Theory and Practice in Language Studies

Contents

Narrative Account of the Arab Spring: Translations of Aljazeera and RT of the Egyptian and Syrian Uprisings as Case Study

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Abstract—the events of the Arab Spring attracted the attention of many scholars from various disciplines. However, the general trend of existing literature seems to ignore the different cultural representations within the Arab world leading for assumptions that the uprisings share similar outcomes and/or motivations. This article attempts to deconstruct the terms Arab Spring and Arab world through shedding light on two of the most influential uprisings that brought about social, economic, and political changes. To do so, it combines CDA and narrative theory to address the subject of the thematic nature of the subsequent media messages during the Egyptian and Syrian uprisings to investigate the process of meaning-making and the role of language in social reality construction. The purpose is to motivate researchers to address the largely ignored issue of the different representations in media and narratives.

Index Terms—Arab Spring, narrative theory, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), language of media, translation and media, agenda setting, RT, Aljazeers (AJE)

I. INTRODUCTION

Media and news sources have been devoting considerable efforts to classifying the Arab Spring activities and participants. Similarly to how scholars in the years following 9/11 attacks understandably focused on terrorism representation and metaphor (Krueger, 2008 and Ryan, 2004), this article investigates the steps leading to the construction of the conflicting narratives. It focuses on the periods of the 19-days unrest in Egypt which lead to the step down of Hosni Mubarak on February 11, 2011 and the suspected use of chemical weapons in Syria on August 21, 2013. It particularly focuses on the scrutinizing utterances where disagreements between news channels are expected to occur. It then links the roles played by media in their use of language as social practice in constructing realities rather than merely presenting them leading to positioning the audience in an intended area where their interpretations of the unfolding events are influenced.

The act of translation is traditionally seen as an act of transferring written and uttered texts from one language into another. It usually comes as a form of identifying the target culture with an attempt of rewriting the source text in different cultural and linguistic frames. From this aspect, the act of translation is the act of transferring two significant systems in media and communication studies; the linguistic and cultural systems. This article is taking interest in the link and relation between media and translation as a form of meaning-making process influenced by modern studies in critical discourse analysis, linguistics and narrative theory. They aim to establish the rules and steps of creating connotations, interpretations and versions of the same story or the bigger projected and perceived narratives of the Syrian and Egyptian uprisings. Or as Saldanha (2011, p. 150, emphasis in original) summarises: "discourse is both socially conditioned, *and* shapes social relationships, and that it is necessary to adopt a critical stance towards the relationship between analysis and the practices analysed." The examination of translations acts as precursor for understanding how were certain utterances or written texts comprehended because the way the text is understood governs the way it is translated.

II. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The 3 ways analysis combining CDA, narrative theory and content analysis covers the texts from different angels. While CDA tackles the issues of authorship, linguistics, asks when and how certain things were said, narrative theory looks more into what was translated and links them to the larger texts looked at in the CDA as an inseparable part of the bigger narrative. Content analysis then deals with the issues of emotions, self-referential narratives, media memory, etc. and establish a relation with both created narrative and other subsequent media messages. Together, these theories, at least partially, stand on the systematic meaning-making process as shown below. Among the first to shed light on the role translation plays in creating meanings is Christina Sch äffner (2007). Sch äffner[1] addressed this subject from three

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[1] Ibid

different aspects: the relation between politics[2] and translation, translating texts of political nature, and politicising translations. Schäffner (2007, p. 138) acknowledges that at that time there was still no 'major monograph' on the subject of translation and political discourse. She carried on researching on this subject in her (2009) 'Political discourse and translation' and (2010) *Political Discourse, Media and Translation.* Then moved on to research the topics of contextualisation and links between texts in 2012, the role of the translator as an active agent in translation in 2013, and most recently the role played by the translators in positioning the audience to take an intended direction towards making certain interpretations in 2014 and 2015.

As shown above, the diversity of the texts and their distinct characteristics does not only require special consideration, but also a different approach of the existing theories themselves. The distinct texts and their contradictions enrich the theories of narratives and CDA and test the research hypothesis of the systematic meaning-making process.

III. MEANING-MAKING ON LEXICAL LEVEL

An important first step is the consideration of linguistic integration in social reality. This is because from narrative perspective, texts and translations are not separated from other factors influencing the constructed bigger narratives. To clarify, when an earlier text classifies participants as violent or pro-democracy, this affects texts produced later that might be interpreted in a manner that echoes their activities though the later text might not mention them or refers to them only indirectly. House (2013, p. 19) argues that the focus on the text to be translated implies its meanings are contained in the text itself while there is "a shift from the semantics of the text to the pragmatics of text interpretation." An observation that seems to be in line with the findings this article discusses. House (2013, p. 20) also adds the audience bring to the texts their "subjective understanding, their personal background, and their contextual knowledge" to interpret it. However, since their understanding of the unfolding events is expected to be influenced by the media representation of episodes leading to or shortly follow broadcasting the speeches, the question is how were they made to understand the events at hand.

This part explores the social and cultural dimensions of texts[3] as crafted objects. Discourses shape how the audience see the world and the language used is derived from context. Therefore, an important first step to analyse the language is examining the context. The question to be asked then is when can we consider a meaning created to go back and investigate how it was created? According to Emmitt and Zbaracki (2010) overtime, viewpoints develop and then seen as natural due to a process of meaning making such as constant use i.e they become normalised and no longer questioned. As a result, language creates reality[4] and at that point, this research considers a meaning has been created and then goes back to trace the steps that led to its creation. Analysis of the broadcasts from this aspect first looks at the way meaning is made in different modalities[5]. This approach considers discourse as a way of "representing a particular aspect of reality from a particular ideological[6] perspective" (Ivanic, 1998. P. 17). Since it is determined by interpretations, discourse is not only a way of speaking and writing, but also of thinking. Therefore, the broadcasts can be studied critically as they might index the way the broadcasters are enacting ideologies to answer, at least partially, how are the meanings created because "language is not an abstract system, but is always socially and historically located in discourses" (Weedon, 1980. Cited in Kramsch, 2013, p.25).

At early stages, AJE appears to isolate the stories of the ongoing conflict between the Syrian regime and the opposition[7] forces from the rest of the world. Stories of this conflict often dominate the highlights of the day and the excerpts chosen to be translated from speeches of both officials and opposition leaders are often focusing on the clashes between the two forces. This is then usually followed by news of the situation in Egypt. On the other hand, RT often prioritise the American – Russian relations and attempts to link it to the ongoing conflict. It focuses on the history of the American-led interventions in neighbouring countries like Iraq and Libya and others such as Vietnam and Bosnia. Memory in media differs in RT and AJE's coverage; while AJE focuses on the use of Chemical weapons by Saddam Hussein against civilians in 1980s, RT focuses on the destabilisation of the region created, in its view, by the American-led intervention in Libya and Iraq.

As mentioned earlier, since language is derived from the context, language used needs to be analysed first by examining the context. To examine the context, three aspects need to be considered: the register, tenor, and mode. Register deals with understanding the language choice which is used in accordance with the situation. Tenor deals with the relation between the broadcaster and the listener *i.e* is it informative, persuasive or both. Finally, mode considers the form and type of communication *i.e* heard, seen or a combination of them. Therefore, broadcasters or any text producer can position their targeted audience towards the direction of taking an intended position to reach intended conclusions

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[2] Including culture and media.

[3] Texts are not seen as neutral or representations or reality as they are social constructions created by the broadcasters for a purpose.

[4] Ibid

[5] It addresses how the meanings were created, related and organised on the textual and communication level.

[6] Ideologies in this article are considered as "representations of aspects of the world which can be shown to contribute to establishing, maintain and changing social relations of power, domination and exploitation" (Fairclough, 2003, p. 9)

[7] According to RT, the main body of the opposition forces is the armed group of Al Nusra which is the Al Qaeda branch in the Levant and classified by the majority of countries as a terrorist organisation. According to AJE, the main opposition body is the Syrian National Coalition which is recognised by most regional and global countries and represents Syria's seat at the Arab League.

and interpretations (Sch äffner, 2015). For example, in their reports, AJE refers to the opposition forces as civilians and their actions as strive for freedom while RT refers to them as militants and sometimes as terrorists or extremists. Both AJE and RT sometimes call the rebels as opposition forces, but RT[8] describes anti-government groups and actions as "terrorism" and "militant". While terrorism is self-explanatory, the word militant according to Oxford Dictionary means "favouring confrontational or violent methods in support of a political or social cause." Therefore, there is an apparent distinction in connotations when words such as citizens, activists or people are used by AJE[9] as opposed to terrorists and militants used by RT.

Similarly, in their coverage of the Egyptian uprising, RT and AJE's classification of participants differ. Both channels reported on February 2nd clashes between protesters but with different word choice. While RT reported "pro and anti-Mubarak demonstrators clash"[10], AJE reported clashes between "pro-democracy protesters and those fighting for the government."[11] Similarly, while RT repeatedly described the protests violent such as saying "dozens have been killed in the violent anti-government protest"[12], AJE was reporting it was peaceful saying "protesters are holding peaceful and celebratory demonstrations."[13] This article reverts later to this aspect to investigate it in light of audience positioning and translations.

A. Story Focus

TABLE 1:
AJE AND RT STORY FOCUS (EGYPT)

(N=237)	AJE		RT		Total		Chi-square/ (*p*-value)
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Government	22	17.19	24	22.02	46	19.40	**0.7 (0.4)**
Humanitarian	49	38.28	14	18.84	63	26.58	**14.32 ($p < 0.001$)**
Political	18	14.06	39	35.78	57	24.05	**11.54 ($p < 0.001$)**
Uprising	39	30.47	32	29.36	71	29.96	**0.02 (0.88)**
Total	**128**	**100.0**	**109**	**100.0**	**237**	**100.0**	

$\chi^2 = 26.60$; $df = 3$; $\chi^2/df = 8.87$; Cramer's V = 0.335

In terms of government and uprising perspective, the results show there are no statistically significant results with *p*-values 0.4 and 0.88 respectively. On the other hand, statistically significant results are observed in humanitarian and political aspects. These results are in line with previous findings published by Aday *et al* (2005) who observed that AJE tends to focus on humanitarian issues including civilian casualties and their suffering. In AJE coverage, the highest percentage was for humanitarian aspect (38.28%) and the least was on political aspect with (14.06%), while RT was the opposite with political being the highest (35.78%) and humanitarian being the lowest (18.84%). Bennett (2012, pp. 22-23) states "the idea of agenda setting involves using the news to influence what the public regards as important for them to think about in society and politics." Therefore, the focus on humanitarian aspect on the expense of the political aspect is suggestive of AJE's audience positioning.

As table 2 below summarises, similar results were observed in RT's broadcasts covering the Syrian uprising. However, AJE's broadcasts shows equal focus on both political and humanitarian aspects. Statistically significant results were observed in the humanitarian and government aspects while there are no statistically significant results in the military/terrorism episodes.

TABLE 2:
AJE AND RT STORY FOCUS (SYRIA)

(N=298)	AJE		RT		Total		Chi-square/ (*p*-value)
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Government	9	6.38	31	19.75	40	13.42	9.88 (0.0017)
Military/Terrorism	24	17.02	25	15.92	49	16.44	0.84 (0.81)
Humanitarian	46	32.62	19	12.10	65	21.81	22.80 ($p < 0.001$)
Political	46	32.62	78	49.68	124	41.61	25.34 (0.023)
Opposition	16	11.35	4	2.55	20	6.71	13.07 (0.003)
Total	**141**	**100.0**	**157**	**100.0**	**298**	**100.0**	

$\chi^2 = 38.044$; $df = 4$; $\chi^2/df = 9.51$; Cramer's V = 0.3573

News channels do not only choose the focus, but also the voices they want to be heard more. Voicing a certain group more is often motivated by an attempt to be in their favour. Ginneken (1998, p.85) argues in the context of "the politics of loud and whispering voices" that "news is based on a selective articulation of certain voices about supposed events: not only the voices of journalists themselves, but also their sources." He also adds (1998, p.89) in the context of credibility, "journalists are ready to believe, and have the public believe, some sources and not others." A key point to

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[8] RT 23/08/2013.
[9] AJE 21/08/2013.
[10] RT 02/02/2011.
[11] AJE 02/02/2011.
[12] RT 29/01/2011.
[13] AJE 01/02/2011.

be considered is interpretation. Fairclough (2003, p. 53) argues "framing can be conducive to an interpretation favourable to a group and unfavourable for another." Having said that, it is important to note that movements often seek to be voiced by media perhaps more often than the government. McAdam (2011, p. 276) argues "most movements spend considerable time and energy in seeking to attract and shape media coverage of their activities". It is also important to note that voicing a participant does not necessarily entail being in favour of their narrative. A channel might voice a participant and then attempt to refute their statements. From the relation between voices and discourse perspective, Barkho (2010, p. 42) argues "when discourse is contextualised, voices taking part in it do not enjoy equal opportunity to power, emphasis and authority." Both RT and AJE voiced both parties; however, they were not equally heard as the tables below summarise.

TABLE 3:
AJE AND RT NEWS SOURCE (EGYPT)

(N=237)	AJE		RT		Total		Chi-square/ (*p*-value)
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Government	16	12.50	26	23.85	42	17.72	**4.28 (0.04)**
Opposition	25	19.53	11	10.09	36	15.19	**3.45 (0.06)**
Civilians	24	18.75	9	8.26	33	13.92	**4.66 (0.03)**
Government and Civilians	0	0	7	6.42	7	2.95	**8.22 (0.004)**
Opposition and Civilians	16	12.50	3	2.75	19	8.01	**7.00 (0.008)**
UN	6	4.69	0	0	6	2.53	**5.10 (0.02)**
Social Media	6	4.69	0	0	6	2.53	**5.10 (0.02)**
Correspondents	11	8.59	10	9.17	21	8.86	**0.02 (0.88)**
Russia	0	0	16	14.68	16	6.75	**18.8 (*p* < 0.001)**
U.S.	5	3.90	6	5.50	11	4.64	**0.32 (0.56)**
Experts	19	14.84	21	19.27	40	16.88	**0.68 (0.40)**
Total	**128**	**100.0**	**109**	**100.0**	**237**	**100.0**	

χ^2 = 57.62; df = 9; χ^2/df = 6.40; Cramer's V = 0.49

Results revelled that RT voiced the opposition (10.09%) less than half the times of voicing the government (23.85%). In contrast to its counterpart, AJE voiced the opposition (19.53%) compared to (12.5%) the government. It is important here to make the distinction between RT and AJE's definition of "Egyptians". When AJE used "Egyptians", it referred to both the opposition and other civilians and they were voiced (12.5%) compared to RT (2.75%). Such as "Egyptians from all walks of life took to the street"[14] and "Egyptians demand cheaper food and more freedom"[15]. However, RT used "Egyptians" to refer to the government and civilians and voiced them together (6.42%) compared to AJE (0.0%). For example, "Egyptians want the international committee to stay out of their affairs"[16]. Most notably was the complete lack of AJE voicing the Russian view (0.0%) compared to RT (14.68%) while they both voiced the U.S. in a few cases (3.9%) and (5.5%) respectively. For example, RT reported Russia says "Egypt should resolve crisis by itself, no outside pressure is needed"[17].

TABLE 3:
AJE AND RT NEWS SOURCE (SYRIA)

(N=298)	AJE		RT		Total		Chi-square/ (*p*-value)
	N	%	N	%	N	%	
Government	10	7.09	32	20.38	41	13.76	9.56 (0.002)
Correspondents	14	9.93	31	19.75	44	14.77	4.87 (0.027)
Experts	15	10.64	8	5.10	23	7.71	2.96 (0.086)
Opposition	23	16.31	5	3.18	28	9.40	13.62 (*p* < 0.001)
Civilians	18	12.77	7	4.46	25	8.40	6.11 (0.013)
UN	10	7.09	6	3.82	16	5.37	1.48 (0.22)
Both government and civilians	0	0	15	9.55	15	5.03	13.47 (*p* < 0.001)
Both opposition and civilians	5	3.55	0	0	5	1.68	5.57(0.018)
Russia and allies	10	7.09	28	17.83	38	12.75	6.72(0.01)
U.S. and allies	36	25.53	25	15.92	63	21.14	4.27(0.069)
Total	**141**	**100.0**	**157**	**100.0**	**298**	**100.0**	

χ^2 = 68.63689; df = 9; χ^2/df = 7.62632111; Cramer's V = 0.159974002828303

The results in the above tables indicate that the narrative RT intends to construct is, to some extent, influenced by loyalty to the Egyptian government and Russia while AJE's narrative is influenced by the opposition views as the following table summarises. As Barkho (2010, p. 43) explains "we are aware that hard-news discourse is of multiple voices but need to see how these voices are represented". From CDA perspective, main and secondary voices need to be

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[14] AJE 25/01/2011.
[15] AJE 27/01/2011.
[16] RT 02/02/2011.
[17] RT 02/02/2011.

distinguished. This can be done by asking why certain participants were voiced. For example, a channel might voice a participant who is expected to side with the government such as a leading figure in the ruling party but he might side with the opposition. Alternatively, a channel might voice participants and then attempt to refute them using visuals, witnesses, UN statistics, etc.

B. Translations: Syrian Uprising

On the first day of the alleged attack, AJE was quick to accept the claims and RT was quite sceptical. RT chose words carefully to emphasise where did the accusations come from. For example, while AJE said activists say and the government denies[18], RT[19] said the rebels accuse the government, but both officials and locals say they have seen no evidence of a chemical attack. It then added that the first to break this news was the Saudi Arabian network Al-Arabiya and stressed on, as it believes, "Saudi Arabia has its own agenda inside Syria; it is anti-president Assad." And added in the next day, these reports came from "biased regional media"[20]. Therefore, from the early stages, RT stressed on linking the ongoing conflict to the interests of other countries and their possible interventions an attempt which was not made by AJE till later stages as will be shown later. Therefore, another way to look at this subject is to ask how are the audience being positioned rather than how is the meaning created. In technical terms, this approach is often referred to as critical literacy[21] to be able to analyse texts with the aim of examining the ideologies at work. To do so, questions such as who is doing what to whom? Whose interests the texts serve? Who is being marginalised or silenced and who is not? Should be addressed.

To illustrate, the following translation provides an example for this process. AJE broadcasted on August 21st, the first day of the alleged attack, a translated speech delivered by, as they call, an activist. "The number of victims from children and others is very high. I carried in my own hands 50 dead children. The worst thing about what happened is the indiscriminate nature of the attack and the ignorance of the people who did not know what to do when the attack took place." AJE added, "pictures appear to show dozens of dead bodies that have no visible wounds or trauma."[22] It is useful to look first at how RT portrayed this story at an early stage to facilitate standing on how were the audience being positioned by AJE and vice versa. RT responded to this by saying rebels accuse the government of launching an attack, but "we have been talking to locals who confirm there was fighting earlier, but they insist there have been absolutely no signs of any chemical attacks."[23]

Therefore, there are two aspects to consider from the terminology used in these two broadcasts. Firstly, the source of information is labelled by AJE as an activist and by RT as rebels. The differences between activist and rebel signal the level of credibility attached to this source by the broadcasters. Secondly, to say this source says that an attack took place is different than saying this source accuse because the later requires evidence. Therefore, following that accusation by saying locals "insist there have been absolutely no signs of any chemical attacks"[24], signal the positioning of the audience intended by RT as discrediting the rebels as a reliable source of information. However, AJE did the opposite by reporting there are "dozens of dead bodies that have no visible wounds or trauma" to signal that these were not killed by conventional weapons. Both RT and AJE add their own interpretations, speculations and predictions to the ongoing conflict. For example, before the UN investigations team reached Syria, AJE reported on the second day August 22nd, 2013 "government forces fired rockets loaded with toxic gas into Eastern Ghouta" and following reports stated over 1000 were killed[25]. RT reported on the same day "there is no confirmation of the use of chemical weapons" and it also emphasised that if they had been in fact used, then the opposition is to blame basing their speculation on two points: Syrian regime forces are winning ground and the timing of the attack.[26] An important question to be considered is whose interests the texts serve? Apparently, AJE's broadcasts are consistent with what the activists had to say and therefore, they serve the interests of the opposition. On the other hand, RT seems to attempt to discredit the opposition forces and therefore, they serve the interests of the regime. Who is being marginalised or silenced? While RT attempts to discredit the opposition in order to silence them and voice the regime, AJE attempts to do the opposite.

C. Translations: Egyptian Uprising

Intertextuality, as Fairclough and Wodak (1997, p. 276) explain, is "the way discourses are always connected to other discourses which were produced earlier as well as those which are produced synchronically or subsequently." Therefore, Fairclough and Wodak's perspective seem to be in line with the explanation of the thematic coverage where the subsequent media messages are linked together in one way or another. From translation perspective, narratives, as Baker (2006, p.3) explains,

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[18] AJE 21/08/2013.
[19] RT 21/08/2013.
[20] RT 22/08/2013.
[21] Interrogating texts.
[22] AJE 21/08/2013.
[23] RT 21/08/2013.
[24] RT 21/08/2013.
[25] AJE 22/08/2013.
[26] RT 22/08/2013.

are dynamic entities; they change in subtle or radical ways as people experience and become exposed to new stories on a daily basis. This assumption has a number of consequences. First, narrative theory recognizes that people's behaviour is ultimately guided by the stories they come to believe about the events in which they are embedded, rather than by their gender, race, colour of skin, or any other attribute. Second, because narratives are dynamic, they cannot be streamlined into a set of stable stories that people simply choose from. Narrative theory recognizes that at any moment in time we can be located within a variety of divergent, criss-crossing, often vacillating narratives, thus acknowledging the complexity and fluidity of our positioning in relation to other participants in interaction. Third, because narratives are continually open to change with our exposure to new experience and new stories, they have significant subversive or transformative potential.

Baker (2006) then exemplifies this notion by saying to undermine regimes such as Nazi Germany an alternative narrative is constructed to challenge the stories that they had earlier used to sustain them. Baker (2009, p. 11) also added "the issue of representation is closely linked to the environment of reception". In his investigation of the cultural aspect of the Arab-Israeli conflict media coverage, Wolfsfeld (1997, p.54) argues "the media serves as *public interpreters* of events and as *symbolic arenas* for ideological struggle between antagonists" (italics in original). From dialogism perspective, Barkho (2010, p.122) states that one of its important aspects is "how a new text accommodates an older one that, in news, is discursively represented in the reporting of the speech through quoting, scare quoting, and paraphrasing."

Therefore, the focus in analysing the following translations draws on Sch äffner (2013) approach where the question asked is how does narrating a story from particular perspective participate in constructing a narrative because it is expected from the decisions mentioned earlier, the viewers, being influenced by the constructed narrative, will reach different interpretations. From sociocultural approach perspective, Wolf (2002, p. 33) adds:

Sociological approach to the study of translation therefore would follow the insight that translation is a socially-regulated activity and consequently analyse the social agents responsible for the creation of translation. The analysis of the social implications of translation helps us to identify the translator as constructing and constructed subject in society, and to view translation as a social practice.

Her remarks can relate to the current investigation in the sense that the meanings are not contained only in the produced translations as their interpretation is associated with the context presented during, before or after producing translations.

January 28th Mubarak speech: The excerpt that was chosen to be translated says:

"the incident that took place today and the past few days have left the majority of Egyptian people fearing for Egypt and its future, causer of further mayhem, chaos and destruction. I, shouldering my first responsibility to maintain the homeland security and the citizens safety, cannot tolerate, cannot allow this fear to grip our people and therefore I would not allow this to haunt our future and fate. I have requested the government to step down today and I will designate a new government as of tomorrow."[27] If taken separately, the inclusion of the speaker's voice in broadcasters' coverage of a speech delivered depends, at least partially, on the broadcasters' decision of whether to use direct or indirect reporting. Though this decision is important, there are other aspects need to be considered. Observing the broadcasts concerned with the translations showed RT and AJE used forms of additions in form of commentary and interpretations, being selective of what to include in their excerpts or both. Fairclough (2003, p. 53) argues:

when the voice of another is incorporated into a text, there are always choices about how to frame it, how to contextualize it, in terms of other parts of the text – about relations between report and authorial account. For example, the report that the Libyans 'said they wanted more time to sort out the details of the handover' is framed with 'faced by the threat of more sanctions', and one might see this framing as conductive to a rather negative interpretation of what the Libyan officials are reported to have said as, for instance, 'stalling' – indeed the correspondent does later hypothesize about 'a delaying tactic'.

Similarly, as he promised in his speech, Mubarak appointed a vice president for the first time in Egypt as a response to the protesters' demands. RT reported this as "Mubarak to appoint new government amid deadly protests against his rule"[28]. However, AJE reported "Mubarak appointed his chief of intelligence in a bid to save his own presidency" and "Mubarak may have chosen him to retain international support because Suleiman earned the respect of U.S. and Israel through his elegance in the Arab-Israeli conflict."[29] On the other hand, RT saw this as a compromise made by the government, but the opposition is not willing to offer something of the sort. AJE also added as a response to the speech "Mubarak sounds absolutely out of touch with his people" and correspondents later concluded "Mubarak has earned the hatred and disregard of the Egyptian people"[30]. Based on these, AJE concluded "appointing vice president is seen too little too late."[31]

February 1st Mubarak Speech:

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[27] AJE 28/01/2011.
[28] RT 29/01/2011.
[29] AJE 29/01/2011.
[30] AJE 28/01/2011.
[31] AJE 30/01/2011.

AJE's coverage of the 10 minutes speech (1013) words focused almost solely on the issue that Mubarak intends to finish the remainder of his term in office. Mubarak said he will continue the remainder of his term to ensure peaceful transfer of power and will not be running for re-election. RT reported this as "Mubarak pledges September stepdown, but protesters demand immediate exit."[32] However, AJE reported this as "defiant Mubarak vows to finish term"[33]. As a comment on the translated speech, AJE said "Mubarak seemed largely unfazed by the protests during his recorded address". AJE also added Mubarak said "the young people have the right to peaceful demonstrations. But his tone quickly turned accusatory, saying the protestors had been taken advantage of by people trying to undermine the government." AJE concluded "it is clear that President Mubarak is in denial over his legacy" and if he "did not heed the call to leave power at once, he would be not only a lame-duck president but a dead man walking."[34] Basing this speculation on "he is unfortunately going to extend the agony here for another six-seven months. He continues to polarise the country. He continues to get people even more angry and could resort to violence"[35]. AJE concluded, "indeed, none of the protestors interviewed by Al Jazeera earlier today said they would accept Mubarak finishing his term in office."[36] Similarly to Fairclough's Libya example mentioned earlier, this aspect was viewed in two ways: "waiting game" and "pressure from the US administration, which urged him not to seek re-election[37]." AJE viewed this as an attempt to "outlast the crowds amassed at Tahrir Square."[38]

On the other hand, RT focused on the issues of possible "destabilisation", "Mubarak is the only thing holding Egypt in its place", and the fears of "Islamic takeover of Egypt."[39] RT based these speculations on "people are looting museums" and "Israel is nervous" because they "prefer the status quo to any other changes."[40] This is in line with observations noted above of RT's attempt to frame the uprising in a larger political narrative. RT in this example is also attempting to extend the political meaning to include neighbouring countries by highlighting the effect this uprising might have on them. However, AJE stressed on the following day of delivering the speech that "police forces are supervising looting" and "the security forces are terrorising the people."[41] This, to some extent, may challenge the meaning Mubarak intended to create a meaning of stabilisation is only possible after Mubarak steps down. From framing narratives in translations perspective, Baker (2006, p. 105) remarks "translators and interpreters can and do resort to various strategies to strengthen or undermine particular aspects of the narratives they mediate, explicitly or implicitly." The strategies observed in the reports linked to the produced translations seemed to focus on recontextualisation of certain aspects to be reframed in a different context and emphasising certain aspects on the expense of others. By doing so, the channels actions signal whether they empathise with the speaker. For example, actions included labelling groups, participants, and actions. Some of these actions can also be approached in light of additions and omissions as the next section investigates.

From translation and relevance perspective, Gutt (2010) argues since translation is part of communication, the context determines the interpretation. Therefore, as this article shows, addressing the translations produced is a question of how were the speeches interpreted because it is expected that an RT viewer might understand them differently from an AJE viewer. This assumption is based on RT and AJE's efforts before and after the speeches were delivered to position the audience as discussed in the sections leading to the translations. From narrative account in examining translations, produced translations are not separated from other texts (Baker, 2006). To exemplify, from the dates of broadcasting this event, AJE seems to have attempted to refute both RT and Mubarak's first speech. The focus of RT's broadcast on January 29th, 2011 titled "Mob Rule" was the "violent" actions of protesters towards the police and that the "police stations have been raided."[42] AJE, which previously stressed the protesters are peaceful, responded on the following day saying "people attacked the police because police are protecting the corrupt regime not the people"[43]. AJE also showed footage showing IDs of arrested "thugs" belonging to the security forces.[44] AJE agreed partly with Mubarak's second speech where he stated the protests are being infiltrated. AJE broadcasted "violence is caused by saboteurs and thugs infiltrating the demonstrations"[45]. However, AJE added in the same report that "looters are members of the central security, interior ministry and police"[46]. This added an effect that was not intended by the speaker.

IV. FINDINGS SUMMARY

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[32] RT 02/02/2011.
[33] AJE 02/02/2011.
[34] AJE 02/02/2011.
[35] Ibid
[36] Ibid
[37] Ibid
[38] Ibid
[39] RT 02/02/2011.
[40] Ibid
[41] AJE 29/01/2011.
[42] RT 29/01/2011.
[43] AJE 30/01/2011.
[44] AJE 30/01/2011.
[45] AJE 01/02/2011.
[46] Ibid.

The main objective of this article was investigating how were the social, political, and cultural contexts manifested in the process of creating AJE and RT narratives for the coverage of a media event during the Syrian and Egyptian uprisings. The analysis shed light on how translations of speeches delivered by officials and notable opposition leaders can function as the corner stone to construct narratives when they are interpreted or perceived differently to ultimately lead AJE and RT to promote their interpretations through constructing realities rather than representing them. The investigation has also showed that the produced translations undergone a number of various shifts and alterations that determined, at least partially, the final projected narratives, e.g. the Syrian regime is helping securing the world by compacting a group of al Qaeda-affiliated violent extremist rebels who are constantly targeting civilians and religious minorities communities as through the eyes of RT or the Syrian regime is oppressing its people who are striving for freedom and rights by indiscriminate bombardment including the use of chemical weapons as through the eyes of AJE. The competition between the two channels is evident through the larger projected narratives as well as the episodes within these narratives such as labelling the actors of these narratives as activists or rebels, people/civilians, or extremists/terrorists.

The range of illustrative examples provided in this article are aimed to demonstrate that the relation between the mentioned episodes is not established by unfolding events alone, but due to a systematic meaning making process which is shown through the patterns emerging from consistencies either in favour of or against the translations. These examples also showed the impact of lexical choices on both the translations and the reports prepared to cover a channel's interpretation of that translation. Since this media event is of political nature, politically sensitive concepts were examined in the light of cultural, socio-political and historical contexts as in the case of the use of media memory by RT. Compared to AJE, RT made its political position clearer. It is opposed to U.S. foreign policy and it is questioning the motivation of the U.S. intervention. Therefore, particularly in RT's coverage, the examples have shown that the language used is ideologically motivated and that is important because acknowledging this observation shows, at least partially, how they created different interpretations on these episodes which in turn resulted in different narrative.

Finally, the analysis established, at least to some extent, that the shifts in emphasis following the production of translation is often motivated by attempts to strengthen the constructed narrative or to at least maintain it. Certain translation strategies ranging between lexical choices to additions and omissions were dominant. Most frequently, omissions and addition of interpretations were the mostly used. Arguably, they are amongst the strategies that impact the meanings the most. To sum up, consider the following example. For the sake of an argument, assume this was mentioned in a broadcast: The Syrians are fighting to protect their country. An RT viewer that is following their interpretations would most likely understand this as: The Syrian government is fighting to protect the civilians from the militants. However, AJE viewers would probably understand it as the activists are fighting to rid their country of Assad's dictatorship.

