up years in China, and women's liberation has made some progress. The heroin Xiangxiang could go out to work, but she was still struggling hard to move from tradition to modernity. On one hand, she wants to be a good daughter, a good wife, a good mother and a good mother-in-law following Chinese tradition; on the other hand, she desires to pursue her true love and enjoys freedom in marriage when her husband is irresponsible and gambling, and they don't love each other at all. This contradiction leads to her tragedy.

III. THE MORAL KIDNAPPING OF PATRIARCHAL SOCIETY

It was Simone de Beauvoir (1908-1986) who first brought the concept of "the Other" to the field of gender study. In her masterpiece *The Second Sex* (1949), Simone de Beauvoir explored woman as the sexual "Other" in relation to man in a male-dominated culture. The concept of "the Other" indicates the domination of man over woman, "a man represents both the positive and the neutral, as indicated by the common use of man to designate human beings in general; whereas woman represents only the negative, defined by limiting criteria, without reciprocity". (Beauvoir: 1989, p 234.)

It is the real description of Xiangxiang and Huanhuan's status at that time. Xiangxiang was sold to be a child bride in the family of Shen as a property by her parents when she was at seven because her parents were too poor to live. Huanhuan was also sold by her parents for 20,000 Yuan because her parents' family was in economic trouble. Then the clever and beautiful Huanhuan married a well-known mentally handicapped husband Dunzi, who was Xiangxiang's son. She was beat by her husband when he had an attack of his old illness. Xiangxiang also suffered her husband's bully throughout her life. In the Act II, Xiangxiang's husband Erdong lost all his money in gamble, returned home and asked for more money. When she refused, Erdong was angry and began to beat her again, and sang his lines: As a woman, you shouldn't be odd; you should be a good house wife and your duty is to help your husband and teach your children well. No matter how capable you are, you are shoes, and I'm feet. I take it for granted that feet step on shoes. This is the group consciousness in the traditional patriarchal society. Women were expected to obey the will of their father, their husband and then their adult son when they were getting old. There is a famous saying in ancient China: Ignorance is a woman's virtue. That means, when a woman is incapable and without any idea, she always listens to the instruction of male, this is a virtuous woman with feminine traits. So women are expected to be totally surrendered to man's power and domination, then become the inferior Other. Only men have rights to divorce from his wife, and that will bring shame on her parents' family name. Sometimes, the divorced wife would die of shame. If a woman dare to say no to the patriarchal society, the public would generally be hostile to her and condemn her. So almost all the women lived in the moral kidnapping of patriarchal society, without their own thinking, without any personality. All they need to do is to satisfy their husbands and the patriarchal society.

However, the feminists are against this kind of discrimination to women, and they fight for women's rights to work and to be independent. In *China Women*, Xiangxiang was not incapable. As the real boss of Shen family's Jun Kilns, Xiangxiang should be respected and valued. It's still very difficult for her to change her inferior status, because she was also kidnapped by the moral of patriarchal society, so do most of women in China. They didn't dare to say no to the requirement from a powerful tradition. Xiangxiaing chose to put up with her hard situation, only to win a reputation of good wife, good mother and good mother-in-law, as she sang in Act II. That's the expectation of the patriarchal society. Xiangxiang enhanced it consciously or unconsciously. When her daughter-in-law Huanhuan saw Erdong beating her unintentionally, Xiangxiang threatened Huanhuan to beat her, if she could tell others about the family conflict.

Xiangxiang wouldn't dare challenge the traditional public opinions. Although Xiangxiang fell in love with the potter Shizhong, she couldn't dare divorce from her husband and start a new life. Finally, she was caught in her own trap in patriarchal society.

In conclusion, woman's identity is the Other in marriage life and is much lower than her husband's status. In most occasions, she is just one property of the family, without respect from her husband, not to mention love and freedom. Women were kidnapped by the moral of patriarchal society. They couldn't dare to fight against the tradition for fear of being criticized by the patriarchal morality.

IV. THE EVOLUTION OF POWER RELATIONS BETWEEN HUSBAND AND WIFE

In the story of *China Women*, the power relations between the husband Erdong and the wife Xiangxiang was going through a period of irreversible change. When Xiangxiang was a child bride in Shen family, she was the totally inferior one. Her duty was to serve the whole family without any complaint, being beat and cursed, never dared to resist. This is a real portrayal of many child bride's life in old China. They are sold to their husband's home when they are children, without any discourse power. In the year 1950, the marriage law of the People's Republic of China has expressly banned the child bride marriage.

In an unfortunate life, Xiangxiang didn't depend on her idle husband or was willing to live a poor life, but worked hard and became strong to change her life.Many years later, grow-up Xiangxiang was capable enough to be the richest woman and labor model in the town, through working hard to make the boom of Shen family's Jun Kilns business in the reform and opening up years in the twentieth century in China. While her husband Erdong was the type to sit around doing nothing but gambling, economically dependent on Xiangxiang, taking money from Xiangxiang for granted. On the surface, Erdong got money from home in the permit of Xiangxiang, while in fact Xiangxiang had no rights to say no and she was still under control of her husband. But the situation was changing and it was not nice for Erdong as time went by. Without her husband's help, Xiangxiang took all the tough burden independently. When she met and saved the life of the younger potter Shizhong, Shizhong owed a big debt of gratitude to her and began to work hard for her. It was natural that love would come in time. Xiangxiang seemed to be mistress of her own destiny. Double bumper harvest of love and career shows a strong feminism color. Erdong knew that Xiangxiang didn't love him; he only wanted to possess and control her. After he was drunk, losing money in gamble, he went home and took his annoyance out on her. He knew the love affairs between his wife and Shizhong, but he pretended not to know, in order to get money from their Jun Kilns. Erdong hated Xiangxiang and Shizhong, but he depended on them. So he is a bully with a coward's heart.

The male feminist John Stuart Mill (1806-1873) talked about the role of women in marriage and how it needed to be changed in his book *The Subjection of Women* (1869). Mill argues that relations between sexes simply amounted to "the legal subordination of one sex to the other - is wrong itself, and now one of the chief hindrances to human improvement; and that it ought to be replaced by a principle of perfect equality." (Mill: 1869, chapter 1). Mill hates the situation that a man can establish total supremacy over his wife, doing nothing, this is a grievous injustice. Mill also argued that the oppression of women was one of the few remaining relics from ancient times, a set of prejudices that severely impeded the progress of humanity. The ideal gender relations of the modern society should be like this: No one is born with privilege and irrevocable in that position. People should be free and equal to obtain their expected life, by using their talents and taking favorable opportunities.

In the story of Yu Opera *China Women*, the husband Erdong was such a self-centered bummer, useless, but intended to be a tyrant in the family. While the wife Xiangxiang was not a weak woman, she was amazingly competitive and capable enough to be the real boss of Shen family's Jun Kiln. Her success in work and economic independence made her no longer the obedient child bride. She tried to say no to her husband's idleness and greed, even though they had to fight with each other. In that patriarchal society, although it's very difficult for Xiangxiang to improve her living condition, she was brave and working hard to change, finally she really made some progress. Along with the constant struggle and development of feminist movement in China, women have gained some rights and status gradually.

V. THE AWAKENING OF FEMALE CONSCIOUSNESS

The Feminist Mary Wollstonecraft (1759-1797) pointed out that women's feminine obedience was not natural, but man-made in her book *A Vindication of the Rights of Woman* (1792). In other words, the gender differences between men and women are not only determined by the physiology, but also by the patriarchal society. Our traditional culture and literary classics are male-centered, full of discrimination and prejudice against women. (Li Yinhe: 2005, p15) So the feminist movements protest sexual discrimination and fight for equal rights between men and women. With the influence of western feminist campaign, the theme of feminism was revived with great zeal in the late twentieth century in China. More and more women walked out of their families, began to work hard and tried to win their liberation, along with a kind of obvious awakening of female consciousness.

Xiangxiang is a good example. It's obvious that Xiangxiang's family life was very unfortunate: Her husband Erdong was a gambler and sometimes beat her black and blue, her son Dunzi was mentally handicapped and suffering from epilepsy. But Xiangxiang didn't succumb to her tragic fate. Instead, she was brave to face all the difficulties, went out to work and tried to make Shen family's Jun Kiln booming. This is the first step of her awakening of female consciousness

and beyond lots of traditional Chinese women. In the process of making Kiln porcelain, Xiangxiang encountered a skillful potter Shizhong. Act III describes Xiangxiang and Shizhong's love story in detail. The two help and support each other, then fall in love, and then give birth to a daughter named Lingzhi. This is the second step of her awakening of female consciousness. In traditional Chinese ideology, a wife must be completely faithful to her husband, no matter what happened. When Xiangxiang fell in love with Shizhong, she was brave to loosen the bonds of tradition and enjoyed the true love, although they could only love secretly and Lingzhi pretended to be Erdong's daughter.

However, Xiangxiang was still born in old China and sold as a child bride, there was still tradition in her deep heart, so it was very difficult for her to break up with tradition completely. For example, Xiangxiang knew that people admired her because she had a lot of money, then she planned to do what she wanted using money. She loved her son so much that she intended to spend 20,000 Yuan marrying her son a very clever and beautiful girl Huanhuan in traditional Chinese way. This is her hand-made tragedy. Huanhuan originally had a closing and loving relationship with her boyfriend Jinhai. In order to separate the two, Xiangxiang spent money in sending Jinhai to work in city, and let the loan officer ask for money in Huanhuan's family, because they were in debt. Finally, her mentally handicapped son got married with Huanhuan. They couldn't communicate with each other at all. The heartfelt rural ethics in the traditional agricultural civilization era was quietly replaced by the money ethics in the economic society. What dominates people is no longer the traditional family authority and the male power, but the money in the pocket of the capable person. Money is new baton in people's life, and it refreshes the neighborhood relationships, meanwhile it reorganizes the social ethical relations in the new period of economic reform.

But Huanhuan was born in modern times, she made more progress in the awakening of female consciousness. To start with, she had an insight into the problems in Shen family and was very sympathetic to the unfortunate marriage of her mother-in-law Xiangxiang. In Act V, when Xiangxiang was dating with her lover Shizhong at night, her husband Erdong returned home suddenly, Huanhuan was clever enough to cover up for them in an emergency. Xiangxiang was touched by Huanhuan's goodwill and finally realized the tragedy of Huanhuan, just the same as hers.

In Act VI, Erdong was arrested by the police because of gambling, Shizhong left Xiangxiang in order to protect her reputation, her Jun Kiln collapsed, Xiangxiang was in frustration and desperation. Huanhuan came to comfort Xiangxiang and encouraged her to find Shizhong back. Xiangxaing was hopeless to say, their Jun Kiln was lost through Erdong's gambling losses. But Huanhuan told her, the gambling debts were not protected by the law, you still had Jun Kiln. Xiangxiang was deeply moved by Huanhuan's good heart and confessed her sins to Huanhuan, she shouldn't have separated Huanhuan and her boyfriend, using various means. After a strong ideological struggle, Xiangxiang told her son Dunzi to divorce from Huanhuan, but Dunzi didn't agree and insist wanting Huanhuan. Xiangxiang was really caught in a dilemma. Finally Xiangxiang determined to break the cage, gave Huanhuan freedom and gave her chance to restart her life.

Along with the developing of the plot, the story reached a climax at the last Act. Huanhuan couldn't help crying when she left, because she knew Xiangxiang was really getting into trouble. Huanhuan still persuaded Xiangxiang to change her life and find Shizhong back. The audience would be deeply touched by the awakening of female consciousness. The two generations of women finally open their minds to each other and encourage each other to start a new life. The awakening of people, human enlightenment and deep humanitarian concern are put into the social background of the history and reality to display, Yu Opera *China Women* criticizes the old and decadent culture and ideology with a deep sense of crisis, shows the alienation of normal human nature in the new turning period, and reflects on the difficulty and possibility of the awakening of humanity and recovery.

VI. Conclusion

Yu Opera China Women is very popular among Chinese audience as soon as it was on. Besides its sweet music, stunning stage backgrounds and exquisite stage performances, the touching story and characters really captivate audiences. The role of Xiangxiang is true and heavy. She is shrewd, capable and experienced in Jun Kiln business, selfish and vicious in finding the daughter-in-law, disgusted and hopeless under her husband's oppression, kind and full of love for her children, warm and helpless before her lover. Almost all sorts of women's sides were showed accurately in various scenes, selfish while selfless, self-esteem while self-abased, strong while weak, so this is really a round character. She is strong enough to break away from the unfortunate fate of being a victim of the unhappy marriage at the old age, but makes a new cage to suppress Huanhuan using her money in the new era. This is penetrating criticism of human nature, but the more valuable thing is that Xiangxiang could reflect on herself and correct her wrong behavior, eventually encourage her daughter-in-law to start a new life. Therefore, readers can see the revival of human nature and the culture reflection of humanity enlightenment.

Audiences also can see the struggle and the awakening of female consciousness in the heroines Xiangxiang and Huanhuan, they are eager for self-reliance and self-improvement. It was encouraging that they never succumb to their fate. However, in the strong patriarchal tradition, the Chinese women's liberation is particularly difficult. Xiangxiang and Huanhuan are always struggling between tradition and modernity. They can be brave to break the shackles of fate, but their fight will be a history of blood and tears.

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Application of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle in Class Question-answer Process

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Abstract—**Question-answer method of teaching is one of the common ways of classroom interaction and it is also a bridge of communication and cooperation between teachers and students. Teachers can check and know students' understanding of the knowledge and guide students to think of problems activity by asking questions. The paper is justified by correlational theories of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle. Research method of literature is conducted. That is, teachers should pay attention to the way and method of asking questions in class question-answer process, who express to euphemism and accurate as soon as possible and give affirmation and encouragement for students answer to improve the amount of language output. The teachers should be skillful in using of the major principles of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle in the English Classroom quiz. These theories not only help to establish a harmonious teacher-students relationship, but also improve the effect of classroom teaching.**

Index Terms—**class question-answer, Cooperative Principle, English, Politeness Principle**

I. INTRODUCTION

Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle are the most important theories in the field of pragmatics. Both of the two principles have attracted the researcher's attention. Grace put forward the theory of "Cooperative Principle" in the late 1960s who was a famous American philosopher Linguists. Leech proposed the theory of "Politeness Principle in 1983". The linguists have made outstanding contributions to linguistic, especially in the skills. In theory, it develops pragmatics research. In practice, it is helpful for people's communication and cooperation. Class question-answer method of classroom interaction is one of common ways and it is also a bridge of communication or cooperation between teachers and students. But the application of these theories in the English class question-answer is relatively scarce view of this situation. So this article researches on the knowledge about Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle, from which analyzes the class question-answer between teachers and students. Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle are complementary and can be supplied each other perfectly. The essay hopes to rich the related theory of pragmatics in linguistics, on the other hand, the article expects to establish a harmonious teacher-students relationship and improve the effect of classroom teaching.