V. Conclusion

In contrast to earlier research which suggest AJE often takes anti-American and anti-West tone (Lynch, 2006; Miles, 2005), this article shows, at least with regards to the unrests in Syria and Egypt, that AJE supports the narrative the US intended to construct and refute that of Russia while RT intended to do the opposite. The study of framing in global media events enjoyed significant attention from scholars such as (Barkho 2010; Schudson 2002; Wolfsfeld 1997) where issues such as comparison of BBC, CNN, and Al-Jazeera coverages were compared and contrasted on events including the Palestinian-Israeli conflict (sometimes referred to as Arab-Israeli conflict), first and second Gulf wars, Somalia conflict, and September 11th attacks. However, in investigating the coverage of the Arab Spring events, scholars opted to adopt similar strategy to that which was adopted in earlier research. This resulted in neglecting the differences in political and cultural representations of the countries witnessing the Arab Spring events because the mentioned earlier research tackled separate countries within the Arab World that witnessed events limited to one or two countries. The Arab Spring events, however, took place in 18 out of 22 Arab League states. This article shows that approaching the Arab World as a single entity and the Arab Spring as a single event marginalises the representation of differences between the countries witnessing the Arab Spring. Though the examination only considered 2 out of 18 countries witnessing the Arab Spring events, distinct representations in media were observed.

APPENDIX A. RT COVERAGE OF SYRIA'S UPRISING AUGUST 21ST-SEPTEMBER 10TH, 2013.

Date	Time of Broadcast/Duration	Host
21/8/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35409
22/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35443
23/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35488
23/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35495
24/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35515
24/08/2013	13:00/ 90 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35519
25/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35531
25/08/2013	2:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35535
26/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35552
26/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35558
27/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35620
27/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35626
28/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35667
28/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35673
29/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35700
29/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35706
30/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35747
30/08/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35759
31/08/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35781
01/09/2013	14:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35800
02/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35857
02/09/2013	13:00/ 2 hours 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35866
03/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35907
03/09/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35913
04/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35954
04/09/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35960
05/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35995
06/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36034
06/09/2013	13:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36056
07/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36078
07/09/2013	13:00/ 2 hours 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36082
08/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36094
08/09/2013	14:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36098
09/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36121
10/09/2013	2:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36209

Time Displayed is GMT.

APPENDIX B. AJE COVERAGE OF SYRIA'S UPRISING AUGUST 21ST-SEPTEMBER 9TH.

Date	Time of Broadcast/ Duration	Host
21/08/2013	20:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35431
22/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35444
23/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35489
23/08/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35501
23/08/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35509
24/08/2013	12:00/ 1 hour	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35593
24/08/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35523
25/08/2013	19:00/ 2 hours 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35542
26/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35554
27/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35621
27/08/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35642
28/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35668
28/08/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35679
28/08/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35689
29/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35701
29/08/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35721
30/08/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35748
30/08/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35775
31/08/2013	12:00/ 1 hour	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35828
01/09/2013	19:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35845
02/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35858
02/09/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35883
03/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35908
03/09/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35930
04/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35955
04/09/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35977
05/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/35996
05/09/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36019
06/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36035
06/09/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36072
07/09/2013	12:00/ 30 minutes	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36171
07/09/2013	16:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36085
08/09/2013	19:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36186
09/09/2013	11:00/ 2 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36122
09/09/2013	20:00/ 3 hours	http://videoserver.bl.uk/36144

Time Displayed is GMT.

APPENDIX C. RT COVERAGE OF EGYPT'S UPRISING JANUARY 28TH-FEBRUARY 11TH, 2011.

Date	Time Of Broadcast/ Duration	Host
28/01/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5144
29/01/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5164
30/01/2011	11:00/56 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5184
31/01/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5207
01/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5232
02/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5260
03/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5290
04/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5336
05/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5349
06/02/2011	11:00/56 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5368
07/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5396
08/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5429
09/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5450
10/02/2011	13:00/34 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5475
11/02/2011	15:00/30 mins	http://videoserver.bl.uk/5546

Time Displayed is GMT.

APPENDIX D. AJE COVERAGE OF EGYPT'S UPRISING JANUARY 25TH-FEBRUARY 11TH, 2011.

Date	Time of Broadcast/ Duration	Host
25/01/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5056**
26/01/2011	23:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5078**
27/01/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5205**
28/01/2011	23:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5146**
29/01/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5167**
30/01/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5187**
31/01/2011	23:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5209**
01/02/2011	13:00/179 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5235**
02/02/2011	17:00/58 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5270**
03/02/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5292**
04/02/2011	13:00/179 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5321**
05/02/2011	15:00/71 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5352**
06/02/2011	18:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5371**
07/02/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5399**
08/02/2011	21:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5431**
09/02/2011	23:00/57 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5452**
10/02/2011	13:00/179 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5477**
11/02/2011	13:00/179 mins	**http://videoserver.bl.uk/5549**

Time Displayed is GMT.

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Investigating the Effects of Reader Response Journals on the Quality of Teacher Trainees' Responses to Literary Works

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Abstract—The present study investigated the effects of writing reader response journals (RRJ) on the quality of responses to literary works assigned. The study is underpinned by Rosenblatt's Reader Response Theory, literacy principles, and sociocultural views. The study assumes that readers' responses to literature involve critical and aesthetic reading-writing (literacy) events that are collaboratively constructed. The study involved an intact group (*N=22*) comprising EFL teacher trainees of a private education college in Ciamis, Indonesia, taking Literature Criticism subject. This time series pre-experimental study entailed repeated measurements of critical reading and assessments of aesthetic responses before and after the treatment. Before the treatment, New Critics' conventional text-based teaching strategies were given. Findings of the study suggest that, quantitatively, as *ANOVA* proved, the use of reader response journal gave effects on the constantly better achievements, and, as the *Paired t-Test* indicated, the treatment resulted in better quality. Additionally, qualitative evidences revealed from observation, interviews, and document analysis showed better quality of the trainees' aesthetic experiences reflecting varied reader response strategies. The study recommends further studies develop reader response-based literature teaching model across contexts in reference to gender issues.

Index Terms—reader response theory, journals, critical, aesthetic, reflections

I. INTRODUCTION

"I believe that (this) educational process has two sides—one psychological and one sociological; ..." (Dewey, 1897)

Advocates of literature teaching pedagogy suggest that reading literary works offer multifaceted benefits. For example, Carter and Long (1991) propose three models of reading literary works connected to culture engagement, linguistic awareness, and personal growth. Culturally, readers can understand target culture embedded and reflected in the literary text engaged in. In transacting the knowledge of their own and others, readers can critically manifest their attitude towards the conflicting differences of cultures and thus know how to encounter those cultural differences. Bandura (2008) highlights the intercultural dialogue in reading foreign literature in that readers get acquaintance with a process of encountering other cultures in reading. Linguistically, readers, when reading the texts, at the same, can absorb the linguistic patterns framed and executed in the writers' ways of expressing ideas. That is, they get immersed in contextually making use of language usage in more varied styles. Aesthetically, readers can self-direct learning of moral values and develop their personality while and after reading and capturing the texts' messages. In addition, readers can also enjoy reading (i.e. reading for pleasure). Parallel to Carter and Long's views, Abdulmughni (2016) affirms that reading literary works involves textual feature mastery and meaning understanding. For Abdulmughni, the textual involvement in reading drives readers to absorb its linguistic aspects modelled in the text. The meaning exploration then entails readers' intertextualization and association with own life experiences in interpreting the text being engaged in.

Pedagogically speaking, literature teaching trends have indicated virtual paradigm shifts. Rosenblatt's (1976, 1978, 1983, 1985, 1988, 1990, 1991, 1993, 2005) reader response theory offers challenges against New Critics' views on text-oriented reading approaches. In Rosenblatt's conception, the former emphasizes on the role of readers as active meaning makers as reflected in their "lived-through reading experiences". By means of *aesthetic* reading, the readers have enough rooms to freely respond to literary works assigned and collaboratively share their feelings and critical views while and after reading with their peers through group discussions, journalling, peer-group feedbacking of text revision process, text transformations, performances, and creating or drawing pictures and posters. Thus, fixed answers

and interpretations of readers are not demanded for certain extent. Rather, readers' idiosyncratic and typical responses are welcome. The latter, having recently dominated the teaching directions in most schools and colleges in these spheres, is more concerned with text-based interpretation that entails such tasks as summarizing the story, describing textual features (plot, characters and characterization, setting, and other textual features), and answering correctly questions from the contents of the texts. The former tends to be reader-oriented, which is more personal, the latter has to do with general knowledge, which is more public. The present study is more concerned with former for its virtual, potentials for more empowerment to the readers, and classroom democracy issues. In addition, reader response-based teaching pedagogy offers communicative attainments for learners (cf. Hirvela, 1996) by which they can get involved in interactive communication among the learners' peers in sharing ideas as reader responses.

To create such a fruitful and challenging classroom of literature teaching, teachers should pedagogically develop well-negotiated lesson design. The ideal teaching design needs humanistic approaches that empower learners' potentials. Prominent experts in relevant educational fields have promoted educational reforms through reconceptualizing educational practices from pedagogical reconstruction as paradigm shifts. For example, John Dewey's pragmatism view has shared relevant points with Rosenblatt's Reader Response Theory (Connell, 1996) in viewing reading as a transactional process. In so doing, readers try to use their own schemata and (past) life experiences to interpret the text messages through collaborative works. In a sense, Connell further saw the democratic process in collaboratively interpreting texts as suggested by Dewey and Rosenblatt. Clearly, both advocates are very keen in an effort of elevating the position of readers in actively constructing meaning (cf. Connell, 2000). Thus, readers deserve optimal opportunities to make use of their critical and personal reflections in transacting with texts and intertextualizing them through engaging in those texts assigned. Instead of merely transferring knowledge the teachers hold in their minds to their students, the teachers/trainers play their roles as facilitators and mediators in socially constructed learning activities.

The educators' judgements in selecting appropriate theory-into-practice-based teaching models for creating conducive classroom is philosophically interwoven with the educational conceptions. For example, Dewey's (1897) previously mentioned creed at the opening of this paper supports the importance of promoting learners' psychological and sociological empowerments, which is meaningful for individual's critical thinking and affective development. Devendorf (n.d) argues,

"Dewey felt that teaching critical thinking skills was a far better utilization of education versus memorization of rote knowledge. Dewey's commitment to democratic education practices at the Dewey School was evidence of these philosophical beliefs. This school was a community of learners. Dewey was not only concerned with developing the minds of students, but also that of teacher's."

It is thus save to claim that there is a shared point between Rosenblatt's views on reader response-based teaching and Dewey's pragmatic philosophy in education in their ways of promoting learners as active meaning makers.

The social process in classroom that triggers learners to be engaged inshould accommodate the dialogic classroom events. In this respect, Bakhtin's views has its contributions to the teaching pedagogy. Lee's (2010) qualitative case study revealed the integration of Bakhtin's theory and reader responses to improve second language reading comprehension. Lee further argues that through dynamic dialogic interaction between readers and the texts more understanding of learners can possibly take place. One of the principles of dialogism, as Fuadi (2014) assumes: "Thus the process becomesbilateral, or even multilateral and it includes criticism on both parts — a teacher and a student-reader as they are interpreting a literary text."

The shift from New Critic movements to Reader Response Theory has indicated the milestones of the contributions of critical theory and literary criticism fields to literature pedagogy. As much of the related literature suggests, the domination of New Critics' traditions have been illuminating the current trends of literature classes. The mainstream classes tend to be one-way direction of classroom interaction, which is more teacher-centered. The pitfalls of New Critics are associated with passive roles of readers in interpreting the texts. In a sense, readers are demanded to provide fixed answers or interpretations. Canonical texts are considered as the main focus of reading and literary interpretation. To compare with, Reader Response Theory offers readers more rooms to generate ideas as both personal and critical reflections. To date, the movements of literature teaching directions have been indicated by its time frame, though there remains 'pros' and 'conts'. Fuadi (2014) affirms,

"While the reader-response movement resulted in vast intellectual riches regarding our understanding of the reading process itself, its ongoing debate about the problematic of canonicity and the politics of interpretation played a role in engendering the vitriolic' culture wars' of the 1980s and 1990s as well as the theoretical entrenchment of the present."

Historically, the movement of New Critic seven indicated strong influences to teaching literature. Sanders (2012) illustrates,

"Beginning in the 1920s, New Criticism emerged as the dominant theory used when teaching literature, and this theory places an emphasis on meaning that resides solely in the text. This theory remains a popular perspective for teaching literature, but the emergence of the contrasting reader response theory has challenged New Critical thinking. Reader response theory suggests that literature cannot be considered in isolation from the reader. Instead, the reader brings experience and knowledge to the text and creates meaning." (p. 2).

In praxis, the salient point for reader-response-based pedagogy shows readers' stances in reading (Kalorides, 2000), whether approaching to personal or public accounts (the former commonly referred as*aesthetic* and the latter *efferent* in

Rosenblatt's notions). Pantaleo (2013) confirmed, "Rosenblatt maintained that any text can be read from either a *predominantly* aesthetic or efferent stance, with most reading events falling somewhere along the aesthetic/efferent continuum." (p. 127).

The application of reader response theory is seemingly meaningful in EFL context. For example, Garson & Castañeda-Peña (2015) report on their study in Colombia concerning the application of reader response journals.The case study indicated how to apply the Reader-Response Theory to respond to literary texts in EFL-pre-service teachers' initial education, and students kept a portfolio of their written responses to the stories assigned. The participants also discussed their interpretations in class. The main and core constructs of their study are of importance of the reader-response theory, the use of literature in English as a foreign language classes and its relation to critical thinking. Results of their study showed that the application of tasks based on the reader-response theory encourages a meaning seeking process as well as the development of higher order thinking skills in future language teachers. Similarly, Atkinson and Mitchell (2010) suggest that reader response strategies allowed readers as writers used critical interpretation so as to collude, collide, exclude, and compete for meaning. In addition, their study also offered pedagogical implications to the trainees' own classrooms in the future.To support their beliefs, Atkinson and Mitchell (2010) argued:

"When various interpretive frameworks are made visible across the context of a narrative text by the readers' or listeners' responses to it, they can be examined for how they collude, collide, exclude, and compete for meaning. At the same time, conversations evoked by narrative texts and through other arts can generate greater understanding across and through cultural differences. This offers dynamic pedagogical possibilities through appealing to our horticultural approach of seeking out knowledge gained from conversations across divergent interpretive communities."

Another earlier study conducted by Newell et al. (1989) also revealed the benefits of reader response strategies for encouraging and triggering readers as writers to elaborate and explore responses to literary works being enjoyed. The meaningful influences of reader-response approach have been also represented in EFL classroom practices of literature instruction across levels of language growth and sociocultural contexts in Indonesia (Citraningtyas, 2008; Iskhak, 2010a, 2010b, 2010c, 2011, 2013a, 2013b, 2014, 2015, Iskhak et al., 2016a, 2016b). Unfortunately, the current trends of teaching and directions of research on the use of reader response theory, yet, seem to indicate declination for the last few years. Only few studies are directed on the effectiveness of using reader response in EFL classes in reference to mixed method of study.

Several qualitative studies on the use of reader response theory in EFL teacher education suggest the significant effects on the English literacy development among the participants or trainees. Kern (2000) emphasizes that engagements in reading and responding to literary works give effects to the target language literacy improvement. Through such literacy events as text transformations readers by enjoying literary works improve their target language. Similar insight revealed by Bonissone's et al. (1998) affirmation suggests that target language literacy can be enhanced through discussing literary works in culturally and linguistically diverse settings. Freppon and Dahl (1998) also suggest the supportive contribution of the use of literary works to the literacy development as evoked by reader response strategies. The possibly negotiated-literacy events generated by means of literary projects may include such varied reader responseactivitiesas discussion, writing, art, dance, music, and drama (Graves et al., 2004). Consequently, writing journals, for its valuable and meaningful effects in its nature, deserve more emphasis in this study.

Research has indicated that writing journal (henceforth reader response journal/RRJ) affects readers as writers to be high risk-takers (Iskhak er al., 2016b) in expressing what they have in mind (critical reflections) and feelings (personal reflections). For example, Carlisle (2000) made use of journals to trigger Taiwanese collegestudents to express their critical and personal views on the literary texts engaged in. Zainal et al. (2010) showed similar indications of the learners' improvements in increasing their quality of literary responses through writing RRJ in the context of Malaysian college.Other studies of using RRJ in teaching short stories (see Dreyfuss and Barilla, 2005; Liang, 2011) also indicate similar findings. In the EFL contexts, relevant studies also suggest that the use of RRJ offer academic benefits (for example Al-Bulushi, 2011; Carlisle, 2000; Hiew, 2010; Khatib, 2011; and Zainal et al. 2010).

Developing reading-writing (literacy) skill in English language as the target language as affected by RRJ among EFL teacher trainees is an interesting issue. The meaningful merits of including EFL teacher education as the focus of the study is associated with possible pedagogical implications of the praxis for the trainees'future own classroom practices (see McIntosh, 2010). Grisham's (2001) study revealed pre-service teachers' conception of reader response through journalling. Grisham strongly emphasizes the effects of writing journals on the trainees' more productive expressions as their reader responses to literary works. Moreover, Park's (2013) study reports on how preservice English teachers perceive reading literature that needs an interdiciplinary stance, accommodating close reading and reader-centered technique. Park argues that to elevate readers' more critical competence in reading teachers should trigger the trainees to write their prompts as responses guided and scaffolded by trainer's meaningful questions.The similar evidences of studies in EFL teacher training contexts also suggest that the use of RRJ offers personal, linguistic, academic, and pedagogic significances (also see Garzon and Castaneda-Pena, 2015; Harfitt and Chu, 2011; McIntosh, 2010; Sanchez, 2009).

The evident benefits of applying reader response theory through writing journals as response activities in reading-writing of literature emerge from the arrays of quests scrutinizing its operational inquiries provoked by relevant researchers in both English speaking countries and EFL contexts. The issue of evocation of aesthetic reading that result

in readers' better willingness in reading-writing events in literature class have mostly been investigated through qualitative studies though some mixed method have proved their informative findings. While the promotion of the reader response journals needs exploring, there are still limited studies onits effectiveness and comprehensive discussions through thick qualitative description of its process and products. The present study thus tries to infer the its effectiveness by means of time series pre-experimental study and providing the embedded qualitative attributes to the treatment process of using reader response journals. The study also tries to enhance to EFL teachers'awareness of keeping endless efforts to promote literature class to be more popular subject since Langer (1994) worried about less popularity of learning literature among educators and learners.

II. RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The present study is guided by general touring question, "Can the use of reader response journals /RRJ give effects to the quality of pre-service EFL teacher trainees' responses to literary works assigned?" The three more specific questions include: 1. *Through quantitatively repeated measurements before and after being treated by means of RRJ, will the quality of the trainees' critical responses improve?*, 2. *As attributed to and embedded in the process of writing RRJ project, what personal reflections as aesthetic experiences of trainees will emerge?*, if so, 3. *Are there meaningful differences in the trainees' critical and personal reflections before and after the treatment?*

III. REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE

A. Reader Response Theory, Journalling, and English Literacy: Its Interconnectivity

The interconnectivity among an activity of responding to literature, journal writing, and the target language literacy calls for prolific language education experts' concerns in their ways of pedagogically cater for doing researches. Sanders (2012) reports on the importance of Rosenblatt's Reader Response Theory in improving readers' literacy. Believing in close connection between reading and writing driven by responding to literature, Sanders further offers fruitful strategic classroom empowerments that enable reader writers to freely and democratically create their own meanings. Supported by Rosenblatt's (1993) concept oftransactional process, responding to literature normally involves private and public elements, or *aesthetics efferent* stances of readers, which tends to take place in the continuum. The reader responsetheory's basic premise tends to reject New Critics' views on structured knowledge of reading literature.To Rosenblatt (1988), the interconnection between reading and writing refers to the argument that reading is an integral part of the writing process. In addition, writer's reading both resembles and differs from the readers. Thus, transaction process of each individual reader is very dependent on the contexts shaping and being shaped by, and their own schemata.

Atkinson & Mitchell (2010) suggest how each person in the reader response community contributes to the journalling process. Atkinson &Mitchell report on their study suggesting that each person in the conference session produced a story about the experience of reading, even each individual's experience was produced by and through and with multiple intersecting narratives composed through multiple intersecting interpretive frameworks. They also argue that attempts to graph or plot would be ineffectual and non-productive. To make the journalling project meaningful to the reader writers, Spiegel (1998, p. 43)suggests, "In most response-based approached, reading is done through sustained silent reading". Thus, responding is a follow-up activity done through writing of what the readers have been read. RRJ is then the most feasible means of catering for the readers' needs to share their comprehensive ideas during and after reading. Practically, the expected reader response strategies, as Beach and Marshall (1991) suggested, normally cover such strategies as engaging, describing, conceiving, explaining, interpreting, connecting, and judging. In addition, critical reflections include the readers' critical thinking as represented in the readers' achievements in interpreting the texts; whereas personal reflections cover such individual accounts as self-perception and evaluation, feelings, wants, expectations, and imaginations.

B. Journal Writing

Writing journals challenges reader writers to express their thoughts and feelings as well as perceptions as their worldviews (see Parsons, 1990, 1994). The use of journal is, as Lee (2008) argues, "to reflect the trainees' views including critical thinking and personal accounts". Reader responses as reflections represent the trainees' active roles in making meanings while interpreting the texts. Lee (2008) further outlines that reflection enables teacher candidates to construct knowledge through asking questions, critiquing, evaluating, etc., and helping them, and bridge the gap between imagined views and realities of reading. The study is concerned with personal journal, though it is considered as academic account in terms of its consideration for educational assessment for the course requirements. Personal journal, as Lee (2008) defines, refers to students' record of "their personal reactions to questions about, and reflections on what they read, listen, discuss, do, and think" (p. 117).

Response journal is informally, socially, and critically constructed. Flitterman-King (1988) argues that, "...the response journal is a sourcebook, a repository for wanderings and wonderings, speculations, questions ...in effect, a place to make room for the unexpected." Flitterman-King also postulates that the process of writing is a recursive process. In writing journal, reader writers, as the classroom community members take active parts in creating new

things in language use. Parsons (2001) sees that, "the classroom should be a place for processing language" (p. 101). All trainees thus can experience success in responding to literature regardless of reading ability (Fulps & Young, 1991, p. 109). Furthermore, Parsons (2001) affirms that the readers can unlock literary works being engaged in through reader response journals. He further explains that through their response journals, they can "set out to unravel the mysteries of a literary work, first by detecting and mapping out their own observable emotional reactions to it and then using those findings to trace the intellectual plan of the work that produced them" (Parsons, 2001, p. 32).

Relevant study concerning the use of reader response journal in EFL teacher training was conducted by Sanchez (2009). Using mixed method between quasi-experimental study and qualitative approach, Sanchez's (2009) study in Argentina suggests that the use of reader response journal improved the trainees' critical and personal responses. Emerging data from interview and documented written journals informed the trainees' betterments in making interpretations of the texts. Yet, Sanchez's study still needs exploring in its quantitative evidences proved by sufficient quantitative inferences.

C. Literacy Principles

It is admitted that, as its nature suggests, the application of reader response theory through writing journals is connected to reading-writing events. Musthafa (1994) outlines the tenets of how to make reading-writing connection infused in classroom by means of reader response strategies. Among other things, teachers/trainers should let students/trainees freely express what they feel and have in mind, and give more rooms and nontreatening atmospheres with viable multimedia to celebrate their freedom through negotiated literacy-based programs that entail such demanding programs as writing journals, group discussions, peer-feedbacking, and refining final drafts. Kern (2000) argues that there is a strong connection of reader response strategies and literacy skills, since by doing so, the reader writers are required 'to comment freely in writing upon them" (p. 112). Thus, Kern further stresses, "Journalling leads to reader writers' getting immersion techniques to improve motivation in writing" (p. 193). The contribution of reader response theory to literacy events in classroom enriches and strengthens the reading and writing connections. Sanders (2012, p. 6) emphasizes, "Connections are emerging in the literature between Rosenblatt's reader response theory and new literacies, and these connections demonstrate new possibilities for pedagogy and literacy learning."

D. Sociocultural Theory and Socio-constructivism

It is acknowledged that in socio-constructivism views knowledge is socially constructed. It also happens in language learning process. Donato (2000) clarifies that Vygotsky's theory of learning and development implies that learning is also a form of language socialization between individuals and not merely information processing carried out solo by an individual. Literacy events as generated in RRJ projects can be possibly constructed and shaped in social interaction by means group discussion and peer group collaboration. The interactive process of academic socialization involves care-taking and -giving from the more to the less in the group or community of learners, and scaffolding is thus likely needed. Lantolf & Thorne (2007) argue that inmaking scaffolding, "...peer interaction should be included among participant structures conducive to learning through ZPD, especially in secondary and higher education settings." By means of scaffolding, each member of the community can reach their own zone proximal development in their psycholinguistic growths and ready to get 'care' given by the more from others to construct their own language expressions in most optimal developments.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

A. Design

Using time series pre-experimental study mixed with qualitative approach (Creswell, 1994, 2008), the investigation aimed to show the effects of RRT project on the quality of teacher trainees' responses to literary works. The type of 'embedded mixed method' (Creswell, 2008, p. 559), integrating quantitative and qualitative approach, was run out to legitimize the quantitative data showing the effectiveness of using RRJ. Repeated assessments before and after the treatment (Cohen et al., 2007; Creswell, 2008; Fraenkel and Wallen, 2007) were aimed to identify whether the variances of grouped and gained improvements would suggestdifferent indication, which was proved by using *ANOVA*), and the significant differences between the two groups of repeated assessments of the same subjects before and after the treatment (by using *Paired sampled/Matched t-Test*)(Hatch and Farhady, 1982). It was ideally expected that there were equal variances within each group of the assessment results. Quantitative evidences were generated from reading test that measured critical reflections, and academic essays to assess both critical and personal reflections. Likert 1-5 scale questionnaires (Brown, 2009), with its high reliability (0.98), were also administered to investigate the trainees' perceptions about their experiences (Burns, 2009, 2010) after attending the RRJ projects. Qualitatively,the captured classroom through videotaping was to see the trainees' active engagement in the negotiated reader-response process of journaling projects. Additionally, the trainees' continuously improved written drafts of RRJ completed the documentation analysis that entailed identification of emerging variedresponse strategies.

B. Site of the Study

The study took place at English Education Study Program of a global vision-based private Teacher Training College in Ciamis, West Java, Indonesia. The research site was bounded by such ecologically and culturally medium-level of academic sophistication and English literacy exposures. The participants yet are also recently exposed by such challenging requirements of passing through TOEFL-like threshold as standardized basic level of EFL competence, ranging from 475-500 score.

C. Subjects

The subjects of study included the intact group (*N*= 22) who were enrolled in the fourth semester included students of English Education taking Literary Criticism course. The teacher trainees had taken supporting related courses or subjects for their course of English education within 8 semesters, which cover personal and social competence developments, pedagogical basics for TEFL, linguistics, language skills, and literary studies. As far as the study is concerned, the trainees' reading-writing (literacy) development level indicated their mediocre level and belonging to novice or young teacher trainees. Their racial, language, and cultural diverse backgrounds included mullticultural inputs, which can shape and be shaped by the social contexts.

D. Materials and Instructional Intervention as 'Treatment'

The short stories assigned in treatmentincluded eight different titles: four for before (while using conventional text-based teaching strategies), and the other four for after the treatment (using RRJ). The democratic classroom selection of the short stories was based on the subjects' needs and interests. Through a sixteen meeting-session course in instructional intervention, the subjects were assigned to read the eight selected short stories and write their responses in written journals. During interventions, guiding questions and scaffolding were run out to trigger and stimulate the subjects' first thoughts and prompts as genuine reader responses. Drafting process of each subject deserved serious peer feed backs so as to get betterment in the next writing step. Yet, the first four assessment results were expected to indicate no similar variances and similarly those after the treatment. As the effects of RRJ has suggested, it was expected that there was significant difference in the quality of reader response to short stories between before and after the treatment. In addition, qualitative evidences embedded in the treatment triangulated the quantitative findings. The four selected short stories assigned before the treatment were The *Necklace* (Guy de Maupassant), *The Chaser* (John Collier), *The Story of an Hour* (Kate Chopin), and *Misery* (Anton Chekhov), and another four ones after the treatment included *The Tell-Tale* Heart (Edgar Allan Poe), *The Spirit of Giving* (Maxine Chernoff), *The Man Who did not Smile* (Kate Chopin), and *The Unicorn in the Garden* (James Thurber).

E. Data Analysis

Several different types of data were analyzed in its own ways. Applying SPSS (Larson-Hall, 2010), quantitative data analyses included the use of *ANOVA* and *Paired t-Test*. *ANOVA* was aimed to see "whether groups defined by independent variables performed differently on the dependent measure" (Larson-Hall, 2010, p. 298), while *Paired t-Test* was intended to see "whether scores of groups wherethe same people were tested twice are statistically different from one another" (Larson-Hall, 2010, p.397). Qualitative data analyses led to the occupied steps of how to deal with reduction, categorization, and coding, and constructing the patterned themes (see Miles and Huberman, 1994; Strauss and Corbin, 1990) corresponding to reader response principles.

V. Findings and Discussion

A. Findings

1. Quantitative Evidences

The study showed that RRJ gave effects to the pre-service EFL trainees' quality in writing reader responses to literary works, short stories, assigned. Quantitatively, the subjects' critical thinking improved as the statistic evidences indicated differences between before and after the treatment. Similar evidences of academic essays suggested the same findings. Analysis of reading test results using *ANOVA* revealed that, as time series design suggests, there were equal variances of improvements before and after the treatment. The statistical evidence indicated no differences among the four time assessments before (Sig 0.074, $p > 0.05$) and for those after the treatment (Sig 0.067, $p > 0.05$). The *Paired t-Test* calculation then showed significant differences between scores gained in reading test before and after the treatment (Sig (2-tailed) 0.000, $p < 0.05$)). Statistical analysis of academic essay scores similarly indicated equal variances before treatment (Asymp. sig 0.567, $p > 0.05$), and the same finding after the treatment (Sig 0.613, $p > 0.05$). More importantly, the *Paired t-Test* indicated that there was a significant difference in academic essay improvements before and after the treatment (Asymp. sig (2-tailed) 0.000, $p < 0.05$). Additionally, the meaningful effects of RRJ on the quality of reader response were also seen in the administered questionnaires to show the subjects' positive perceptions about the use of RRJ (Sig (2-tailed) 0.000, $p < 0.05$)), which is based on RRT.

2. Qualitative Emergence

Qualitatively, the videotaped subjects' active participation in RRJ projects in literature class indicated their deep engagements in the stories, which reflected their critical and personal accounts in RRJ. Their enjoyment in aesthetic reading-writing events was also driven by their engagement in the story. Thus, group classroom discussions, laughs,

spontaneous comments, critical views, and humorous senses typically characterized the reader response-based classroom practices. Very often, each member of the class got involved in serious debate and even showed their anger, bad mood, and other personal emotions.

Varied reader responses strategies employed after the treatment by the subjects also embraced the more reflective strategies as suggested by Beach and Marshall (1991). In a sense, the subjects' response strategies dominantly embraced such high order thinking skills as *engaging* (as indicated by the use certain verbs such as feel, imagine, etc), *judging* (related the ways of evaluating the quality of the stories), *conceiving* (using their own words) the messages of the story, *connecting/associating* with their own life experiences, and *interpreting* the texts. The subjects' way of using first singular person was also more evident after the treatment. Overall, being treated by RRJ, the subjects positively perceive that RRJ offered multilayered benefits in terms of academic, linguistic, psychological, and pedagogical significances.

The subjects' improvements in writing journals were seen in terms its schematic structure of journal. Moving from very spontaneous steps to modelled and guided patterns, the subjects tried to carefully re-arrange their ideas, thoughts, and feelings. Yet, the well-designing criteria of concerning high level cohesiveness were not the ultimate goal. The study virtually focuses on how the use of RRJ gave effects on the quality of personal and critical reflecting modes.

B. Discussion

The quantitative evidences indicated constant effects of instructional intervention before using RRJ. Text-based and information-oriented New Critics' teaching strategies shaped the passive stances of reading among the subjects. Consequently, as seen in reading tests, as to examine critical reflections, the subjects' answers to the comprehensive questions were limited with the information or ideas encountered only from the texts (see Rosenblatt, 1991). After the treatment, their constant betterment in reading was evident. It means that RRJ offered chances to the subjects to critically develop and explore their answers.