The paper explores the interactive essence of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle in actual use, and provides good cases in point. It is from these experiences to inspire teachers and students to observe relative concepts of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle. In addition, as an initiator of knowledge, teachers should apply these theories to English class question-answer for effective teaching, and improve teaching efficiency and quality; teachers could make students to obtain more knowledge and get more comprehensive development as soon as possible in a relaxed and happy environment. Eventually it is helpful to form a good relationship between teachers and students.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Scholars at home and abroad have done a research on Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle. It enriches and develops the category of linguistics. But the application of these theories in the English class question-answer is relatively scarce view of this situation. Consequently, it left the space to further explore of this article.

A. Previous Research at Home

Domestic scholars have inherited and developed the Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle. In 1987, Liu Runqing introduced Leech's Politeness Principle and maxims detailedly in the article of *About Leech's Politeness Principle.* Levinson proposed *three principles of conversational implication,* which is the core of the new Grice's theory of conversational implication. Suo Zhenyu Put forward *the principle of appropriateness* as the general principle of conversation, which is considered that the principle of politeness is a relevant criterion of the principle of appropriateness. He Ziran showed that the Politeness Principle is the complementary theory with Cooperative Principle.

B. Previous Research Abroad

In 1973, the scholar named Rabin Lakoff who studied Politeness Principles in the early. The article of *The logic of*

Politeness; or, minding your P's and Q's, in which he combined Politeness Principle with Cooperative Principle. The philosopher H. Paul Grace of American systematically illustrated the conversational implication. He put forward the theory of "Cooperative Principle" in order to ensure the conversation went on smoothly and reach the mutual understanding, mutual cooperate in the course of conversation. This theory of Grace aroused so many people researched on the conversational implication. The theory of "Politeness Principle" was proposed by Geoffrey Leech of Linguists, who made a beneficial supplement to the principle of cooperation.

III.   COOPERATIVE PRINCIPLE AND ITS APPLICATION IN CLASS QUESTION-ANSWER PROCESS

Cooperative Principle plays an important role in Pragmatic Linguistic. Especially the four maxims are the essential criteria that speakers and hearers need to obey. In the modern society, more and more people pay more attention to the education. They hope their children get more knowledge in the limited time. In this condition, it is imperative to use Cooperative Principle in class question-answer process.

A.   Cooperative Principle Theory

The concept of the Cooperative Principle was introduced by philosopher H. Paul Grice in his article "Logic and Conversation" in Harvard University. He proposes that participants in a conversation obey a general Cooperative Principle (CP), which is expected to be in force whenever a conversation unfolds: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." Grice thinks that in all language communications, there is a sense of privacy between speaker and hearer that the two parties should obey. In order to guarantee the dialogue can be carried out smoothly and ensure that the task can be completed effectively, both sides of speakers ought to observe this principle. Grice views pragmatic interpretation as heavily relying on inferential processes: the hearer is able to hypothesize about the Speaker's meaning, based on the meaning of the sentence uttered, on background or contextual assumptions and, last but not least, on general communicative principles which speakers are expected to observe. In addition, "Cooperative Principle includes four maxims "the maxim of quantity, the maxim of quality, the maxim of relation, the maxim of manner" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.154). It is very easy to meet misunderstandings if you violate one of these maxims. So it is crucial to observe the Cooperative Principle in order to achieve interaction and communication between teachers and students.

B.   Cooperative Principle and Question-answer in English Class

English teachers' language is used in the specific context of English classroom. The teachers' question not only can meet the interchange between teachers and students but reflect the teachers' teaching skills and teaching ideas. On the one hand the teachers' questions provide an important source of language input for students to learn language. On the other hand this is a good opportunity for students to output language. Thus, question-answer from teachers and students is good for classroom atmosphere and communication between teachers and students. What's more, question-answer process in classroom is of great significant and urgency on urging learners to use language. In order to realize this purpose, the amount of teachers' questions must be abundant but superfluous; the teachers' questions should be interrelated with the text; the key points should be given by teachers; teachers' questioning language should be concise, vivid but obscure translation. Only by doing so can teachers guide the students participate in classroom thinking actively, answering questions energetically in class and exercise their ability of understanding language comprehensively. Students' learning status can be reflected and pragmatic competence to be exercised and cultivated.

1.   The Maxim of Quantity and Class Question-answer

The maxim of quantity refers to "try to make your contribution as information as is required for the current purpose of the exchange, do not make your contribution more informative than is required" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.154). It asks teachers to put forward the problems that must be closely related with the text. In addition, to maintain a proper amount of teacher talk and let the students fully participate in the classroom quiz. The teachers not only need to consider the form of a question, the language of a question and the type of an organization. Teachers should make a certain expectation to this question that students give the answers. What's more, it is necessary to emphasize the point of the application is the purpose. This kind of question can help students to deepen understanding of the text. At the same time, it can improve students' language output.

After explaining the article of *The Importance of Computer,* teachers can ask a question like this "How do you understand a person who doesn't know computer is a modern illiterate?" This question is to expand the content of the text and examine the understanding of the text by students. Simultaneously, it can cultivate students' communicative competence. On the flip side, the question of teachers cannot be too simple or too difficult, but the question is raised should arouse students' thinking and promote the success of communication between teachers and students. There is a key that teachers can make use of a flexible way of asking question in order to reduce the difficulty of questions and promote students' language output.

When teachers ask an open-ended question, such as "As college student, what will you do in your English study?" For this question, students are hard to answer comprehensively owing to the short time. In this condition, teachers should regulate the way of asking questions timely and reduce the difficulty to the current level by using General

questions or Alternative questions like "Do you have trouble in reading? Do you find inefficiency to do exercise? So can you give us some advice on how to improve reading skills? And how do you overcome your listening problems? Do you think it is important to master some listening skills? What kind of listening skills do you know? "

From the students' perspective, in order to make the learners' status can be reflected in classroom. The teachers should remind students follow the maxim of quantity in answering questions. That's to say, the answer to the question only contain information of the certain question but not exceeding this scope. Therefore, every student should understand question accurately and highly summarized their answer. If things go on like this, the students' understanding and expression abilities must be improved significantly.

2. The Maxim of Quality and Class Question-answer

The maxim of quality refers to "make your contribution one that is true, do not say what you believe to be false, do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.154). It is a fundamental of a teacher is occupied in teaching. Consequently, the question that teacher asks in classroom should be well-founded, don't present what you believe to be false or present which you lack adequate evidence. In addition, positive feedback is the motivation for students to keep on working hard, but negative feedback enables students daunted at the sight of questions and no longer participated in the classroom questions, which can't let students achieve the purpose of communication. Teachers should provide good quality feedback accurately for the students' answer. Because teachers' feedback is the cornerstone of the students' development in study. "OK! You may be right. Don't be too sad! Your efforts will be rewarded. You almost hit the point, but can you give more supplements? It doesn't matter, you will do better next time, won't you? " The teachers' answers or comments like these not only stimulate students' enthusiasm for learning but also make students have truly gained by participating. In the terms of students, teachers required students do not use false words or lack of evidence of discourse. Otherwise, the dialogue is a failure because it can't promote the progress of classroom teaching goes well.

3. The Maxim of Relation and Class Question-answer

The maxim of relation refers to the conversation between the speaker and the hearer is closely related to the topic in a specific context. Only by doing so, can make dialogue smoothly and achieve its coherence. Hence from the teacher perspective, teachers' question is very much about knowledge appeared in the lesson or including teaching content. If teachers say something beyond the classroom or say many unrelated words, it will not only violate the maxim of relation but also violate the maxim of quantity indirectly. Whether teachers' questions or students' answers, it must be relevant, not a powerful and unconstrained style for fear that reduce the quality of classroom teaching. Teachers ought to ask many questions that are related to students, such as students experiences, interests and hobbies, etc. Teachers select materials of questions should be about the topic that the students are families with or interested in. It can either increase students' interest of studying and improve teaching quality or strengthen the consciousness of participating in the class. When a teacher is about to teach an essay, named "*An Unforgettable Teacher*", the questions of classroom lead-in as follows:

Example 1:

Teacher: Hello! Everyone! All of you look very tired. So what was your last class?

Student: P.E

Teacher: So I guess you did a lot of exercise and become exhausted. Yes? Cheer up, please!

Teacher: Who is your P.E teacher?

Student: Miss. Liu.

Teacher: Oh! I know her. When I was a senior middle school student, my P.E teacher was very strict and he was a strong man. You know, I am not good at sports. Therefore, i did not like my P.E teacher. However, after I am a teacher, I think he was an excellent teacher. Are there any teachers who you will never forget, and why? What do you think of him or her?

Student: ...Strict but very kind, conscientious, humorous, considerate, knowledgeable...

Teacher: So, today we will come to study "Unforgettable teacher"

The teacher observes that students are tired in class. Firstly, she finds the cause of exhaustion of students. Then turns students' attention from exhaustion to class by asking questions, which related to students studies. It promotes students to actively participate in classroom discussion and improve the teaching effect.

4. The Maxim of Manner and Class Question-answer

The maxim of manner refers to "avoid obscurity of expression, avoid ambiguity, Be brief, be orderly" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.154). In people's daily conversation, communication between the two sides or one side can express some extended meanings with vague, ambiguous or lengthy discourse to realize interpersonal communication. But in class, when teachers asking a question should be strictly follow the principles in order to ensure that the students understand the meaning. In classroom questioning teachers should notice the way that the question was framed, that's to guide students' thinking and joining activities actively by using accurate or clear questions. That will avoid the use of obscure and ambiguous expression or words. There are many ways to communicate for teachers and students. The language dialogue is just one of them. Besides, body language and sign language are also the common ways between teachers and students. Teachers should make full use of these vivid symbols to promote the classroom atmosphere becomes more active. Compared with language dialogue, this pattern can save more time. Teachers in order to avoid an embarrassing

situation of interrupting students, they can use the act of smiling to express appreciation. In addition, they can nod their heads, adopt "OK" of the sign language. After these actions, teachers could say "I love your stories, would you like to tell me more after class", in this way, it not only maintains the students' self-esteem and self-confidence but also effectively prevent the infinite divergence of his lengthy answers. The students' answers should also try to use clear and rational words to answer questions.

IV. POLITENESS PRINCIPLE AND ITS APPLICATION IN CLASS QUESTION-ANSWER PROCESS

"CP explains how conversational implication is given rise to but it does not tell us why people do not say directly what they mean" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.157). So Politeness Principle is the complement of Cooperative Principle. In most cases, people do not say directly what they mean. But make full use of means or strategies to achieve various purposes. Such as maintain harmonious social relations in conversation. Thus Politeness Principle is used in class question-answer process that is a good way to establish a harmonious relationship between teachers and students.

A. Politeness Principle Theory

A famous British scholar named Leech, who puts forward the Politeness Principle on the basis of the principle of cooperation in 1983. Besides cooperation, most interactions are governed by politeness, that is to say, the one is considered a "polite social behavior" within a certain culture. Politeness Principle is another pragmatic principle, which is the complement of Cooperative Principle. Leech defines the polite form as well as establishes and maintains the friendship. It includes six maxims. "Tact Maxim, Generosity Maxim, Approbation Maxim, Modesty Maxim, Agreement Maxim, Sympathy Maxim" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). Leech's Politeness Principle asks speaker gives benefits to hearer as much as possible and try to make himself at a disadvantage. Thus in order to make communication smoothly and let the other side feel respect and get good feelings from the speaker, Politeness Principle's work in class question-answer can't be ignored.

B. Politeness Principle and Class Question-answer

Language is a basic tool in daily communication for students. In China, English is regarded as a foreign language. Students' language acquisition is closely related to the outcome of classroom teaching. Because of lacking natural environment for English learning, English classroom teaching and activities become main resource for language learners. In English classroom teaching, successful communication is derived from the cooperation of teachers and students. That means teachers need to make full use of classroom time and create a harmonious surrounding for their students. Then, students can be enlightened to learn English better. So the communication of the two sides should pay more attention to the stress of politeness in language communication. That is to say, in the same conditions, as far as possible to reduce not polite expressions and maximize the faith expression. To realize effective teacher-student relationship in regular training classes. Teachers should reasonably use Politeness Principle to reduce students' anxiety and friction with students or to increase the confidence of students, which will achieve the purpose of effective teaching.

1.   Tact Maxim and Class Question-answer

Tact maxim refers to "minimize cost to other, maximize benefit to other" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). In question-answer from teachers and students of language communication, teachers are in the leading position with initiative, but students in a passive position. It is easy to cause the students to feel inferiority, nervous or shy. So as to improve the efficiency of communication between teachers and students, students should follow the tact maxim. On the other hand, because the teachers' expression is not clear and the use of language is not accurate will cause gross misunderstanding or distortion of the question accordingly influence students' answer. By way of avoiding it happened, teachers should put students in the center of interest as well as use appropriate and accurate language to ask question and establish an equal communication environment for teachers and students. As far as possible to make the students in communication of teacher-student interactions receive more accurate information. So that students can get benefit from the question as much as possible.

Example 2:

A: Will you answer my question?

B: Would you answer my question?

C: Could you possibly answer my question?

The politeness of above sentences presents the increasing trend. From the students' point of view, when the teacher asks questions more politely, and more students like answering the teachers' questions and participating in class activities. It will eliminate students' tension and decrease the absolute dominant of the teachers in the teacher-student communication, so as to ensure the smooth progress of the interaction.

Example 3:

A: Could you have a try? I will help you.

B: Don't worry. It doesn't matter even you make a mistake.

C: Just to be brave. Don't worry about making mistakes. No one laugh at you.

There is large space for students to think by words like these. The students will not be too embarrassed even if they

give a wrong answer.

2. Generosity Maxim and Class Question-answer

Generosity maxim refers to "minimize benefit to self and maximize cost to self" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). Generosity maxim is particularly important especially this theory is manifest above all in the wait-time link of classroom questioning. The length of time that teacher waits for the students to answer, which is beneficial to teaching. Rowe, American psychologist point out in the classroom where he observed that teachers waiting time is less than two seconds when a student is assigned to answer question. If there seconds later the students can't answer, the teacher is about to intervene. He emphasized that when teacher does have the patient to wait for the time of students answer question to extend during three and five seconds or even longer. There are more and more students would like to involve in the classroom. So if teachers use the maxim of generosity of Politeness Principle in waiting for the answer. Increasing the cost of spending time let the student have full time and the space to carry out independent thinking. This will not be a waste of valuable time in the classroom, but prompt students to really think about the problem. Eventually it will cultivate an ability of processing information and foster the students' good study quality. At the same time, the quality of the students to answer the questions is improved. Besides, teachers' image and authority not depend on blowing her horn, but in a well-grounded way to establish. So when students should have mastered the knowledge, teachers might as well say "Well, perhaps it is my error, I didn't emphasize that in the previous class." On the other hand, Teachers usually use apologetic words to express their generosity.

Example 4:

T: I am sorry to interrupt you. But we have to continue our class now.

S: Well. That is all right.

In the above example, the teacher uses phrases like "I am sorry" to reduce the possibility of threatening students' negative face. Those sentences give students enough room to respond. Students will not feel offended if their teacher uses proper words to explain their interruption.

3. Approbation Maxim and Class Question-answer

Approbation maxim refers to "minimize dispraise of other, maximize praise of other" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). Students have the desire to be appreciated by teachers. Teachers should use the approbation maxim properly, especially they feedback to the students in classroom questioning. Teachers should try their best to make appreciation and encouragement to students' advantages, progress and achievement. Such as "Great! Thank you very much, you did an extraordinary job." These words not only meet the students' demand of obtaining identified but encourage students to participate in classroom and achieve effective communication between teachers and students. When students give a wrong answer, teachers should also use this maxim and minimize students' derogation like "You have made much progress, but I think you can do it better if you......" The students will accept the teachers' words pleasantly, because the teacher fully respects the students, which points out the shorting of student and raises hopes of them. Students are impossible to answer all teachers' questions. It concludes that students need to study how to reject politely. During this period, students couldn't damage teachers' face and influence the teaching enthusiasm and progress.

Example 5:

A: Sorry, I can't.

B: I don't think i can handle it.

C: I'm not sure about my answer, but I will try my best.

A has not enough space to show and maximize dispraise of teachers' feelings. From B to C, the euphemism of rejecting becomes much higher, so the sentence of C protects teachers' face.

4. Modesty Maxim and Class Question-answer

Modesty maxim refers to "minimize praise of self and maximize dispraise of self" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). From the teachers' social role and students to see, teachers are more, students are less on acknowledge; teachers are more developed persons but students are not on intelligence; teachers with deep experience but students with less on social experience. So compared with the students, teachers have obvious advantages who should obey the maxim of modesty during the classroom questioning, that's minimize praise of oneself and maximize dispraise of oneself, especially when teachers guide students to answer questions, she or he should not use their own merits of the knowledge, intelligence and experience to boast, but should inspire or induce students to answer the questions patiently. When the students couldn't answer the questions or give the wrong answer, in this case, teachers should try to exaggerate the derogatory, and take all the responsibility of students did not master what they have learned on themselves. Teachers can say "well perhaps it is my fault I didn't emphasize that in the previous class". This will show the teacher's humility and tolerance as well as make students face retained and protect students' learning initiative skillful. Teachers try to be a modest person will not be undignified, but on the contrary, it is helpful to establish a harmonious relationship between teachers and students to ensure the normal process of asking questions. When students become quizzers, they should make full use of the Politeness Principles to ask questions. The teacher will not get angry because they don't understand the meaning, but is willing to help the students to solve problems.

Example 6:

A: I don't understand it and want you to explain it again?

B: could you help me with this question?

C: I am a little silly. Could you please explain it again?

A, B and C are all the ways of asking questions. A is too direct and give the teacher's feeling of being on top. The students should have lay low for a while and kept open-minded in study instead of the tone of command required. B adopts method of questioning. But C is very polite, because the student protects the teacher's fame by maximize dispraise and admitting, not to show off themselves.

5. Agreement Maxim and Class Question-answer

Agreement Maxim refers to "minimize disagreement between self and other and maximize agreement between self and other" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). Pragmatic studies indicate that when the position of the parties exchanged are alike and have the unity of interest. The requirement and instructions are made by one party, it will be more likely to be accepted by the other party. But during the process of communication in the process of classroom questioning, it is inevitable to produce some difference of opinions. So teachers should try to shorten the distance between teachers and students through language, and let them feel that teacher is one of them by overusing these words: "us", "we" to express.

Example 7:

A: "Let's settle the problem together, then",

B: "We will have a discussion now"

C: "Maybe you are right. I will check it out and tell you later".

By this way can make all students participate in class discussion and create active classroom atmosphere. If the response from the other direction like "I'm your teacher. No matter what you say i am right. Just remember this!" If the answer can like this will lead students to feel upside and disappointed. There is another example, students may bring forward professional ideas when they did translation exercise. Teachers should listen patiently and encourage them to say it. After they express their views, teachers had better correct properly, but not simply deny them without any explanations. Maybe teachers can say "I think it's better to translate this sentence in this way because...Do you agree with me?"

These words make the students into the further thinking more quickly. Meanwhile, increasing communications as well as mutual question, the teachers should encourage students to speak out freely and air his or her views. As long as it makes sense, the teacher should approve naturally, but importune students' answer is exactly alike with the standard definition. Teachers apply the agreement maxim in the question and answer session of class. This can not only reflect the respect for the students but stimulate the curiosity and creativity of students. Furthermore, making full use of this maxim can enhance the students' confidence and promote effective communication between teachers and students.

6. Sympathy Maxim and Class Question-answer

Sympathy maxim refers to "minimize antipathy between self and other and maximize sympathy between self and other" (Liu Runqing, 2014, p.158). Canfield & Welles indicate that the confidence is under the protective and encouraging conditions, the cognitive activity of learning is the most efficient. "Emotion is the booster that can maintain learning motivation, the obstacles will inevitably lead to the stagnation of learning". (Wang Chuming, 2001, p125). Thus teachers should use maxim of sympathy in the inquiry process to establish a good teacher-student relationship, create relaxed classroom environment and help students to eliminate the negative emotions. When the teachers asked questions, they should take into account all the difficulty of the problem whether match with students' individual level. It will make the poor students experience a sense of happiness and success, eliminate anxiety and inferiority feelings. Ultimately it is to cultivate positive attitudes. Teachers should smile and listen carefully, provide proper tips as well as try not to correct the mistakes in the process of students' speech. It is also a way to avoid anxiety.

Example 8:

Student: I am sorry, I could not work it out.

Teacher1: Of course, you are so stupid.

Teacher2: that's OK, this question is difficult itself. And most students cannot work it out. You have made a perfectly done.

From the above example, we can see that when the student couldn't answer the question, the teacher not criticize or ridicule, but find reasons to forgive the student and protect his pride from hurt. So, a teacher should be more patient and give encouragement and comfort to reduce the students' frustration, protect students' self-esteem, establish harmony environment between teachers and students. Finally it will achieve the purpose of effective classroom communication.

Example 9:

T: Who would like to answer this question? Is there any volunteer?

S: (Silence)

T: OK. It might be a little difficult for you. We will discuss it together.

When teachers want someone to answer his question, he uses words "would like". When his students do not cooperate with him, he applies words "it might be". Those phrases reveal the teacher's less desire to compel the students to answer the question.

V. CONCLUSION

Above all, classroom quiz is a common way of students and teachers to interact. We understand the theory of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle are how and when to be observed. The purpose of foreign language teaching is to communicate. English classroom interaction between teachers and students is a kind of language communication activities and is also a good opportunity for the students' language practice. However, the classroom questioning plays the key part, and as the main way to realize the successful communication between teachers and students. In this regard, in order to let students master more knowledge and skills, teachers must appropriate application of the Politeness Principle and Cooperative Principle. Teachers should pay attention to the way and method of asking questions. Especially, in class question-answer process teachers should use normative language and words to construct sentences according to students' ability of receptivity and students' academic performance. Teachers' expression must be euphemism and accurate as soon as possible and give affirmation and encouragement for students answer to improve the amount of language output of students' language.

However, the study of the application of Cooperative Principle and Politeness Principle in class question-answer process is still at its early stage, it remains to be further in-depth. Meanwhile, it is easy to find that the pragmatics has a great application value in teaching field. It not only creates an euphonious learning atmosphere and strengthens the students' self-confidence. It also has a great significant in promoting the relationship goes well and improving the effect of classroom teaching. Thus we should pay attention to combine with concrete practical activities, and carry out the effective teaching to improve the class activities smoothly.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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An Investigation into the Effect of Individual Differences on Iranian EFL Teachers' Perceptions Concerning Professional Development Obstacles

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Abstract—The aim of this study is to examine Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions of the professional development obstacles they face during their teaching career. A total of 50 Iranian EFL teachers at different language academy within a small city of Kangan, participated in this study. The following items were found to be most highly frequent among the participants of the current study: ["Observers' visits are rare" for institutional professional development obstacles; (M= 3.91)], ["Some teachers cannot afford pursuing postgraduate studies" for self-directed professional development obstacles; (M= 4.76)], ["English language conferences in Iran are rare" for professional development obstacles related to the nature of the work; (M= 3.74)]. On the contrary, the following problems were found to be the least highly frequent ones the participants were facing during their professional development: ["Institute administration considers English less important than other languages"; (M= 3.04)], ["Some teachers always feel frustrated with most students", (M= 2.97)], ["Teaching is a type of work that rapidly becomes routine" for professional development obstacles related to the nature of the work; (M= 2.85)]. Finally, no significant difference was found in teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with regard to their academic qualification, ELT experience, gender, and age.

Index Terms—teachers' professional development, obstacles, teachers' perceptions

I. INTRODUCTION

Living in a condition, where knowledge, technology, concepts, philosophies, almost everything is quickly transforming would make teaching a very complicated and arduous career. Keeping abreast of the continuous changes and developments is deemed to be a necessity for attaining a very high quality of teaching. Thus, ongoing professional development is a vital component in teachers' lives.

Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) point to the significance of promoting educational standards, which revolves around the issue of creating equal and sufficient chances to learn for all school students. However, "opportunities to learn also require opportunities to teach" (Woods, cited in Hargreaves and Fullan, 1992, p. 1). Consequently, EFL instructors have been required to be continually moving forward and equipping themselves with the knowledge that will enhance their ability to offer opportunities to enhance the quality of their teaching.

Examining the English-language classes, many researchers referred to a few main factors contributing to the failure of English-language teaching-and-learning: unqualified and poorly-trained teachers, poorly-motivated students, learners of mixed abilities in overly large classes, and rare chances for student exposure to English outside of classroom time (Dhanasobhon, 2006).

The final goal of education of foreign language teacher is preparing teachers with training in order to educate students carefully and guide them in helping students in future career. However, to the best of researcher knowledge no one has investigated professional development obstacles facing English language teachers in Iran.So the of the purpose of this study is an investigation into the effect of individual differences on Iranian EFL teachers' perceptions concerning professional development obstacles.

A. Objectives of the Study

Firstly, this study aims to investigate the professional development obstacles English language teachers face. Finding out the answer to this question is of grave importance in western countries. Therefore, eliciting such data would definitely help improve the quality of teaching and learning within EFL classrooms in Iran. Secondly, it is within the scope of this study to measure if there are significant differences in teachers' perceptions in terms of the participants' gender, academic qualification, experience, as well as their age. By making sure if there is any relationship between teachers' perceptions and some of their personal attribute, the researcher can create a blueprint for other language teachers. Thirdly, having provided the findings, the researcher will suggest solutions for EFL teachers' professional development obstacles.

B. Research Questions

In order to achieve the objective of the research the following research question was addressed.

1. What are the professional development obstacles facing language institute teachers in Iran?

It should be mentioned that language teachers might have different perceptions regarding the abovementioned research question due to their personal and individual characteristics such as one's gender, age, academic qualification, and working experience. In order to address such factors the following research questions were formulated.

2. Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of male and female institute language teachers concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development?

3. Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of institute language teachers, having different academic qualification (Diploma, BA, MA or higher), concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development?

4. Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of institute language teachers, with different working experience, concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development?

5. Are there statistically significant differences in perceptions of institute language teachers, with different ages, concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development?

C. Research Hypotheses

1. There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of male and female institute language teachers concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development.

2. There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of institute language teachers with different academic qualifications, (Diploma, BA, MA or higher), concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development.

3. There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of institute language teachers with different working experience, concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development.

4. There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of institute language teachers with different ages; concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Introduction

This section is a short review of researchers who had study in this subject. Finally, the problems affecting EFL teachers' professional development will be addressed.

Alternative perceptions of professional development

In the literature there are some alternative terms related to teachers' professional development, like self -exploration -, self- appraisal and self- concept. These terms are utilized interchangeably in the related literature. Self– exploration is the term which encompasses, investigation, evaluation, and, notion of teachers on their instructional practices. Teachers' idea is pivotal to create a great understanding of the incidents that happen in the classroom. As Richert (cited in Lieberman & Miller, 1991) stated that having experience does not necessarily lead to learning about it, but that having experience and then reflecting on it does.

According to Farrell (1998), reflective instruction can benefit English language teachers in three different ways. Firstly, it helps free the teacher from impulsive and everyday and mundane behavior. Second, it permits teachers to act in a deliberate, intentional manner and avoid the "I don't know what I will do today" syndrome, and it considers teachers as educated beings.

As Reece and Walker (1997) contended, teachers can receive all kinds of help in evaluating themselves but, unless they make their own judgments, they will find all sorts of excuses why someone else's evaluation is invalid. Then the word "reflection" is necessary to create a great comprehending of the occurrences that happen in the classroom. Teachers Should create about useful ways in order to attain their purposes.

Language learning in adults and teacher development process

Teachers have various needs and capabilities at different steps of their jobs. Therefore, comprehending adult learning is significant in order to understand the teachers' professional

Progression.

Knowles (cited in Raths& Katz, 1986) introduced some principles for facilitating adult learning, despite one's stages of development. One of the principles which incorporate the foundation of modern adult learning is that; adults have a deep-rooted tendencies to be self-directed, thus the role of the teacher is to involve in a process of inquiry with adult learners rather than to transfer some information to them. Another principle is that, experience is the richest source for adult learning thus, the main activity of adult education is the analysis of experience.

In addition to Knowles, Burden (cited in Raths& Katz, 1986) highlighted the significance of knowledge of teachers' personal and professional development changes because it can help teacher educators understand the needs and capabilities of instructors at various points in their jobs and serve as a basis for planning new approaches and methods to promote developmental growth.