The subjects' improvements in academic essays after being treated by RRJ also indicated constant betterment after the treatment. Before the treatment, the subjects seemed to have no reader-response-based models of developing writing. Consequently, they tended to use their limited rooms and lack their own authorship driven by their own original thoughts and affective experiences (see Spiegel, 1998). Within the treatment, then, the subjects deserved an 'apprenticeship' of the 'more competent' care giver (the teacher as the researcher) in trying to express their feelings and critical comments while and after enjoying the stories. Peer-feed backing to each draft of journal produced in writing process shaped the improvement process.

The subjects' positive perception of RRJ also corroborates the similar tendencies of the previous studies claiming that the use of RRJ is meaningful for EFL pre-service trainees in the research site context (see Zainal et al., 2010; Sanchez, 2009). The emerging findings as embedded in the instructional intervention also virtually corresponded to the subjects' active engagement in reading-writing process facilitated by collaborative meaning making (see also Musthafa, 1994). To sum up, the present study findings, to some extent, relatively support relevant theories and findings across levels of education and educational settings and contexts. For some reasons, the present study, yet, have limitations in terms of diversity of the subjects' cultural and linguistic backgrounds, time frame of giving the treatments, and gender issues.

VI. CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

A. Conclusion

The present study has revealed the evident effects of RRJ underpinned by Rosenblatt's RRT on journaling process. This theory-into-practice driving force can strengthen and enlighten the assurance of the successful classroom practice of literature in pre-service EFL teacher training, which offers pedagogical implications. RRJ thus can give effects to the quality of readers' responses to literary works. Yet, it is admitted that RRJ is practical in some cases. It is feasible only if the supporting conditions and teachers' role significantly can cater for the subjects' needs. In addition, teacher understanding about teaching pedagogy and awareness of teaching innovation and reform, very much influence the classroom practice.

B. Recommendation

The present study is concerned with endeavours to make sure that the use of RRJ offers theoretical and practical insights. Owing to its limitations, the study suggests that further study focus on the gender influence on the quality of RRJ across different socio-cultural contexts.

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English Speakers' Comprehension of Embedded Relative Clauses in L2 Japanese

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Abstract—This study investigated native English speakers' comprehension of Japanese sentences in which relative clauses are embedded. Specifically, this study contrasted between (a) short-before-long sentences with center-embedded relative clauses and (b) long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses. Sentence-type (a) indicates a sentence that includes a short phrase before a long phrase and includes a relative clause that is embedded in the middle of the sentence, e.g., Onna-ga Ken-ga kiratteiru giin-o hometa 'The woman praised the senator who Ken hated'. Sentence-type (b) indicates a sentence with a long phrase before a short phrase and includes a relative clause that is embedded peripherally, e.g., Ken-ga kiratteiru onna-ga giin-o hometa 'The woman who Ken hated praised the senator'. Experiment 1 revealed that native English speakers, who are learners of Japanese, comprehended the type (b) sentences with long-before-short phrases and with non-center-embedded relative clauses more accurately than the type (a) sentences with short-before-long phrases with center-embedded relative clauses. The results indicate that the preference for the non-center-embedded clauses to center-embedded clauses is universal across languages, while the preference for short-before-long phrases is language-specific. However, Experiment 2 indicated that the different accuracy rates in comprehensions of (a) and (b) disappeared when the matrix subjects are marked by the topic-morpheme wa. The outcome indicated that the topic phrases are immediately interpreted as a part of main clauses.

Index Terms—embedded clause, 'short before long', topic, Japanese

I. INTRODUCTION

This study investigated native English speakers' comprehension of Japanese sentences that include embedded relative clauses. Specifically, the present study focused on the position of embedded relative clauses, namely center-embedded relative clauses and non-center-embedded relative clauses. In general, sentences whose argument noun phrases (NPs) are separated by center-embedded constituents are processed slower than sentences whose arguments are close to each other (McElree, Foraker & Dryer, 2003). This is because, according to working-memory-based accounts (Gibson, 2000), processing of sentences with separated arguments requires readers to store the earlier argument and retrieve it after processing the embedded constituents, which is costly for working memory. On the other hand, this store-retrieval task is not required for processing sentences with arguments that are not separated. Compare the sentences below that include embedded relative clauses.

(1) a. Center-embedded clause: The woman [who Ken hated] praised the senator.
  b. Non-center-embedded clause: The woman praised the senator [who Ken hated].

In (1a), the matrix sentence 'The woman praised the senator' is separated by the center-embedded relative clause 'who Ken hated'. When processing this sentence, readers process the matrix subject 'The woman' and proceed to the following relative clause. During the processing of the relative clause, readers store the matrix subject in their working memory. When they encounter the matrix predicate 'praised the senator', they attach it to the stored matrix subject 'The woman' to construct the matrix sentence structure. In short, readers are tasked to store and retrieve the earlier argument when processing this type of sentence that includes center-embedded relative clauses. On the other hand, when processing (1b), the store-retrieval task is not necessary because readers process the whole matrix sentence first, and then they process the non-center embedded relative clause. Thus, sentences with non-center-embedded clauses such as (1b), which requires the store-retrieval task, is processed faster, and possibly comprehended more accurately, than sentences with center-embedded clauses such as (1a), which does not require the task. This article calls this the 'non-center over center' preference.

It is also widely known that English speakers prefer processing short phrases before long phrases (Hawkins, 1994; Arnold, Wasow, Losongco & Grinstrom, 2000). Compare the example sentences shown below.

(2) a. Bill sang [a song] [with friends].
  b. # Bill sang [with friends] [a song].
  c. # Bill sang [a song that was written by a famous guitar player from Texas] [with friends].
  d. Bill sang [with friends] [a song that was written by a famous guitar player from Texas].
  (Yamashita & Chang, 2001, p. 46, with modification)

Compared with (2a), the sentence (2b), which includes the prepositional phrase 'with friends' before the grammatical object 'a song', sounds problematic to native English speakers. However, this order of a prepositional phrase before a

grammatical object is preferred to the other order when a short prepositional phrase precedes a long direct object phrase, as shown in (2c) and (2d). This article calls this preference the 'short before long' preference, following Yamashita and Chang (2001).

This 'short before long' preference is compatible with the 'non-center over center' preference in English. Compare the below sentences.

(3) a. Center-embedded clause: [The woman who Ken hated] praised [the senator]. (=1a)
   b. Non-center-embedded clause: [The woman] praised [the senator who Ken hated]. (=1b)

In the sentence (3a), the long subject NP precedes the short object NP: '[The woman who Ken hated] praised [the senator]', whereas the sentence (3b) includes the short subject NP before the long object NP: '[The woman] praised [the senator who Ken hated]'. Thus, both accounts, the 'non-center over center' preference and the 'short before long' preference, predict the preference for (1b, 3b) to (1a, 3a).

However, unlike head-initial languages including English, head-final languages such as Japanese exhibit a discrepancy between the 'non-center over center' preference and the 'short before long' preference. This is because a head-final language such as Japanese places a relative clause before the head noun, while a head-initial language such as English places a relative clause after the head noun. Thus, a center-embedded relative clause in English becomes non-center-embedded in Japanese, and vice versa. The equivalent Japanese sentences to (1a, 3a) and (1b, 3b) are shown below.

(4) a. Non-center-embedded clause
        健が   嫌っている   女が   議員を   褒めた。
        [[Ken-ga   kiratteiru]   onna-ga]   giin-o   hometa.
        Ken-NOM   hate   woman-NOM   senator-ACC   praised
        '[The woman [who Ken hated]] praised [the senator].' (=1a, 3a)
   b. Center-embedded clause
        女が   健が   嫌っている   議員を   褒めた。
        Onna-ga   [[Ken-ga   kiratteiru]   giin-o]   hometa.
        woman-NOM   Ken-NOM   hate   senator-ACC   praised
        '[The woman] praised [the senator [who Ken hated]].' (=1b, 3b)

The sentences in (4a) and (4b) include non-center-embedded and center-embedded relative clauses (Ken-ga kiratteiru 'who Ken hated'), respectively. Therefore, according to the 'non-center over center' preference, (4a) should be preferred to (4b). However, (4a) includes a long subject NP (Ken-ga kiratteiru onna 'The woman who Ken hated') before a short object NP (giin 'the senator'), while (4b) includes a short subject NP (onna 'The woman') before a long object NP (Ken-ga kiratteiru giin 'the senator who Ken hated'). According to the 'short before long' preference, (4b) should be preferred to (4a).

Yamashita and Chang (2001) found that native Japanese speakers exhibit the 'long before short' preference as opposed to English speakers. This 'long before short' preference is compatible with the 'non-center over center' preference in Japanese. Both preferences predict that native Japanese speakers prefer (4a) to (4b) because (4a) includes non-center-embedded clause and a long subject NP before a short object NP. However, one question is whether native English speakers, who exhibit the 'short before long' preference in their native language, would still prefer (4a) to (4b) in Japanese sentence when it is their second language (L2). As mentioned, the 'non-center over center' preference predicts English speakers' preference for (4a) to (4b), but if their 'short before long' preference in English is still active when processing L2 Japanese sentences, then English speakers might prefer (4b) to (4a). Thus, the research question of this study is to determine whether native English-speaking learners of Japanese are affected more strongly by the 'non-center over center' preference than by the 'short before long' preference, or vice versa, when comprehending sentences with relative clauses in L2 Japanese. The present study reports experiments that examined this issue.

II. EXPERIMENT 1

A. Participants

15 native English speakers who were learners of L2 Japanese participated in Experiment 1. They were undergraduate students in the U.S., who completed at least four semesters of Japanese classes. Also, 12 native Japanese speakers participated in the experiment as the control group.

B. Items and Method

The experimental items were long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses and short-before-long sentences with center-embedded relative clauses in Japanese, similar to (4a) and (4b), respectively. For native English-speaking learners of L2 Japanese, a simple translation task was assigned, i.e., they were tasked to translate five sentences like (4a) and the other five sentences like (4b). These items were typed in Japanese characters on a sheet and given to the participants. Ten distractor sentences were also included in the same testing sheet to disguise the purpose of this experiment. The order of the experimental and distractor sentences listed in the testing sheet was randomized by the investigator. To ensure that participants understood all Japanese words in the given sentences, a vocabulary list with English translations was also provided to each participant. A single testing session lasted

approximately 15 minutes.

For the native Japanese-speaking control group, the investigator used a different testing method than that of the native English-speaking learners because the translation task would be too easy for native Japanese speakers. Instead of translations, for native speakers, a self-paced reading task was assigned, using E-Prime. They read test sentences word-by-word in the moving window paradigm. Ten long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded clauses (e.g., 4a) and ten short-before-long sentences with center-embedded clauses (e.g., 4b) were presented, and they were mixed among 60 distractor sentences. The order of the items presented to the participants was randomized by E-Prime. After native Japanese-speaking participants read each test sentence, they answered a comprehension question for that sentence that they just read. For instance, after they read a sentence like (4a) 'The woman who Ken hated praised the senator', the comprehension question asked, 'Which is true? 1. The woman praised the senator; 2. Ken praised the senator'. Participants hit the number key 1 or 2 to answer the questions. A single testing session lasted approximately 15 minutes.

The accuracy in the translations for native English speakers and the accuracy in the comprehension questions for native Japanese speakers were the indication of the participants' preferences for either sentence types. For example, if they accurately translated/answered the questions for long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded clauses more frequently than for short-before-long sentences with center-embedded clauses, the outcome would indicate that the 'non-center over center' preference would be more influential than the 'short before long' preference. If their accuracy rates appear in the other way, it would indicate that the 'short before long' preference is more influential than the 'non-center over center' preference.

C. Results

The results of native English and Japanese speakers' comprehension accuracy rates for given relative clause sentences are shown below.

TABLE 1
COMPREHENSION ACCURACY OF NATIVE ENGLISH AND JAPANESE SPEAKERS

Items	Accuracy (%)	
	Japanese Speakers	English Speakers
Long before short, Non-center-embedded	89.23 (SD = .31119; SE = .02729)	89.33 (SD = .31077; SE = .03588)
Short before long, Center-embedded	83.08 (SD = .37641; SE = .03301)	56.00 (SD = .49973; SE = .05770)

Regarding native Japanese-speaking control group, as predicted, the results showed numerically higher accuracy rate for long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded clauses than for short-before-long sentences with center-embedded clauses. However, one-way ANOVA analysis did not elicit a statistically significant difference in the accuracy rates between the conditions [F = 2.064, p = .152]. This result might indicate that the given experimental sentences could have been too short or too easy to elicit the effects from the 'long-before-short' preference and the 'non-center over center' preference.

In contrast, native English speakers' results showed a significant difference between the conditions. They comprehended long-before-short sentences with non-center-embedded clauses significantly more accurately than short-before-long sentences with center-embedded clauses [F = 24.063, p < .001]. This outcome indicates that, in native English speakers' comprehension, the 'non-center over center' preference is significantly more influential than the 'short before long' preference.

III. DISCUSSION

The results clearly showed that native English-speaking learners of Japanese are strongly affected by the positions of embedded clauses. The accurate comprehension was significantly lower for sentences whose subject NP and object NP are intervened by center-embedded relative clauses compared with sentences whose subject NP and object NP are close to each other, without the intervention by embedded clauses. The 'short-before-long' preference did not appear in the results, which may indicate that the 'short-before-long' preference is confined in comprehending their native language, English (and possibly other head-initial languages), whereas the 'non-center over center' preference is a more universal phenomenon across different languages. This account can be examined by a similar experiment with native Japanese speakers using English sentences such as (1a, 3a) and (1b, 3b), which are a long-before-short sentence with a center-embedded clause and a short-before-long sentence with a non-center-embedded clause, respectively. As mentioned, native Japanese speakers hold the 'long-before-short' preference. If they accurately comprehend (1b, 3b) more frequently than (1a, 3a), the outcome indicates that the 'non-center over center' preference is more influential than the 'long before short' preference. Accordingly, the results support the account that the 'non-center over center' preference is universal across the speakers of different languages, while the 'long before short' preference is language-specific.

One thing that should be noted about Experiment 1 is that the experimental items in the center-embedded condition included two nominative morphemes, ga, consecutively, e.g., (4b) Onna-GA Ken-GA kiratteiru giin-o hometa 'The woman praised the senator who Ken hated'. A number of studies indicate that sentences with two consecutive ga are

known to be difficult to process and comprehend (Uehara, 1997; Sawasaki, 2009; Shoji, 2014). The argument based on the similarity-based interference may account for the difficulty of processing and comprehending the two consecutive NP-ga. In general, a similarity of two constituents makes it difficult for readers to distinguish the two constituents' roles (Lewis & Nakayama, 2002; Gordon, Hendrick, Johnson & Yoonhyoung, 2006). For example, when reading a sentence with a center-embedded relative clause such as (1a) 'The woman who Ken hated praised the senator', readers first find two NPs, 'The woman' and 'Ken', which play similar grammatical roles, i.e., matrix subject and subordinate subject. When the matrix verb 'praised' appears, readers must retrieve the correct subject NP for the matrix clause ('The woman'), which is interfered by the competing subject NP ('Ken'). Consecutive NP-ga in Japanese could be the same case. When readers find two subject NPs both marked by ga, it can be difficult to figure out which subject-ga is the matrix subject or the subordinate subject. However, Uehara's (1997) study found that replacement of ga for matrix subjects with the topic morpheme, wa, makes comprehension easier. Compare the following sentences.

(5) a. 佐藤さんが   高橋さんが   山田さんを   告訴した   と   言った。
      Sato-san-ga   [Takahashi-san-ga   Yamane-san-o   kokuso-shita]   to   itta.
      Mr. Sato-NOM   Mr. Takahashi-NOM   Mr. Yamane-ACC   sued   COMP   said
      'Mr. Sato said that Mr. Takahashi sued Mr. Yamane.'

    b. 佐藤さんは   高橋さんが   山田さんを   告訴した   と   言った。
      Sato-san-wa   [Takahashi-san-ga   Yamane-san-o   kokuso-shita]   to   itta.
      Mr. Sato-TOP   Mr. Takahashi-NOM   Mr. Yamane-ACC   sued   COMP   said
      'Mr. Sato said that Mr. Takahashi sued Mr. Yamane.'
      (Sawasaki, 2009, p. 7, with modification)

The meanings of above two sentences are the same, and both include a center-embedded that-clause in the same position. The only difference is that the matrix subject ('Mr. Sato') is appended with ga in (5a) and wa in (5b). Uehara's study was questionnaire-based, which asked native Japanese speakers to judge the difficulty-levels of given sentences such as (5a) and (5b), on a 6-point scale. The Japanese-speaking participants' responses indicated that sentences such as (5b) with the matrix subject-wa was easier to comprehend than (5a) with the matrix subject-ga. The relative easiness of (5b) compared with (5a) can be attributed to the different usages between wa and ga. That is, a topic NP with wa typically appears in matrix clauses, but is not allowed to appear in certain subordinate clauses, including relative clauses (Heycock, 2008). When readers encountered an NP-wa and an NP-ga consecutively, they might immediately interpret the NP-wa as a constituent of a matrix clause and the following NP-ga as a subordinate subject. Therefore, when readers retrieve the matrix subject, they choose the NP-wa with little interference from the NP-ga. This account could be applicable to native English-speaking learners of Japanese as Shoji's (2017) sentence-completion experiment found that native English-speaking Japanese learners realize that NP-wa should be a part of matrix clauses. Here, the investigator conducted Experiment 2 to examine the second research question: whether the comprehension difficulty for native English speakers on L2 Japanese sentences with center-embedded relative clauses would be decreased by marking the matrix subject with wa, not ga.

IV.   EXPERIMENT 2

A.   Participants

14 native English-speaking Japanese learners and 12 native Japanese speakers participated in Experiment 2. None of them participated in Experiment 1. Similar to Experiment 1, the participating English speakers were those who completed at least four semesters of Japanese classes in an undergraduate program at a U.S. college.

B.   Items and Method

The experimental items and methods were similar to Experiment 1. Native English speakers were tasked to translate test sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses and those with center-embedded relative clauses. Native Japanese speakers read test sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses and those with center-embedded relative clauses in a self-paced reading fashion, and they answered comprehension questions about the sentences that they read. The difference from Experiment 1 was that the matrix subjects in the given items were marked by the topic-morpheme wa, whereas the subordinate subjects were marked by the nominative morpheme ga. Example items are shown below.

(6) a. Non-center-embedded clause
       健が   嫌っている   女は   議員を   褒めた。
       [Ken-ga   kiratteiru]   onna-WA   giin-o   hometa.
       Ken-NOM   hate   woman-TOP   senator-ACC   praised
       'The woman [who Ken hated] praised the senator.'

    b. Center-embedded clause
       女は   健が   嫌っている   議員を   褒めた。
       Onna-WA   [Ken-ga   kiratteiru] giin-o   hometa.
       woman-TOP   Ken-NOM   hate   senator-ACC   praised

The woman praised the senator [who Ken hated].

All other aspects of items and methods were the same as in Experiments 1

C. Results

The results of native English speakers' and native Japanese speakers' comprehension accuracy rates are summarized below.

TABLE 2
COMPREHENSION ACCURACY OF NATIVE ENGLISH AND JAPANESE SPEAKERS

Items	Accuracy (%)	
	Japanese Speakers	English Speakers
Non-center-embedded	92.31 (SD = .26750; SE = .02346)	91.67 (SD = .27872; SE = .03598)
Center-embedded	87.18 (SD = .33576; SE = .03104)	85.56 (SD = .35351; SE = .03726)

As for the results from the native Japanese control group, similar to Experiment 1, they did not show significant difference in accurate comprehension for the non-center-embedded and center-embedded conditions, although their accuracy rates were numerically higher for the non-center-embedded condition [F = 1.779, p = .184].

Regarding native English speakers, their accurate comprehension for sentences with center-embedded clauses increased compared with Experiment 1 (56% 85.56%), as predicted. Unlike Experiment 1, there was no significant difference in accuracy rates for sentences with non-center-embedded clauses and those with center-embedded clauses [F = 1.267, p = .262]. In other words, when matrix subjects are marked by wa (not ga), sentences with center-embedded clauses are comprehended indifferently from sentences with non-center-embedded clauses.

V. DISCUSSION

Experiment 2 elicited predicted results. When the matrix subjects were marked by wa, English speakers comprehended L2 Japanese sentences with center-embedded relative clauses as accurately as sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses. The results reflect that participants successfully interpreted the NP-wa as a part of matrix subject and the NP-ga as the subordinate subject. In other words, wa functioned to indicate the boundary between matrix and subordinate clauses. Therefore, the different accuracy rates in comprehension between non-center and center-embedded conditions, which was detected in Experiment 1, disappeared in Experiment 2.

Unlike Japanese, English does not overtly mark the topic with a morpheme. Thus, when two subject NPs are presented consecutively in a sentence such as 'The woman Ken hated praised the senator', readers might find a difficulty in figuring out which NP ('The woman' or 'Ken') is the matrix subject or the subordinate subject. However, relative pronouns and commas would be the clue for readers to find the boundary between matrix clauses and subordinate clauses. Compare the following sentences.

(7) a. The woman Ken hated praised the senator.

   b. The woman, who Ken hated, praised the senator.

The sentence (7b) is predicted to be comprehended easier than (7a) because the relative pronoun 'who' and the commas present the clear boundary between the matrix clause 'The woman praised the senator' and the subordinate clause 'who Ken hated'. The author predicts that, without relative pronouns and commas, English sentences with non-center-embedded relative clauses would be comprehended more accurately than sentences with center-embedded relative clauses (equivalently to Experiment 1 in this study), but the accuracy would be equalized between them with relative pronouns and commas (equivalently to Experiment 2 in this study). This can be tested in a future study.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study investigated native English speakers' comprehension of L2 Japanese sentences that include relative clauses. Experiment 1 showed that they prefer (i.e., more accurately comprehended) sentences with non-center embedded clauses to sentences with center-embedded clauses, whereas they did not show a preference for sentences with short phrases before long phrases. Experiment 2 showed that the comprehension difficulty for sentences with center-embedded clauses is decreased because of the function of the topic-morpheme wa.

As described, the present study suggests further related studies. One is the English version of Experiment 1, which examines the comprehension of English relative clause sentences by native Japanese speakers, who are L2 English learners (see Section III. Discussion). The other one examines the comprehension of English relative clause sentences with or without relative pronouns and commas (see Section V. Discussion), which could test both native English speakers and L2 English learners. These future studies together would ensure the results and analyses of the present study and contribute to more comprehensive understanding of the comprehension of sentences with relative clauses.

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Ideational Grammatical Metaphors in Doctrinal Verses of The Bible in Indonesian Version

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Abstract—**Grammatical Metaphor (GM) has become an interesting linguistic issue nowadays especially in the texts of science of technology. Even, the discussion of Grammatical Metaphors has touched other fields' texts; politics, economics, and even religion. The study aims at: 1) describing deployment of experiential GMs in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version, 2) describing deployment of logical GMs in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version. To reach up the objectives of the research, the writer employs a qualitative study with content analysis design. The source of data is 50 doctrinal verses Alkitab Terjemahan Baru 1974 in 2014 edition. The theory underlying this research is Systemic Functional Linguistics. To identify and categorize grammatical metaphors from the data source, the researcher employs the Stratal Model proposed by Halliday and Martin (2015), while the data were analyzed by Content Analysis with Conceptual design proposed by Carley and Dale (2012). The findings show that 1) 69 experiential GMs from 8 types are well deployed in doctrinal verses while 5 types are not identified in Indonesian language. 2) 51 logical GMs from 3 types are well deployed in biblical doctrinal verses in Indonesian language. Due to the high frequency of ideational GMs the texts have the features of objectivity, impersonality, technicality and practicality.**

Index Terms—**ideational GM, experiential GM, logical GM, doctrinal verses**

I. INTRODUCTION

People communicate messages or ideas through spoken or written language. Messages and ideas can be communicated metaphorically or incongruently. Metaphors affect listener and the readers' understanding in comprehending messages or ideas. By this, metaphorical expressions always result in the complexity of the information. Halliday & Matthiessen (2014) consider that people always use 2 types of expression in communicating their ideas; namely congruent or non-metaphorical expressions, or marked expressions. This expression is a natural expression or fair expression that people use to express ideas in their minds without using metaphors. The second is a metaphorical expression, an incongruent expression, or an unusual way used by people to express their thought; for example, to reveal a process or action, people usually use verbs, or verb phrases; to express nature or quality, people always use adjectives; the state is manifested by phrase or prepositional phrase, and so on. The meaning relation is termed as 'congruent' in the semantic category configuration that commonly occurs in spoken or spontaneous language. However, if we look more closely, all meanings can be realized in various forms and patterns especially found in written language; science and technology. In this case the realization of semantic function is not unusual, not typical or incongruent. This realization of meaning is called grammatical metaphors. According to Halliday and Martin (2015) and Halliday and Matthiessen (2014) grammatical metaphors are the process of coding to meanings in the grammatical level. Furthermore, Halliday and Martin (2015) made 2 classifications of grammatical metaphor; ideational grammatical metaphors and interpersonal grammatical metaphors. Ideational grammatical metaphors are metaphors used to express an idea or mind while interpersonal grammatical metaphors emphasize interpersonal relations. In this paper, the author discusses the distribution and characteristics of ideational grammatical metaphors in non-science texts that is a religious text, doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian. This paper will also prove whether grammatical metaphors are also found in non-scientific text, which have been less studied or investigated, especially in the Indonesian language.

Within linguistic field, grammatical metaphors have been interesting issues discussed by researchers nowadays particularly on texts relating to science and technology (Devrim, 2015). Previous grammatical metaphor studies showed description of GMs in the texts of science and technology. This paper explores deployment of ideational grammatical metaphors in religious texts; that is, doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version. The data corpus was selected

due to the grammatical complexity of the texts that readers commonly feel difficult to comprehend messages they contain. In addition, the implication of the study is hopefully beneficial for the identification and categorization of GMs in Indonesia language.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

In the literature review section, three topics are discussed; systemic functional linguistics, grammatical metaphors and doctrinal verses of the bible in Indonesian version.

A. Systemic Functional Linguistics

Systemic functional linguistics initiated and developed by Michael Halliday views language as a system of social semiotics (Halliday, 1994). The systemic functional linguistics views language as a network of systems, and uses a variety of choices to express a meaning. The word *'functional'* in this phrase means that every utterance must have a function to produce meaning (language metafunction) which reflects human experience in nature and their interpersonal relations. This systemic functional linguistics approach suggests that grammar should be regarded as a whole system but they are not rules indicating that any grammatical structure is a choice of various desirable options. Language is regarded as a means to generate meaning. Systemic functional linguistics followers typically used a network system to map out language options. In the English network system, Halliday (1994) mapped the system as mood, agency, theme and more. The grammatical system plays an important role in expressing meaning. This is what Halliday calls as the metaphysical language. Language is the expression of meaning in social life and has three semantic components namely the ideational component, which expresses the meaning as an experience, and the interpersonal component that unifies the relations of social relations, and unifies the two components (ideational and interpersonal) in the coherent text (textual function). For example, the grammatical *'mood'* system is always associated with interpersonal meaning, while process type is always associated with experiential functions, and themes are always associated with textual functions. Systemic functional linguistics usually analyzes language in 3 strata; semantic strata, phonology strata and lexicogrammar strata.

Ideational metafunction is a language function for expressing and describing human experience (Halliday, 1994). Through language, people can understand reality and entity. Ideational function is divided into 2 parts; experiential function and logical function. The experiential function expresses an experience as a reality in the form of grammatical units in the language. Meanwhile, logical function emphasizes the building of grammatical units into more complex units. This process is done by combining two clauses or more into one complex clause.

Ideational function describes typical of texts in a variety of areas including the social processes by which language is used (Halliday and Martin, 1993). If one analyzes the experimental process, change the process change, participants, circumstances, and grammatical structure changes when there is a grammatical change. Ideational function is used for expressing and describing human experiences. Through language, people can understand reality and entity. Ideational function is divided into 2 parts; experiential function and logical function. The experiential function expresses experience as a reality in the form of grammatical units in the language. Meanwhile, logical function emphasizes the building of grammatical units into more complex units. This process is performed by combining two clauses or more into one complex clause.

Interpersonal function is the meaning obtained from three interpersonal function components; speaker/writer, tenor, social distance and social status. For example, the way a person's name can indicate the closeness of the relationship between the speaker and the other person. Related social status, social distance can only be applied to analyze the variety of oral texts, although sometimes these two aspects are already implied in the written text. The speaker or writer relates to the personality, positioning and position of the speaker or author. Through interpersonal function we can attitude of the speaker or writer concerning positive and negative polarity. Social distance is related to the alignment of position between a speaker with another speaker; for example, in terms of communication relations between superiors and subordinates in the office. In this example, the boss tends to make more questions than to give an explanation.

Textual functions are related to modes; arrangement of the communication side of a text. This function discusses textual interactivity, spontaneous reaction and distance communications. This function also deals with linguistic components such as nervousness, pause in conversation and distance of communication. Spontaneity is determined through studies of lexical density, grammatical complexity and integration between clauses and the use of nominalization. Communicative distance is associated with the abstract language and the relationship between the components in the text (text cohesion).

B. Grammatical Metaphors

The word *metaphor* comes from Greek word 'meta' which means beyond and 'phora' which means 'to carry'. It is a kind of shift from one thing to another: one thing is carried out to a different thing. The literal one is moved into a figurative one. It is the concept of lexical metaphor.

In Systemic Functional linguistic view, semantic configuration can be realized into two forms; congruent and incongruent (Halliday, 1994). Congruent is a typical way of expressing something, while incongruent refers to non-

typical ways of expressing something or metaphoric expressions. The incongruent ways are realized or represented by grammatical metaphors in the form of lexicogrammatical configuration (Thompson, 1996).

The essence of grammatical metaphor was firstly introduced in Halliday's (1985) book entitled *Introduction to Functional Grammar*. Here, he defines grammatical metaphor as variations metaphorical modes of expressions. It is transference of grammatical functions or classes; and shifts in terms of clause ranks, and it is also some expression variations of meanings consisting of non-literal use of words. In particular, grammatical metaphor refers to the use of incongruent expressions to express meanings. Furthermore, Halliday and Martin (1993) categorized grammatical metaphors (GMs) into 2 types; ideational grammatical metaphors and interpersonal grammatical metaphors Ideational grammatical metaphors are divided into two types; experiential GMs and logical GMs. In the same case, interpersonal GMs consist of metaphors of mood and metaphors of modality.

In terms of ideational GMs, the topics the researchers are concerned are both experiential metaphors (metaphors of transitivity) and logical metaphors. The following examples illustrate the configurations of the two types of ideational GMs.

Example
1. John prepared the tickets before he departed for the airport.
2. John's preparation for the ticket preceded his departure to the airport.

Here, there is a grammatical movement/shift of the word 'prepared' and 'departed' (verb showing process) from the first and the second clause in sentence No. 1, to become 'preparation' and 'departure' (noun showing thing) in the sentence No. 2. This process is called nominalization in transitivity metaphor. The congruent way of expressing a process is by using verb; however, processes are coded by nouns (preparation and departure) in the second sentence. There are 12 other types of transitivity metaphors stated by Halliday and Martin (1993). In terms of logical metaphors, here the clauses *John prepared for the ticket* and *He departed for the airport* are down-graded rank shifted into nominal groups *John's preparation for the ticket* and his *departure for the airport*, and the conjunction before is verbalized using the word preceded in the second sentence. The category of logical metaphors includes the changing form from a clause to another clause, from a clause to a group or phrase and from a clause to word/morpheme. In terms of trans-categorization, there are also processes of nominalization and verbalization found correspondently. They are *nominal groups functioning as things* to become *adjective functioning as as possessive deitics*, nominal group *the tickets* functions as qualifiers and prepositional phrase for the airport functioning as location to become prepositional phrase for the airport functioning as qualifier. In this case, the realization of ideational grammatical metaphors is in the form of nominalization, verbalization and trans-categorization.