Life cycle of EFL instructors

There are various methods of examine the teachers' professional period of life. However, Hargreaves and Fullan (1992) and Day (1999) agreed with the idea that there are some authoritative studies on this subject by teachers like Huberman (1989) as well as Fessler and Christensen (1992). As mentioned by Day (1999), these teachers' works suggest that teachers experience and therefore get passed five broad stages: launching a career, stabilization, new challenges and new concerns, reaching a professional plateau and disenchantment. During the first stages of their career, teachers go through easy or painful starts to their career and they show initial commitment and interest. This stage is experienced between 1-3 years of teaching experience. After this stage, teachers find commitment and feel relatively secure in their knowledge of ELT practices and subject matter. In this stabilization stage, teachers are comfortable with their identity as members of particular school or language academy community. This stage of teaching experience lasts 4-6 years. The sense of growing maturity is likely to be accompanied by experimentation and commitment but eventually to, stagnation and dissatisfaction. These may happen between 7-18 years of teaching experience. Between 19-30 years of experience teachers may exhibit more concern withholding on to what they have and subsequently show resistance to creativity and innovations. They may experience mid-life crisis and dissatisfaction to their job. On the other side of the coin, in contrast to this conservatism, teachers may feel a greater sense of confidence and self-acceptance. In the final 10-15 years of their careers teachers seem to have calmer years and experience and less involvement as they get closer to retirement. Disengagement may be experienced in 31-40 years of teaching experience. In the light of these theories, the researcher can jump to the conclusion that teachers at various stages of their careers may experience, feel, think and act differently. Thus, professional development activities should be employed and evaluated according to the teachers' needs at different phases of their careers.

III. METHODOLOGY

Participants

To collect the data needed, a total of 50 ELT teachers working at different language academies in the city of Kangan, voluntarily participated in the study. According to Figure 1, there were 22 males and 28 females. In other words, nearly 44.7% of the teachers were male and 55.3% of them were females.
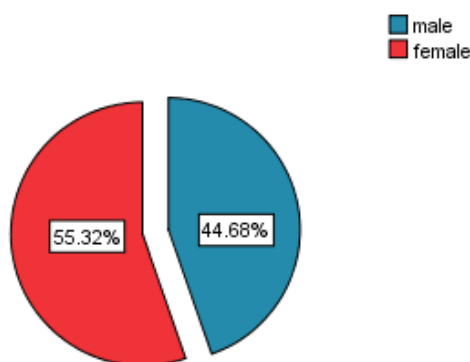

Figure 1: Percentage of teachers' gender

Moreover, as Figure 2 presents, concerning the teachers' academic qualifications, 4 teachers had a diploma [6.4%]. 35 teachers [72.3] were either BA graduates or on the verge of graduation. Moreover, a total of 11 teachers [21.3] had either a master's or PhD degree.
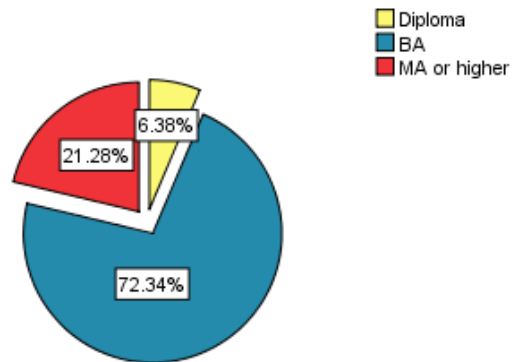
Figure 2: Percentage of teachers' academic qualifications

Regarding the ELT experience of the participants of the current study, it should be mentioned that, according to Figure 3, 12 teachers [23.4%] had 1 to 2 years of teaching English in language academies. A total of 20 teachers [40.4%] had 3 to 5 years of ELT experience. While 16 teachers [31.9%] had teaching experience of 6 to 15 years, only 2 teachers [4.3%] had ELT experience of above 15 years.
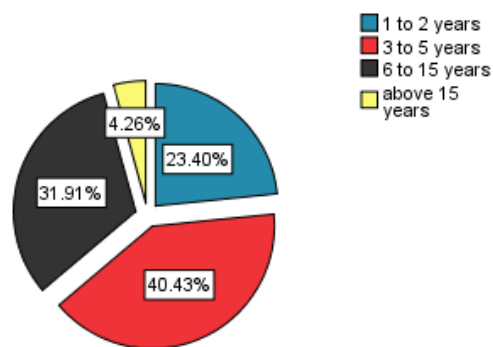

Figure 3: Percentage of teachers' ELT experience

With respect to teachers' age, it should be maintained that most of the participants, [59.6%], aged from 25 to 35. Figure 4 shows the percentage of teachers' age range.
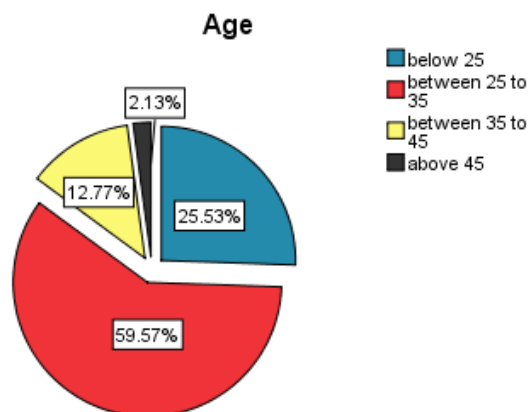

Figure 4: Teachers' age range

Data collection
Instrument

A questionnaire constructed by Herzallah (2011) was used in this study. This questionnaire is composed of two parts. The first part had been formed to collect demographic information about the sample's masculine, female, age, education, and the work experience. The second part had been allotted for eliciting the problems hindering institutional professional development, self-directed skilled development obstacles, and Professional development obstacles from the nature of the work. All said, the questionnaire consisted of 65 likert type statements. 3.4.1.1. Reliability of the questionnaire

The reliability reported in this study was [.75] which was a good index of reliability since it was above [.70]. However, since the study and the instrument had been used in an Arab country, there might exist some sort of variation in the reliability of the questionnaire within the context of Iran as compared with an Arab country. Therefore, before administering the questionnaire to the sample it was piloted first by giving it to 30 EFL teachers who were very similar to the sample. Cranbach alpha subsequently was run to calculate the reliability of the questionnaire. As can be noticed in Table 1, the questionnaire enjoyed acceptable level of internal consistency and therefore, it was reliable. The reason for such an interpretation is that the reliability coefficient was .734, which is a good index of reliability, since it was above .70.

TABLE 1:
THE RELIABILITY OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE

Cronbach 's Alpha	Cronbach 's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.734	.807	65

Procedure for data collection

To collect the data needed to find answer to the research questions of the current study, a total of 50 language teachers were asked to take part in the study by filling out a questionnaire constructed by Herzallah (2011). Before administering the questionnaire to the sample, a total of 30 EFL teachers, very similar to the sample, were asked to take part in the pilot study. In this phase, to ensure that Herzallah's questionnaire was a valid and reliable instrument, it was pilot tested by giving it to 30 EFL teachers. After that the researcher calculated the reliability and made sure that the instrument was still reliable in the context of Iran, it was given to 50 EFL teachers.

Data analysis

In the first phase of the study (the pilot study), Cronbach Alpha was used to check the reliability of the instrument. In the second phase of the study, the collected data was analyzed, using various statistical techniques. First, descriptive statistics such as means and percentages was used to determine the principle professional development barriers that Iranian English language teachers are faced. Secondly, independent part of t-test was used to measure the statistical distinctions in means with respect to teachers' genders. Lastly, one way ANOVA was used to calculate the statistical differences of means between the teachers' age, knowledge, and academic skills.

IV. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

Descriptive statistics for the questionnaire

Before discussing the means as well as standard deviation of the items of the questionnaire, it is necessary to provide some introductory information concerning the questionnaire used in the study. The questionnaire used in the study aimed to elicit information concerning the obstacles that English language teachers face during the process of their professional development. Since the questionnaire was originally constructed in an Arab country, certain changes should have been made within it, to make it more useful in the context of Iran. To make sure whether or not the questionnaire was still reliable after its adaptation, the researcher piloted the questionnaire by giving it to 30 EFL teachers very similar to the sample. The reliability coefficient was found to be .73, which was a good index of reliability.

In order to interpretation, each of the constructs of the questionnaire will be analyzed separately, through the provision of their means and standard deviations. In the next section, descriptive statistics for the first construct of the questionnaire will be provided.

The difference in EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their academic qualifications

In this section, the researcher intended to find answer to the question if there was any statistically significant difference among EFL teachers of different academic qualifications (diploma, BA, MA, PhD) concerning their perceptions of the three constructs of the professional development questionnaire, namely, institutional and self-directed professional development obstacles, as well as those related to the nature of the work. Table 2 shows the results of one-way Anova with respect to the academic qualifications of the teachers. According to Table2, there was not any significant difference between teachers; academic qualification and their perceptions of institutional professional development obstacles. The reason is that the Sig value is not less than [.05].

As can be noticed in the table below, there was no significant difference between the participants academic qualifications and their perceptions of self-directed professional development obstacles [Sig= .438] as well as those related to the nature of the work [Sig= .194], since the p value for each of the constructs of the questionnaire was not less than [.05].

TABLE2:
THE RESULTS OF ONE WAY ANOVA FOR ACADEMIC QUALIFICATIONS

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Institutional Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	30.201	5	15.101	.096	.909
	Within Groups	6944.267	45	157.824		
	Total	6974.468	50			
Self-directed Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	193.253	5	96.627	.841	.438
	Within Groups	5057.725	45	114.948		
	Total	5250.979	50			
Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	99.765	5	49.883	1.705	.194
	Within Groups	1287.341	45	29.258		
	Total	1387.106	50			

The difference in EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their ELT experience

Being interested in knowing if teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles was influenced by how long language teachers were teaching English, the researcher of the current study added ELT experience as another independent variable. Table 3 shows the results of one-way ANOVA used for determining if there was any significant difference in the EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their ELT experience.

As can be noticed in Table3, no significant differences were found in the EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their ELT experience. The reason for such an interpretation was that the Sig value of each the constructs of the questionnaire was not less than [.05].

TABLE3:
ONE-WAY ANOVA RESULTS FOR ELT EXPERIENCE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Institutional Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	854.033	5	284.678	2.000	.128
	Within Groups	6120.435	45	142.336		
	Total	6974.468	50			
Self-directed Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	587.172	5	195.724	1.805	.161
	Within Groups	4663.807	45	108.461		
	Total	5250.979	50			
Professional Development Obstacles related to the nature of the work	Between Groups	66.202	5	22.067	.718	.546
	Within Groups	1320.905	45	30.719		
	Total	1387.106	50			

The difference between males and females in their perceptions of professional development obstacles

This section aims to examine if there is any significant difference in the perceptions of male and female EFL teachers concerning the three constructs of professional development obstacles, namely institutional and self-directed professional development obstacles, as well as those related to the nature of the work. Table 4 shows the total means of male and female EFL teachers' perceptions of institutional and self-directed professional development obstacles, as well as those related to the nature of the work.

TABLE4:
THE TOTAL MEANS OF MALE AND FEMALE EFL TEACHERS' PERCEPTIONS OF INSTITUTIONAL AND SELF-DIRECTED PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OBSTACLES, AS WELL AS THOSE RELATED TO THE NATURE OF THE WORK.

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Institutional Professional Development Obstacles	male	22	106.5238	10.28892	2.24523
	female	28	99.9615	13.20146	2.58902
Self-directed Professional Development Obstacles	male	22	72.5238	14.05923	3.06798
	female	28	73.4231	7.17871	1.40786
Professional Development Obstacles Related to the nature of the work	male	22	49.2381	5.49459	1.19902
	female	28	51.3077	5.41678	1.06232

Using Table4, it can be easily noticed there is a difference in the male and female teachers' total means of their perceptions of different constructs of the questionnaire. As can be seen in the above table, in terms of teachers' perceptions of institutional professional development obstacles, male teachers had a higher total mean than female teachers. The mean difference between the perceptions of the two groups was 6.56. However, as can be seen in Table 8, which shows the t-test results, there was not any significant difference between male and female EFL teachers'

perceptions of institutional professional development obstacles. The reason for reaching such an interpretation was that the p value [.069] (the value marked in red in Table5) was not less than .05.

According to Table4, the total mean of female teachers' perceptions of self-directed professional development obstacles was slightly higher than that of the male teachers. Moreover, the mean difference between the two groups was [.89]. However, according to Table4, there was not any significant difference between male and female EFL teachers' perceptions of self-directed professional development obstacles. The reason for reaching such an interpretation was that the p value [.778] (the value marked in red in Table 8) was not less than .05.

Lastly, As Table 4 shows, the total mean of female teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles related to the nature of work was slightly higher than that of the male teachers. Moreover, the mean difference between the two groups was [2.06]. However, according to Table4, there was not any significant difference between male and female EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles related to the nature of the work.

TABLE4:
THE T-TEST RESULTS FOR MALE AND FEMALE TEACHERS

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Institutional Professional Development Obstacles	Equal variances assumed	3.443	.070	1.865	48	.069	6.56	3.51	-.52	13.6
	Equal variances not assumed			1.915	47.9	.062	6.56	3.42	-.34	13.4
Self-directed Professional Development Obstacles	Equal variances assumed	1.541	.221	-.284	48	.778	-.89	3.16	-7.27	5.47
	Equal variances not assumed			-.266	46	.792	-.89	3.37	-7.81	6.01
Professional Development Obstacles related to the nature of work	Equal variances assumed	.029	.867	-1.294	48	.202	-2.06	1.59	-5.29104	1.15
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.292	44.6	.203	-2.06	1.60	-5.30088	1.16

The difference in EFL teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with regard to their age

Table 5 shows the results of one way ANOVA, determining if there was any significant difference in the perceptions of teachers with regard to their age. As can be noticed in Table5, there was no significant difference in the EFL teachers' perceptions of different categories of professional development obstacles, namely institutional and self-directed professional development problems, as well as those related to the nature of the work, with respect to their age. The reason for such an interpretation was that the p-value of each of the teachers' perception categories was not less than [.05].

TABLE5:
THE RESULTS OF ONE-WAY ANOVA FOR THE AGE

		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Institutional Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	229.754	5	76.585	.488	.692
	Within Groups	6744.714	45	156.854		
	Total	6974.468	50			
Self-directed Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	63.062	5	21.021	.174	.913
	Within Groups	5187.917	45	120.649		
	Total	5250.979	50			
Professional Development Obstacles	Between Groups	87.178	5	29.059	.961	.420
	Within Groups	1299.929	45	30.231		
	Total	1387.106	50			

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study consisted of 5 research questions and 4 research hypotheses. First, it was within the scope of this study to determine the most and the least highly frequent problems that Iranian EFL teachers face during their professional development. It was found that the item "Observers' visits are rare" enjoyed the highest mean among institutional professional development obstacles; (M= 3.91). This is the indicator of the fact that the participants of this study were

of the opinion that the most important institutional problem which both hinders and discourages teachers to develop in their profession on a daily basis, is related to the number of times that their classes are observed during a semester. Since Iranian EFL teachers are observed only once in a semester, they do not even think of developing in their profession. It is, therefore, advised that EFL teachers be observed at least three times in a semester. This, in turn, would force them to improve session by session. Among self-directed professional development obstacles, the item "Some teachers cannot afford pursuing postgraduate studies" (M= 4.76) had the highest mean. In many cases, lack of money and financial resources do prevent language teachers to pursue their postgraduate studies. This is due to the fact that Iranian EFL teachers are not financially supported. This lack of support would mostly discourage them to develop professionally. This problem can be solved in case institute managers start to raise language teachers' salary. In addition, some particular funds should be provided for teachers' pursuit of theoretical knowledge in their field, so that they feel that their efforts as language teachers are seen and valued by the administrative board in each institute. Finally, the highest mean among professional development obstacles related to the nature of the work belonged to the item "English language conferences in Iran are rare" (M= 3.74). Unfortunately, international and national ELT conferences are not held much in the country. This might be due to the lack of attention paid to this field of study, by the educational policy makers within the country, Iran.

On the contrary, the following problems were found to be the least highly frequent ones the participants were facing during their professional development. First, among the institutional professional development obstacles, the item "Institute administration considers English less important than other languages" (M= 3.04) enjoyed the lowest mean. This shows that most teachers believed that language institutes pay a lot of attention to English language, rather than other languages. This is obvious since, nowadays, English is considered as a lingua franca. Moreover, many Iranian try to learn English to take international tests such as IELTS and TOEFL. They mostly tend to pursue their studies in English speaking countries. Second, the lowest mean within self-directed professional development obstacles belonged to the item "Some teachers always feel frustrated with most students" (M= 2.97). Lastly, among professional development obstacles related to the nature of the work, the lowest mean belonged to the item "Teaching is a type of work that rapidly becomes routine" (M= 2.85).

The first research hypothesis was "There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of institute language teachers with different academic qualifications, (Diploma, BA, MA or higher), concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development". Since, the result of one-way ANOVA for the participants' academic qualifications was not significant, it can be mentioned that the null hypothesis was confirmed. In other words, there was no significant difference in the perceptions of teachers with respect to the academic degree they hold.

The second research hypothesis was "There is no statistically significant difference in the perceptions of institute language teachers with different working experience, concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development". The second null hypothesis of this study was also confirmed, given that the result of one-way ANOVA for teachers' ELT experience was not significant, too.

The third research hypothesis was "There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of male and female institute language teachers concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development". Like the previous hypotheses, this null hypothesis was confirmed as well, since the result of t-test was not less than [.05].

The fourth research hypothesis was "There is no statistically significant difference in perceptions of institute language teachers with different ages; concerning the obstacles they face during their professional development". This hypothesis was confirmed, too. The reason for this is that the result of one way ANOVA for participants' age was not significant.

The findings of this study were in contrast with those of Herzallah (2011), in that this study found no significant difference within teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their gender, ELT experience and age. It should be mentioned that Herzallah (2011) found a significant difference within teachers' perceptions of professional development obstacles with respect to their gender, ELT experience and age. However, this study was similar to Herzallah's research in that no significant difference was found within both studies, in the perceptions of teachers with respect to their academic qualification.

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A Study on Chinese EFL Learning of English Pronunciation from the Perspective of Aesthetic Linguistics*

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Abstract—**English phonetic learning, as the beginning of learning a foreign language, is of great importance in EFL learning. However, the present Chinese EFL learners' phonetic learning is not satisfactory. Based on theories of aesthetic linguistics, this paper analyzes the aesthetic attributes of English pronunciation and intonation, including the beauty of sonority, rhyme, rhythm, intonation, and succession. And then pedagogical implications are proposed about how to raise EFL learners' aesthetic consciousness and creation of English pronunciation.**

Index Terms—**aesthetic attributes, aesthetic awareness, English pronunciation, beauty, speech sounds**

I. INTRODUCTION

In order to speak a language, people need to master one hundred percent of phonetic knowledge, fifty to ninety percent of grammar knowledge and ten percent of vocabulary (Gimson, 1980). Hence, learning pronunciation is extraordinary important in learning a foreign language. Meanwhile, teaching pronunciation is an important and difficult part in teaching a foreign language.

In China, although EFL pronunciation teaching has attracted great attention of many EFL researchers, and EFL teachers have made their great efforts to teach English pronunciation, effectiveness of teaching English pronunciation is not guaranteed. A large majority of Chinese EFL learners pronounce with strong accent, significantly different from the English native speakers (Gao, 2006).

During traditional English pronunciation teaching process, listening and imitating are regarded as two important links. In recent studies, some pronunciation software like Praat is adopted to help English pronunciation teaching (Meng, 2014; Kong & Yue, 2014), and contributes a little to English pronunciation teaching. However, in four years of learning English, Chinese EFL learners don't obviously meliorate their English rhythm with the improvement of their English proficiency (Chen, 2013). That is to say, generally speaking, there is not an effective way to improve Chinese EFL learners' English pronunciation and intonation.

On the basis of analyzing the current phonetic acquisition status in China, the paper will adopt concepts and theories of aesthetic linguistics, analyze aesthetic characteristics of English pronunciation and intonation, and finally propose some suggestions about English phonetic teaching.

II. PHONETIC ACQUISITION STATUS IN CHINA

Chinese researchers and teachers of English have proposed many ways to teach English pronunciation. For example, based on audio-lingual method, English phonetic teaching mainly adopts ways of correction, imitation and comparison to cultivate the habit of pronouncing English words and sentences; with communicative approach, teachers began to play stress on teaching suprasegments of English (Gao, 2011). All in all, researchers and teachers made great efforts in order to improve Chinese EFL learners' phonetic proficiency. However, according to the study of Hu (2013), EFL learners in China still speak English with strong Chinese accent, even dialectal accent. The present status of English phonetic learning can be summed as follows.

1. Weak in English rhythm

First, the common problem of Chinese EFL learners with English rhythm is that they don't distinguish the stressed syllable and unstressed syllable. The result is that they pronounce every syllable with the same force. In fact, this is the result of transfer of Chinese rhythm. The beauty of English rhythm is destroyed.

2. Monotonous and strange intonation

Generally speaking, students tend to adopt falling intonation to read every declarative sentence, and rising intonation

to interrogative sentences. Flat intonation and rising intonation within a sentence are seldom adopted. Such makes their intonation is dull, lacking in change of intonation. Some students don't even follow the rules of English intonation, uttering sentences in a free intonation.

3. Lack of linking

One important phonetic phenomenon of English pronunciation in a fluent speech is that some speech sounds will be changed according to its phonetic context. So linking, loss of plosion, assimilation, and reduction are very common in fluent English speech. Chinese EFL learners seldom use these rules of sound change. As a result, they clearly and completely pronounce every phone and word, which bring about difficulties in understanding for the English native speakers.

All in all, Chinese EFL learners haven't mastered the natural and standard English pronunciation and intonation. The present teaching and learning status is not satisfactory.

III. AESTHETIC LINGUISTICS AND PHONETIC LEARNING

Aesthetics is a scientific study of aesthetic relationship between human beings and reality. Aesthetics mainly studies the laws of aesthetic activity and rules of beauty creation and appreciation, while language is an important social phenomenon in human society. From the perspective of communicative function, language is a tool for communication. From the perspective of ideational function, language is a special psychological behavior. From the perspective of information function, language is a system of auditory symbols. And from the perspective of aesthetics, language is the aesthetic object, because language has the aesthetic features which can arouse aesthetic sense.

Aesthetic linguistics is the study of aesthetic attributes of language and of properties and laws of daily speech events and speech acts which serve as communicative activities as well as aesthetic objects (Qian, 2004). In this chapter, the theoretical foundation for learning English pronunciation will be introduced.

A. Aesthetic Attributes of Speech Sounds

Pronunciation possesses its natural attributes and social attribute, of which the latter is represented by national or regional features of pronunciation. Vocal sounds, as the tool for communication, can express meanings and attitudes according to convention. However, this convention is the result of aesthetic choice. Language is the carriers of both culture and beauty.

Language has not only the function of communication, but also aesthetic value. Qian (2004) believes that language has aesthetic attributes which can arouse sense of beauty.

B. Aesthetic Psychology and Preference of Human Beings

According to Gardner (2011), human beings have eight intelligences, among which musical intelligence is the ability of perceive, identify, change and express music, and also it is the sensitiveness to rhythm, intonation, prosody or timbre. Aesthetic psychology and preference is universality of mankind. In a sense, the process of learning a foreign language pronunciation is one of learning how to appreciate vocal beauty of that language.

C. Learning Pronunciation as an Psychological Process

The process of oral language communication can be divided into three periods: pronunciation, transmission and perception. In the first period, the brain of the speaker guides speech organs to utter sounds, which is a process of change psychological phenomenon into physiological phenomenon. In the second period, sound is transmitted into the ears of the listeners, which is a physical process. In the third process, speech sounds are perceived by the brain of the listeners through the auditory organs (Lin & Wang, 2013). Both the first process and third process involve the psychological phenomenon. Therefore, the process of learning pronunciation of intonation of a language is a psychological process, in which perception of speech sounds is one important link.

D. Aesthetic Process of Pronunciation

Aesthetic process is a psychological practice, which includes aesthetic experience and aesthetic cognition and aesthetic perception. From Plato's era, visual sense and auditory sense are recognized as windows for entering aesthetic experience. Based on theories of aesthetic linguistics, learning pronunciation can be seen as a process of aesthetic process of the sound system of a language, in which the learners experience and perceive the beauty of the speech sounds of the language.

All in all, speech sounds has aesthetic attributes themselves; human beings have aesthetic preferences and psychology; leaning speech sounds is a psychological process; and aesthetic process of pronunciation is a psychological practice, in which aesthetic subjects perceive, identify, and evaluate aesthetic object—speech sounds.

IV. ANALYSIS ON AESTHETIC ATTRIBUTES OF ENGLISH PRONUNCIATION

Sound world has its charm. However, not all sounds can create charm. Only if the sounds possess some attributes will they have charm—pleasing the ears or forming the aesthetic pleasure. Then, what kind of attributes sounds have can arouse aesthetic pleasure? Qian (2004) believes that only sounds that have rhythm, prosody and rhyme—musical

sounds—are melodious. Speech sounds have intrinsic attributes of forming rhythm, prosody and rhyme. Hence, speech sounds produced by human being are musical sounds. That people can recite poems, sing songs and operas is the very strong proof that speech sounds are musical sounds. What's more, speech sounds under normal condition can also form the attributes of musical sounds. In a word, phonological system has something similar to musical system in that speech sounds have two musical elements—prosody and rhythm.

Every language is an art for collective expression, in which aesthetic factors such as pronunciation, rhythm, and symbolism are not shared with other languages. That is to say, every language has its own aesthetic attributes. In this chapter, aesthetic features of English pronunciation will be explored in terms of beauty of sonority, rhyme, rhythm, intonation, and succession.

A.   Beauty of Sonority

English speech sounds can be divided into two kinds—consonants and vowels. Consonants refer to those sounds that are produced with airstream meeting with some obstruction this way or that way while vowels refer to those sounds that are produced without airstream meeting with any obstruction. Vowels are important because they form the core of a syllable. The most obvious feature of vowels is that they are very sonorous and also they can be prolonged. Sonority of vowels makes them become musical sounds. The beautiful aria of Chinese Peking opera just depends on the lengthening of vowels.

To sum up, vowels are a kind of musical sounds, and the tonal quality is one of important factors that generate beauty of sonority. English has twenty vowels, so there are abundant resources for generating musical sounds in English speech sounds. Besides, English has twenty-four consonants. Various consonants plus sonorous vowels forms plenty of clusters of sounds. Beauty of English is reflected completely.

B.   Beauty of Rhyme

A rhyme is a repetition of similar sounds (or the same sound) in two or more words. From the perspective of place of rhyme, rhyme can be divided into alliteration, end rhyme and internal rhyme. Alliteration refers to rhyme formed because of the sameness among the beginning consonants of several words. End rhyme consists of perfect rhyme and imperfect rhyme. In the perfect rhyme, consonants and vowels are the same, while in imperfect rhyme, vowels are the same but consonants are not, which is known as assonance; consonants are the same but vowels are not, which is recognized as consonance. Now, let's appreciate the beauty of English rhymes.

For example, there is a poem entitled song written by Christina Rossetti.

When I am dead, my dearest,
Sing no sad songs for me;
Plant thou no rose at my head,
Nor shady cypress three;
Be the green grass above me,
With showers and dew drops wet;
And if thou wilt, remember,
And if thou wilt, forget.

In this poem, "dead" and "dearest" in the first line alliterate, so do "sing" and "songs" in the second line, and "green" and "grass" in the fifth line and "with" and "wet" in the six line. Alliteration brings about impressive beauty of echoing each other in front and back.

End rhyme refers to the situation in which the rhymed words at the end of the line are the same in stressed vowels and the following consonant. For example, here is a poem written by Joaquin Miller.

Above you gleaming skies of gold
One lone imperial peak is seen;
While gathered at his feet in green
Ten thousand foresters are told.
And all so still! So still the air
That duty drops the web of care.

In this poem, "gold" in the first line rhymes with "told" in the fourth line, so does "seen" in the second line and "green" in the third line, and "air" in the fifth line and "care" in the sixth line.

Internal rhyme refers to the situation in which a word in a line rhymes the last word in the same line or a word in another line. For instance, here is part of the poem entitled the cloud written by Percy Bysshe Shelley.

I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers,
From the seas and streams;
I bear light shade for the leaves when laid
In their noon-day dreams.
…
In this poem, "showers" rhymes "flowers", so does "shade" and "laid".

From above, we can see that English poems are beautiful partly because of the rhymes. It's really difficult to express the beautiful meaning or images created by the beautiful English rhymes. The best way to experience the beauty of

English poems is to read it and enjoy it carefully. Listening to the English poems is also a better way to perceive and appreciate beauty of English pronunciation.