In terms of interpersonal GMs, Halliday and Martin (1993) divide metaphors into 2 types; metaphors of modality and metaphors of mood. Interpersonal function is realized in the two metaphors. There are four types of modality GMs (Halliday, 1994). They are *probability, usuality, obligation* and *inclination*. Each of the four GMs of modality is expressed in 4 domains of semantics; they are subjectivity, objectivity, implicitness and explicitness. Halliday (1994) argues, "The speakers' opinion regarding the probability that his observation is valid is coded not as the modal element within the clause which would be a congruent realization but as a separate, projecting clause in a hypotactical clause complex:"

Example:
2a. *Linda will pass the test.*
2.b. *I think Linda passes the test.*
3.a *Bill usually has breakfast in the morning.*
3.b. *It is usual for Bill to have breakfast in the morning.*
4.a. *Sean is supposed to come on time.*
4.b. *It is expected that Sean comes on time.*

We can identify the four types of modality metaphors; (probability, usuality and obligation) in the example sentences above. Modalities in sentence no. 2a,3b, and 4c are realized in the modal elements inside the clauses by using modals; will, usually, supposed to, whereas in the sentence 2.b, 3,b and 4b. Modalities are realized by projecting clauses (I think, It is usual, It is expected...) in hypotactic clause complex.

The second type of interpersonal GMs is GMs of Mood. Concerning this, Halliday (1994) states that there are only 2 speech roles in conversation or exchange; *giving* and *demanding*, while the commodity which are exchanged are goods, services and information. From the speech roles, a speaker may choose three different mood types; declarative, imperative and interrogative. Generally, GMs of mood occur if there is a correspondence between speech functions and mood types. Briefly, GMs of mood are shown below:

Example:
5.a. *If I were you, I would get the opportunity.*
5.b. *Get the opportunity*!

There is GM of mood in the above sentences. The speech function of command is coded as declarative sentence. This can be identified as a GM of mood which shows incongruence. The congruent realization of a command is in the sentence (5b).

C. Doctrinal Verses of the Bible

The objects of this study were 50 doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version. Doctrine is defined by Grudem (1993) as what Christians believe, the teaching of Christians' faith. The main cores of doctrine are: 1) Christians' ethics on how Christians live, 2) Apologetics that is concerned with why Christians should believe in God, 3). Sects and religions that discuss what Christians should not believe. This doctrine of Christian is studied in depth in dogmatic theology or systematic theology. The authors chose doctrinal verses as data sources of grammatical metaphors for their grammatical complexity on grammatical metaphors. In addition, researches on the deployment of grammatical metaphors in religious language have never been previously identified.

III. METHOD

A qualitative approach with conceptual content analysis design is used in this study. The study procedures cover: 1) The research follow conceptual content analysis procedures made by Carley and Dale (2012) in analyzing the data of grammatical metaphors:

1). Decide the level of analysis. Grammatical metaphor analysis of the study covers clauses, phrases (groups) and words (lexicogrammars),

2) Decide concepts to code for: The concepts are: experiential GM, logical GM, GM of Mood, GM of Modality, GM of Mental Processes, GM of Euphemism, GM of Epithet, GM of Exchange Structure.

3). Decide whether to code for existence or frequency of a concept: The research coded both existence and frequency of the concepts.

4) Decide on differences among concepts. This procedure described the differences among grammatical metaphors concepts in Indonesian language. 5) Develop rules for coding texts. This procedure set up rules for coding the ideational grammatical metaphors and interpersonal grammatical metaphors. 6. Draw conclusions. Find out patterns of GMs deployment in Indonesian language. The framework of this research is figured out below:
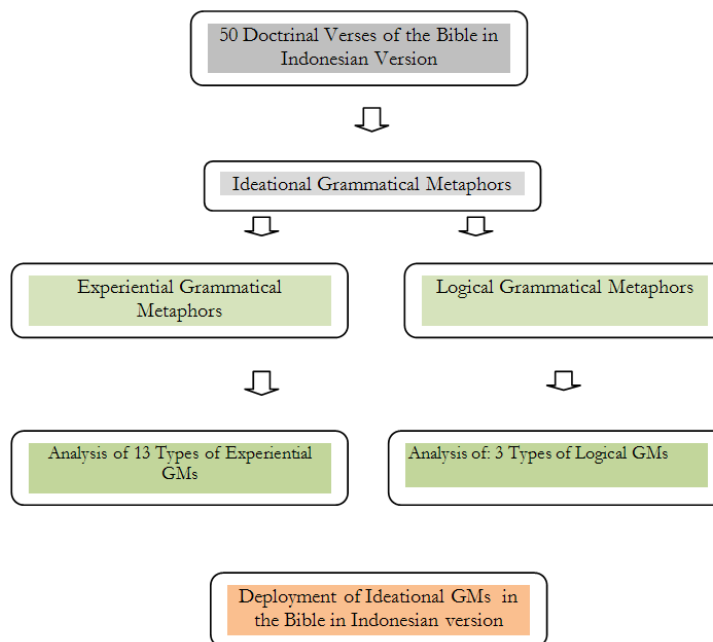

Figure. 1 Research Framework

IV. FINDINGS

The analysis on 50 doctrinal verses shows that 120 ideational grammatical metaphors are deployed from data corpus; 69 experiential GMs and 51 logical GMs, found as described in the foloowing table.

TABLE 1.
THE DEPLOYMENT OF EXPERIENTIAL GRAMMATICAL METAPHORS

NO	TYPE	GRAMMATICAL SHIFT	OCCURANCE	PERCENTAGE
1.	TYPE 1	QUALITY-THING	18	26%
2.	TYPE 2	PROCESS-THING	18	26%
3.	TYPE 3	CIRCUMSTANCE –THING	0	0%
4.	TYPE 4	RELATOR-THING	1	1%
5.	TYPE 5	PROCESS-QUALITY	0	0%
6.	TYPE 6	CIRCUMSTANCE-QUALITY	0	0%
7.	TYPE 7	RELATOR-THING	0	0%
8.	TYPE 8	CIRCUMSTANCES-PROCESS	3	4%
9.	TYPE 9	RELATOR-PROCESS	0	0%
10	TYPE 10	CONJUCTION-CIRCUMSTANCE	2	3%
11.	TYPE 11	MINOR PROCES-MINOR PROCESSES	4	6%
12.	TYPE 12	PROCESS-PROCESS	11	16%
13.	TYPE 13	THING-EXPANSION OF THING	12	18%
	TOTAL	EXPERIENTIAL GMs	69	100%

The table shows that there are 69 experiential GMs from 8 types found in the doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian. The deployment of experiential GMs is as the followings. GM type 1 (quality to thing: 18 occurrences: 26%) and type 2 (process to thing: 18 occurrences: 26%), type 4 (relator to thing) 1 occurrence, type 8 (circumstance to process) 3 occurrences or 4%, type 10 (conjunctions to circumstances) 2 occurrences: 3%, type 11 (minor processes to minor processes) 4 occurrences: 6%, type 12 (processes to another process) 11 occurrences': 16%, and type 13 (thing to thing expansion) in 12 occurrences': 18%).

To further clarify the deployment of interpersonal GMs in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian, we can see as presented in the following graph:
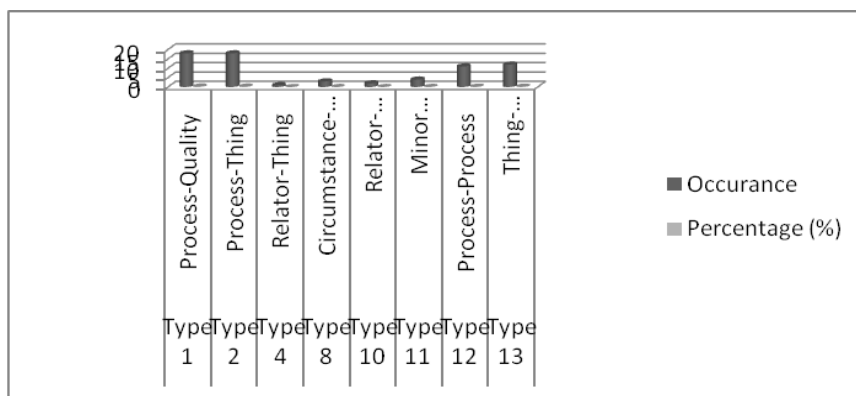
Graph 1. Deployment of Experiential GMs

The data samples on experiential GMs data are presented in the followings:

Data Sample 1. Mazmur 16:10

Context: The Word of God to the Prophet Samuel, when God chose David to be King of Israel, God's judgment on Man.

...*sebab Engkau tidak menyerahkan aku ke dunia orang mati dan tidak membiarkan Orang Kudus-Mu melihat kebinasaan.*

Congruent: ...*sebab Engkau tidak menyerahkan aku ke dunia orang mati dan tidak membiarkan Orang Kudus-Mu melihat orang-orang binasa.*

In this verse, there is a grammatical shift from adjective 'binasa' to become noun '*kebinasaan'*, epithet/attribute /quality to thing.

Data Sample 2. Yohanes 1:16

Context: John's testimony of God's goodness and mercy

Karena dari kelimpahan –Nya, kita semua telah menerima kasih karunia demi kasih karunia;

Congruent: *Karena kasih karunia-Nya melimpah, kita telah menerima kasih karunia yang terus menerus.*

In terms of logical GMs, I found 51 metaphors found from the data corpus as shown in the following table.

TABLE 2.
DEPLOYMENT OF LOGICAL GMs

No	Type	Grammatical Shift	Occurance	Percentage
1.	Type 1	Clause-Clause	21	42%
2.	Type 2	Clause-Group/Phrase	27	52%
3.	Type 3	Clause-Word	3	6%
	Total	Logical Grammatical Metaphor	51	100%

There are 51 logical grammatical metaphors found 50 doctrinal verses of the bible in Indonesian version as shown in the data analysis. The deployment of logical GMs is divided in 3 types. Type 1 is the downgraded rank shift from a clause to another clause reaching up to 21 occurrences (42%). Type 2 deals with the downgraded rank shift from clauses to phrases/groups amounted to 27 occurrences (52%). Type 3 is the grammatical downgraded movement from clauses to words/morphemes that reaches up to 3 occurrences (6%).

The figure below shows deployment of logical metaphors found in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version.
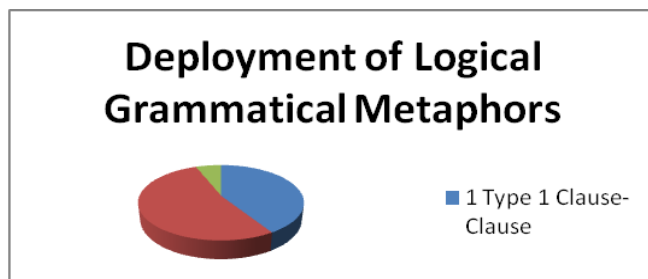

Figure 2. Deployment of Logical Grammatical Metaphors

The samples of data are displayed as the followings:

Data sample 3. Galatia 6:10

Context: The apostle Paul's teaching that the Christians must help each other.

Karena itu, selama masih ada kesempatan bagi kita, marilah kita berbuat baik kepada semua orang, tetapi terutama kepada kawan-kawan kita seiman.

Congruent: *..selagi kita masih diberi kesempatan...*

The metaphorical form *selama masih ada kesempatan bagi kita*, is derived from the congruent expression/clause *selagi kita masih diberi kesempatan*. In this case, both clauses have a different configuration in terms of transitivity. The metaphorical clause uses existential process whereas the congruent one uses material process.

Data sample 4. Yesaya 48:18

Context: This verse states that Judah are people who claim to follow God and call upon His name, but actually reject the truths of His word

..Sekiranya engkau memperhatikan perintah-perintah-Ku, maka damai sejahteramu akan seperti sungai yang tidak pernah kering, dan kebahagiaanmu akan terus berlimpah seperti gelombang-gelombang laut yang tidak pernah berhenti.

The verse above has only one sentence consisting of 6 clauses. We can find two grammatical metaphors in the verse; firstly, ..(M) *.damai sejahteramu akan seperti sungai yang tidak yang tidak pernah kering* from the congruent one ...*engkau akan mendapatkan damai sejahtera seperti sungai yang tidak akan pernah kering*. Secondly, the metaphorical form, "*... kebahagiaanmu akan terus berlimpah seperti gelombang-gelombang laut yang tidak pernah berhenti*" is derived from the congruent one "*Engkau akan memdapatkan kebahagiaan yang terus berlimpah seperti gelombang-gelombang laut yang tidak pernah berhenti*". In these 2 cases, there is a downgraded shift from a clause into phrase/group.

Data Sample 4. Imamat 19:18

Context: This commandment of God governs the treatment and attitudes of Christians towards others.

Janganlah engkau menuntut balas, dan janganlah menaruh dendam terhadap orang-orang sebangsamu, melainkan kasihilah sesamamu manusia seperti dirimu sendiri; Akulah TUHAN.

Congruent: *..kasihilah sesamamu manusia seperti engkau mengasihi dirimu sendiri.*

The metaphorical expression in the form of group/phrase '*seperti dirimu sendiri*' in the verse is derived from the congruent expression in the form of clause '*seperti engkau mengasihi dirimu sendiri*'. In orther words, the shift occurs from the congruent one into metaphorical one, that is categorized into *Logical Metaphor* type 2, that is, the downgrade shift from a clause to become a group or phrase.

From the description, it is found that:

1. Ideational Grammatical metaphors are well deployed in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version that is clearly viewed from their high occurrences in the verses. The lexicogrammatical realizations of doctrinal verses typically have dominant use of relational process, low grammatical intricacy, high lexical density and logical relations are buried as metaphorical representations.

2. Not all experiential grammatical metaphors in systemic functional linguistic theory are found in Indonesian. There are only 8 types of experiential grammatical metaphor found whereas 5 types of grammatical metaphors mentioned in the theory are not found in Indonesian language.

3. Indonesian language has 4 additional types of experiential grammatical metaphors besides the 8 types. They are 1) grammatical shift from Thing to Quality, or Noun to Adjective, i.e *badan-badani* 2) grammatical shift from Quality into Process or adjective into verb, i.e *dendam-menaruh dendam*, 3) grammatical shift from Process into Quality i.e, *penuh-dipenuhi,* and 4) grammatical shift from thing into verb i.e, *beban-membebani.*

4. Due to their high frequency and occurrences of ideational grammatical metaphors, the doctrinal verses as religious texts also have features of scientific texts due to their features of objectivity, impersonality, technicality and practicality.

V. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study explores deployment of ideational GMs in doctrinal verses of the Bible in Indonesian version. In terms of experiential GMs, the study reveals that there are only 8 types of grammatical shift found in Indonesian language out of 13 types found in English language (Halliday and Mathiennsen, 2014), while 5 types are not identified. The most frequently occur are type 1, type 2 and type 13; however, this study finds that there are 4 types of experiential GMs identified in Indonesian language which are not found in English; that is grammatical shift from thing to quality, quality to process, process to quality, and thing to to process. It is along with Halliday's argument stating that every language has its own grammatical metaphor features that is termed as domesticated grammatical metaphors. In terms of logical GMs, the study reveals that there are 51 logical GMs found in the data corpus, and logical GMs type 2 that is grammatical shift from clause to phrase occurs dominantly. This study also denies the notion that grammatical metaphors are only found in texts related to science and technology. This is evidenced by the deployment of grammatical metaphors in biblical doctrinal verses which belongs to religious texts.

Other researchers interested in researching grammatical metaphors are suggested to compare the theories and applications of grammatical metaphors. Every language must have special patterns and features of grammatical metaphors although there are some similar patterns following Halliday's model of grammatical metaphor theory. Other researchers especially exploring grammatical metaphors in Indonesia should consider theoretical orientation and application orientation, as well as the selection of analysis models of grammatical metaphors that match the language under study: stratal model, semantic model and integrated model.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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A Study on C-E Translation of 2017 Report on the Work of the Government under the Theory of Manipulation

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Abstract—The Manipulation School holds that translation is a rewriting of the original text and it shifts translation study from language level to a broader cultural and political level. Among hyper-textual manipulating parameters operating in literary translation, the most essential three are ideology, poetics and patron. This paper shall analyze the translation of 2017 Report on the Work of the Government under the manipulation of the ideology, poetics and patron, which aims to further prove the adaptability of manipulation theory in non-literary translation practice and provide a perspective for studying Report on the Work of the Government and inspire discussions of other hyper-textual parameters in the study of the Work of the Government.

Index Terms—the theory of manipulation, manipulating parameters, 2017 Report on the Work of the Government

I. INTRODUCTION

The release of China's annual national Report on the Work of the Government (RWG for short) attracts readers in and out of China with the opening of two conferences. As an authoritative government document, RWG presents major policies in various walks of life and draws up a blueprint for future development. The translation of RWG is researched from different perspectives but very few from the theory of manipulation. This paper starts with brief introductions to the manipulation theory and 2017 RWG and translation of 2017 RWG from three manipulating parameter, the ideology, patron and poetics, is then expounded. Translation suggestions are provided in the last part. This paper discusses examples of excellent translations for reference and also some translation mistakes for revision.

II. THEORY OF MANIPULATION

"Manipulation School" derives its name from the anthology called *The Manipulation of Literature: Studies of literary translation*. In the 1980s, Hermans (1985) pointed out that "from the point of view of the target literature, all translation implies a degree of manipulation of the source text for a certain purpose." (p. 10) Lefevere (2004), one of the founding members of the manipulation school, opines that "translation is, of course, a rewriting of an original text. Rewriting is manipulation." (editor's preface) With the extension of translation research, the manipulation theory takes various hyper-textual factors into account. Lefevere (2004) holds that the translation activity does not occur in a 'vacuum', but it is manipulated by various ideological and cultural constraints. Lefevere concludes seven controlling factors operating in the literary system among which the most essential three are ideology, poetics and patron.

Manipulation theory has broaden the scope of translation studies as it shifts the translation study from language level to cultural and political level, and from the original text and author to the translated text and translator. As the theory of manipulation develops, it is applied in non-literary translation study.

III. 2017 REPORT ON THE WORK OF THE GOVERNMENT

Every year, the publication of national RWG draws high attention with the opening of two essential conferences, the National People's Congress (NPC) and the Chinese People's Political Consultative Conference (CPPCC). The 2017 RWG is delivered at the Fifth Session of the Twelfth National People's Congress of the People's Republic of China on March 5, 2017. The 2017 RWG is composed of a review of China's government work in 2016 and a blueprint and major tasks of the government in 2017. This report touches upon various walks of life, from the economic situation, people's wellbeing, environment protection, government construction, diplomatic relations to government policies and so on.

IV. TRANSLATION OF 2017 RWG UNDER THE THEORY OF MANIPULATION

Among manipulating parameters such as ideology, patron, poetics, categories and universe of discourse and so on, ideology, patron and poetics are the most essential three. In this part, the translation of 2017 RWG shall be analyzed under these three parameters. All examples in this paper are extracted from 2017 RWG released by Xinhua News Agency.

A. The Manipulation of Ideology

Ideology refers to the "grillwork of form, convention and belief which orders our actions." Later the meaning of ideology is extended as it means "the conceptual grid that consists of opinions and attitudes deemed acceptable in a certain society at a certain time, and through which readers and translators approach texts." (Andre, 2004, p. 16)

Cheng (2003) assumes that in the translation of political documents, words and political meanings behind should be weighed instead of arbitrary addition or omission (p. 18-22). RWG is a kind of political document which involves policies, guidelines and plans of China's government. Hu (2014) holds that behind friendly and equal cultural interactions are fierce ideological struggles between different political standings (p. 40-42).The translation of the 2017 RWG is manipulated by ideology, which means the translated text shall not violate the interest of China's government ideologically.

Example 1: "港独"是没有出路的。

Translation: The notion of Hong Kong independence will lead nowhere.

Example 2: 坚决反对和遏制"台独"分裂活动，绝不允许任何人以任何形式、任何名义把台湾从祖国分裂出去。

Translation: We will resolutely oppose and deter separatist activities for Taiwan independence. We will never allow any person to separate Taiwan from the motherland in any form or name.

The topic of "台独" and "港独" touches political nerve as it is related to China's sovereign integrity, however, the expression "independence" here is politically incorrect and should be revised as "secession". From Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2017), "independence" refers to "political freedom from control by the government of another country." In Wikipedia (2017), "independence" is "a condition of a nation, country, or state in which its residents and population, or some portion thereof, exercise self-government, and usually sovereignty, over the territory." If the word "independence" is used to express "台独" and "港独", it indicates that "we" in the context which represents China's government identifies the legality of Taiwan and Hong Kong's sovereignty as a nation. The word "secession" is a more appropriate expression. In Longman Dictionary of Contemporary English (2017), "secession" refers to "when a country or state officially stops being part of another country and becomes independent." Yu (2009) explained that in international law, "independence" refers to "独立权" while secession to "分离权", connoting that they are two different concepts (p. 73-75). For example, "Quebec Independence Movement" or "Independence Movement in Quebec" is defined as "unilateral secession" by Supreme Court of Canada. Although in some influential newspapers such as the New York Times, "independence" is frequently and purposely used when discussing "台独" and "港独", in the translation of China's government report, the word "session" should be the right choice as it firmly illustrates Chinese government's standpoint and resolution to crack down on secessionist activities.

B. The Manipulation of Patron

According to Lefevere (2004), patron who always operates mostly outside the literary system would be referred to the "powers" (persons and / or institutions) "that can further or hinder the reading, writing, and rewriting of literature" (p. 15). He also points out that patron basically consists of three elements: ideological component, economic component and status component.

China's government is the biggest patron behind the national RWG (both the original Chinese text and translated English text) as the government supports the national RWG in economy, status and publicity. Thus, as an official government document, the national RWG shall never be against the interest of China's government and it is consistent with China's policies especially when translating words with Chinese characteristics.

Example 3: 加强社会主义精神文明建设，坚持用中国梦和社会主义核心价值观凝聚共识、汇聚力量，坚定文化自信。

Translation: We will foster stronger observance of socialist cultural and ethical standards, and continue to use the Chinese Dream and core socialist values to build consensus, pool energy, and strengthen our people's confidence in Chinese culture.

The notion "中国梦" is translated into "Chinese dream" instead of "China's dream" or "China dream". Translators argue about the translation version of "中国梦" when it was put forward by General Secretary Xi Jinping at the first time by the end of November, 2012. At the beginning, "中国梦" is translated into "China dream" by crucial media such as "xinhuanet" because it was perceived as China's national dream at that time , however, in 2013, General Secretary Xi Jinping further explained that "中国梦" is a dream for the whole nation and for each Chinese. Zhang and Ge (2015) opine that given this explanation, "Chinese dream" is a more appropriate expression in interpreting "中国梦" (p. 51-53). From then on, "中国梦" is translated to "Chinese dream" by most media and in the government work report since 2013, "中国梦" has been interpreted as "Chinese dream". Chen and Cheng (2015) further discuss different meanings of "China" and "Chinese" when the two words collocate with "dream" respectively. In "China dream", "China" indicates

that the dream is a national one or the dream is related to China but it can also be foreigners' dream that they desire to achieve in China, but in "Chinese dream", "Chinese" illustrates the dream has Chinese characteristics or the dream is about Chinese people and the dream can only be achieved by Chinese (p. 909-923). As the biggest patron behind the translation work, Chinese government insists that crucial notions such as "中国梦" related to Chinese policies be interpreted to "Chinese dream" to get all Chinese involved in the rejuvenation of China.

C.   The Manipulation of Poetics

According to Lefevere (2004), Poetics consists of two components. "One is the inventory of literary devices, genres, motifs, prototypical characters and situations, and symbols; the other is a concept of what the role of literature is, or should be, in the social system as a whole." (p. 26)

Compared to control factors of ideology and patron, the poetics draws less attention in the manipulation study in China. In manipulation theory, poetics mainly studies translation strategies, word expressions, sentences and genre of text. To some extent translators' translating method is manipulated by poetics. The view of Chinese poetics is different from that of English. Chinese is a paratactic language as balanced sentence structure with hidden logic, rhetoric and four-character forms are widely used. But English is a hypotactic language as plain and clear structures are used to highlight the key information. In the RWG, image-loaded expressions, abbreviations with numbers and four-character forms are commonly used. Besides, rhetoric such as repetition, parallelism is used to strengthen emotions. In C-E translation, translators should "rewrite" the Chinese text to ensure accurate information is delivered and language aesthetics are sensed by target readers.

1. Image-loaded Expressions

Generally, the RWG is a serious political document to introduce Chinese policies, but Chinese culture is also spread through image-loaded expressions. Many images with Chinese characteristics can be found in culture-loaded expressions. The image evokes readers' imagination as it indicates the relationship between the subject and reference in a metaphor and shows resemblance between the two. The imaginations aroused by the image are constrained by culture and thinking patterns. Different nations have different imaginations towards the same image. In translating, translators choose literal translation when the metaphor is consistent with the image and change or delete the image when it is not in case that adverse impression might be engraved on foreigners' mind.

Example 4: 这是政府自身的一场深刻革命，要继续以壮士断腕的勇气，坚决披荆斩棘向前推进。

Translation: This is a profound reform of government itself, which we need to continue to pursue with the courage to make painful self-adjustments and overcome all odds.

Chinese phrase "壮士断腕" is recorded in a book named Shushufu written by Dou Gao in Tang Dynasty. The complete quotation is "君子弃瑕以拔才,壮士断腕以全质" which means a junzi (man of honor) can give full play to his ability if he overcomes his weakness; A brave man should immediately cut off his wrist if it is bitten by a snake in case of poison spreading. The phrase "壮士断腕" is a metaphor which indicates that decisions must be made without hesitation. The image of "披荆斩棘" from The History of Later Han Dynasty refers to blazing a trial by cutting off thorns on the road which means to remove difficulties and forge ahead. Two image-loaded expressions "壮士断腕" and "披荆斩棘" impress Chinese readers with government's resolution of self-reform. But in translating, bloody and fierce images of "壮士断腕"and "披荆斩棘" are removed, instead, "courage" and "painful" are used to embody government's determination.

2. Abbreviations with Numbers

In the 2017 RWG, conciseness of Chinese language can be sensed through numerous abbreviations with numbers such as "五位一体" "四个全面" "两学一做" "约法三章" and so on. In translating, on the basis of adequate knowledge of China's updated policies, translators should comprehend and complete meanings behind the abbreviations and numbers and expound them via addition.

Example 5: 着力抓好 "三去一降一补"，供给结构有所改善。

Translation: We focused on five priority tasks—cutting overcapacity, reducing excess inventory, deleveraging, lowering costs, and strengthening areas of weakness—thereby improving the composition of supply.

The notion of "三去一降一补" was initiated by General Secretary Xi Jinping on the supply-side structural reform. The translator concludes "five priority tasks" for "三去一降一补"and then the content represented by numbers are explained in details. To be more accurate, "三去" is translated into three different verbs for collocation instead of the same word "cutting".

3. Four-character Forms

Four-character forms，because of rhythmic and balanced form, are widely used in RWG, such as "持廉守正" "购租并举" "住有所居" "统筹兼顾" "通观全局" and so on. In translating, translators should break the balanced form of four characters and unite different parts to form one sentence.

Example 6: 质量之魂，存于匠心。

Translation: Quality is born of workmanship.

Example 7: 治理雾霾人人有责，贵在行动、成在坚持。

Translation: Tackling smog is down to every last one of us, and success depends on action and commitment.

In the above two examples, the translator breaks the original form and translates four-character forms into plain and simple sentence.

4. Rhetoric

The most common rhetoric in 2017 RWG is repetition and parallelism for emotional and structural emphasis. Besides, metaphor is also a frequently-used one.

a. Repetition

Repetition is repeating of a word, within a sentence or a poetical line, with no particular placement of the words for emphasis.

Example 8: 各地区、各部门不断增强政治意识、大局意识、核心意识、看齐意识。

Translation: All regions and all government departments have steadily strengthened their consciousness of the need to maintain political integrity, think in big-picture terms, uphold the leadership core, and keep in alignment.

The Chinese phrase "意识" is repeated four times successively. The translator reorganizes four Chinese "意识" into one phrase "the consciousness of" and specifies "增强" by adding four verbs including "maintain" "think" "uphold" "keep" to collocate with "political integrity" "in big-picture terms" "the leadership core" and "in alignment" respectively.

b. Parallelism

Parallelism refers to a similar form of two or more parts of one or more sentences for a neat form and musical rhyme.

Example 9: 坚持宏观政策要稳、产业政策要准、微观政策要活、改革政策要实、社会政策要托底的政策思路。

Translation: Ensure that macro-level policy is consistent, industrial policy is targeted, micro-level policy injects dynamism into the market, reform policy delivers outcomes, and social policy sees basic living needs are met.

The Chinese sentence lists requirements such as "稳" "准" "活" "实" "托底" for different policies with a balanced and parallelized structure. The parallelism is remained: the first two parts are embodied through a predicative structure while the last three are explained via "verb-noun" structure. For readers' understanding, the translator explains the meaning behind through a combination of liberal and literal translation rather than listing five parallelized adjectives. Instead of being translated to "steady", "稳" refers to "consistency" of the macro-level policy; "准" means policy should be "targeted"; "活" refers to "dynamism" injected into the market; "实" means outcomes should be delivered and "托底"means basic needs are met.

c. Metaphor

Metaphor is a figure of speech in which a word or phrase literally designates one kind of object by referring to it as another to suggest analogy between them.

Example 10: 坚决打好蓝天保卫战。

Translation: We will make our skies blue again.

In the 2017 RWG, China's government discusses its resolution to clear hurdles of pollution, heavy air pollution in particular. In the source language, the environment protection campaign is described as a battle to safeguard the clean air, implying grave difficulties the government shall face in pollution control. But in the translated version, the abstract notion of "battle" is deleted and the specific and concise expression "to make our skies blue again" molds the government into an active, forceful and sunny one. Sounds like the slogan "make America great again", the catchy phrase "to make our skies blue again" shall impress foreign readers with China's determination in making the skies blue.

Example 11: 推进海绵城市建设，有效治理交通拥堵等"城市病"，使城市既有"面子"、更有"里子"。

Translation: Further progress will be made in the development of sponge cities, and effective steps will be taken to address traffic congestion and other urban maladies. All these efforts will make our cities more attractive and function better.

Urban maladies refer to social problems arising from overpopulation in big cities. The original version identifies hidden similarities between "面子" and "里子" and urban development above and under the ground. In the translation version, a concrete expression of outlook (more attractive) and function (function better) of the city is used to substitute for the expression of "面子" and "里子" respectively, which makes it easy to comprehend for foreign readers.

V. SUGGESTION

In the rewriting of 2017 RWG, the manipulation of ideology emphasizes the dominant ideology of China's society as it involves the fundamental interest of Chinese government and the Communist Party of China. Translators should be sensitive to political terms and weigh dictions especially sensitive political jargons concerning the land integrity, Taiwan, socialism, special administrative region and China's stance on international conflicts and so on.

In translating, the patron's role seems invisible but whose interest should not be violated. Themes discussed in the report and original text are all designed by Chinese government who is the initiator and patron of 2017 RWG and its translation in economy, publicity and staff.

As a political text, 2017 RWG also involves culture with Chinese characteristics. Under the manipulation of poetics,

method of domestication is preferred to foreignization for foreign readers' understanding. In the rewriting of the report, for image-loaded expression, most Chinese images are removed and replaced by specific English expressions; for abbreviations with numbers, meanings that numbers represent should be completed through addition; for four-character forms, the neat Chinese expression form can be broken to deliver unified information; for rhetoric such as repetition, parallelism and metaphor, redundancy should be deleted and the form of parallelism and metaphor can be remained or removed on the basis of briefness, accuracy and conciseness.

VI.   CONCLUSION

This paper expounds three most essential manipulating parameters in the translation of 2017 Report on the Work of the Government. It proves that the manipulation theory can be applied in not only the study of literature translation but in pragmatic texts as well. Translators should bear parameters of ideology, patron and poetics in mind in translating as the translation of RWG is also a kind of political and cultural rewriting.