C. Beauty of Rhythm

English is a stressed-timed language, namely, intervals between two stressed syllables are equal (Zhou, 2005). Variation of words or syllables that have strong stress with those that have weaker or reduced stress is typical and contributes to the rhythm of English (Wang, 2005). That is to say, rhythm of English speech is formed by the recurrence of stressed syllables at more or less regular intervals of time and by the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables. Beauty of rhythm refers to the beauty formed by comparison between rapidness and slowness of the sound, and stress and weakness of sounds. For example:

3-1 I THINK[1] he WANTS to GO.

3-2 I THINK that he WANTS to GO.

3-3 I THINK it was an EXcellent aFFAIR.

The rhythm patterns of the above sentences are shown one by one as follows.

3-4 • O • O • O

3-5 • O• •O• •O

3-6 • O•••O•••O

The symbol "•" represent an unstressed syllable, while the symbol "O" represents a stressed syllable. Although the length of the utterances is of difference, it takes almost the same time to utter them, because they all have three stressed syllables.

The te-tum te-tum rhythm of English creates beauty of sounds. Learners can enjoy the beauty of English rhythm when reading them with the alternation of stressed and unstressed syllables and rapidness and slowness. Moreover, learners can perceive the beauty of English rhythm when they listen to English sentences.

D. Beauty of Intonation

English is a typical intonation language. Intonation refers to the total pattern of pitch changes, i.e. the rising and falling of the voice when a person is speaking, within in an utterance (Wang, 2005). English has two basic intonation patterns: rising and falling. When they go together, they can make a falling-rising tone. Sometime, there is flat tone in English speech. For example:

3-4 –Is �[2]John in?

    --No, ⌍John's ⌏[3]not in.

English has its own intonation beauty. The wave of English intonation can bring about great aesthetic enjoyment. In order to show the beauty of English intonation, we use two lines to represent the pitch range of intonation. The lower line represents lower intonation, and the closer to the higher line, the higher the intonation is. Let's now use these symbols to show the beauty of English intonation. For example:

3-5 Do you prefer tea or coffee?

3-6 Swimming, which is a good sport, makes people strong.

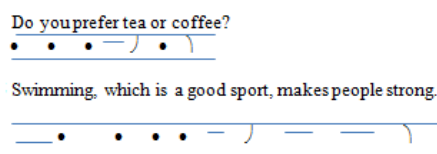Intonations of sentence 3-5 and sentence 3-6 are shown in Fig.1.

Figure 1. Intonation of sentence 3-5 and sentence 3-6

The beauty of English intonation is displayed in the process of alternating high and low pitch, and high, low or flat intonation.

E. Beauty of Succession

When speakers of a language utter, they don't produce the speech sounds one by one. Instead, they link the sounds of the words together, forming successive speech sounds. The beauty of successive speech sounds is displayed in the dynamic process of producing sounds.

English form flow of speech through liaison, assimilation, loss of plosion and reduction. Here is this paper, only liaison is analyzed. For example:

3-7 Look‿[4]at the one‿ on the corner ‿of the street.

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[1] Capitalized letters (except "I" at the beginning of the sentences) represent stressed syllables.

[2] The symbol "�
" represents rising intonation.

[3] The symbol "⌍" represents falling intonation.

[4] The symbol "‿" represents linking between two words.

In the above sentence, there are three linking when people utter it. Words of the sentence flow out of the mouth, just like singing a song.

Based on what is discussed above, we are confirmed that English speech sounds are beautiful and they can create beauty. English pronunciation has the aesthetic value. And the beauty of English pronunciation represent in its sonority, rhyme, rhythm, intonation, and succession.

V. PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

Based on the discussion above, some suggestions are proposed in order to improve Chinese EFL learners' aesthetic ability of English pronunciation and intonation. According to Yang and Li (2004), cultivating aesthetic ability aims to improving aesthetic ability of perception, appreciation and creation. So, in this part, some pedagogical suggestions will be put forward about how to improve students' aesthetic ability of English speech.

A. Improving Aesthetic Awareness of English Pronunciation and Intonation

As is elaborated above, English sounds possess aesthetic attributes. Only if Chinese EFL learners are aware of the beauty of English sounds, can they become interested into it. Interest is the best teacher, and it is also the internal motivation for learning a foreign language.

Hence, at the beginning of teaching English pronunciation and intonation, the teachers can provide students some beautiful English poems, English songs, and so on. Once the aesthetic awareness of English is raised, learners can perceive and enjoy the beauty of English, and it will be effective to learn English pronunciation and intonation.

B. Perceiving Beauty of English Pronunciation Instead of Correcting Pronunciation Mistakes

One the one hand, in traditional English pronunciation teaching class, teachers keep focusing on teaching English segment. Namely, single speech sound, especially the one which is different from Chinese pronunciation, will be received great attention. Teachers spend plenty of time correcting the pronunciation of speech sounds. Students are very nervous, anxious and embarrassed when learning pronunciation, because their pronunciation will be corrected again and again. They feel frustrated during process of learning English pronunciation and intonation. And finally, they gradually lose interest in learning English pronunciation.

On the other hand, stress, rhythm and intonation of English are not paid sufficient attention in teaching pronunciation. Rhythm formed by alternation between stressed syllables and unstressed syllables and waving intonation are exactly the beauty of English pronunciation. Teachers should spend more time immersing students into the beauty of English rhythm and intonation, which lead students to perceive the beauty of English pronunciation.

In summary, the process of teaching English pronunciation is not the process of correcting mistakes, but the process of perceive and enjoy the beauty of English pronunciation.

C. Meticulously Choosing Teaching Materials

In traditional English pronunciation teaching class, it's very common for teachers to choose words and sentences as teaching materials. There is no context for reading these words and sentences. They are just isolated words or sentences. So, it's difficult for students to perceive the beauty of English pronunciation and the relationship between sound and meaning.

English poems, songs, and actors' lines can effectively reflect the beauty of English rhymes, rhythm, and intonation. Beauty of English poems shows itself in its rhymes and rhythm. Teachers can guide students to enjoy the beauty of alliteration, end rhyme and internal rhyme, and experience the artist images created by English sounds. Some of the English songs, such as country music and Rhythm and Blues, are melodious. It is easier for students to deeply be drunk in the beauty of the English songs. Even as for the rap in western songs, it shows the strong rhythm of English. In addition, actors' lines are often full of emotions, and they reflect the beauty of language by uttering sounds under a certain situation. Excellent actors have strong line skills, making listeners or audiences immersing quickly in the atmosphere through sonorous and forceful sounds or slow and expressive speech sounds.

In a word, English poems, songs, and actors' lines can help students perceive the beauty of sounds in expressing meaning. So, they should be chosen to enjoy the beauty of English during teaching Chinese EFL learners.

D. Creating Beauty of English Pronunciation

Awareness of the beauty of English pronunciation, enjoyment the beauty of it, and creation of beauty should be the three objectives of English pronunciation teaching. Of the three objectives, creating beauty is the most important, because the purpose of awareness and enjoyment of beauty of English pronunciation is to create it.

First, students listen to the chosen English poems, songs and actors' lines, and then teachers can guide them to discuss about the beauty of them. After perceiving and enjoying the beauty of rhymes, rhythm, and intonation several times, student can imitate them. During imitation, students should experience the beauty of English sounds and be immersed in it. The delight of aesthetic process is achieved, and students could be satisfied in reading or speaking beautiful English.

VI. CONCLUSION

Phonetic learning is the beginning of learning a foreign language. Phonological acquisition is based on language speech perception (Chen, 2013). English speech sounds are perceived as beautiful because of its sonority, rhyme, rhythm, intonation, and succession. Perception and enjoyment of English speech beauty can, on the one hand, arouse EFL learners' interest in learning it; on the other hand, create accurate, natural and beautiful English speech. Hence, in the process of teaching English speech sounds, EFL teachers can play emphasis on train leaners' sense of perceiving beauty of English pronunciation and intonation, raise their aesthetic awareness, and improve their English phonetic proficiency through enjoying the beauty of English speech sounds. In a word, learners should discover beauty, experience beauty and create beauty in the process of learning English phonetics (Wu &Ding, 2011).

Nevertheless, suggestions about how to raise EFL learners' aesthetic awareness and creative ability of English speech sounds should be limited to what is discussed in the paper. Hopefully, one the one hand, some experimental research will be carried out to testify the effectiveness of English phonetic teaching based on aesthetic linguistics. On the other hand, other ideas and methods will be sought and applied in the future teaching of English pronunciation and intonation.

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The Application of Vague Language in International Business Negotiations from a Cross-cultural Perspective

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Abstract—in the environment of economic globalization, business negotiation becomes more and more frequent than ever. International business negotiation has a significant role in international business trade. There are many factors that can affect the negotiation, including language, culture, negotiators, and negotiation strategies. Language as an important tool plays a great role in the negotiation strategies. It is commonly held that precise language should be used in business negotiations in order to avoid misunderstanding. However, people ignore the fact that language itself is vague in essence. Negotiators unavoidably use vague language in business negotiations, for vague language can be used as a kind of politeness strategy. Appropriate use of vague language will make the negotiation go smoothly, and avoid the conflict of business negotiation so as to achieve the purpose of cooperation.

Index Terms—international business negotiation, vague language, culture

I. INTRODUCTION

Vague language is a kind of social language phenomenon. It is also a kind of cultural phenomenon, a kind of embodiment of culture in language. It is an effective lubricant used by people to coordinate interpersonal relationships, and also an important method to promote successful communication. The study shows that with frequent intercultural communication, vague language is widely used in various fields, and the effective use of vague language in international business negotiation can help people to reduce pragmatic failure and reduce cultural conflicts, and then to further promote international trade development. From the cross-cultural perspective, this paper will use the principle of cooperation, politeness principle and face theory as the theoretical basis, by means of case study, to explore the use of vague language in the various stages of negotiation.

II. VAGUE LANGUAGE

A. The Definition of Vague Language

Ambiguity is the basic attribute of natural language. The ambiguity of language mainly refers to the fuzziness caused by individual differences and the ambiguity of comprehension, and the ambiguity of the function of language. Vague language as a flexible language, refers to a special language with the extension of uncertainty and uncertain connotation. Compared with the precise language, vague language has greater generality and flexibility. The generality and flexibility are reflected on the language extension. Wu Tieping (2002) argues that the words are the expression of the concept. But when many well-defined concepts of a word are expressed, it may break these boundaries, resulting in a lot of vague word[1]. For instance, "morning", "mid-day", "afternoon", "night", etc. There is no clear distinction between these kinds of words, and there is a transitional area. Just like the blue and green colors in the palette, these two colors are gradually formed with no absolute limit between them. There is also a kind of words, the meaning of which does not have definite scope and depends on the situation to move within or outside the scope. People with different ages, different sex, and different profession have different definitions of the words such as "almost", "near" and "close". Therefore, vague language exists in all aspects of people's lives, especially in interpersonal communication, which is very important in negotiation.

B. The Study on Vague Language

L.A.Zadeh, the professor from University of California, Berkeley, in an article entitled "Fuzzy sets" of the journal *Information and Control* in 1965, he pointed out that the object which encountered in the real world, often does not have precise limits. And then, Lakoff, a famous American scholar, is the first one who introduced the "linguistic

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[1] Wu Tieping. (2002). Vague Language. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Education Press.

hedges" in 1972, and defined it as "a vague word for things". He got the theoretical evidence from Rosch's work on category membership. In the view of Rosch (1973), the words like shape and time have their own internal structure, which means that this kind of words has a core meaning. And the core meaning can express exactly the core part of the words. Besides the core meaning, they also include other meanings which can increase difference to the core meaning.[2] Based on the work of Lakoff, Crystal and Davy (1975) thought that the existence of some particular lexical items aims to make the conversation not to be precise.[3] From then on the pragmatic use of vague language has been studied in depth. Channell (2000) believed that the vague language is related to cooperative principle in two aspects: vague expression can be used to enable speakers to follow the maxims or vague expression is often used when one of the maxims is flouted.[4] Pragmatics specializes in specific discourses in specific contexts, especially in how to understand and apply language in different language communication environments. It studies the appropriateness and decency of language from the use of language with a view of getting the subaudition of the discourse. Vague language makes the expression of language obscure "intentionally", requiring the hearer to grasp the implication of vague expression, so as to play the appropriate and decent role in the communication effectively.

From 1965 (when L.A.Zadeh published his paper "Fuzzy Sets") to 1979, many Chinese scholars began their studies in the area of vague language. China's research on vague language began in the late 1970s, with the publication of Professor Wu Tieping's *Vague Language*, and later *Vague Linguistics Re-exploration*. Zhang Qiao (1998) defined vague language as the words that can bring people into a vague reading (e.g. "around" in "around seven o' clock"), or modify vagueness to certain extent (e.g. "quite" in "quite much").[5] From the semantic perspective, vague language can give the meaning of expression more roles in different conversations. It can be found that many vague words in our natural conversation, such as some sentences introduced by "if". It is just a word, but it can make the whole sentence uncertain. On this point, Jaszczolt (2004) held that the "hedge" is just a word or phrase that is used to modify the verbal phrase, the noun phrase and the sentence, so that it can make people trust the contained message more easily and can also make the dialogue more acceptable.[6] Thus it can be seen that vague language enables the interpersonal communication in negotiation to go more smoothly. As in china, in recent 20 years, the linguistic research of vague language is mainly studied from the perspective of semantics, and then to sociolinguistics, pragmatics and discourse analysis, cross-cultural communication, discourse analysis and so on (Wu Tieping, 2002).[7] After Wu Tieping and Zhao Qiao, the research of vague language has become more and more popular in China. Vague language has begun to attract more and more scholars' attention. And various functions of vague language in different perspectives are introduced from time to time.

All in all, vague language was first studied from the perspective of semantics in the 1970s, and then it was extended to the pragmatic perspective in 1980s. Although there is no certain agreement on the definition of vague language and what definite role it can play in business negotiations, all the above studies demonstrate that vague language mainly plays its role pragmatically. And the pragmatic functions of vague language can be generally divided into the following aspects: being flexible, being persuasive, and being polite. With the research on vague language covering various perspectives, it is now regarded as a way to realize communicative functions such as self- protection, politeness and improving confidence etc.

III.   CULTURE AND INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS NEGOTIATION

A.   *The Definition of Culture*

When we talk about culture, we may think it is a wide and uncertain concept. Here is one of famous anthropological consensus definition of culture from Kluckhohn (1952). "Culture consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional ideas and especially their attached values".[8] People from different countries are bound to have different cultural backgrounds, usually in customs, beliefs and cultural values. Geert Hofstede (1980) makes a concise definition based on this: Culture is the collective programing of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another.[9]

However, due to the existence of cultural difference, people from different country are bound to learn the cross-cultural communication properly to achieve the goal of negotiation. The concept of "cross-cultural communication" was first proposed by Edward. T. Hall (1976). It is a communicative activity between people with different cultural senses. It specifically includes interpersonal communication, communication between different groups within the same mainstream culture, transnational communication, and trans-regional communication.[10] Negotiator's

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cross-cultural communicative ability is an integral part of negotiating communicative ability. In international business negotiations, in order to make the communication successful and avoid conflicts or misunderstandings, negotiators must keep cross-cultural awareness in mind.

B. International Business Negotiation

Negotiation can be regarded as one of the commonly adopted communication skills. In China, negotiation refers to discussing and making common agreement. In other foreign countries, there are other definitions of negotiation, such as "a process in the public domain in which two parties, with supporter of various kinds, attempt to reach a joint decision on issues under dispute". It can be found that people from different cultural backgrounds have almost same points on the definition of negotiation. Actually, in international business negotiation, cultural differences will probably exert deep influences on the negotiators' sensitivities to time, their forms of agreement and their willingness to take risks. It is well known that the main goal of business negotiation is to exchange something or to reach some agreement. To reach this goal, the two parties of negotiation need to use various strategies or skills. Among them, the most commonly used and also most powerful skill is language. Language is the most intuitive and clearest method to express the requirements or ideas of the negotiator. Different language skills have different roles in international business negotiation, of which, vague language may be regarded as a skill or strategy, which is widely applied and conducive to the success of negotiation. Maybe people think that vague language is too ambiguous for people to understand. However, under the context of business negotiation, vague language is inevitable. For instance, we all know the price is very important in business negotiations. In common sense, the buyers cannot give the exact price to the sellers, and naturally, the sellers cannot give the bottom price directly to the buyers. Thus, the two parties need vague language to avoid a definite answer and give some time and room for both parties to consider more. The proper use of vague language produces effects that cannot be ignored in international business negotiation, not only in improving the flexibility and accuracy of expression, but also in increasing the efficiency of negotiation.

How can we apply the vague language properly in international business negotiation under the influence of cultural differences? The following section will introduce some application of vague language at different stages of international business negotiations, and explore the reasons of the occurrence of vague language in intercultural situation.

IV. THE APPLICATION OF VAGUE LANGUAGE IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS NEGOTIATIONS

A. Vague Language at the Initial Stage

The initial stage is the first time for the two sides of the negotiation to meet each other, a starting point of the entire business negotiation. Whether it is good or bad to a large extent determines the direction of the whole negotiation and the development trend. This stage often witnesses the sincerity and enthusiasm of the two sides. In some cultures, negotiators regard the business negotiation as a problem-solving process and tend to take a comprehensive strategy. However, in other cultures, people tend to regard it as a competition and do not want to compromise. In China, under the influence of traditional Confucian ideology, most Chinese people have affection for modesty. Chinese business negotiators believe that community of interest, long-term cooperation, and mutual trust are mostly significant. Therefore, they are more likely to build trust and friendship with the counterparts before the formal negotiation. While in some other western countries, people are more inclined to rational thinking and go straight to the point. So they regard a business negotiation as a problem-solving activity, and are more likely to put the goal on the first priority. Therefore, more often than not, they appear to be very confident, and willing to show their own advantages at first. But the excessive boast may make the other side feel unreliable, so at this time we can use some vague language to adjust the atmosphere of this situation, so as to achieve a good start. For example, "Our Company is very familiar with the recent customer's need and has already developed a quite good market." In this sentence, the speaker used vague expression like "very familiar", "already", and "quite good" to enhance the expression of the whole sentence. Obviously, we all do not the exact extent of "very" and "quite". These words can be regarded obscure or vague. However, it is just the vagueness of this category of words that makes the whole sentence more acceptable. On the one hand, these vague words successfully demonstrated the company's good image of reliability. On the other hand, they strengthened the company's confidence to complete this transaction. Therefore, the use of vague language can show the confidence of negotiators properly, ease cultural conflicts. It caters to the modesty of Chinese culture, and the pride or confidence of the westerners. Besides, the proper use of vague language in this situation can strengthen the effect of being polite of the speaker. And thus gives the other side a good first impression at the initial stage.

B. Vague Language at the Bargaining Stage

Bargaining stage is the most important stage of a negotiation. It refers to the whole process from the beginning to the final. The two sides will discuss on the substantive issues at this stage. It is not only the specific contest stage between the two sides of the strength, intelligence and technology, but also the compromise stage of seeking common ground while reserving differences. In international business negotiations, as the parties to the negotiations were born with different cultural influences, both parties have a fixed mode of behavior in business activities. Thus, once the mode of behavior goes beyond its cultural context, conflicts may arise. As the definition in Hofstede's cultural dimensions,

Chinese culture is characterized by high uncertainty avoidance. Under this kind of culture, people tend to avoid uncertain situations. While American culture emphasizes individualism and self-realization, so the independence and nonconformity are greatly encouraged. In the IBM's research from Hofstede, the individualistic / collectivist tendencies of a society are measured by the individualist index. The bigger the value of index is, the more obvious the individualistic tendencies of the society will be, such as the United States; on the contrary, the smaller it is, the more obvious the collectivist tendencies of the society will be, like China and some Asian countries. Negotiators from different cultural backgrounds always have their own fixed view on the terms of business, such as payment, shipment and date of delivery, etc. Therefore, the two parties of international business negotiation should use vague language more carefully to avoid the occurrence of deadlock. Here is a short example:

A: *This is our rock—bottom price, Mr. Li, we cannot make any further concession.*

B: *If that is the case, there is not much point in further discussion. We might as well call whole deal off.*

A: *What I mean is that we will never be able to come down to your price, The gap is too great.*

Obviously, because Party A with a precise and absolute word "rock-bottom price" (lowest price), the negotiation suddenly stalemated. Party B may not think you want to continue, and probably the negotiation will lead to failure. In order to ease and restore the friendly negotiation atmosphere, party A resorted to the vague expression --- "gap is too great" to save the negotiation. And at the same time, party B would no longer insist on the termination of the negotiation so that the negotiation could move on, and the possibility of success would be increased as well. It can be seen that the precise language with lack of flexibility tends to stiffen the negotiating atmosphere, while vague language can remove this stiffness and avoid the deadlock. The appropriate use of vague language can strengthen the flexibility of words to adjust some unexpected situations. Even when the deadlock occurs, we can also use vague language to give more time and space for both parties. Such as "Under the circumstances, we had better discuss the matter when opportunity arises." The vagueness of "Under the circumstances" makes the discourse more objective, implying problems may occur due to some unidentified factors which are not caused by subjective ones of the concerned parties. It also decentralizes the responsibility of the speaker himself. "When opportunity arises" is a conditional commitment with euphemistic tone, not a sure answer, and the other side is likely to be full of expectations and confidence. And in the course of this stage, due to the uncertainty of some objective factors, the negotiators inevitably have inadequate understanding. At this time, the proper use vague language can surely improve the accuracy of the speaker's expression, such as "It seems that the price on this level you will not accept." In this example, the vague language "it seems" and "on this level" roughly predict the intention of negotiating parties, taking into account that the negotiated price is constrained by a number of uncertainties. The speaker does not say that it is not acceptable, so the seemingly vague language in essence is more accurately expressed in this situation.

Proper use of vague language at this stage is critical to the whole business negotiation. It can maintain trade relations between the two sides, and promote the negotiation to the final stage smoothly.

C.   Vague Language at the Final Stage

After a substantive bargaining stage through the two sides, the basic content and conditions have been reached on the agreement, and the main differences between each other have also been eliminated, at this time, the negotiation will move to the final stage. At this stage, the negotiators will consolidate the results of previous stages, and proceed to accept mutual conditions as soon as possible. So it is also important for the whole negotiation to get a good result. And the method or strategy to express the cooperative willingness or specific requirements will affect the achievements of the negotiation directly. It is well known that values are the core of a culture owned by a person, including worldview, outlook on life, and moral standards etc. They also are beliefs that are universally accepted by members of society. For western countries, individualism is the core of culture. Western culture emphasizes democracy and individual. They always highlight personal values, personal interests, so their conversation are more results-oriented. China is committed to "benevolence" and advocates a kind of harmony between man and man. Chinese people believe in collectivism, always emphasizing the team goals, team interests. In the traditional Chinese culture, the Chinese people are inclined to "leave a face" when talking to other people, so that the atmosphere of conversation will be friendlier. If we find something improper in the final documents, we should not point it out directly, as it can make the other side feel embarrassed. We can see the following example about the realization of avoiding embarrassment with vague language. "We have already checked all the documents available and unexpectedly find each of them has doubtful points more or less." The sentence indicates that the speaker is not satisfied with the statement about the results of the examination. However, by using two vague words "unexpectedly" and "more or less", the whole sentence sounds more polite and easier to accept. Thus, the embarrassment of directness and arbitrariness can be avoided masterly. Combination with face theory and politeness principles, vague language can make expression more polite and better defend the interest of both sides of the negotiation, so that the transaction will go smoothly. For more example, "Generally speaking, we pay commission or not is based on the goods that are industrial products or traditional products." As to what is "generally", is blur in terms of scope, extent and boundaries. The use of this vague language makes the discourse rigorous, and moderately calm. With no imposing or absolute meaning, the buyer tends to accept his point of view. As the final stage is the last step to the whole success of international business negotiation, the speed of the process should be well under control. In business negotiations, sometimes it is not necessary to say something too precise. The use of vague language may help to get better results. Vague language does not need the room of retreat, for the use of vague language can

increase the amount of communication information and transmit enough information with less cost. And it leaves more time to make wise judgments and flexible management of complicated things. For example, "I do not deny that the projector is of top quality. If you could go a little lower, I will give you the order right away." In this sentence, the expression "top quality", "a little" and "right away" give the other side full imagination. Therefore, the use of vague language in negotiations can improve the efficiency of language expression.

V. Conclusion

The main feature of international business negotiations lies in its multi-national, multi-ethnic context. Negotiations from different countries, different regions and different nationalities cannot have a completely consistent position, habits and values. They have different negotiating styles or strategies due to cultural differences. Therefore, in the international business negotiation, there are not only shared economic interests and cooperation, but also cultural collision and communicative failure between parties with different cultures. In fact, the particularity of English in business negotiation lies in its strong purpose, and its communicative effect which is directly related to economic benefits. And vague language can help negotiators achieve their goals, and can also help negotiators to establish friendly relations of cooperation, so that negotiators in business negotiations can have an invincible position. Through the above analysis of the application of vague language in different stages of international business negotiation, it can be seen that the proper use of vague language has many positive functions like strengthening the effect of being polite and flexible, and improving the accuracy of expression, etc.

With the development of economic globalization and advanced internet technology, the economic relations with different countries become closer and closer. Therefore, in international business negotiations, it is of great significance to understand the cultural difference between different countries, and use vague language properly in different stages of negotiation, for vague language can play an unexpected positive role; it can maintain a harmonious atmosphere of negotiations, guarantee the negotiation goes smoothly and ensure negotiators have more operating space, if the following situations occur: some information is not convenient to speak directly, or someone does not want to reveal their true thoughts to others; or in some cases, some problems are difficult to answer.

In a word, continuous improvement of language skills and proper application of vague language at every stage of negotiation are conducive to international business negotiations and trade development.

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Reading Comprehension Questions in EFL Textbooks and Learners' Levels

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Abstract—This study investigated the reading comprehension questions in EFL textbooks and their appropriateness to learners' levels. The data for the study were collected from four elementary and advanced level EFL textbooks containing 44 chapters altogether. A checklist was designed based on Bloom's Taxonomy of reading comprehension questions to record the cognitive levels of the questions collected from the reading comprehension sections of the mentioned textbooks. To assess the significance of difference between each kind of the comprehension questions in elementary and advanced level textbooks, the Mann-Whitney U test was used. Results indicated that there are significant differences between the two proficiency levels in terms of question types in all categories except analysis and synthesis. To assess the overall proportions of question types in the textbooks and to see if they are different from each other, a Kruskal-Wallis and the follow up Mann-Whitney U tests were used which revealed significant differences between some pairs of categories of question types. It is believed that the results of this study can be useful to textbook writers and EFL teachers.

Index Terms—Bloom's Taxonomy, reading comprehension questions, EFL textbooks

I. INTRODUCTION

Almost all language programs, are reliant on teaching materials, especially textbooks, in one way or another. Teaching materials are necessary for providing input to practice. They are also considered to be reliable sources by students since they usually are written or prepared by experts in the field. Commercially available materials are in particular important because they provide teachers with teaching ideas and plans in the classroom (McDonough & Shaw, 2003; Richard, 2001).

The role that textbooks play in teaching and learning English has not lost its importance even though our understanding of effective teaching methods has become deeper during the past decades. Textbooks, according to Çakit (2006), provide a basis upon which teaching and learning are founded. This role is fulfilled by providing a road map or syllabus for teachers' teaching and a self-study source for learners.

Not long ago, teaching was seen as a passive decoding process entirely based on bottom-up processes. In recent decades, however, reading is conceptualized of as a more dynamic and interactive process between the text and the reader (Eskey & Grabe, 1988; Perfetti, 1985; Samuels, 1994; Swaffar, 1988). This shift in perspective is a welcome change but there seems to be issues that have not been addressed yet. For example, while texts in the textbooks have become tailored to the needs of the learners and more interactive tasks are included in the reading sections, the cognitive difficulty of the questions that follow them are not adjusted to the learners' proficiency levels.

Using Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of question types, this study investigated two questions. First, if there are any differences between the textbooks written for the elementary and advanced level students in terms of the cognitive difficulty of the reading comprehension questions asked. This issue could have been investigated by exploring the relationship between the students' levels and the question types in the textbooks designed for them. However, exploring the existence or non-existence of a relationship could not tell us much about the severity of the problem. Exploring differences, but, could allow us to go beyond the relationship and have a closer look at where the problem or problems rest. Second, the study tried to figure out if the overall proportions of the question types asked in both levels of the textbooks differ from each other.