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The Effects of Communicative Pronunciation Instruction on Suprasegmental Performance in an EFL Context

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Abstract—This study investigated the effects of communicative suprasegmental instruction on Iranian EFL learners' pronunciation performance. To this end, 24 pre-intermediate EFL learners were randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group receiving communicative pronunciation instruction in which after receiving conventional explicit instruction students were given communicative tasks to practice learned features, and the control group receiving only conventional explicit exercise-based instruction. The learners' pronunciations were assessed in controlled read-aloud and communicative picture-description/picture-driven contexts in terms of two suprasegmental features (i.e. compound words stress and interrogative intonation). The results of the study revealed that the explicit exercise-based instruction was significantly effective in controlled contexts but modestly effective in communicative picture-description and picture-driven tasks. On the contrary, communicative pronunciation instruction was not only significantly effective in the controlled context but also in communicative tasks. This finding reveals that communicative suprasegmental instruction is more effective than conventional explicit instruction in both controlled and communicative language production contexts. In the end, some pedagogical implications of the findings are also discussed.

Index Terms—communicative pronunciation instruction, explicit exercise-based instruction, controlled contexts, communicative contexts

I. INTRODUCTION

In the last thirty years, the role of pronunciation in English as a second (ESL) and as a foreign (EFL) language learning and teaching has been a topic of debate among practitioners of the field (Celce-Murcia, Brinton, and Goodwin, 2010). Although there have been disagreements about to what degree this skill should gain attention in communicative language teaching (CLT) syllabuses, it is generally acknowledged that it needs to be included in the methodology of every ESL/EFL course since wrong pronunciations might easily lead to communication breakdowns (Derwing & Munro, 2005).

Accordingly, there is now a general consensus among applied linguistics on the integral role of pronunciation in successful ESL/EFL communication (Hansen Edwards & Zampini, 2008), especially on the role of instruction in improving L2 learners' pronunciation performance, because the difference between learners' L1 pronunciation system and the L2's pronunciation patterns makes pronunciation of segmental and supra-segmental features difficult (Kissling, 2013). A body of recent research into the role of pronunciation instruction shows that explicit exercise-based instruction (that is, traditional consciousness raising listen-and-repeat activities) could still be effective in helping learners improve their segmental and suprasegmental pronunciation performance (e.g. Kissling, 2013; Reis & Hazan, 2013; Saito, 2015).

Nevertheless, it seems that researchers and instructors in the field of ESL/EFL pronunciation have particularly focused on traditional ways of teaching pronunciation through simple listen-and-repeat exercises at the expense of presenting pronunciation features in more communicative activities. As asserted by Celce-Murcia et al. (2010), pronunciation instruction needs to start with explicit instruction but it must be reinforced by communicative activities and practices, rather than simple listen-and-repeat exercises and drills so that learners have the opportunity to practice and observe segmental and suprasegmental features in real communicative settings. Despite such a pressing need to bring pronunciation instruction in line with tenets of CLT approach, most of the recent research in L2 pronunciation instruction has focused on traditional explicit instructions, especially on segmental rather than on suprasegmental features in ESL contexts, rather than on suprasegmental features in EFL contexts. Therefore, the following study is an attempt to put the limelight on comparing communicative and traditional explicit instruction on teaching Iranian EFL learners the suprasegmental aspects of English language.

II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A look at the recent research into the role of instruction in helping ESL/EFL learners improve their pronunciation performance reveals that most studies have focused on traditional explicit exercise-based instructions. As an example, in one of the earliest studies in the turn of the new century, Couper (2003) investigated the effectiveness of explicit pronunciation instruction in improving the phonological performance of ESL learners in New Zealand at segmental and suprasegmental level. He found that conventional explicit instruction with exercises and drills were not only effective for segmental features but also effective for suprasegmental features.

Focusing on the production and phonemic accuracy of problematic English sounds, Chan (2010) investigated the pronunciation performance of different problematic consonants by forty Cantonese ESL university students in various read-aloud tasks, including lexical pronunciation, minimal-pair pronunciation, and passage pronunciation. The results of her study in general proved previous findings on the most problematic English sounds for Cantonese learners of English. Moreover, she found some productive strategies these learners employed in order to produce the required sounds in English. In conclusion, she put emphasis on the role pronunciation training at university level especially based on localized research on problematic sounds for particular learners.

Saito and Lyster (2012) focused on the role of form-focused pronunciation instruction with and without the presence of feedback. Through a 4-hour instruction, Japanese learners of English received instruction on the pronunciation of the problematic phoneme /r/ in meaningful discourse. The results of their study showed that the feedback group significantly improved their pronunciation of this problematic phoneme after intervention both in the read-aloud task and picture description. However, the control group and the group without feedback could not improve significantly.

In an informative study, Kissling (2013) compared the effects of explicit phonetic instruction with implicit instruction to 95 English learners of Spanish as a foreign language. She focused on problematic consonants for these groups of students. Learners' pronunciations of target phones were measured in the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest through a read-aloud test. It was interesting to find that both groups gained from either explicit or implicit instruction showing that it seems that input, practice, and feedback are important than the mere type of instruction.

Finally, drawing on the role of recasts as an effective way to provide learners with phonological feedback, Saito (2014) investigated the acquisition of word-initial /r/ by Japanese learners of English. First, he found that raters' perceptions were related mostly to the third formant values of the phoneme /r/ rather than the second formant. He also found that it was only the experimental group receiving explicit instruction and recast that could improve the pronunciation of this phoneme in the third formant. He further concluded that the amount of feedback in the form of recasts and repairs together with the onset pronunciation proficiency of the learners affect the overall pronunciation development of the learners.

Overall, the results of these studies reveal that conventional explicit instruction of segmental (and in some instances suprasegmental) features have proved effective in improving ESL learners' pronunciation performances. Nevertheless, to the researchers' knowledge, no study has tried to compare such effectiveness with more communicative approaches to teaching suprasegmental features in an EFL (e.g. Iranian context) setting in which instructional treatments in CLT classrooms are of crucial importance due to lack of sufficient out-of-class exposure to the language. Thus, the following study tries to compare communicative instruction of most problematic suprasegmental features of English language (i.e. word compound stress patterns and interrogative intonations) with conventional explicit exercise-based instruction in helping Iranian EFL learners improve their pronunciation performances in controlled read-aloud activities and communicative tasks.

III. METHOD

A. The Participants of the Study

The participants of this study consisted of 24 Iranian adult learners studying English as a foreign language at an intermediate level in a language institute in Tehran. The participants were males and females (14 males and 10 females) ranging from 20 years old to 28 years old. These 24 participants were selected from two pre-intermediate classrooms (12 students in each class) which consisted of 15 learners each. Three students from each classroom were removed from data analysis procedure because they either were mostly absent in the treatment sessions or in the posttest sessions. Therefore, in the end, 12 students in each classroom (one class as the control group receiving explicit instruction and one class as the experimental group receiving communicative instruction) were qualified as the final participants of the study whose scores in the pretest and posttest were analyzed and compared. The reason why pre-intermediate learners were selected were two-fold: (a) they were the researcher's own students which helped the researcher to have a better understanding of their proficiency level and pronunciation abilities and (b) they were neither too basic in terms of language proficiency so that they could deal with the tasks of the study nor too proficient to have advanced command on English pronunciation system.

B. The Instruments of the Study

In tandem with the communicative pronunciation teaching framework of the study, two types of tasks (i.e. testing activities) to measure learners' pronunciation performances in the pretest and posttest were designed: (a) a read-aloud task in which learners were required to read eight sentences for compound word stress and eight sentences for interrogative intonation patterns, (b) two picture description tasks for compound word stress pattern and one picture-

driven question making task for interrogative intonation patterns (see Appendix 2 and 3 for both tasks, respectively). It should be noted that the same types of tasks were employed in the pretest and posttest so as to keep the production setting and task effect similar in both testing situations.

In the same vein, two types of pronunciation instructional materials were designed to be presented to learners in each group from these resources: (a) the exercise-based materials from Pronouncing American English (2012) for the control and experimental group, and (b) communicative tasks adopted from Celce-Murcia et al. (2010) only for the experimental group (see Appendix 4 for the sample of communicative activities and tasks).

C. The Communicative Framework of the Study

In order to present the experimental group of the study with communicative pronunciation instruction of relative suprasegmental features, Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) teaching framework was employed (see Table 1).

TABLE 1.
THE COMMUNICATIVE PRONUNCIATION TEACHING FRAMEWORK BY CELCE-MURCIA ET AL. (2010)

Steps	Activities
1	**Description and Analysis**—oral and written illustrations of how the feature is produced and when it occurs within spoken discourse.
2	**Listening Discrimination**—focused listening practices with feedback on learners' ability to correctly discriminate the feature.
3	**Controlled Practice**—oral reading of minimal-pair sentences, short dialogues, etc., with special attention paid to the highlighted feature in order to raise learner consciousness
4	**Guided Practice**—structured communication exercises, such as information-gap activities, cued dialogues, and cued strip stories, that makes the learner to be monitored for the specified feature as he/she engages in controlled communication.
5	**Communicative Practice**—less structured, fluency-building activities (e.g. role-play, problem solving, interviews) that require the learner to attend to both form and content of utterances.

As shown in the table, in this framework the instruction starts with explicit teaching of pronunciation features and then moves to communicative activities and tasks. The control group, however, received the explicit instruction plus listening discrimination and controlled practices and drills (i.e. only the first three steps in the framework).

D. Scoring Procedure and Data Analysis

In order to assign scores to learners' pronunciation of supra-segmental features, their performances in each pretest and posttest task were recorded by high-quality voice recording software. Then their performances were scored by an English native speaker to see if the feature is observed. The final score assigned to each participant in each feature was the sum of their performance in that feature. For instance, learner 1 in the control group read four sentences loaded with the noun + noun feature and four sentences loaded with adjective + noun feature. If he/she could pronounce one sentence correctly in each set, he/she was assigned the score of 1 for each set (out of total score of 4), if he/she could pronounce two sentences correctly in the first set and three sentences correctly for the latter set, he/she was assigned 2 and 3 for each set respectively. The same scoring procedure was also employed for the picture-description and picture-driven tasks. In the end, each learner in each group ended up with interval scores for their performance in the pretest and posttest.

To begin with, the normality of the data scores were tested by Shapiro-Wilk test of normality. Since the data were not normality distributed (see Appendix 1), the non-parametric statistical tests were employed. As for the homogeneity of the two groups in terms of their lack of required command on the two supra-segmental features of the study—apart from the fact that all the students were qualified and reported to be pre-intermediate by the standard testing procedure of the language institute—learners' pronunciations in the controlled and spontaneous tasks in the pretest were compared together with the non-parametric Mann-Whitney U test.

After the treatment of the study was finished for each feature, the same posttest was administered to both groups. The learners' pronunciations in the posttest were scored based on the same procedure as went above. Then, the acquired scores were compared by Mann-Whitney U for between-group variations and by Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test for within group variations. The aforementioned tests were run by SPSS software version 22.

E. Procedure of the Study

At the beginning of the term, after receiving the green light from the head of the Institute, one of the researchers, as the teacher of the classes) introduced the overall plan for an extra pronunciation instruction to her learners in two classes to see if they were interested in allocating 30 minutes of their time after their usual class time runs out, every other session. The researcher explained that the overall instruction takes 4 hours (that is, four extra 30-minute sessions for compound word stress instruction and four extra 30-minute sessions for question intonation instruction). Since the feedback by learners was positive, the researcher administered the pretest of the study before the official time of the second session. The learners' pronunciations were voice recorded by a sophisticated voice recording software by a laptop computer.

As went above, four 30-minute extra sessions were devoted to teaching compound word stress patterns in which noun + noun constructions, wherein the first word takes the stress (e.g. bus stop, telephone booth, wedding party, etc.) and adjective + noun constructions, wherein the noun takes the stress (e.g. blue car, pretty house, big stadium, etc.)

were presented to learners of the control group through traditional conventional exercise-based instruction (i.e. the first three phases of the instructional framework) and to learners of the experimental group through the communicative framework (i.e. the five stages of the instructional framework). At the end of the fourth session, the posttest of the study was administered to both groups.

As for the English interrogative intonation pattern, the instruction started the next session after the posttest of compound word stress pattern. In this phase of the instruction, the focus was on Wh-word questions' intonation with falling intonations (e.g. where do you play basketball?) and Yes/No questions' intonation with rising intonations (e.g. Is he your English teacher?). Similarly, the instruction consisted of four 30-minut extra sessions for both groups. At the end of the fourth session, the posttest for this feature was administered.

In the end, the recording data of the two features were coded and then checked by an English native speaker to assign scores to each pronunciation task by the learners. When the scores were tabulated, the data were ready for the statistical analysis to see degrees of improvement in both groups of the study.

IV. RESULTS

To test the homogeneity of the experimental and control groups, their pretest scores were compared in read-aloud and picture description tasks for all suprasegmental features of the study by Mann-Whitney U test. First, the results of Mann-Whitney U test in read-aloud context showed that there were no significant differences (i.e. P-values $\geq$ .05) between the groups in compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -.604$, $P = .546$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = .000$, $P = 1.000$) and in interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = .000$, $P = 1.000$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -.492$, $P = .623$). Likewise, there were no significant differences (i.e. P-values $\geq$ .05) in picture-description context in compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -.604$, $P = .546$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = .000$, $P = 1.000$) and in interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = .000$, $P = 1.000$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -.604$, $P = .546$). Therefore, it could be concluded that both experimental and control groups were homogenous before the onset of the treatment in terms of their lack of command on the pronunciation features of the study.

To gauge between-group significant improvements (i.e. pretest/posttest significant differences), Wilcoxon Signed-rank test was employed for each group of the study. As for the control group, results revealed that the control group significantly improved (i.e. P-values $\leq$ .05) in their read-aloud tasks not only in terms of compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -3.108$, $P = .002$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = -3.002$, $P = .003$) but also in terms of interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = -3.066$, $P = .002$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -3.169$, $P = .002$). These results show that explicit pronunciation instruction with mere exercises and drills were effective in read-aloud tasks. In picture-description tasks, however, there were no significant differences in compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -1.890$, $P = .059$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = -2.070$, $P = .058$) and in Yes/No-questions intonation ($Z = -1.933$, $P = .053$), with significant difference in only Wh-questions ($Z = -2.236$, $P = .025$). These results show that, unlike in read-aloud tasks, the explicit exercise-based instruction were not comparatively effective in spontaneous picture-description contexts (that is, learners only significantly improved in one feature out of all four features).

The same statistical test was run for within-group significant differences in the experiment groups' performance. As with the control group, the statistical results revealed that the experimental group also improved significantly in read-aloud tasks regarding compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -3.108$, $P = .002$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = -3.133$, $P = .002$) as well as interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = -3.017$, $P = .003$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -3.145$, $P = .002$). Nevertheless, unlike the control group, the experimental group significantly improved in the spontaneous picture-description tasks in compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -2.919$, $P = .004$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = -2.919$, $P = .004$) and in interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = -2.889$, $P = .004$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -3.035$, $P = .002$). These findings show that the communicative pronunciation instruction were not only considerably effective in read-aloud tasks but also in picture-description tasks, whereas the explicit exercise-based instruction were mostly effective in read-aloud tasks.

Finally, the posttest scores of both groups were also compared together for any possible significant between-group differences by Mann-Whitney U test. As far as read-aloud tasks were concerned, there were no significant differences between the two groups in both pronunciation features: compound words stress patterns (noun+noun structures: $Z = -1.116$, $P = .264$; adj.+noun structures: $Z = -1.899$, $P = .058$) and interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = -.915$, $P = .360$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -.096$, $P = .924$). These results show that both groups improved more or less similarly in controlled read-aloud contexts. Yet, there were significant differences between the two groups in picture-description tasks in one of the compound words stress patterns (i.e. noun+noun structures: $Z = -2.946$, $P = .003$; not in adj+noun structures: $Z = -.761$, $P = .078$) and all two interrogative intonation patterns (Wh-questions: $Z = -2.830$, $P = .005$; Yes/No-questions: $Z = -2.635$, $P = .008$). These findings reveal that the experimental group outperformed the control group exclusively in picture-description tasks in most of the relative pronunciation features of the study (i.e. stress patterns in noun+noun compound words and interrogative intonations).

Overall, the results showed that both types of instruction (i.e. communicative pronunciation instruction and explicit exercise-based instruction) were equally effective in helping Iranian EFL learners learn and pronounce correctly the suprasegmental features of compound words stress patterns and interrogative intonation patterns in controlled read-

aloud contexts. Nonetheless, the communicative pronunciation instruction was significantly more effective than the explicit exercise-based instruction in spontaneous picture-description contexts.

V. DISCUSSION

The overall findings of the study showed that although explicit exercise-based pronunciation instruction helped learners to improve their pronunciation performances in supra-segmental features of compound word stress and question intonation patterns in simple read-aloud activities (wherein learners were only to read aloud sentences containing the target features of the study), this type of instruction, as compared with communicative pronunciation instruction, could not prove very effective in spontaneous picture description tasks in which learners had to spontaneously describe pictures to their partners. On the contrary, the communicative pronunciation instruction not only proved effective in controlled read-aloud tasks but also in spontaneous picture description tasks.

As stated by Celce-Murcia et al. (2010), despite the existing overindulgence in employing communicative approaches toward teaching different aspects and skills of the language, it seems that pronunciation is still presented in the form of exercises rather than communicative activities (i.e. tasks). According to Ellis (2003), tasks are activities which focus on the meaning-based language use while exercises are activities that mainly work on form-focused language use. Such a fine distinction clearly reflects the two types of instructional treatments the participants of this study received. Focusing on two supra-segmental features of compound words stress placement and interrogative intonation patterns in English, the control group only received pronunciation instruction in the form of explicit exercises in a way that learners were first presented with deductive explanations of the English rules regarding the correct pronunciation of the features (i.e. awareness raising), then they were presented with listen and repeat exercises and drills. On the contrary, the experimental group of the study not only received the awareness raising explanations but also practiced the learned features in both exercises and meaning-focus communicative tasks. It seems that the frequent meaning-focused practice of target features in the form of communicative tasks could make learners perform better in communicative activities in which the focus should also be on the meaning and message as well while paying attention to the form.

The benefits of explicit exercise-based phonetic instruction, however, could not be neglected (Fullana, 2006; Venkatagiri & Levis, 2007). Kissling (2013) mentions that both types of explicit and implicit phonetic instruction could be helpful to learners. Nonetheless, based on her findings, it seems that explicit instruction is more useful than implicit instruction in segmental instructions. The results of her study revealed that explicit instruction through phonetic exercises positively impacts the learners' performances in read-aloud activities. This finding is in line with the current research's findings as the control group improved significantly in read-aloud activities in terms of supra-segmental features. Nevertheless, as her measurement rubrics were only mechanical read-aloud activities, the results of the current study could add up to her findings by proving that explicit exercise-based instruction could not be fruitful in spontaneous communicative activities.

It should be noted that, based on the results of the study, the explicit exercise-based instruction had also modest positive effects on learners' correct observance of some supra-segmental features of the study (i.e. adj+noun compound stress patterns and yes/no question intonation patterns) which might be due to the fact that some phonological features are more prone to different types of instruction than others (Chung, 2008). Nonetheless, comparatively, as the results of between-group differences revealed, the communicative pronunciation instruction was significantly more effective than explicit exercise-based instruction.

One of the central variables which crucially affects the outcomes of any task-based instruction is the nature of the tasks themselves. Ellis (2003) categorizes tasks into two types: (a) unfocused tasks, and (b) focused tasks. Whereas the former is a true example of a strong version of communicative language teaching in which task include different target features at the same time like real-time language use, the latter more pedagogic one includes only a particular linguistic feature which is being practiced indirectly through communicative tasks. According to Ellis (2003), there is a psycholinguistic advantage behind communicative focused tasks (i.e. the ones employed in this study for phonological features) that makes them a better option for pedagogical purposes.

Therefore, based on the findings of this study in which one group of learners received communicative focused tasks, it could be claimed that focused tasks could help learners move form controlled processes towards automatic ones (see also Anderson, 2000). According to Ellis (2003), while automatic processes involve the involuntary activation of certain nodes in memory each time a specific input is present, controlled processes need attentional control and awareness towards the input. This process is also reflected in the way declarative knowledge turns into procedural knowledge (Celce-Murcia et al., 2010). Based on this idea, a focused task could actually prepare learners to practice an already learned feature in communicative real-time activities so that they can reflect this knowledge in real communicative situations.

The superior performance of the experimental group in this study who received pronunciation instruction through communicative focused tasks as well as awareness-raising exercises proves that practicing supra-segmental features through communicative activities not only helped learners perform well in controlled activities which require only controlled processes to be dealt with, but also made them perform well in the picture description tasks which required an online automatic process. As a matter of fact, communicative pronunciation instruction prepared learners to have a

more accurate supra-segmental performance (that is, paying attention to the formal aspect of language) while they focus was on the meaning (that is, paying attention to the communicative purpose of the activity.

VI. CONCLUSION & PEDAGOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study was an attempt to bring the limelight to the role of communicative pronunciation instruction on Iranian EFL learners' suprasegmental performance. Drawing on the proposed Celce-Murcia et al.'s (2010) framework, it was investigated whether the combination of explicit instruction and communicative tasks, in comparison with traditional exercise-based explicit instruction, would improve learners' performance in the controlled read-aloud and spontaneous picture-description activities. Although recent research has proven the effectiveness of explicit exercise-based instruction in helping learners acquire pronunciation features of the L2 (e.g. Kissling, 2013; Reis & Hazan, 2013; Saito, 2015), it is not still clear if the combination of explicit instruction with communicative tasks could be as much effective, especially in communicative tasks at suprasegmental levels.

The results revealed that communicative instruction of suprasegmental features is considerably more effective in improving EFL learners' pronunciation performances in spontaneous contexts in which learners have to focus on the interaction and messages communicated, rather than solely on the form of language. On the contrary, the traditional conventional explicit instruction with exercises and drills proves to be effective mostly in simple controlled read-aloud activities in which the learners could focus on the form, irrespective of the communicative meanings of the sentences.

In line with these findings, some theoretical, as well as practical L2 pronunciation implications, could be drawn. On the theoretical side, it shows that communicative activities (e.g. tasks) could help learners derive automatic processes out of controlled ones (Ellis, 2003). Indeed, it is proved that there is a psychological rationale behind focused tasks because if these types of communicative activities follow explicit exercise-based activities, which help learners develop controlled processes, they could help learners automatize the overtly learned features and observe formal features of language (such as pronunciation features employed in this study) while their focus is also on the message and the meaning.

On the practical side, the results of this study clearly put the limelight on the need to reevaluate the role of pronunciation in today's communicative syllabuses and the way L2 instructors deal with this sub-skill of language in their classroom. The ineffectiveness of exercise-based activities and instruction in improving learners' performances in communicative activities on the one hand, and the effectiveness of communicative pronunciation instruction in these activities on the other, shows that not only do English syllabus designers and mainstream material developers should focus more on the inclusion of communicative activities for pronunciation instruction, but also L2 teachers should try to employ more communicative tasks in their L2 classes so that learners could practice pronunciation features in communicative meaning-orientated activities. By so doing, they could perform much better in out-of-classroom real-life settings.

APPENDIX 1. THE RESULTS OF SHAPIRO-WILK TEST OF NORMALITY IN THE PRETESTS FOR BOTH GROUPS IN CONTROLLED READ-ALOUD AND SPONTANEOUS PICTURE-DESCRIPTION CONTEXTS

| Feature/Group	Read-aloud tasks			Picture-description tasks		
	Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
noun + noun/control	.465	12	.000	.465	12	.000
noun + noun/experimental	.327	12	.000	.327	12	.000
adj + noun/control	.465	12	.000	.465	12	.000
adj + noun/experimental	.465	12	.000	.465	12	.000
Wh-Q/control	.592	12	.000	.592	12	.000
Wh-Q/experimental	.592	12	.000	.592	12	.000
Yes/No-Q/control	.465	12	.000	.465	12	.000
Yes/No-Q/experimental	.552	12	.000	.552	12	.000

APPENDIX 2. THE READ-ALOUD TASK

Please read the following sentences clearly as your voice is being recorded:
1. There is a child in the bus station.
2. I have a green house in the yard.
3. I want to buy a new book.
4. There is a nice car outside.
5. I cleaned my fingernails.
6. There are four kids in the house.
7. He is buying a hard drive for his computer.
8. She is an English teacher from England.
1. Do you speak English?

2. Can you play football?
3. Are they new teachers?
4. Does he know the game?
5. What are you doing?
6. Where is the nearest carwash?
7. When is she here?
8. Why do you study English

APPENDIX 3. THE PICTURE-DESCRIPTION AND PICTURE-DRIVEN TASKS

1. Try to describe the following picture in whatever way you like. You have one minute to think. You must use the words under the picture in your description.

Picture 1:   Bus stop   people   traffic sign   Picture 2:   Red car   fast   happy man
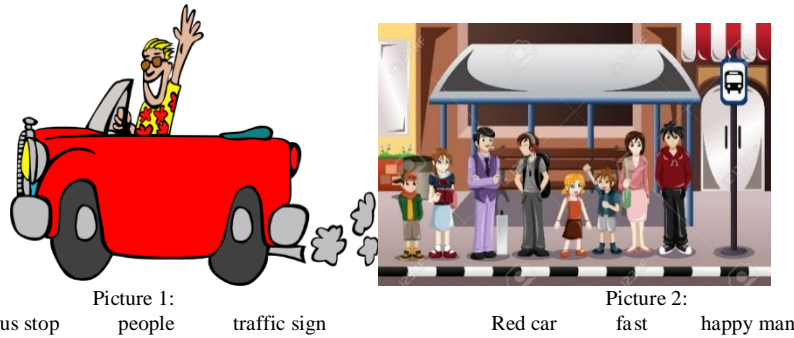
2. Look at the picture. Try to ask your partner different questions based on the picture with the given question-words. You have 30 seconds to think for each question.

1. Where …………………………………………?
2. Does …………………………………………?
3. Can ……………………………………………?
4. What …………………………………………?
5. Is ……………………………………...……..?
6. Why ………………………………...……..?

APPENDIX 4. A SAMPLE OF A COMMUNICATIVE FOCUSED TASK ON COMPOUND WORD STRESS PATTERNS ADOPTED FROM CELCE MURCIA ET AL. (2010).

Pre-task: Look at the list of objects that Mary should buy this month. Choose some of them and tell your partner that where you can buy each of them. Next, talk about the last time you bought them.
Example: *I can buy a dishwasher at a furniture store. The last time I bought it was last year.*

hairbrush   notepad   screwdriver   a beautiful hat   sunglasses

a black umbrella   dishwasher   a mobile phone   a digital camera   notebook

Task: Look at the list of the objects below. With your partner, decide where you can buy each item. Later, write the name of the objects in the right column.

Shop Till You Drop				
Furniture Store	Hardware Store	Drug Store	Grocery Store	Stationary Store

Items:

Sunglasses	Beach towel	Beach ball
Ice cream	Notebook	Paintbrush
Notepad	Paper clips	Wastebasket
Toothbrush	Screwdriver	Hairbrush
Toilet paper	Footstool	Armchair

Post-task: Select one item and tell your classmates where you can buy them.

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Using Medical Academic English Corpus for Graduates Students Academic Writing Training

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Abstract—In this paper, we discussed the use of personal do-it-yourself (DIY) corpora by medical graduate students for academic writing. Thirty-five graduate students in internal medicine school at a Chinese medical university attended this course in which they learn to build and use the self-compiled corpora of research articles to train themselves in academic writing. At the end of the course, they were asked to complete questionnaires and attend interviews about their habits of using DIY corpora in and after class, and then a follow-up questionnaire was administered. This paper also investigated possible reasons of habit changes in using DIY corpora, and gave some suggestions on how to encourage long-term use of corpora for wider application of DIY corpora in academic writing training.

Index Terms—do-it-yourself corpora, English for special purposes, academic writing training

I. INTRODUCTION

The use of corpora for language teaching and learning has become a trend in the past decades, and some particular focus has been on the field of academic writing in English at university level (Boulton, 2010; Yoon, 2011; Hyland, 2005; Hunston & Thompson, 2000; Mark, 2013). The corpora used can be roughly classified as three types: online or locally installed large general corpora, such as British National Corpus (BNC) and online BYU corpora; medium specialized corpora, usually only for some individual course or discipline; small do-it-yourself (DIY) corpora, constructed by researchers or students for their personal use. During their research, they wanted to know, to what extent, and under what circumstances students can get involved in the corpus data when learning to write their academic papers. General corpora have been popular for the recent decade, "but there is a growing interest in the use of specialized and DIY corpora (Charles, 2014, p.30)".

The application of general corpora to teaching and learning of grammatical and lexical items involves both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Some research explored what corpora can do, such as whether consulting corpora can significantly impact vocabulary and grammar learning (Boulton, 2010; Cresswell, 2007). Other studies investigated the effectiveness of learning how to use corpora, suggesting the majority of participants acquired the skills to address language problems (Gaskell & Cobb, 2004; Gilmore, 2009; Todd, 2001; Charles, 2011). Additionally, some qualitative research triangulated results from quantitative research, showing that most of the interviewed students had positive attitudes towards corpora use (Granath, 2009; Mizumoto & Chujo, 2015), and further indicated that factors, such as English proficiency, proper training, and technical support level, were decisive in enhancing their enthusiasm of using corpora.

Most of the studies are mainly paying their attention on student attitudes or the evaluation of corpus work in or immediately after the classes, though there are some focusing on long-term use (Charles, 2014; Yoon, 2008), the aim of the present study mainly focus on the comparison of immediate use and long-term use to find out why the student enthusiasm of using corpora to learn academic writing when firstly involved in this course vanished as compared to the low usage of long-term investigation.

II. BACKGROUND

The research is based on the data of the corpora-based academic writing project integrated into their Academic English Course in 2015 and 2016 of first-year graduate students and their online reports on their corpus use six-month later. The project is designed for first-year graduate medical students to improve and revise their academic paper writing with the help of consultation of personal do-it-yourself corpora. Though the project is integrated into the Academic English Course, it is by itself a non-assessed and open-access project. Groups of 20 to 23 graduate students are trained in a multi-disciplinary class every year, and the work of training students to use corpora lasted over eight weeks, with

one two-hour session every week. Students are required to take their own laptop computers with them and all the corpora work and software were done or installed on their own computers.

The Project

The project is designed to meet graduates' urgent needs of writing academically acceptable papers by offering them the chance to compile do-it-yourself corpora in their own discipline and learn to practice the skill of retrieving and interpreting the information their personal corpora can provide. In and after class, participants are trained to work with their own corpora to find answers for their lexical and grammatical queries and explore discourse issues.

The project is divided into three sessions. In the first session, we offer some fundamental basics about corpora and popular corpora applications in language teaching and learning, which helps the participants understand what is corpus and what corpus can do for us, and then we show the participants how to install and use the freely available concordancer AntConc (Anthony, 2014) and Wordsmith (Scott, 2012), which is a popular corpus software to consult a corpus for dealing with lexical and grammatical queries. The first session is focused on the general understanding of corpora and getting familiarized with corpus software. In the second session, participants are required to compile their own personal corpus with the guidance of instructors. Firstly, they are expected to select at least 100 research articles (all in PDF editable file) from important academic journals representing the academic performance of their fields, 50 of which are written by native speakers and 50 by non-native speakers. Secondly, the participants are shown how to convert the PDF file into plain text files, and "clean the files by removing matter which is not part of the running text (e.g., references, graphical elements), which makes it easier to read concordance lines and renders the statistical data more reliable (Charles, 2014, p.31)".

The third session is focused on the analysis of information that corpus can provide. When studying how language works in a more formal setting, it involves a few different steps. In each step, people are given questions that help them understand better how certain language elements help in getting a message across in the corpora. The process starts with a general look at the texts to find common patterns. Then, it moves on to focus on specific ways language is used, for instance, how people express doubt or how they link ideas together. In the end, corpora text analysis gives people the skills to better understand how language is put together and how it helps us communicate our ideas with people in academic writings (Charles, 2014).

By the end of the project, participants have mastered the use of concordancing and other functions of the software, and they know how to use Word List to examine words in their corpus, and use Collocates and Clusters to retrieve collocations. Some participants have become proficient at interpreting corpora data, and all have achieved the basic competence in using corpora to solve lexical and grammatical problems.