A. Statement of the Problem and Significance of the Study

Questioning is one of the most regularly used teaching strategies by teachers and textbook developers. Good quality and cognitively appropriate questions will certainly lead to deeper understanding. Questions are the organizing means of knowledge (Underhill, 1991). If there is a match between the reading proficiency of a learner and the text he or she reads, an effective interaction will be established between the writer and the reader. It is also evident that the types and the cognitive difficulty of the reading comprehension questions following a text should be in conformity with the ability level of the students that are going to read that text. Then, it is necessary to analyze the nature of the questions in EFL textbooks to find out if the needed compatibility between the questions asked and the levels of students is realized.

The importance of reading activities in EFL textbooks are not deniable when examining L2 reading. Reading sections of textbooks are one of the major sources of content for teaching a foreign language (Hutchinson & Torres 1994; Luukka et. al., 2008) and may considerably affect the readers' purpose of reading (Alderson, 2000). Therefore, it is essential that learners really understand what they read.

The present study aimed at analyzing the demanded thinking levels of the reading comprehension questions in EFL textbooks. More specifically, it aimed at comparing thinking levels required to answer the reading comprehension questions in EFL textbooks with the levels of students for whom these texts are written and to figure out if the questions match their levels.

The importance of this study lies in the fact that many Iranian EFL learners experience difficulty with answering reading comprehension questions of English textbooks. This problem has two aspects to it. First, there is the likelihood that the questions are not appropriate for the learners' levels. Second, there is the possibility that the proportions of the questions are not right for their levels. For example, a textbook prepared for the elementary level learners may have too many cognitively difficult questions. Alternatively, a book prepared for the advanced level learners may have few cognitively challenging questions. Both of these situations are detrimental to the development of learners' reading comprehension ability.

The findings of this study might be significant for those who are concerned with teaching reading comprehension, selecting texts for EFL courses, and evaluating students' performance in reading. The importance of the study also stems from the importance of questioning as an instructional method in teaching reading skills and critical thinking. Any inconsistency found could also raise a warning flag to textbook writers to review their books and do the needed modifications to them.

B. Research Questions and Hypotheses

The research questions of this study were:

1. Is there any significant difference between each kind of the comprehension questions in the elementary and advanced level EFL textbooks?

2. Are the overall proportions of question types in the elementary and advanced level EFL textbooks significantly different from each other?

The null research hypotheses derived from the above research questions were:

$H0_1$: There is no significant difference between each kind of the comprehension questions in the elementary and advanced EFL textbooks.

$H0_2$: The overall proportions of question types in the elementary and advanced level EFL textbooks are not significantly different from each other.

II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Improving learners' thinking has been one of the major goals of educators. For Houghton (2004) the most important decision to be made is where to begin this process. Benjamin Bloom (1956) was one of the firsts to propose a model that categorizes questions based on the degree of cognitive processing they require. The purpose of this classification was to tailor questions to levels of the learners. This classification, in particular, helps program developers to write questions which promote higher forms of thinking. Higher forms of thinking are those that involve analyzing, synthesizing, and evaluating of concepts and procedures while lower forms only involve rote learning and memorizing.

Bloom divided the cognitive complexity of thinking required by questions to the six levels of *knowledge*, *comprehension*, *application*, *analysis*, *synthesis,* and *evaluation.* Knowledge means remembering specifications; comprehension refers to describing something in one's own words; application is defined as applying information; *analysis* is equal to being able to divide something to its parts; synthesis implies the ability to put parts together; and finally, evaluation means making value-laden judgments about the issues questioned. Hopper (2009) believes that the first three levels target lower-order thinking skills, whereas the other three levels need higher-order thinking skills to be employed.

Rawadieh (1998) analyzed question types in Jordanian secondary textbooks using Bloom's cognitive taxonomy. He wanted to determine if lower level questions and higher level questions were distributed indiscriminately or adjusted to the levels of the learners. The results indicated a significantly higher incidence for lower-level questions with almost no recognizable pattern of presenting more cognitively demanding questions to the higher level students. For example, the twelfth grade textbooks emphasized higher level questions less than the eleventh level textbooks.

The fact that questions are written with little attention to the processing complexity that they require seems to be a universal phenomenon. Rinser, Nicholson and Web (2000), for example, used Bloom's taxonomy to determine the questioning levels of two series of textbooks. The point of interest for them was the extent to which higher order and lower order questioning strategies were emphasized in these textbooks. The results indicated that elementary textbooks presented questions that aimed at understanding, applying, synthesizing, and evaluating concepts. That is, the majority of questions required higher cognitive abilities such as application and evaluation which were not appropriate for the elementary level.

Similarly, using Barrett's taxonomy for evaluating reading comprehension questions, Sunggingwati (2003) analyzed English language textbooks in junior high schools. Barrett's taxonomy has four levels of comprehension (literal, inferential, evaluation, and application). Sunggingwati analyzed all questions in these textbooks and found that the last and cognitively most challenging level of reading comprehension questions, i.e., application, is missing in all of the textbooks he analyzed. This again suggests that the thinking levels of the questions were disregarded when the books were prepared.

Ewies in his 2010 study of Islamic education textbooks for primary students in the United Arab Emirates found a lack of balance in the kind of questions presented by the textbooks. Using a researcher-made tool working based on Bloom's cognitive taxonomy, he found a preponderance to use lower-level questions. Only 36% of the questions he analyzed were of the higher-order type while 64% requested lower-level thinking skills.

Although the finding by Ewies might be justifiable with respect to the level of the students for whom the textbooks were written, Riazi and Mosalanejad's (2010) study shows a preponderance to use lower-level questions in Iranian senior high school and pre-university English textbooks. Riazi and Mosalanejad used Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives and showed that in all grades lower-order cognitive skills were more prevalent than higher order ones. This inclination to use cognitively less demanding questions for higher level students is another problem which should be addressed.

In much recent times, Igbaria (2013) used Bloom's taxonomy to analyze variety in the cognitive level of the WH-questions in "*Horizons*" textbook. The results showed proportions similar to that of Ewies (2010) with 244 questions emphasizing lower-order thinking skills and 137 questions emphasizing higher-order thinking skills.

III. METHOD

A. Participants

There were no human participants in this study. All the needed information was obtained from four EFL textbooks the list of which is given in the next section.

B. Instruments

The instruments used in this study were of two types. The first instrument was a set of four EFL textbooks written for elementary and advanced level learners containing 44 units. These textbooks included Inside Reading 1 (Arline Burgmeier, 2012), Inside Reading 4 (Kent Richmond, 2012), American Headway starter (John & Liz Soars, 2012), and American Headway 5 (John & Liz Soars, 2012). The second instrument used in this study was a checklist designed based on Bloom's (1956) taxonomy of question types. It was composed of a table with seven columns. The first column contained unit numbers; each of the following six columns contained one of the six cognitive levels of Bloom's Taxonomy placed in a sequence from low to high. This checklist was used to record and tally the number of questions from reading comprehension sections of the textbooks that fell in each category.

C. Procedure

This study tried to assess the cognitive level of the questions in reading sections of the targeted textbooks. In other words, it evaluated the nature of the questions that followed each reading and tried to find out if the cognitive demands of the questions were appropriate for the students' levels. In order to meet this goal, all units of the targeted textbooks, aggregating to 44, were analyzed. Using Bloom's taxonomy as the framework, a checklist was designed to record and tally the number of questions that fell at each cognitive level. Information from this checklist was used to see if the questions were relevant to the levels of the students for whom the textbooks were intended and whether the proportions of question in the two sets of textbooks were different or the same. Naturally, it was expected to find proportionally more cognitively demanding questions in the advanced textbooks than in the intermediate textbooks.

D. Design of the Study

The design of this study was ex-post-facto because it did not involve any intervention, pretest, posttest, and control group. There were also no human participants to be assigned to experimental and control groups randomly or to be studied in the form of intact groups.

IV. DATA ANALYSIS

A. Examining the First Research Hypotheses

Since the distributions of values were not normal, as represented in Table 4.1 below, running independent-samples T-tests to examine the first research hypothesis was not justified. Therefore, several Mann-Whitney U tests were used to see if any significant differences could be found between the same question types in EFL textbooks of elementary and advanced students. It is necessary to know that unlike T-test that compares means, Mann-Whitney U test compares medians.

		knowledge	comprehen sion	Application	analysis	synthesis	evaluation
N		44	44	44	44	44	44
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	2.82	.98	1.6818	.45	.2955	.86
	Std. Deviation	1.063	.876	1.30781	.589	.55320	1.091
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.000[c]	.000[c]	.001[c]	.000[c]	.000[c]	.000[c]

Table 4.2 below, which shows the results of Mann-Whitney U tests run on the number of question types in the elementary and advanced level textbooks, indicates that the probability values for four categories are smaller than .05; so their results are significant; but, in two categories, that is, analysis and synthesis, the results are not significant, because their probability values are larger than .05.

TABLE 4.2.
DIFFERENCES IN THE QUESTION TYPES BETWEEN ELEMENTARY AND ADVANCED LEVEL TEXTBOOKS

	knowledge	comprehension	Application	analysis	synthesis	evaluation
Mann-Whitney U	76.50	139.50	79.00	170.00	226.00	114.50
Wilcoxon W	329.50	392.50	332.00	423.00	479.00	367.50
Z	-4.08	-2.54	-3.97	-1.96	-.50	-3.29
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.00	.011	.00	.05	.62	.001

We can, therefore, conclude that there are significant differences between the two sets of textbooks developed for the elementary and advanced level students in terms of question types in all cognitive categories except analysis and synthesis. In other words, there are no statistically significant differences between elementary and advanced level textbooks in terms of these two types of questions. These findings compel us to reject our first hypothesis partially because while there are significant differences between four categories of questions in the elementary and advanced level textbooks, differences between two types of the questions, namely, analysis and synthesis, do not reach statistical significance.

Of course, the *P* value related to the analysis questions is equal to .05 which shows a trend. Looking at the Mean Ranks column in Table 4.3, we can see that there indeed is a difference in the numbers of this type of questions in the two sets of textbooks to the advantage of the advanced level, but perhaps because of the sampling limitation it has failed to reach statistical significance.

Statistically speaking, a series of Mann-Whitney U tests revealed significant differences between four types of questions in the elementary and advanced level textbooks and non-significant differences between the two other types of the questions. The relevant *Sig* and *r* values (effect sizes) were respectively as follows: *knowledge (P = .0, r = .61), comprehension (P = .011, r = .38), application (P = .0, r = .59)*, analysis (*P = .05, r = .294), synthesis (P = .061, r = .075) application (P = .00, r=.49)*.

TABLE 4.3.
RANKS OF QUESTION TYPES IN ELEMENTARY AND ADVANCED TEXTBOOKS

	level	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
knowledge	elementary	22	30.02	660.50
	advanced	22	14.98	329.50
	Total	44		
comprehension	elementary	22	17.84	392.50
	advanced	22	27.16	597.50
	Total	44		
application	elementary	22	29.91	658.00
	advanced	22	15.09	332.00
	Total	44		
analysis	elementary	22	19.23	423.00
	advanced	22	25.77	567.00
	Total	44		
synthesis	elementary	22	23.23	511.00
	advanced	22	21.77	479.00
	Total	44		
evaluation	elementary	22	16.70	367.50
	advanced	22	28.30	622.50
	Total	44		

B. Examining the Second Research Hypothesis

The second null hypothesis targeted the overall proportions of question types in the elementary and advanced level EFL textbooks and wanted to see if differences in their proportions reach statistical significance. Note that in the case of this hypothesis it was not the proportion of one type of questions at one level to be compared with the proportion of the

same kind of questions at the other level. Rather the hypothesis was formulated to test the overall proportions of the question types (collectively in elementary and advanced textbooks) against each other. We already know that the data distributions were not normal. Table 4.4, too, indicates that homogeneity of the error variances was also not met, $P < .05$.

TABLE 4.4.
TEST OF EQUALITY OF ERROR VARIANCES

Levene's Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
9.589	5	258	.000

Therefore, with respect to nature of the variables (one categorical independent variable with six levels and one continuous dependent variable) there was no choice but running a Kruskal-Wallis test which is the non-parametric alternative of One-way ANOVA.

Table 4.5 shows the result of the Kruskal-Wallis test run. In the output, the significance value for the Chi-square test is .000. This is less than the alpha level of .05, meaning that there is a statistically significant difference between frequencies of the question types in the textbooks. This finding by itself rejects our second null hypothesis.

TABLE 4.5.
RESULT OF THE KRUSKAL-WALLIS TEST

	number
Chi-Square	111.006
Df	5
Asymp. Sig.	.000

Kruskal-Wallis, however, is an omnibus test and does not tell us the proportions of which categories of questions differed from each other. To know about the differences, it is necessary that we conduct follow up Mann-Whitney U tests with Benferroni adjustment between the groups. For Benferroni adjustment we have to divide the value of alpha by the number of comparisons which gives .0033 in the case of our study for fifteen comparisons. Table 4.6 shows the results of these comparisons.

TABLE 4.6.
RESULTS OF FOLLOW UP MANN-WHITNEY U TESTS

	knowledge	comprehension	application	analysis	synthesis	evaluation
knowledge		.000	.000	.000	.000	.000
comprehension			.009	.004	.000	.348
application				.000	.000	.003
analysis					.136	.172
synthesis						.012
evaluation						

Results in this table show that the difference we have found for the Kruskal-Wallis test stems from the differences between the following categories of questions: (Knowledge and comprehension/application/analysis/synthesis/evaluation), (Comprehension and synthesis), (Application and analysis/synthesis/evaluation). Other comparisons are non-significant.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

The conclusions that can be drawn from the findings of this study are that the analyzed EFL textbooks, though incorporating both lower-level and the higher-level thinking skills, are not in conformity with Bloom's Taxonomy of learning objectives. This lack of conformity demonstrated itself in two forms. First, there was no clear-cut separation of question types between the textbooks in terms of the processing demands that the questions required. That is, textbooks of both levels incorporated the low-level and high-level question types almost indiscriminately. At the same time, some question types were nearly neglected at the cost of incorporating less demanding questions in the advanced level textbooks. The results also indicated a preponderance for the lower-level thinking skills in both series. These findings are consistent with the findings of Rawadieh (1998), Sunggingwati (2003), Ewies (2010), Riazi and Mosalanejad (2010), and Igbaria (2013) who concluded that in the EFL textbooks the emphasis is on the lower-level questions more than on the higher-level questions.

To sum up, after analyzing the data based on Bloom's Taxonomy, the following results were obtained: (1) there are significant differences between the two proficiency levels in terms of question types in all categories except analysis and synthesis; (2) there is a statistically significant difference between frequencies of the question types in the textbooks.

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