The initial objective of this project is to facilitate students with a custom-built resource designed to be an enduring asset throughout their academic pursuits (Charles, 2014). Do-It-Yourself (DIY) corpus is intended to serve as a foundational instrument that fosters the development of expertise and contextual deployment of language. The impetus for the creation of an individualized DIY corpus is rooted in the pedagogical strategy of diminishing the dependency on external entities, such as teachers and proofreaders (Charles, 2014), in favor of promoting a more self-directed and self-sufficient approach to the generation and refinement of academic discourse (Charles, 2014).

III. METHODOLOGY

The background details of participants were collected at the beginning of the course; the size data of the participants' DIY corpora were collected when participants finish compiling their DIY corpora. A questionnaire about their attitudes towards corpora use in academic writing training and their own performance in this course was conducted immediately after the course was finished. And a follow-up questionnaire was conducted by about six months after completion of the course(Charles, 2014), if their attitudes toward corpus had changed comparing with that of six months ago, and the reason why they still use corpora or why they gave up using corpora. Three personal interviews were followed the questionnaire. The surveys include 20 questions, which were administered to the participants electronically (Charles, 2014). If further investigation needed, there were QQ connections to clarify or amplify responses from the participants.

The participants are first year graduate students from a provincial medical university. The project was conducted in Grade 2015 and Grade 2016 following the same procedure. The participants were all volunteered to join the project and data from 35 valid participants were finally collected, 16 of 2015 and 19 of 2016. Their academic disciplines include: Anatomy, Biochemistry, Biomechanics, Biostatistics, Cytology, Embryology, Genetics, Histology, Immunology, Microbiology, Molecular biology, Pharmacology, Physiology, Toxicology. The comparison results yielded no significant difference between the two courses, the combination of the two-year data facilitated a more robust statistical evaluation with a total of 35 sets of data (Charles, 2014).

The personal DIY corpora were compiled by the participants, which was roughly divided into two sub-corpora, one for native writers and another for non-native writers. Every participant selected at least 20 papers from several important journals representing the academic performance of each medical field, 10 for each sub-corpus. To avoid that several participants may select the same paper, the monitors of the two groups coordinated the papers participants selected. If the average length of each paper, after cleaning or partial cleaning, is about 6,000 words, so every participant will have a corpus of more than 120,000 words. And then we collected all the participants' corpora to form a

bigger one, so in total we have a medical academic English corpus of 4.2 million words. Though it may not be a balanced corpus, we can still use it to conduct lots of research.

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Participants

The participants' personal information showed that 25 participants (71.43%) were female and 10(28.57%) were male. Participants studied in 13 different disciplines: Anatomy (3, 9%), Biochemistry (2, 6%), Biomechanics (2, 6%), Biostatistics (1, 3%), Cytology (2, 6%), Embryology (2, 6%), Genetics (4, 11%), Histology (2, 6%), Immunology (5, 14%), Microbiology (3, 9%),   Molecular biology (4, 11%), Pharmacology (2, 6%), Physiology (2, 6%), Toxicology (1, 3%). (See Fig 1)

Fig 1 Participants Disciplinary Distribution

B. Size of the DIY Corpora

The size of the DIY corpora participants compiled is varied according to their fields they worked with and the journals they selected. They selected five or six journals in their own research fields, and there are 13 disciplines and roughly 70 peer-viewed world-famous journals they used. The publishing time ranged from 2008 to 2016. (See Fig 2)
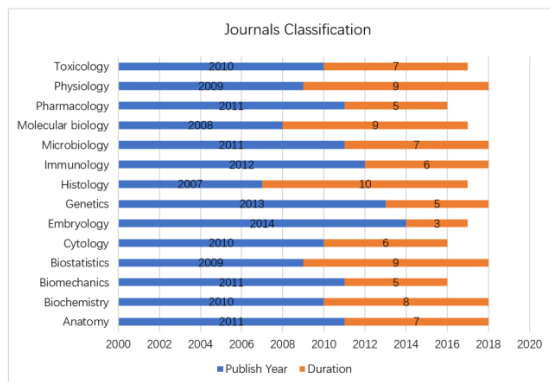

Fig 2 Journal Classification and Details

The participants chose the journals and selected research articles and converted to text format, optionally cleaned and added to the corpus individually. Because of large disciplinary differences in the length of research articles, the size of the DIY corpora is not normalized, but all the compiled corpora have exceeded the required size as we planned. The largest was constructed in the field of Immunology (570,383), because it held the largest share in participants (5, 14%), by contrast, the smallest corpus in number of words was in Toxicology (126,900), because we have only one participant in this field. The average size of the research article was 6,223 words, and the average size of participants' DIY corpora was 309,413 words. (See Fig 3)
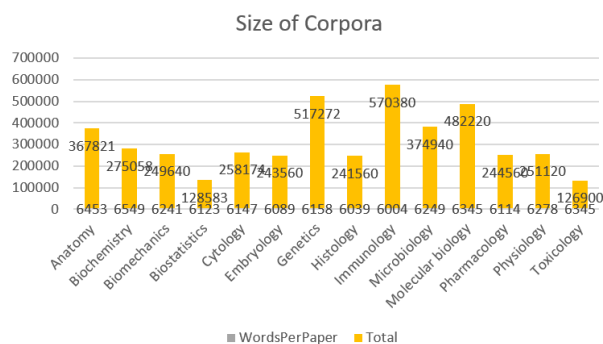
Fig 3 Size of corpora

C. Use of the Personal Corpus

Questionnaires were conducted immediately after the course was completed and six-month after the course. The immediate survey showed that 94.2% (33 out of 35) of the participants had mastered and used their self-compiled corpora in and after class, and most of the users consulted their corpora for checking lexical collocation or grammatical usage while writing and revising their papers, and 85.7% (30 out of 35) held very active and positive attitude toward the use of corpora to train their writing and 95% thought it was helpful and corpus use had improved their academic writing. However, in the subsequent inquiry conducted six months after the instructional program, a follow-up questionnaire was administered to the participants with the objective of ascertaining the post-curricular use of their individually DIY corpora (Charles, 2014). We found that only 5.7% were regular users (2 out of 35, once or more every week), 14.3% irregular users (5 out of 35, once every month or seldom) and 80% non-users. (See Fig 4)
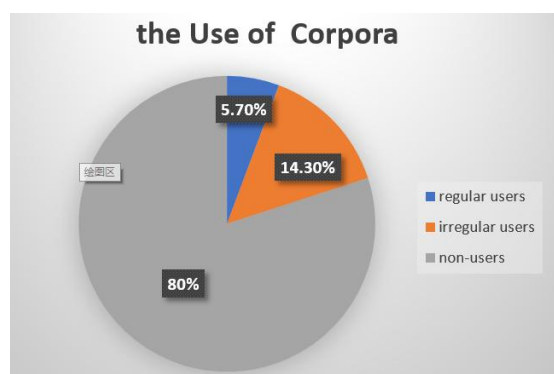

Fig 4 the use of corpora

This immediate survey result, which is highly encouraging, suggests that after a relatively short period of training, participants can compile and use their corpora independently in the absence of further input or help from a corpus specialist. But the six-month-later one was not encouraging, after further interviewing with the participants, we found that the non-engagement of DIY corpus, was not necessarily a rejection of corpus as a research tool, but rather a contextual misalignment between their current working context and the potential utility of corpus resources (Yoon, 2008; Charles, 2014). And some non-users said they intended to use their DIY corpora when they began to write their papers, when the time the questionnaires were conducted, those medical graduates were doing their experiments.

D. Purpose of Use

To explore how personal DIY corpora were incorporated into their writing practice, participants were interviewed how they use their corpora. The survey suggests that most of the participants were consulting corpora for lexical and grammatical problems. When participants wanted to know expressions of certain meanings, or not sure the usage of some words or grammatical structures, they turned to corpora for help. When they wrote some papers, they looked up something in the dictionary and found several similar expressions and then they came to corpora to compare the contexts of each expression and found the best ones.

These results resonate some previous studies (Charles, 2012; Yoon, 2011), which found that participants usually consult corpora for sentence level difficulties, such as addressing lexical issues and grammatical concerns (Lee & Swales, 2006; Charles, 2014), which were easy to tackle and appropriate to be the very first step to access before working on more complicated discourse questions.

E. Problems of Personal DIY Corpora

There were some problems participants encountered when using DIY corpora. These problems or potential disadvantages severely compromised the enthusiasm of using corpora to help writing and suggested us ways to improve

the popularity of corpora use.

1. Accessibility

Participants complained of corpora software lacked of accessibility. It is not very convenient to use, installation must be performed when changing computers or something wrong with the local computer. The software is not very easy to use, and you must take tutorials or training courses to learn how to use it. The processing speed of the software varies according to different configuration of the computer, that is, if you want high speed, the configuration parameters of your computer should be taken into consideration. Some previous studies (Charles, 2014, p.35) also suggested "web-based interface" to facilitate users with high processing speed and cloud storage. Another solution is to use the BYU online corpora registered version, which provides tutorials and storage allowance, but you must pay if you want the full function.

2. Size

Size is always the concern of corpus linguist, as John Sinclair puts it "small is not beautiful" "texts are so different as you put a lot together" (Sinclair, 2004, p.64). Some participants raised the same concerns about the small size of their DIY corpora. As we all know, general corpora should be bigger than ESP corpora, while specialized corpora can be comparatively small, but some of our DIY personal corpora were undoubtedly too small to be representative and unable to address certain kinds of problems. The solution to the size problem is to encourage participants to form a habit of adding new articles to their corpora whenever they read something new and useful. To add one article to corpus is just like to store a doc to a folder, not too much manual work to do.

One point worth mentioning is that if we want our participants to form a habit of using corpora as consulting tool, we must let them feel the usefulness of corpora, that is, help them to see the "beauty of corpora". As ESP learners, most of their time was dedicated to learning disciplinary knowledge, and they have limited time available for learning how to write, and even limited time to learn and build corpora, so "they need to be convinced that the utility of the resource justifies the time taken to build it" (Charles, 2014, p.36). Therefore, when setting up teaching plans, it is necessary to devise tasks that offer opportunities to tackle problems that are easy to access and can meet their most pressing needs even with very small corpora. Working in groups also serves as a good solution, which can help participants share the load in finding research articles and cleaning the texts, and supplement each other with their individual findings.

3. Reliability

Some participants worried about the reliability which is another problem caused by small size. To some specialized corpora, the research results may be similar compared with results from large corpora, but some participants were still reluctant to trust their data from DIY corpora, even when it was large enough. Several reasons may contribute to this: firstly, participants are not confident enough to trust their own finding. As in Chinese education system, Chinese student are accustomed to trusting external authoritative sources, such as expert opinions or dictionaries. They are not used to trusting their own findings. It takes a longer time and some proof to develop confidence in their own finding, judgments, and interpretations. Therefore, some confirmatory tests can be designed into the teaching plans to help build their confidence, that is, participants can use their own DIY corpora to testify certain conclusions that have been conducted and proved true by many researchers and teachers themselves.

Secondly, some papers published in even some high-profile journals are not always perfectly written. Because we will use the articles in the corpora as writing examples, participants are expected to choose good quality research articles from well-regarded journals that may provide appropriate lexical and grammatical evidence to meet their writing needs. The problem is that some journals may value ideas or disciplinary importance more than linguistic perfectness, and language is always not the priority. So that is the reason why we will compile two sub-corpora: one is written by native speaker authors and another is written by non-native speaker authors. We can also consult the same queries in the two corpora and compare the results to see the differences, which may offer another perspective for the participants to avoid the mistakes the non-native speaker authors made in their research papers. Another solution is to enlarge the corpora. Select more native speaker author articles and technically decrease the percentage of the less perfect ones.

V. Conclusions and Future Challenges

Results show that most of the participants had mastered how to use their self-compiled corpora for checking lexical collocation or grammatical problems while writing and revising their papers, and most of them held very active and positive attitude toward the use of corpora to improve their academic writing. Though six-months after the course, the frequent irregular users drop dramatically due to their disciplinary emphases and timing, most of the participants expressed their willingness to use DIY corpora in the future, and their confidence of using corpora independently to meet their language needs. It may be concluded that Participants have incorporated corpora tool into academic writing training and considered it a valuable tool, so it is a worthwhile undertaking to teach students to compile and consult DIY corpora with a brief introductory course. Furthermore, we can see that using corpora to teach academic writing is also a practical tool for individualized teaching, that is, there is no need for teachers to select different disciplinary materials for academic training, the students themselves will take the responsibility to do that, and the process itself is effective methods to improve academic reading and writing. We can cultivate more functions of corpora in language teaching and learning.

Based the individualized needs of the participants in the present study, some challenges entail in maximizing the potential of personal corpora. The irregularity of participants' academic writing requirements raises issues concerned with the timing and provision of corpus courses. Therefore, the handling and the arrangement of the course can be various. We may hold one formal course in their first year and then we can provide follow-up support, such as "refresher sessions, drop-in clinics, on-line, on-demand courses or other means of just-in-time support" (Charles, 2014, p.36), addressing their requirements as they emerge.

Another one is concerned with people's difficulty in installing and using the software. It is the challenge to software engineers. We hope we can just login the account online or in the cloud, and then we have everything we need and we used before. No need to worry about technical circumstances, and easy accessibility, friendly interfaces and timely support online will facilitate anyone who is interested in personal DIY corpora.

The present study is just the first step in the field of corpora aided language teaching and learning. More topics and perspectives will be considered for further research, and more challenges will be encountered. With our further research in this filed, the real beauty of DIY personal corpora will reveal themselves, and more students and people interested will benefit from the use of corpora.

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Local Evaluation of an EFL Textbook: 'Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking'

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Abstract—**The present study was carried out to evaluate Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking. This study took an advantage of mixed method. The adopted checklist was retrieved from Al-sowat's (2012) with minor revision to gain qualitative data. The appropriateness of the checklist was sought vis a vis the comments by two faculty members of Guilan University with research interests in curriculum design and development. The evaluation was based on criteria, namely, lay-out and design, objectives, activities and tasks, balance of skills, language type, subject and content, social and cultural value, structures and vocabulary, and teachers' need. Some weaknesses and strengths of this book were discussed accordingly. In addition, the attitude of thirty freshmen towards this book was investigated via opinionnaire to gather quantitative data. The validity of the oppinionnaire was checked by the Faculty members of Guilan University. The estimated value of Cronbach's alpha for opinionnaire was (α=.780). Findings showed shortcomings and strengths such as limited number of pictures, usefulness of objectives, appropriateness of the activities for different learning styles, combination of different activities, little attention to reading and writing, lack of unplanned interaction, lack of different dialects and accents (World Englishes), culturally unbiased. Moreover, the result of the opinionnaire indicated highest positive attitude towards items (11, 13, 2, 6, 8, and 3) respectively. This study might be of help to speaking and listening teachers, syllabus designers, textbook evaluators in that they could apply appropriate addition, deletion, adaption and adoption if using Mosaic1: speaking and listening.**

Index Terms—**evaluation, EFL textbook, speaking and listening**

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the most crucial roles in language teaching/learning is played by the textbook. Hutchinson and Torres (1994) emphasized on the universality and essentiality of the textbook in educational context. Also, Sheldon (1988) determined textbook as the heart of ELT courses. Textbook could enhance the exposure of learners to authentic materials inside the classroom. It also could be considered as a linchpin for novice teachers by providing, time management procedure, guidelines and frameworks (Ansari& Babaii, 2002; Garinger, 2010; Tok, 2010). In other words, classroom management might be less bewildering phenomenon by utilizing prefabricated textbook. Usually teachers of EFL context are non-native speakers; therefore, not only the materials might be viewed as affluent source for the learners, but also they could be highly significant for the teachers' performance. As a result, it is influential to select appropriate materials and textbooks. To this end, textbook evaluation plays an important role.

McGrath (2002) remarked on the distinction between analysis and evaluation. Accordingly, analysis was referred to investigation of what exist and evaluation was referred to discovery of aims and objectives. There are several definitions for the term evaluation. Based on Farhady, Jafarpur and Birjandi (1994), evaluation was "the determination of the congruence between performance and objectives." (p. 3). More pertinent definition was highlighted by McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) which defined materials' evaluation as the "procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning material" (p. 50). To have a better grasp on the textbook and material's evaluation, definition of the term material might be of value. Tamlinson (2001) defined material as "anything which can be used to facilitate the learning of a language" (p.66). This definition broadens the concept of materials' evaluation to associating external and internal investigation. McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) considered external evaluation as an "overview of how the materials have been organized" by "checking the organization of the materials as stated explicitly by author/publisher by looking at the blurb and the introduction and table of contents" (pp. 45-54).On the other hand, internal evaluation was defined as "procedure by informing in-depth investigation into the materials" (McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara, 2013, p. 59).

Different categories exit for evaluation, namely, formative, summative, long term and short term (Nation & Macalister, 2010). Ellis (1997) classified evaluation into predictive and retrospective. In predictive evaluation, teachers predict which materials are important and in retrospective evaluation the outcome is scrutinized. Additionally, evaluation can be done in different situations such as open-market and ministry of education (McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara, 2013). This paper tries to investigate the open market evaluation, where the materials are not passed on to the teachers and where the teachers have a choice for selection of the main textbooks and supplementary materials.

Mosaic series can be considered as one of the appropriate sources for speaking/listening courses at undergraduate's level. The purpose of this paper is to evaluate and to highlight the merits and demerits of this book (Mosaic 1). Generally, undergraduate students suffer from speaking and listening skill. These two skills are interwoven and very important at university levels. To this end, speaking/listening's textbooks for universities should meet some requirements. One of the important instruments to check the requirements is a checklist that provides systematic evaluation. Impressionistic evaluation wouldn't be a reliable and accurate source for judgment, yet checklists accomplished this shortcoming (Cunningsworth, 1995; Ellis, 1997).

The materials, the way it has been organized, the content and the way learners should be assessed are of value for investigation. Therefore, a checklist with different areas such as layout and design, objectives, activities and tasks, balance between skills, language type, subject and content, social and cultural values and teachers' needs beside is selected and adapted for this study. There are numerous textbook with discrepancy between their blurbs, intentions and their outcomes. These books not only affect the performance of leaners but also may change the attitudes of learners. To illustrate it, assessment and the ways of correction might have direct influence on the learners' attitudes or the types of activity might not suit students' learning styles. Therefore, the main concerns of this study are to check the strength, weakness, claims and possible features available in the Mosaic 1: speaking and listening along with the attitude of the learners.

The findings may hopefully be of use to the learners, teachers, syllabus designers, policy makers, and other stakeholders:1)Instructors, by finding the weakness of this book, might apply an appropriate adding and deleting, modifying, simplifying or reordering if using Mosaic1, speaking and listening.2) By providing different weaknesses of this book, learners might consciously realize the parts that they should pay more attention, the parts that possibly cause difficulties.3)Syllabus designers, by comparing the merits and demerits might find out the value of this book for inclusion or exclusion in their syllabus.

This paper tries to answer the following questions:
• What are the weaknesses and strengths of Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking?
• What are the EFL learners' attitudes towards Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking?

II. METHOD

This study was descriptive due to the nature of the research questions. Mixed method design was used for the sake of triangulation to show various vantage points of the issues. Riazi (2016) distinguished between types of mixed method designs, namely, eclectic, principled eclectic and innovative. In this respect, this study utilized principled eclectic model by manipulation of opinionnaire's statements with the aim of obtaining the criteria of the checklist.

A. Instruments

The data for the textbook evaluation was gathered and evaluated via a checklist for the sake of systematization and accuracy. The utilized checklist was based on the study of Al-sowat's (2012) with minor revision according to Nation and Macalister (2010) and Mukundan, Nimehchisalem and Hajimohammadi (2011).Two main reasons for selecting this particular checklist was comprehensiveness of the criteria and context relevance. The appropriateness of the checklist was approved by the Faculty members of Guilan University with research interests in curriculum designing and development. The second instrument, 4-point Likert scale opinionnaire with 23 items, was researcher made which took into consideration the attitude of the 30 freshmen. The opinionnaire was piloted to check the blind spots. The statements were clear and simple in terms of language. Since, this study was locally oriented; also the validity of the opinionnaire was approved by the faculty members of Guilan University. In terms of reliability, the estimated value of Cronbach's alpha for the opinionniare was ($\alpha=.780$) which could be considered acceptable based on the standards suggested by Baker, Pistrang, and Elliott (1994).

B. Participants

The target participants of this study included 30 freshmen EFL learners who were learning English for their BA degree in TEFL. Using convenience sampling, the opinionnaire was distributed among learners participating in the course of speaking and listening with Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking as their main textbook. In addition, the background of the learners was checked for their familiarity with ELT materials.

C. Procedure and Data Analysis

In the first step, the textbook was evaluated by the present researchers. Furthermore, the shortcomings and strengths were discussed with faculty members using this book at Guilan University. After the common agreement, the opinionnire was administered to the participants at the end of the course. In accordance with the nature of the second question, the analysis of the collected data for the opinionnaire was done by the SPSS (version 21). Descriptive statistics was used to calculate means and standard deviations of the items.

III. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this section the weaknesses and strengths of Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking are briefly discussed in relation to the criteria of the checklist.

A. Lay-out & Design

Based on the external investigation of this book it could be realized that it had an appropriate quality both in terms of brightness of the cover and quality of the papers but we should consider the fact that this textbook was offset in Iran's market. Therefore, the ultimate quality couldn't be expected. Considering academic objectives of this book, the cover was appealing.

Farther, units were organized in a systematic way through three features of lecture, learning strategy and language function. Each of these categories was expanded by listening, speaking, critical thinking and vocabulary building. Not only unites were consisted of easy progression but also they had a cumulative effect by the organization of content. To elaborate, building background knowledge was supported by pair work activity related to the background knowledge of learners.

Analyzing the visuals, a number of pictures in each chapter were approximately limited to 8-10. There could be a better combination of picture and material juxtaposing each other. Additionally, the pictures were designed and captured intellectually and deviated to be cultural biased. Different ethnic group's pictures were used in this book.

The tables, charts and graphic organizations were functional. The charts and tables were supportive for the claim of academic development. Moreover, this book included adequate list of vocabulary. The table of content indicated the page numbers of the topics, but activities' page numbers were not explicitly declared in the table of content. This might be problematic for the learners. Moreover, the instructions of textbook were fairly clear and informative. The instructions were sufficient for self-study as well. Some of the explanations were lengthy for the sake of thoroughness. Another important factor was the visualization of the types of activities that were informative by putting the picture of one head which represented individual activity, two heads for pair work and three heads for group activity. Appendix and indices were acceptable both in terms of form and function.

In this respect, Hashemi and Borhani (2012) reported acceptable layout and design for Touchstone series. This is inline with the findings of this study. In contrast, Hashemi and Borhani (2015) didn't find an appropriate lay-out and design for American English File series.

B. Objectives

Objectives are highly significant in the process of material development. Nazeer, Shah and Sarwat (2015) found a good result from the book by checking the balance between objectives and the content of the Oxon book. Long-term objectives of Mosaic 1 were to prepare students for academic success and short-term objectives were declared clearly at the beginning of each chapter. They were gradual in difficulties. Based on Swain's (1985) the production was more complicated (difficult) than the comprehension. Moreover, Psycholinguist's view towards language learning indicated that comprehension preceded production (Steinberg & Sciarini, 2006). So the progression might commence by comprehension and go through production. In like manner, Kumaravadivelu (2006) categorized input, intake and output respectively. As a result, the chapters' objectives were designed in well-organized manner to achieve these aims. The materials were articulated in correspondence with what experts considered as necessity. In other words, this book was designed to satisfy the needs of the leaners such as independent accomplishment of the tasks, utilizing listening/speaking strategies for learner's autonomy and as such.

Outlining could be considered as an important factor that equips learners with reasonable framework for the academic development. Although, Dudley-Evans & John (1998) mentioned "The idea that scientific or academic writing uses the passive voice more frequently than the active is a myth", yet the importance of passive voice in academic context especially from positivistic view was magnificent (P.76). To this end, the clear illustration of passive voice supported the academic objectives of this book. Tok (2010) evaluated Spot On and couldn't find clear and concise progression towards claimed objectives. Another supportive element for the objectives was the activity of research on a particular topic which might familiarize the students with crucial concepts of the research in English for academic purposes.

C. Activities & Tasks

Tasks and activities might be considered as important and affluent sections of textbooks. Different types of activities such as pair work or group work should engage learners' knowledge and ability. This might be achieved by balance between types of activities. Touchstone series also delivered acceptable balance between types of activities (Hashemi & Borhani, 2012). Activities and tasks of Mosaic 1were distributed almost equally and were influential in developing cooperative learning through the exchange of information.

Admittedly, Nation and Macalister (2010) emphasized on the role of task as an activity that learners use their knowledge to attain certain objectives with the focus on meaning. Also they have distinguished between task-based syllabus and task-supported syllabus. Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking utilized topic-based progression and varied on the different themes such as challenges, cooperation and competition, relationships. As a result, the materials could be accounted as task-supported.

The authors of this book used different types of activity such as group work, pair work, and individual activity that were appropriate for different learning styles. Nation and Macalister (2010) said that "There should be opportunity for learners to work with the learning materials in ways that most suit their individual learning style" (p. 64). This included group size, pace of teaching and learning the medium of language use. This combination might result in individual creativity during interaction.

Another merit of this book was the number of choices learners could make in accomplishment of the activities. The instructions of activities and tasks were sufficient and adequate. Nation and Macalister (2010) mentioned that the views of the learners in some cases may differ from the purpose of activities. To this end, they considered clearness of the headings and instructions as one solution which Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking met this criterion.

A number of activities and their types were suitable and practical, but the attention was more on functions rather than forms. Nation and Macalister (2010) explained about language-focused learning that "involves a deliberate focus on language features such as pronunciation, spelling, word parts, vocabulary, collocations, grammatical constructions and discourse features" that taken into account both explicit and implicit knowledge(p. 92). Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking overemphasized on the explicit knowledge. Therefore, the authors overused explicit knowledge such as the lists of vocabularies in each unit.

The type of activities, namely, individual, pair work and group work activities were arranged appropriately for the learners. For instance, each lesson started with building background knowledge. At this level students might not be competent enough. To become more competent, help could be achieved by peer's interaction that farther might abolish frustration in many cases. Then, vocabularies would be introduced which could acquaint learners with the content. Later, listening activity could facilitate learning.

This book encouraged using computer and internet as well. However, the number of internet-based activities was limited. This might be good for the cases that learners couldn't have open access to the internet, but in general this could be considered as shortcomings. Alivina & Siyadat (2013) investigated inclusion of internet in commercial textbooks such as American English File, American Cutting Edge, Interchange and American Headway. Their findings revealed that only American English File utilized internet. Furthermore, participants of their study stated the importance leaning English through internet. Also, Shafiee Nahrkhalaji (2012) reported sufficient use of internet in Top Notch series.

Self-assessment at the end of each lesson could be viewed as a useful diagnostic tool. However, Nation and Macalister (2010) stated the problem of self-assessment as "it is often difficult to separate the learners' subjective concerns from objective judgment" (p.114).Therefore, Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking lacked the amalgamation of objective and subjective judgment.

D. Balance of Skills

In terms of quantity, the numbers of activities that support production (speaking) was higher than listening. However, the quality of listening as a pivot point of the lessons was highly significant. Other skills were given little attention since the focus was mainly on speaking and listening. Unlike Mosaic 1, Shafiee Nahrkhalaji (2012) found integration and balance between four skills in Top Notchseries. Moreover, it is of value to take into account the balance between instructional features of these two skills. The activities were sequenced based on the complexity which started with input and move towards output for both skills. It should be highlighted that both Language- process strategies and learning strategies were included in to the lessons. The book utilized approximate use of strategies for both skills.

The materials for the spoken language such as activities, dialogues and role play were parallel with the real life situation due to authentic language used in the textbook. In that, the role play activity could be changed into real play activity according to decision of instructor. The accuracy and the fluency were balanced by scaffolding technique in which the instruction and practice gradually developed to help learners with listening tasks. Authors of Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking designed the skills in instructional manner. In other words, listening skill was not mere test of comprehension, but instruction of listening. The same concept was applicable for speaking skill. Furthermore, the practice of critical thinking enhanced the capability of learners in speaking and listening. Critical thinking which might result in decision making and autonomy was characterized by Pennycook (2001) in narrow sense as "a way of bringing more rigorous analysis to problem solving or textual understanding, away of developing more critical distance as it is sometimes called" (p. 4).

Dudley-Evans and John (1998) explained about the difficulties of non native speakers both in getting into conversation and facing with signals. This book could equip learners to deal with real life situation. Accordingly, the objectives were preparing students for academic purposes; therefor learners should mostly deal with class situations, lectures or seminars in academic context. Brown (2001) divided the speech into monologue and dialogue. Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking was mostly monologue and planed, yet features of unplanned monologues such as hesitation or redundancy, slang and colloquial were fainted in this book. Additionally the speaking and the listening activities facilitated learner with critical thinking and problem solving techniques and which could be considered as merit of this book.

E. Language Type

Scrivener (2011) described authentic exposure as an "Exposure to language when it is being used fairly naturally" (p.397). Based on this statement the language used in mosaic 1 was to some degree authentic especially in academic context. The language of the book was appropriate for academic progression of students. Listening consisted of authentic sound, stress, rhythm, intonation and authentic rate of delivery but one of the weaknesses of the listening was the characters were native speakers of English. McDonough, Shaw and Masuhara (2013) considered English as lingua franca. Concomitantly, Kachru (1996) stressed on the concept of world Englishes. As a result, one of the shortages of this book was the lack of different dialects and accents. It was only restricted to North American and British accent which could be considered as widespread standard accents. Additionally, little attempt was made for explicit instruction of intonations and suprasegmental features. Language types used in the Mosaic 1 were appropriate for university and academic situations and could be beneficial for undergraduates in EFL context.

F. Subject &Content

The contents were based on the topics and real-life situations (*topic-based*) which could facilitate students in their educational lifespan. One of the important factors in the textbook evaluation is the sequence of content. Nation and Macalister (2010) divided the sequence of content into linear and modular arrangement. In the linear model the lessons were related to each other but in modular arrangement the lessons were separate from each other. This book also designed with modular arrangement (Topic-based) in which the content of materials would not be repeated in other chapters. This arrangement could be problematic in some circumstances. For example, absenteeism of the students might impede their progression in other lessons. It is worthwhile to mention that repetition existed, but within lessons. The topics were interesting. Also unites of progressions were mostly based on language functions, sub-skills and strategies. The other elements such as grammar was neglected to be part of unites of progressions. The subject and content were realistic. In contrast to Mosaic 1, American English File series were not much realistic, motivating and challenging (Hashemi and Borhani, 2015).

Johnson and Johnson (1999) explained learners' autonomy as the "capacity to take charge of both strategy and content of learning, and is obviously predicated on an assumption that the educational environment will provide the freedom for him or her to do so" (p.307). In this respect, Mosaic 1 provided content to develop learners' autonomy. The book was designed in a way that different leaners could have different choices in the activities based on their own leaning styles. This is inline with Ur (1999) statement that "the learner can use the course book to learn new material, review and monitor progress with some degree of autonomy" (p. 80). Moving towards other features of content, it could be realized that in some parts the content challenged listeners to think about their world view. This also might improve creativity and identity of the learners.

G. Social & Cultural Values

The cultural factors of the materials have always been a controversial issue among the practitioners. On the same scenario, Paige, Jorstad, Siaya, Klein and Colby (2003) stated that "No longer thought to be value-neutral, textbooks and other materials used in language learning generally present a certain way of looking at the world, that is, through the cultural lens of the author"(p.39). Concomitantly, Kumaravadivelu (2006) stated that "no text is innocent" (p.13). Investigating ideological, cultural and social aspects of texts require separate studies which are usually done via critical language studies and it is beyond the scope of this study. Overall, Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking was less culturally biased since the subjects and contents were designed academically. The authors didn't try to develop particular culture. Also the pictures were approximately equal between different races and genders. Generally, commercial textbooks with English for general purposes might be more cultural biased. For instance, Hashemi and Borhani (2015) found cultural bias and negative stereotyping in American English File. Touchstone series were also reported to be culturally biased (Hashemi & Borhani, 2012).

H. Structures and Vocabulary

There was no separate section for grammar which could be the weakness of this book. Explicit and implicit teaching of grammar together might be of help to make leaners accurate. Many scholars such as Richards and Renandya argued "people now agree that grammar is too important to be ignored and that without a good knowledge of grammar, learners' language development will be severely constrained" (p.145). Furthermore, Notion and Macalister (2010) provided three boosting features of grammatical structures and language – focused learning as "It can speed up learning. It can help learners to overcome some barriers to their language development. It can have positive effect on meaning focused learning." (p.57). Moreover, grammar is an umbrella term that cluster different areas such as pronunciation, word formation, syntax and as such. Accordingly, integrating implicit and explicit instruction of grammar could make learners more competent in terms of knowledge and ability.

A number of vocabularies for the accomplishment of the exercises were adequate and each lesson consisted of a list of target words. However, through a precise probe on the listening sections it was realized that there were a lot of unmentioned (new) words. Schmitt (2002) has proposed that the number of unknown words should be limited in the text for the non native users. As a result this could be considered as a demerit for Mosaic 1. Another shortcoming was the absence of teachable strategies for dealing with unknown words. This shortcoming might be more problematic for novice teachers and could also overwhelm learners.

Brown (2001) believed that "traditional language-teaching methods highlighted vocabulary study with lists" (p.375). Mosaic 1 had lists of words in each lesson which seemed old fashion and outdated. It would have been much more comprehensive if the authors had brought the list of words in a text parallel to listening. In this case both reading skill and strategies such as guessing from context, word parts (word formation) and dictionary use could be encouraged.

Other demerits of this section would be the implicit exposure to idioms, phrasal verbs, lexical chunks and collocations. It would be much better if the authors wrote chunks instead of single words. However, the authors included both high and low frequent words in the lessons. The words that had been used were functional and practical but they were not introduced in different context and forms.

I. Teacher's Needs

Textbooks should include students' workbooks, suggested supplementary materials, teacher's guide, videos and as such. Unfortunately, since Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking was offset, it might deprive teachers from appropriate guidance such as teacher's guide or teacher's edition versions. Additionally, tests and ways of evaluation might be of help for teachers which in this case were not included.

In what follows, the attitudes of the Learners towards Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking are discussed briefly by making use of descriptive statistics, namely, mean and standard deviation.

TABLE I
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR THE ITEMS OF THE OPINIONNAIRE

	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
1) I enjoyed the interaction with other classmates.	2.0667	.73968	30
2) The instructions at the beginning of each chapter were useful.	3.6667	.60648	30
3) The speaking activities were interesting.	2.2667	.69149	30
4) I liked the color combination of the pages.	1.6333	.88992	30
5) I feel I can speak better because of the pair work activities.	2.1000	.84486	30
6) The listening activities were authentic.	2.8000	.75545	30
7) The cover of the textbook was interesting.	1.6000	.72397	30
8) I learned useful information that I could use outside the classroom.	2.6000	.62146	30
9) I am familiar with different accent because I heard different accent in this course.	1.4000	.56324	30
10) The pictures were motivating.	1.8000	.96132	30
11) The lessons were up-to-date.	3.9067	.34575	30
12) I liked this book because my absenteeism didn't cause problem for the next lesson.	2.0667	.90620	30
13) The book was interesting because didn't explicitly teach grammar.	3.8667	.34575	30
14) I can listen to English conversations better because of exercises in this book.	2.0667	.80153	30
15) I feel I can speak better because of group work activities.	1.7000	.75231	30
16) The topics were motivating.	2.0000	.74278	30
17) The contents of the lessons were close to my needs.	1.6333	.80872	30
18) The amount of activities and tasks were sufficient	1.5000	.68229	30
19) I use more passive voice in my lectures.	1.9000	.75886	30
20) I was responsible for the accomplishment of activities.	1.6333	.80872	30
21) Individual activities were boring.	1.9667	.61495	30
22) I talked more than the teacher.	1.8333	.79148	30
23) The self-assessment section was helpful.	2.0003	.80872	30

The participants of this study expressed their highest positive attitude towards items (11 & 13) which showed their point of view with respect to "being up-to-date" (M=3.9) and "explicit teaching of grammar" (M= 3.8). Item 11 was supportive for the overall positive attitude of the participants towards Mosaic 1. Item 13 was in contradiction to the assumptions of the present researchers, in that one of the shortcomings of structure and vocabulary section was the absence of amalgamation in explicit and implicit grammar teaching. This might indicate the sickness of EFL leaners from explicit instruction of grammar. Respectively, items (2, 6, 8, and 3) showed good level of positive attitude. Item 2 investigated "the beginning instruction of each chapter" (M=3.6). This might also support the findings in Lay-out and design section regarding the appropriateness of instructions. Additionally, item 6 tried to find the attitude of the participants towards "authenticity of listening tasks" (M=2.8). In the language type section, researchers' evaluation indicated the authenticity of materials which was inline with the beliefs of the participants. Item 8 sought the "usefulness of information that could be used outside the classroom" (M=2.6). This item corroborated with the activities and tasks that was deigned in a systematic way to encourage use of language outside the classroom. This might also encompass using different strategies for listening and speaking. Similarly, learners showed good proportion of positive attitude in relation to item 3 "speaking activities were interesting" (M=2.2).

In contrast, the lowest mean rank was reported to be for the items (9, 18, 4, and 17). Item 9 scrutinized the concept of "World Englishes" (M=1.4) in relation to different accent which could be considered as one of the shortcomings of Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking. The attitude of leaners regarding item 18 was in contradiction with the evaluation of activities and tasks (M=1.5). Items 4 indicated low mean rank for "color combination" (M=1.6). Additionally, item 17 had low mean in terms of "needs of the learners" (M=1.6).

With respect to the diversity with which the participants rated the items of the opinionnaire, items (10 and 12) had the highest variation (SD≥ .90). Item 10 evaluated the participants' attitude in relation to "pictures were motivating"

(SD=.96). On the other hand, items (11 and 13) reflected the least degree of variance implying that the respondents were highly consistent in their responses to this item (SD≤.34). Item 11 appraised their reflection towards "the lessons were up-to-date" (SD=.34) and item 13 highlighted their opinion to "explicit teach of grammar" (SD=.34).

IV. Conclusions

Some weaknesses and strengths in relation to Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking were discussed in the findings and discussion part. Overall, the evaluation showed reasonable balance between the short-term and long-term objectives of the book and design of the materials. The external factors of the book were acceptable; however, the participants' attitudes were not drastically positive in accordance with graphic organizations and as such. Types, purposes and amounts of activities were sufficient according to the evaluations, contrary to belief of learners towards items (14, 15, 18, 21, and 23). In relation to balance between skills, the textbook used more speaking tasks compering to listening, yet the quality of listening tasks were splendid. Additionally, language type used in this book was authentic and inline with the positive attitude of the participants in relation to item 6. The textbook was designed with the topic-based orientation and text was not culturally biased. Regarding the structures and vocabulary, it was mentioned that the balance between implicit and explicit teaching of grammars and vocabularies might be of help to learners. In other words, these two approaches might facilitate the process of learning. However, the item 13 rejected this notion in terms of positive attitude of the learners. The participants were interested in implicit instruction of grammar. Overall attitude of the participants was positive towards Mosaic 1: Listening and Speaking.

It is also of value to mention that the purpose of this study was a local evaluation not a tightly controlled global evaluation. The findings might be of value to speaking and listening teachers, particularly those who use Mosaic series in their classes. By recognizing demerits of this book, teachers could include useful supplementary materials. Theses findings might be helpful for possible adaption, adoption and deletion. Through the findings of this study, syllabus designers could arrange their syllabi to achieve the best possible result from their suggested materials.

V. Suggestions

This study was an attempt to evaluate the Mosaic1: listening and speaking and to check the attitude of the learners towards this book. It is suggested to conduct a study at global level by including more teachers in the process of evaluation. In this case more reliable result might be achieved. It is recommended to expand the evaluation in relation to other Mosaic series namely, reading and writing for further investigation in other skills. Since the present study was conducted on EFL series of Mosaic, the same study could investigate the ESL version of this book. A number of participants for investigating the attitude could be added to improve the level of generalizability.

Acknowledgements

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Reading for Writing—The Application of Genre Analysis in College English Writing in China

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Abstract—**Writing is seen as the most difficult one in the four skills of learning a foreign language. And also one cannot be quickly improved in teaching. Genre approach is a teaching pedagogy based on the theories of genre analysis. The purposes of genre approach are to cultivate learners' genre awareness of texts and master a certain genre which has its own communicative purpose and generic structure, to help learners understand and apply generic knowledge in writing. The author analyzes the existing problems in teaching college English writing in China. Then, the author designs a teaching approach, combining the advantages of three genre approaches and the author's teaching practice, which is suitable for college English writing in China. Last, some main findings are recommended in teaching writing.**

Index Terms—**genre analysis, college English writing, teaching mode**

I. INTRODUCTION

Writing, a process of cognition and thinking, is considered the most difficult skill to master. It requires the writer having the competence of generating analysis and synthesizing of ideas; mastering the organization of discourse; controlling the sentence structure and vocabulary and spelling. Writing has been the weakest one in the four skills of learning English for Chinese students. Most students tend to use the format and writing style of Chinese composition although they have learnt English writing skills in middle school.

In recent years, some studies show that students in China have the following characteristics in English writing:

1. Students always rely on mother tongue. Mother tongue participates in the whole process of English writing. In the process of composing, they may revert to their own experience of writing in their native language. However, learning to write in English differs from learning to write in Chinese. Relying on native language has the positive and negative impacts in writing.

2. Syntax is monotonic and some words are overused. Lexis in composition shows strong stylistic features of spoken language. Discourse patterns are influenced by native language. And students are poor in stylistic awareness.

3. The quality and quantity of English writing have been greatly influenced by foreign language level, native language writing skills, writing tasks, frequency of writing exercises, emotional and other factors.

Many people in China have learnt English for many years, even though some of them passed CET (College English Test) exams, they cannot write some standardized sentences in English, or cannot write short articles in fluent English. So how to improve writing instruction, how to fully and effectively improve students English writing skills are the difficult and urgent tasks which English teachers in China should encounter in teaching. Therefore, it is very important and necessary for teachers in China to study advanced teaching methodologies so as to help learners to improve their writing competence.

II. THE MODE OF TEACHING WRITING BASE ON GENRE ANALYSIS

Writing not only can test students' knowledge on vocabulary, grammar, but also the chapter controlling abilities, their logical abilities, language organizational skills, analysis skills, and so on. Therefore, students need to learn and master the basic knowledge, for instance, how to create an idea; how to layout an article; how to use punctuations and rhetorical devices, etc. Learners must develop the linguistic knowledge as well as the writing skills.

Based on the models of genre analysis and current teaching practice in writing, the author attempts to design a mode of teaching writing which suits for Chinese college students. Schematic theory and scaffolding of constructivism and the theory of intertextuality are adopted to instruct the genre-based approach in teaching writing to design a mode of teaching writing. At the first stage of teaching, the teacher selects a text of a certain genre as a model, and analyzes the discourse of the text, the communicative purpose of the genre, the generic structure and linguistics of the text. At the second stage, students imitate the sample text to write some paragraphs. At the third stage, students create compositions on a given topic and revise the drafts. The first purpose of this approach is to emphasize the interaction between teacher and students in learning genre knowledge. The second, students realize that writing a composition not only involves a certain genre, but also learn to adopt multi-genre structure in writing. The third, students should learn how to revise their compositions by themselves. The whole procedure of writing can be interpreted in the following steps:

A.   Modeling: Input Based on Social Constructivism

Modeling is the first and most important stage in the process of writing because writers should have sufficient knowledge of target genre before writing. During his period, teacher instructs students to analyze generic structure of the sample text in aspects of linguistics and genre knowledge. First, the teacher analyzes the specific communicative purpose in the text with students using the method of discourse analysis. In this way, students will notice the relationship between writer and audience. Then they can choose to use the appropriate words, sentences, moves and textual pattern to write.

1.   Genre and Discourse Analysis

The process of writing requires learners to master a variety of genres. A genre is a particular type of text, such as narrative, descriptive, argumentative or expository texts. Learners use texts as models of good writing, in which they analyze texts and produce their own versions of different types of writing. For example, writing an academic paper to a professor is quite different from writing a business letter. The requirements are determined by the social group and discourse community who use the particular genre. Thus, in writing we cannot avoid a term "discourse analysis".

Discourse analysis is concerned with the study of the relationship between language and the contexts in which it is used. Discourse analysis not only connects with language, but also examines the context of communication, that is, who is involved in and what are the relationship and the situation, and so on. Discourse knowledge helps students to understand about genres, characteristics, vocabularies and conventions of writing.

a. The Context of Culture

Social constructivism emphasizes the importance and the role of culture and context in developing personal interpretations and understanding of society. Systemic-functional linguists believe that texts are produced and determined by social contexts, so that it is possible to identify the social elements from the structure of texts.

Each text produces and expresses its meaning in a particular context of culture. Thus its determination of meaning relies on its social function and purpose. The same text has different social meaning and communicative effects in different cultures and social backgrounds. From the view of context of culture, every text can be seen as belonging to a particular genre of text. And the genre of text is reflected from two aspects: schematic structure which contains moves and steps; the other is realization pattern which refers to particular language structures.

The context of culture equals to genre. Genre knowledge can be acquired by exploring the social purposes and social location of the genre being studied, by making learners aware of how this genre differs from the others. The context of culture is the most abstract; text is specific and the context of situation locates between them. The text produces meaning between context of culture and context of situation.

b. The Context of Situation

Each genre has its fixed discourse structure that is realized through register. Register explains the relationship between text and context which contains field, tenor and mode. "It is a syndrome or cluster of associated varieties; and again only a small fraction of the theoretically possible combinations will actually be found to occur. Registers are ways of saying different things and are treated as realities by the members of the culture." (Halliday, 2007, p.168)It influences the theories of genre. Register and genre relate with each other and have different functions. The writer first choose a genre implying a high level of explicitness and the next select a register demanding linguistic choices.

In composing texts, learners should master the knowledge of register, to assume their audience and then choose correct or appropriate linguistic features and generic structure. For instance, in writing an academic paper, the audience may be their professor or scientists, so learner should consider the textual patterns of academic paper, especially its generic structure, and the language is formal and technical or scientific.

2.   Text: Schematic Stages of a Genre

The process of writing does not mean to write some sentences, but is derived from the previous knowledge stored in the writer's mind and the processes through which the writer tackles it. In this process, the role of teacher is to instruct or assist students to build a schema of a particular genre in their minds.

Schema provides us with general expectations that information in genres is to be arranged. It is used in the process of discourse to predict the contexts of a particular situation which is described in the discourse.

Taking the organization of a news report as an example, the main parts are the headline and the beginning of the article where the most important points are introduced. As the article progresses, less important details are introduced. This structure is directly related to the ways news is edited. In analyzing the sample text, the teacher can assist students to build their schemas from three aspects.

a. Introducing the Culture Schema

In social constructivism, knowledge as a human creation is constructed by social and cultural means. Meaning and understanding are created by individuals through their social interactions and that of their environment.

Culture schema refers to the knowledge of cultures except texts, including local conditions and customs. For foreign language learners, since the culture differs between target language and native language, the culture schema plays an important role in understanding texts. For writers, what they write, how they write and the forms they choose will be influenced by their cultures.

b. Establishing the Content Schema

Content schema is the memory of various knowledge, such as language, background information, inference, etc. It belongs to the textual content, the theme of text. Generally speaking, the understanding level of textual theme directly

influences the content of texts. In order to gain more schemata of content for students, the teacher should involve teaching as many aspects of knowledge as possible, such as generation gap, marriage, history, etc. "Widdowson states that content schema can explain the fact that some apparently empty and tautologies statements can have meaning. For example, 'Boys will be boys.'" (Swales, 2001, p.84) Most learners find these kinds of knowledge useful and draw on them when they write compositions.

c. Constructing Textual Pattern Schema

Due to themes, topics or the connection of information, different genre texts (news reports, poems, letters) have their own structural features. "The introduction to a description will generally classify what is being described whereas the introduction to a narration will generally orient the reader to the characters, time and setting of the story that will follow." (Knapp & Watkins, 2005, p.94) It refers to the background knowledge of the rhetorical structures of different types of texts.

Learners can use schema to interpret the particular textual pattern of a certain genre, but also can predict the generic structure on a given topic before writing. For example, in genre of argumentation and exposition, the general-particular pattern is always adopted. The writer states the general statement of the topic and then gives some detail evidences to support the topic; the last conclusion will be followed.

"Analyzing text enables students to aware that any piece of writing is an attempt to communicate something: that the writer has a goal or purpose in mind; that he or she has to establish and maintain contact with his reader; that he or she has to organize this material and that he or she does this through the use of certain logical and grammatical devices." (Donn Byrne, 1993, p.14) Effective learning takes place for the individuals in social activity with others, when they are in the social context; the new input is related to pre-existing knowledge and understanding. Therefore, in teaching writing, teacher plays the role as a guide, a coach or a tutor. "Schemas are very large and continuously growing. There are a lot of links both within and between schemas. When new information is processed it is considered by the extent to which it fits into an existing schema." (Prichard, 2010, p.11)

However, in many cases, new information does not fit well into an existing schema. The reason is that the learner has little or no pre-existing knowledge which can fit to the meaning of new information. In the process of modeling, the role of teacher is to help transform the information, such as linguistic features, textual patterns of genres, etc. to be learned into the format that fits to the students' current state of understanding.

B. Imitating under Intertextuality

Imitation is a basic principle in the creation of text rather than mere copying. It is the reproductive process of a previous text. A literary work is not simply produced by writer, but relates to other texts and the structures of its language. Reading and writing are intimately connected. Understanding the structure of a text can make you to be a good reader; it also makes you a good writer.

The network of genres reveals that genre competence involves knowledge not only of individual genres, but also of how genres interact with one another in complex ways to achieve dynamic purposes. Bronia P.C. so has explored the implications of this complex set of relations for ESP genre pedagogy, concluding that "To enable students to cope with a wide range of genres in today's world, it is important to help them acquire not only the knowledge of the rhetorical context, audience, generic conventions, as well as overlaps and distinctions, but more importantly also knowledge and understanding of intertextuality and interdiscursivity in genre writing." (Barwashi, 2010, p.50)

Some ESP scholars take genre intertextuality into consideration in teaching writing genres. For example, Ann Johns promotes the idea that students should be both genre researchers and genre theorists that can bridge the gap between what genre researchers know about genres and what students are often taught in classroom. Johns encourages students to broaden their concepts of genre and pay much attention to the variation among texts.

Through imitation, learners can understand certain genre better and internalize the generic structures and linguistic characteristics. In this phase, learners imitate the use of words, sentence structures, textual patterns, even though part of the plot of the sample texts to express their own views.

From the point of view of intertextuality, learners develop their writing skills not only allow them to produce a singularity generic textual type more effectively, but also to construct multi-generic texts in a creative way.

1. Linguistic Features of a Genre

Genre is reflected by language, while this process is mediated by register. We can determine a certain text belonging to which genre according to its usage of language.

a. Lexical Choice

In writing, we select words to express our thoughts. Words should be carefully chosen to fit genre, purpose and audience. For example, writers use concrete, descriptive words when writing stories to have an emotive effect on the reader; using scientific terms or a range of technical words when writing a science report. Different genres have different usage of vocabulary according to the topic, purpose and audience.

Many students in China fail to distinguish the differences between spoken and written English. You may say that you "finish the job" to another person, but if asked to this information in print, it should be "complete the project". When speak to your classmates, you could say you "find and fix" the errors, but in a memo to your professor, you would write you had "located and repaired" them.

b. Syntactic Choice

Sentences expected to be carefully constructed, and linked and organized to form a text. The sentences of new reports are mainly informed of statements. The structure always is SVC, SVO, SVA and so on. The syntactic feature is the use of VS instead of SV in some cases.

Learners need to understand how the lexis and syntax are used in written language to fulfill the communicative purposes of a certain genre. And whether the structures are well balanced which make the writing flow naturally.

2. Textual pattern of a Genre

Differences of genre and communicative model lead different language styles and sentence patterns. Sentences in the text are not chaotically connected, but according to the coherence between topics and the possibility of topics. Textual patterns reflect the author's thinking, but also the macro-cognitive structure of discourse. Since genre is one of the basic elements of textual features and restricts the form of text under the level of discourse, the textual patterns must be constrained under the genre.

There are some common patterns that are broadly classified as problem-solution, claim-counter claim (hypothetical-real), general- particular and matching.

The problem- solution pattern is used in various texts. It is very common in narrative writing, such as, stories, novels, experiment reports, advertising texts, etc.

The claim- counter claim (hypothetical-real) pattern is always used in political journalism, argumentation and in the letter-to-the-editor papers of newspapers and magazines. It consists of two parts. The first is the writer's viewpoint. The second part is the main body of the text where the writer makes his or her points clear.

The general-particular pattern is to be found in exposition, description and argumentation. Hoey distinguishes this pattern into two kinds: one is the "general-example pattern" which is a generalization given at the beginning, some examples are followed to provide evidence. The second is "the preview-detail pattern" which is a general view given and followed by detail explanations,

a. Intertextuality in a Certain Genre

The problem-solution pattern which is identified by Michael Hoey consists of situation, problem, response, evaluation / result. Hoey affirms that these analysis moves can be used repeatedly in the more complex text.

b. Intertextuality between Genres

Texts are often multi-generic; that is, they draw upon a range of genres. Cohen makes an argument like that:

A genre does not exist independently. It arises to compete or to contrast with other genres, to complement, augment, and interrelate with other genres. Genres do not exist by themselves. They are named and placed within hierarchies or systems of genres, and each is defined by reference to the system and its members. (Devitt, 2004, p.167)

For example, a letter may uses narration, while a report contains the expository writing. Through teaching the aspects of a particular genre, such as textual pattern, lexical and syntax choice, learners will recognize the generic purpose of their texts, rather than they learn to produce rule-governed models.

C. Independent Construction of Text

1. Drafting

After the above two stages, students begin to write the first draft of the target genre. At this stage, students are required to express their ideas using appropriate language, clearly understand the potential audience and select genre structure so that to have correct purpose of writing.

When drafting, students should consider the questions, such as, What is the purpose for writing? Who will read my writing? What knowledge do I have about this topic? What genre should I pick? What characteristics of the chosen genre? Are there specific words that I should use with this genre?

2. Revising

Revising is an important stage in writing, but often neglected by students. When writing the first draft, they focus on turning their ideas into words. And some of the sentences are not well formed and words are not well chosen, even having some mistakes in grammar or spelling. Revising involves making content— including topics, events, organization, sentences and words— with purpose, audience and genre in mind. However, revising does not mean to correct mistakes in grammar, spelling or other mechanics. Students receive the feedback from teachers and classmates. According to the feedback, students revise their first drafts considering the following questions. Is the theme of the draft clear? Is it substantial in content? Whether the structures of paragraph are arranged reasonable?

3. Final Draft

After the first draft is carefully revised, students have to make their final drafts adopting correct generic structure of a given genre, using appropriate words or sentences structures, expressing the ideas clearly and coherent in logic.

This approach combines reading and writing together to compensate for the limited time in teaching writing for college students in China. After learning students enable to realize how genres serve communicative purposes in different types of texts and gradually learn the generic structures and linguistic features.

III. RESEARCH ANALYSIS AND MAIN FINDINGS

A. Objectives

In order to improve learners' writing competence, the author applies genre-based approach in teaching writing.

Therefore, the objectives of the research are to prove that genre-based approach has effective effort in college English writing, and try to find out in which aspects it can improve students' writing competence.

B. Subjective

Three classes of non-English majors in Heilongjiang Bayi Agricultural University are involved in the Experiment. All of these subjects have more than six years' experience of learning English and can fluently use their linguistic knowledge and writing skills.

C. Methodology

A questionnaire, teaching experiments and writing tests are carried out by the researcher in the experiment. Writing tests contain pre-test and post-test.

D. Procedures

The research was conducted from October 2016 to January 2017, and the specific steps are following:

1. Questionnaire

The questionnaire was conducted to investigate the participants' attitude towards English writing and writing skills and the knowledge about genre. It consists of 10 questions with multiple choices.

2. Pre-test

The pre-test was used to test the learners' existing writing proficiency of the same genre. In the test, they were given the same topic which was chosen from CET-4(College English Test Band 4 in China): *Limiting the use of Disposable Plastic Bags*. The researcher marked their compositions from four aspects, which are grammar, collocation, content and organization, and each part having 25 points.

3. Teaching Experiment

In teaching experiment, the researcher designed a procedure of teaching to write an argumentation with its generic structure. The argumentative genre is an important and influential language process which involves reasoning, evaluation and persuasion. The goal of argumentation is to convince and to make the reader agree with writer's point of view and support it. The features of argumentative essays are: having a debatable point; providing sufficient evidence; organizing content in good and clear logic; using good the other types of writing and being an honest and friendly attitude. The common argumentative structure is: thesis→ argument → conclusion.

The reason to choose argumentation as the object of study is that it is the most common genre which encountered by college students in reading and writing in CET exams. And most of students cannot deal with it proficiently. For non-English majors, they do not have the particular English writing course in learning. So in teaching process, the researcher uses articles in the textbooks as the sample texts to teach the generic knowledge to students in order to help them master writing skills and enhance writing ability through reading. The steps are following:

Step1. Modeling

In reading the argumentative text "*Being Honest and Open*" from the *New Horizon College English* book one, the teacher input sufficient knowledge about argumentation into students' minds, including types, generic structure and linguistic characteristics. The text was analyzed and discussed by teacher and students.

Teacher provided an explicit framework or scaffold for students' writing with the aim of having them achieved success with their written texts. Students would answer some questions proposed by teacher when analyzing the sample text. For example: What is the communicative purpose of the text? How to analyze the discourse of the text (field, tenor, and mode)? Who is the reader of the text? How many moves are there in the text? How does the author organize the paragraphs? What are the linguistic features of the text? By focusing on the generic structure, students can pay more attention on organizing the content knowledge into structure.

(1) Analyzing the Register of the Sample Text:

    Field: argumentation, explaining "integrity triangle" to persuade people to be honest and open

    Tenor: persuade to the public

    Mode: written to be read, literary

(2) Modeling Generic Structure:

    The argumentative genre of sample text— *Being Honest and Open*, an exposition moves through the following stages:

Thesis:	① Statement of thesis	(Para. 1-2)
	② Preview	(Para. 3)
Arguments:	③ Point	(Para. 4-7)
	④ Elaboration	(Para. 8)
	⑤Point	(Para. 9-10)
	⑥ Elaboration	(Para. 11)
	⑦ Counterpoint	(Para. 12)
	⑧ Elaboration	(Para. 13)
Conclusion:	⑨ Summary	(Para.14)

In teaching, teacher should point out some stages are obligatory and others are optional. By analyzing each stage of sample texts, students can achieve generic purpose. It should be mentioned that this sample text is multi-genre which contains argumentative and narrative genre structures. And the whole essay is argumentative, the points or evidences are the narrative part.

(3) Modeling Text organization:

In the second part of modeling, teacher instructed students to notice the whole features of text organization or grammar and the role of a topic sentence in a paragraph.

Step2. Imitating after Class

Students used the knowledge about generic structure and linguistic features of argumentation from the textbook to write a composition on the given topic.

Step3. Drafting and Revising

They completed their drafts and revised the drafts according the following evaluation guide. Firstly, the genre knowledge: Does the text include a genre that achieves the writer's purpose and the reader's need? Do you choose the appropriate vocabulary and style for the genre? Secondly, the organizational structure: Does the text contains an engaging lead or introduction? Are the transitions smooth? Is the organization of ideas or events logical and appropriate for the genre? Thirdly, sentence construction: Sentences vary in length and structure to serve the writer's purpose and engage the reader. Forth, word choice: Does the language serve the purpose, reader, and genre? Are there any words or expressions over-used?

4. Post-test

After the whole study of a semester, the post-test was used to examine whether there was a significant improvement for their writing skills. The compositions were marked by the same grading criteria as the pre-test did. The topic of composition was also chosen from CET-4: *Creating a Green Campus*.

E.   Results and Analysis

In this section, the results of pre-test and post-test are compared and analyzed to examine whether there is a remarkable difference in teaching writing with genre-based approach. The results of tests and questionnaire will be shown in detail. In order to get more accurate results, SPSS22.0 was used to analyze the data collected from the experiment.

1. Questionnaire Analysis

Before the experiment, a questionnaire was conducted. All the 207 students in the research answered the 10 questions. The data collected from the experiments are shown in the following table.

TABLE 1
QUESTIONNAIRE

Item	A	B	C	D
1	31%	9%	9%	51%
2	3%	3%	53%	41%
3	3%	68%	21%	8%
4	1%	36%	16%	47%
5	34%	66%		
6	40%	60%		
7	27%	61%	57%	54%
8	7%	10%	68%	15%
9	85%	15%		
10	6%	49%	45%	

From the above table, we can analyze that half of the students (51%) consider writing is the most difficult skill for them. 53% and 41% of them think their writing proficiency is on medium and low levels. Their (68%) purpose to learn English writing is to pass the exam, only 3% and 21% of students learn it for interest and communication. Before writing, 36% of them understand knowledge of different genres, and 47% of them are on the contrary. More than half of them (66%) do not revise the compositions before handing in. And 60% of them never consider the purposes of writing. For the difficulties in writing which can be chosen more than one choice, they (61%) think they have poor English basic knowledge and inappropriate expressions; 57% and 54% of them lack writing skills and knowledge about generic structures and linguistic features. The majority students (85%) think reading texts of a certain genre will have good effect on writing. Only 6% students think their compositions being coherence and strict logic.

There are several reasons which cause these results from the questionnaire. The first is that product approach has been adopted in teaching writing for a long time, especially in middle school. Secondly, the purposes of writing for students are to complete the assignments given by teacher or just to pass the exams. Most of them do not have interest in learning to write. Third, students do not understand how to revise their compositions because this is usually done by teacher. And their poor linguistic knowledge and genre knowledge constrain them to express their ideas in writing.

2. Result of pre-test

TABLE2.
SCORES OF PRE-TEST

Items	Grammar	Collocation	Content	Organization
M	15.44	15.87	16.83	16.06
SD	1.73	2.27	1.96	1.55

M: Mean
SD: Standard Deviation

The data from the above table shows that students' writing competence is not very good. The score of each part is just passing grade. The reasons perhaps that the subjective are freshmen who are not familiar with the requirements of writing in CET4 and do not understand the argumentative characteristics. Most mistakes take place in agreement between subject and verb, keeping to one tense, coherence and cohesion of sentences and paragraphs.

3. Results of Post-test

TABLE3.
SCORES OF POST-TEST

Items	Pre-test		Post-test		Sig.
	M	SD	M	SD	
Grammar	15.44	1.73	15.60	1.55	0.34
Collocation	15.87	2.27	17.51	1.54	0.00
Content	16.83	1.96	19.17	1.26	0.00
Organization	16.06	1.55	18.16	1.05	0.00

Sig. Significant different

After the study of genre in a semester, the results show that, students have been improved greatly in collocation, the value of P is0.00, (if P<0.05 the difference is significant); in content, and in organization, the values P are 0.00. They indicate that there are significant differences between pre-test and post-test which prove that genre-based approach has a great effect on learners' writing skills through reading and analyzing the sample texts of a certain genre. However, in grammar, the value of P is 0.34>0.05. It means that genre-based approach has no significant improvement in teaching grammar. This should be taken into consideration in teaching.

F. Main Findings

According to the results of the research, genre-based approach has been proved to have progress in improving students' writing proficiency. In this section, some suggestions will be recommended to improve the teaching effect.

1. Enforcing the Target Language Input

Most of students in the experiment have had the experience of thinking over the given topic for a long time without writing a single word. They feel anxiety and frustration because they can generate ideas and content but cannot write them down accurately or use appropriate words or sentences. Obviously, these students are less fluent and accurate in their language production in word selections and syntactic choices. This is because most of them use their native language in composing and they have difficulties in expressing themselves in English. Therefore they need to input adequate knowledge of target language.

How can we provide adequate input knowledge for students in learning to write in a foreign language? The best provision of input is a great deal of reading. Reading provides foreign language learners with opportunities to learn vocabularies, structures and usages which cannot get from conversation. Experienced writers and writers with rich vocabularies are always extensive readers. To read many good writers will improve the students' writing.

2. Emphasizing Text Analysis and Awareness of Genre

For a longtime, in teaching writing, most Chinese teachers emphasize students should master the units of writing which are the sentences and then the paragraph and the grammar. They ignore the importance of developing whole text, especially generic structure of the text.

The purposes of teaching genre awareness to students are that they can understand the intricate connections between contexts and forms, to have potential conscious of ideological effects of genres, and to notice both constraints and choices that genres make possible. Using texts as models of good writing is an effective way to generate students' awareness of a certain genre. For example, teacher instructs students to discover the communicative purpose of a particular generic form by using the acquired genres or contrasting one familiar genre with another. Thus, students know in which way the form suits the context of situation and how the context of culture influences the choice of form. Learners will find that not all writing is alike. Every genre has its own characteristic and generic structure. Through this process, students realize that language fulfill certain functions not only by the grammar but also the structure of discourse.

3. Avoiding the Influence of Obligatory of Genre in Writing

Using genre-based approach in teaching writing enables students to realize that writing is a kind of social activity which has regularity and also a way of understanding the world. This can release students' anxiety feeling in writing. However, on the other hand, the obligatory of genre may cause the teaching to be seen as regulations. Genres are relatively stable, but they are not fixed or immutable. Students will feel the approach to be boring and stereotyped if the teacher cannot have enough imagination and creation in teaching. Because of many diverse types of genre, it cannot

deal with all of the genres which students encounter in daily life through teaching in class. Therefore, teachers are required not only instruct students how to write a composition of a certain genre, but also enhance their awareness of genres to let them realize the differences between texts of a genre and encourage them creatively write compositions.

4. Teaching Cross-culture Knowledge in Writing

Language and culture are closely connected with each other. Language is a part of culture and impacted and shaped greatly by culture. So culture plays an important role in teaching and learning a language. For foreign language learners, they do not have the direct experience of foreign cultures. Chinese students are likely to write English composition in a different way from native speakers. For example, when writing a request letter, the English usually ask first and explain latter. On the contrary, the Chinese tend to think to explain the reasons and then make the request. This is a cultural problem or the way of thinking. Teachers should make comparisons between foreign cultures and Chinese culture which can help students better understand the target culture and explain different cultural behaviors, avoiding explaining some social behaviors or phenomena according to their own standards or using inappropriate language. Comparison differences between English and Chinese cultures help learners remove their language obstacles and enhance their communicative competence.

Teaching knowledge of cross-culture, such as customs, religious beliefs can make fewer culture shocks in expressing. Teachers are responsible for instructing their students in learning English-speaking countries cultures. Culturally unacceptable language is always worse than linguistic errors and often creates embarrassing feeling between native people and foreign language learners. The best method to improve students' awareness of different culture is that to encourage students to read extensively.

IV. CONCLUSION

Providing students with knowledge to become effective users of written English is the main aim of teaching writing. The theories of genre analysis provide us a different way of teaching writing. In teaching process, students pay more attention to the communicative purposes and schematic structures of the genres. Analyzing a specific genre is important for student's writing practice in the future. With the genre knowledge, students find writing is a communicative activity which has its rules to follow and it is easier to compose texts than before.

The results of experiment show that the genre-based approach is probably suitable to teach foreign language writing in China. It provides students various texts within the relevant genre and leads them to understand how the contexts and purposes of these texts are related to their structure and lexico-grammar.

However, the study also has some limitations. For instance, only the argumentative genre was taught in teaching writing. It cannot solve the grammar problem. And the teaching experiment lasted only one semester. The study of genre-based approach in teaching writing need further research in future.

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Impact of Risk Taking Strategies on Male and Female EFL Learners' Test Performance: The Case of Multiple Choice Questions

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Abstract—**This study scrutinized the interaction between gender and risk taking variables in test performance of Iranian EFL learners. The research was conducted on 120 male and female EFL learners from Islamic Azad university of Isfahan (khorasgan). The participants received a Venturesomeness subscale of Eysenck `s IVE questionnaire and were asked to rate each item on a 5point Likert-scale. The total score for this questionnaire ranges from 16 to 80. Students who were lower than 30 were considered as low risk-takers, those who were more than 70 as high risk-takers, and those between 30 and 70 as moderate risk-takers. In a weeks' time, a complete TOEFL PBT test comprising 140- multiple-choice items as the second instrument was administrated. The results revealed that the female EFL students were lower risk takers and left questions unanswered more frequently and skipped questions a lot more than their male counterparts. Finally, it was found out that low risk takers answered the least number of questions in comparison to high and moderate risk takers, and consequently, had the most number of questions left unanswered which had a negative effect on test takers' performance.**

Index Terms—**gender, risk taking level, test performance, EFL learners**

I. INTRODUCTION

Testing is an important part of every language teaching and learning experience so that it will be virtually impossible to focus on one without taking the other into account. In fact, testing is viewed as a constructive and practical teaching strategy giving learners useful opportunities for choosing appropriate choices that signal particular realities of language. Language testing today not only reflects current interests in teaching genuine communication, but it also reflects earlier concerns dominating how language tests are scientifically formulated. From a psychological perspectivization, test-takers' mental or physiological states can affect their test performances during testing. For instance, anxiety, fatigue, motivation, etc. are certain specific factors which are strikingly important in shaping test-takers' decisions when answering questions on a test. In addition, learners' ability to take risks appears as one of the most influential variables evoking a significant change in learners' behaviors taking a test, which has been considered a predictor variable of success in second language learning as well as learners' test performance (Gass & Selinker, 2008).

The most important consideration in designing and developing a language test is the utilization for which it is expected so that the most important quality of a test is the fact of being useful (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). According to Bachman (1995), the two major purposes of language tests are the source of information for making decisions that are usually related to students, programs, and teachers as well as indicators of abilities or attributes that are of great interest in research on language, language acquisition, and language teaching in general. Consequently, a number of test methods such as cloze test, c-test, gap-filling, matching, multiple-choice, open-ended (or short-answer), ordering, recall, summary, and summary gap-filling are utilized to satisfy various purposes (Biria & Dehghan,2016). Debates continue about the best test methods for the purpose of estimating learners' different knowledge of linguistic entities or skills. However, one of the most significant current test methods is the use of multiple choice questions in various testing environments. In point of fact, multiple-choice tests are widely used for the measurement of knowledge, ability and complex learning outcomes (Ben-Simon et al.1997). One of the merits of multiple choice test items is that they allow easy comparisons among test-takers, especially in large-scale standardized exams like TOFEL and IELTS. From a structural perspective, a multiple-choice item usually comprises of a stem that is a problem situation, and several alternatives providing possible solutions to a given language problem. In addition, multiple-choice responses minimize the disadvantages inherent in assessment procedures that require subjective rating (Campbell, 1999). Alternatively, as Johnston (1981) observes, multiple-choice items are "probably the most researched, most maligned, most difficult to construct, most abused, yet most functional of all items" (p. 82)

In a recent research by Lightbow and Spada (2013) on learner individual variables show that a complex interaction of both internal and external factors may influence EFL learners' test performance. For example, an external factor which negatively affects learners' motivations is a controlling, angry teacher while the tension that such teachers impart gradually to their students is an internal factor that influences students' learning performance negatively. Brophy (2004) also investigated factors such as motivation and enthusiasm impacting test performance by stating that the learners may begin to encounter certain external practices such as replying to their teachers' questions, finishing their assignments, taking tests, and having their performances monitored, graded, and reported to their parents which make them develop tension and psychological threats.

Alrabai (2016) classified the factors that affect the EFL achievement of Saudi learners into two main categories: Firstly, individual factors which are connected to demographic variables such as gender, age, motivation, attitudes, aptitude, anxiety, autonomy, learning strategies, etc. Secondly, external factors which are primarily pertained to factors which are uncontrollable. These external factors vary from sociocultural variables, like the impact of religious, social, and cultural beliefs to factors pertained to the nature of EFL instruction and to faults in the EFL educational system in Saudi Arabia.

Indubitably, there are many psychological and physiological factors which affect learners' test performance. Nava and Galimberti (2015) have enumerated the psychological factors affecting L2 learning such as personality, motivation, self-efficacy, attributions, and anxiety. In another study, Mushtaq and Nawaz Khan (2012) found out the important factors that influence the academic performance of the students. This study was conducted in private colleges in Rawalpindi and Islamabad. By using appropriate statistical techniques, they found that communication, learning facilities, proper guidance and family stress are some of the factors that have a bearing on the students' test performance. Communication, learning facilities and proper guidance reflect the ways students are influenced when performing on various tests. Therefore, the findings of the study indicated that communication is a vital factor loading test performance, while learning facilities and proper guidance were similarly impotent but to a lesser degree. Additionally, the results revealed that family stress reduced performance quality. Finally, the findings also indicated that risk taking is another significant variable concerning learners' test performance.

According to Beebe (1983), risk taking has been defined as making a conscious choice between alternatives with different desirability; however, the outcome of the choice is not certain because there is always a possibility of failure. In line with Beebe's definition, Alshalabi (2003) argues that risk-taking is a kind of moving toward something without thinking of the possible results. Thus language learners take risk during their second language learning period because they are replacing their established linguistic patterns with other unfamiliar ones, which involves a game of having a go (Gledhill & Morgan, 2000). There have been a whole lot of researchers working on risk taking in different aspects such as its impact on the development of various language skills.

Lee & Ng (2010) believed that in the field of second language learning, academic risk taking is a situation-based process that can be moderated by providing the appropriate contexts for its application. The contexts may range from the ones in which the learner knows what skill to use to the ones in which learning occurs in a probabilistic setting. The latter can lead students to extremes in the use of risk taking. The fact that risk taking is not a stable personality trait and that's why researchers consider it as a potential tool to help students improve their learning.

Considering the characteristics of risk takers, risk taking students engage more actively in classroom participation. In other word, they value opportunities to produce language (Alshalabi, 2003). In addition, risk takers have some strategic techniques to cope with the uncertainty and risk levels involved in a particular situation usually such as guessing (Beebe, 1983). Moreover, they generally support ideas that are not supported by others. Such characteristics create some levels of responsibility management and courage to let them assume the consequences of their linguistic decisions, even when they are not supported by others in order to handle risk-taking situations. On the contrary, low-risk takers tend to be more inhibited and use less complex structures so that their levels of linguistic oral accuracy do not decrease considerably. The problem with inhibition on the part of low-risk takers is that it diminishes risk taking which is necessary for rapid progress in a L2.

It is interesting to note that the analysis of students' risk taking behavior in EFL classrooms and the relation between risk taking and learning have often been the focus of research in many studies on testing problems. As an illustration, Cervantes (2013) examined the role of risk taking behavior in the development of speaking skills in ESL classrooms. He investigated that high risk takers enjoy several benefits when they venture into oral discourse. As a case in point, the learners were willing to try out new linguistic items and constantly looked for opportunities to learn the language. Unlike low risk-taking students, Students with high risk -taking behaviors in the second language may show a considerable increase of linguistic intake (Beebe, 1983). In a different study, Dehbozorgi (2012) conducted a research about the effects of attitudes towards language learning and risk-taking on EFL students with different proficiency levels. To this end, three instruments were used: Attitudes towards Language Learning Scale, Venturesomeness Subscale of Eysenck IVE Questionnaire, and Oxford Quick Placement Test (2005). 120 female and male college students majoring in English Translation at Marvdasht university participated in this paper. The results revealed there is no significant relationship between proficiency level and attitude towards language learning and participants with an intermediate proficiency level   were actually higher risk-takers. The findings also demonstrated that differences in risk-taking between high and intermediate learners were statistically significant. Moreover, there was no significant

difference between high and low groups and low and middle proficiency groups in terms of risk taking strategies. Correlational analysis of the data revealed a significant positive relationship between attitude towards language learning and risk-taking. Besides, language proficiency and attitude towards language learning did not have a significant connection

Similarly, Ghoorchaei and Kassaian (2009) investigated the relationship between risk-taking, as a personality factor, speaking fluency and grammatical accuracy of Iranian EFL students. In this research, 50 students who were at a similar level in terms of English language proficiency. The subjects were divided into 3 groups of high, medium and low risk-takers by means of carrying out picture description tasks and completing the Persian version of venturesomeness Subscale of Eysenck's IVE questionnaire. The results revealed that in terms of fluency, high risk-takers were more fluent than low risk-takers, and medium risk-takers were the optimal group. Furthermore, it was concluded that the medium risk-takers were the optimal group in terms of grammatical accuracy in speaking.

Chitsaz and Sahragard (2005) examined Iranian EFL learners' risk-taking characteristics and their performance in an English language test. The subjects of the study consisted of both male and female students in different fields in the master's program studying. The instruments for data collection were an English placement test and a personality questionnaire. The data obtained was subjected to some statistical analysis. The results obtained showed that there is no correlation between being a risk taker and performance in language tests among a domain of Iranian EFL learners.

Biria and Bahadoran (2015) explored the role of risk-taking propensity and gender differences in EFL students' multiple-choice test performance. To examine how risk taking impacts the quality of learners' performances on multiple-choice tests, a sample of 120 male and female students were randomly selected. Based on the responses provided by the targeted samples to a modified version of Skaar's Adolescent Exploratory and Risk Behavior Rating Scale (AERRS), they were divided into two groups with different risk-taking propensity levels. After a period of two weeks, a TOFEL paper based test (PBT) was administered to the respondents. The results revealed that the number of items on multiple-choice test unanswered by the females was higher than those by the males. In addition, test-takers with the higher risk-taking propensity levels answered more items so that fewer items were left unanswered. Zarfsaz and Takkac (2014) also addressed Turkish students majoring in teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL) and tried to explain and analyze their attitudes toward risk taking and silence in L2 classrooms. The study was conducted based on qualitative and quantitative data collection and analytical I techniques. In quantitative data collection phase, a non-experimental survey was conducted by administering a five-scale Likert questionnaire which was administered to all students. Subsequently, ten students were interviewed voluntarily. The study concluded that most of the participants were aware of the importance of risk taking and speaking in the classroom and had a positive attitude towards class participation. Teachers' demanding behavior, anxiety and self-esteem, and ambiguity tolerance were also found to be the most inhibiting factors for Turkish EFL students.

In another study, Maftoon and Afroukhteh (2005) conducted a research about the relationship between risk-taking and vocabulary learning strategy use of Iranian EFL learners. In this research, 300 Iranian EFL students participated from two universities in Hamedan. Three instruments were used to gather data including Oxford Quick Placement Test (Version I), Vocabulary learning questionnaire developed by Gu and Johnson (1996), and Persian version of Eysenck's Personality Test. Descriptive statistics were used to analyze the obtained data and the results showed that there was not a statistically significant relationship between risk-taking and vocabulary learning strategy use of Iranian learners in general.

Tavakoli and Ghoorchaei (2009) also investigated the relationship between self-assessment and teacher's rating of speaking ability. Alternatively, risk-taking was singled out in order to examine its relationship with self-assessment. Seventy-Nine Iranian EFL students from Isfahan university took part in study and they were given a picture description task to elicit their speech samples. Later they were asked to assess their own speaking ability. Finally, the influence of risk-taking on students' self-assessment was investigated. The results showed that there is no statistically significant relationship between self-assessment and teacher's rating of students' speaking ability in the picture description task. However, high risk-takers tended to assess their speaking ability higher than medium and low risk-takers.

In a different study, kalani, kazemi and Zoghi (2013) conducted a study by utilizing a sample of 100 guidance school students (50 males and 50 females) to investigate whether EFL learners' performance is related to gender. The results indicated that female students outperformed male students. Likewise, Keshavarz and Ashtarian (2008) conducted a study on the relationship between reading comprehension test performance of Iranian EFL learners, text type and the gender. The findings indicated that male and female EFL learners differed in their reading comprehension test performance compared with females who were better comprehenders of English passages. Salem (2006), however, found no statistically significant differences between gender and reading comprehension test performance among targeted EFL learners As can be seen, the bulk studies on risk taking have mostly been carried out in the area of language skills. So far, however, there has been little discussion about the role of risk taking in domain of test performance. On this basis, the present study aimed to give an account of the way risk taking strategies influence EFL learners' test performance when multiple choice test method is utilized. On this basis the main Research questions of the present study are:

RQ₁: Is there any significant difference between male and female EFL students with regard to their risk taking level?

RQ₂: Is there any significant difference between male and female EFL students concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test?

RQ₃: Does risk taking level significantly differentiate Iranian EFL learners with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test?

II. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

The population of the study included all the MA English translation students at Islamic Azad University of Esfahan (Khorasgan) Branch. Using a convenient sampling method, 120 male and female students with an age range of 22 to 30 was chosen from the targeted population.

B. Instruments

Two instruments were used for collecting the required data in the study. First, Venturesomeness subscale of Eysenck`s IVE questionnaire with a five point Likert-scale was utilized in order to identify the participants' level of risk-taking. The validity of the questionnaire was established based on specialist opinion, while its reliability was measured based on Cronbach's alpha and Spearman-Brown's equal-length split-half reliability formulas. Alpha reliability and split-half reliability were 0.83 and 0.85, respectively. Therefore, the questionnaire could be regarded as an appropriate data collecting instrument to determine participant's risk-taking level. It is worth mentioning that the Persian version of this questionnaire, developed by Kiany and Pournia (2006), was used in the present study. Second, a complete TOEFL PBT test comprising 140- multiple-choice items extracted from Philip's (2015) book titled Preparation Course for the TOFEL Test (PBT) was used as the testing instrument whose purpose was to gauge the male and female participants' risk taking level based on the number of questions left unanswered. The validity and reliability of this test was determined following the same procedure used for the questionnaire.

C. Procedures

To estimate the risk-taking behavior of the targeted samples, a Persian version of Venturesomeness subscale of Eysenck`s IVE questionnaire containing 16 items was administered. The participants were asked to rate each item on a 5point Likert-scale from almost never to always. Numbers were assigned to them from one to five (almost never=1, rarely=2, sometimes=3, often=4, and always=5). The total score for this questionnaire ranges from 16 to 80. The participants were given 30 minutes to answer all the questions on the questionnaire. Participants whose scores were lower than 30 were considered low risk-takers, those who were at the percentiles greater than 70 high risk-takers, and those between 30 and 70 were moderate risk-takers. In a weeks' time, the second instrument was administrated to the respondents who had already answered the questionnaire. The participants were told that leaving certain questions unanswered would not be penalized. The duration of the test was an hour and 45 minutes.

D. Data Analysis

Having collected the required data, SPSS version 20 was used for analyzing the data.The obtained data were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics (i.e., two separate Independent samples t-tests and a one-way ANOVA).

III. RESULTS

The first research question aimed to examine whether there existed a significant difference between male and female EFL students with regard to their risk taking level. Thus, an Independent samples t-test was run, the results of which are presented in Tables 1 and 2 below.

TABLE 1
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE EFL STUDENTS' RISK TAKING LEVEL

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Risk Taking Strategies	Male	60	54.08	20.50	27	80
	Female	60	44.90	21.84	17	76

As is evident in Table 1 above, the mean and standard deviation of the male EFL students' risk taking level were 54.08, and 20.50, respectively whereas the mean and standard deviation of the female EFL students' risk taking level were 44.90 and 21.84, respectively.

TABLE 2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE EFL STUDENTS' RISK TAKING LEVEL

		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
Risk Taking Strategies	Equal variances assumed	.35	.55	2.37	118	.019	9.183	3.86	1.52	16.84
	Equal variances not assumed			2.37	117.52	.019	9.183	3.86	1.52	16.84

It is clearly observed in Table 2 that there existed a significant difference between male and female EFL students concerning their risk taking level (t 117.52=2.37, p < .05). That is to say that the male EFL students were higher risk takers (M= 54.08, SD = 20.50) and the female EFL students were lower risk takers (M= 44.90, SD = 21.84).

The second research question intended to scrutinize whether there existed a significant difference between male and female EFL students concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions on the TOFEL test. Therefore, an Independent samples t-test was run, the results of which are summarized in Tables 3 and 4 below.

TABLE 3
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF MALE AND FEMALE EFL STUDENTS' UNANSWERED QUESTIONS OF TOFEL

	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Unanswered Questions of TOFEL	Male	60	4.13	2.28	1	8
	Female	60	8.08	3.76	3	16

As shown in Table 3 above, the mean and standard deviation of the male EFL students concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test were 4.13, and 2.28, respectively whereas the mean and standard deviation of the female EFL students with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test were 8.08 and 3.76, respectively.

TABLE 4
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MALE AND FEMALE EFL STUDENTS' UNANSWERED QUESTIONS OF TOFEL

		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
Unanswered Questions of TOFEL	Equal variances assumed	16.11	.000	-6.95	118	.000	-3.95	.56	-5.07	-2.82
	Equal variances not assumed			-6.95	97.41	.000	-3.95	.56	-5.07	-2.82

Table 4 reflects that there existed a significant difference between male and female EFL students with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test (t 118=-6.95, p < .05). That is to say , the female EFL learners leave questions unanswered more frequently and skip questions a lot more (M= 8.08, SD = 3.76) than their male counterparts(M= 4.13, SD = 2.28).

The last research question of the study aimed at exploring whether risk taking level significantly differentiated Iranian EFL learners with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions on the TOFEL test. To this end, one-way ANOVA was run. Table 5 shows the descriptive statistics of the aforementioned groups.

TABLE 5
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS CONCERNING UNANSWERED QUESTIONS OF TOFEL FOR EFL STUDENTS OF DIFFERENT RISK TAKING LEVELS

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Low Risk Takers	40	9.30	3.23	.51	8.26	10.33	5	16
Moderate Risk Takers	40	6.45	2.40	.38	5.68	7.21	3	11
High Risk Takers	40	2.57	1.29	.20	2.15	2.99	1	5
Total	120	6.10	3.68	.33	5.44	6.77	1	16

As is evident in Table 5, 120 EFL learners participated in this study. They were equally divided into three groups of 40 EFL test takers (low risk takers, moderate risk takers and high risk takers) on the basis of their performance on risk taking inventory. The mean score and standard deviation values of the three aforementioned groups concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test were as follows: Low risk takers (M= 9.30, SD= 3.23), Moderate risk takers (M= 6.45, SD= 2.40), and High risk takers (M= 2.57, SD= 1.29).

TABLE 6
ANOVA FOR THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DIFFERENT RISK TALKING LEVELS OF EFL STUDENTS
WITH REGARD TO THEIR UNANSWERED QUESTIONS OF TOFEL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	911.517	2	455.758	76.169	.000
Within Groups	700.075	117	5.984		
Total	1611.592	119			

Table 6 reveals that different levels of risk taking significantly differentiated Iranian EFL learners regarding unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test at the p<.05 level [F (2, 117) = 76.169, p = .000]. Therefore, it can be concluded that risk taking level has a statistically significant effect on Iranian EFL learners' unanswered multiple-choice questions on multiple choice tests such as TOEL.

Since P<0.05, does not exactly state where the significance lies, consequently, a Scheffe post hoc test was run. Tables 7 shows the results of Scheffe post hoc test.

TABLE 7
THE RESULTS OF MULTIPLE COMPARISONS FOR THE BETWEEN GROUPS THROUGH THE USE OF A SCHEFFE

(I) Group	(J) Group	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Low Risk Takers	Moderate Risk Takers	2.85*	.54	.000	1.49	4.20
	High Risk Takers	6.72*	.54	.000	5.36	8.08
Moderate Risk Takers	Low Risk Takers	-2.85*	.54	.000	-4.20	-1.49
	High Risk Takers	3.87*	.54	.000	2.51	5.23
High Risk Takers	Low Risk Takers	-6.72*	.54	.000	-8.08	-5.36
	Moderate Risk Takers	-3.87*	.54	.000	-5.23	-2.51

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

Notably, as shown in Table 7, all the three levels are significantly different from each other concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions on TOFEL test. That is to say, low-risk takers, moderate risk takers and high risk takers were significantly different with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test. In point of fact, high risk takers answered more questions so that fewer questions were left unanswered (M= 2.57, SD= 1.29), whereas the moderate risk takers answered less questions; therefore, more questions were left unanswered (M= 6.45, SD= 2.40), and finally, low risk takers answered the least number of questions in comparison to other groups and consequently had the largest numbers of questions left unanswered (M= 9.30, SD= 3.23). These fluctuations are portrayed in Figure 1 below:
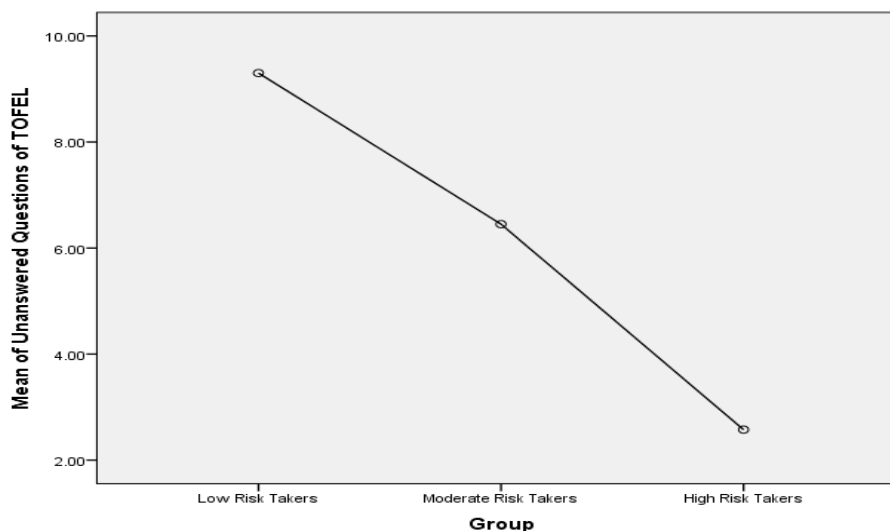

Figure 1: Means Plot of the Groups

IV. DISCUSSION

This study sought to explore the impact of risk taking strategies on EFL learners test performance along with exploring the effect of gender on risk taking level. The first research question sought the difference between male and female EFL students with regard to their risk taking level. The regression analysis indicated that the male EFL students were higher risk takers (M= 54.08, SD = 20.50) and the female EFL students were lower risk takers (M= 44.90, SD = 21.84). It is perhaps of some interest to attempt to relate our findings to some lines of Nelson (2012) who believed that,

men and women are somehow characteristically different, men are more competitive, optimistic, adventurous and overconfident than women. Thus, they'd like to take more risk. Second, women have more pessimistic attitudes than men toward ambiguity, pressure and measuring probability. Therefore, they are probably more risk averse. The yielded results confirm the findings obtained by Biria and Bahadoran (2015), who found that, women are more risk averse test-takers in general and are at a significant disadvantage when performing on multiple-choice tests. Although the present data cannot address the question of why men are more risk takers

Regarding the second question of the study to scrutinize whether there existed a significant difference between male and female EFL students concerning their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test. The result indicated that the female EFL learners leave questions unanswered more frequently and skip questions a lot more than their male counterparts. This result is in lined with a research by Isabel and Pena (2016) who explored that females tended to leave more questions unanswered than did their male counterparts. Given that wrong answers in the multiple-choice exam were penalized (-0.25), a plausible interpretation of this finding is that female students were more cautious when answering the multiple-choice questions, whereas male students may have been more daring.

Finally, the last research question of the study aimed at exploring whether risk taking level significantly differentiates Iranian EFL learners with regard to their unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test. The results revealed that high risk takers answered more questions so that fewer questions were left unanswered (M= 2.57, SD= 1.29), whereas the moderate risk takers answered less questions, therefore more questions were left unanswered (M= 6.45, SD= 2.40), and finally, low risk takers answered the least questions in comparison to other groups and consequently had the most questions left unanswered (M= 9.30, SD= 3.23).The result approve the findings obtained by Biria and Bahadoran (2015), who found that test- takers with the higher risk-taking propensity levels answered more items so that fewer items were left unanswered. It can thus be suggested that skipping questions may have a significant but sometimes a negative effect on performance which contradict with the research findings by Chitsaz and Sahragard (2003) who claimed that there is no correlation between being a risk taker and performance in language tests among Iranian EFL learners.

V. Conclusion

Evidently, risk-taking and gender proved to be interactive variables and the link between the two and their impact on language learning are considerably crucial in second language teaching and learning. Even though risk taking does not result in learning, it is a personality trait which has a leading role in second language learning success. This study set out to explore the effect of risk taking strategies on Iranian EFL language test performance along with investigating the correlation between gender and risk taking concerning unanswered multiple-choice questions of TOFEL test. The results revealed that the female EFL students were lower risk takers and leaving questions unanswered more frequently and skipping questions a lot more than their male counterparts. Finally, it was found out that low risk takers answered the least number of questions in comparison to high and moderate risk takers and consequently had the most questions left unanswered.

The findings of the study might imply that performance on language tests is also affected by factors other than Communicative language ability (bachman 1995). Thus, Teachers as the leader of teaching-learning process and test developers are needed to fully be aware of such affective factors as gender or risk taking strategies. Moreover, teachers should take the students' affective factors into account during teaching and learning activities. Risk taking plays a key role in increasing students' motivation and make them to preserve their efforts on learning. Therefore, the teachers' real job is to learn students how to keep adequate risk, neither too high nor too low.

Finally, there is still much work to be done and seen from this perspective, First and foremost, this study can be replicated to find out whether the same results would be obtained or not. Moreover, it certainly paves the way for more thorough studies in future to investigate how various variables defining individual differences such as self-esteem, motivation and introversion-extroversion impact Iranian EFL test performance. It might be also rewarding to investigate the association between gender and risk taking and their influence on four essential skills in language learning.

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Reflecting on the Primary Phonetic Learning Based on the Critical Period Hypothesis in Language Acquisition

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Abstract—**New English Curriculum Standards of Compulsory Education points out the following specific requirements of phonetic learning in the secondary target of language learning: reading out 26 letters of the alphabet; understanding simple spelling rules; knowing the word with accent, sentence with stress; learning English pronunciation including linking, rhythm, pauses, intonation and so on. And based on the critical period of language acquisition theory and the viewpoint that Children can get the pure pronunciation of second language at a critical period, phonetic learning is the principal task in the primary English learning. The author makes some suggestions through surveying and reflecting on primary phonetic learning problems. The author makes a survey about phonetic learning in Shanxi Normal University Experiment Primary School. The author found that the importance of the phonetic learning in primary school is not valued; students phonetic learning initiative is not high; the teachers' professional quality of phonetic should be improved and so on. Some suggestions are put forward: establishing the correct concept of the phonetic learning for pupils; using multi-sensory learning and imitation to improve pupils' language learning initiative; developing reading English skills; improving teacher' professional quality of phonetic. It is hoped that we can pay more attention to phonetic learning in primary school and provide more valued proposals through this research.**

Index Terms—**phonetic learning, primary English learning, the critical period hypothesis, investigation, suggestion**

I. INTRODUCTION

A. Question Raising

Throughout the English learning, the Chinese college students' English level has been greatly improved overall. But their capability *of* communication is dissatisfactory. They cannot understand what foreigners speak in English or they are unable to express themselves well in English. It is called "Dumb English". The reason is that they lack good pronunciation. Therefore phonetic learning is a primary step in the process of learning English. We have to learn pronunciation well, in order to understand what others say and how to express our ideas well to others. According to the critical period of language acquisition theory and the viewpoint that *C*hildren can get the pure pronunciation of second language at a critical period, it is the critical period to learn phonetic in primary stage. Pupils have a lot of advantages in phonetic learning. They are curious and don't afraid to mistake; they have strong sensitivity to language and strong ability to imitate with plasticity. There are specific demands of phonetic in the New Primary English Curriculum Standard: 1. Read out twenty six letters of the alphabet 2. Understand simple spelling rules 3. Know the word with accent and sentence with stress 4. Understand English pronunciation including linking, rhythm, pauses, intonation and so on. (New English Curriculum Standard) However, "Dumb English" still actually exists in the current primary English teaching. "Dumb English" learners are accustomed to learning English through the text without visual and voice. Even though some students can read aloud in English, they do flatly just like reading the word list. Usually, they do not know what the meaning is after reading a passage. The purpose of this paper is to research and understand the situation and problems of primary phonetic learning and put forward some feasible suggestions.

B. Importance of Phonetic Learning

As a communication tool, language is voiced. Therefore, the pronunciation is the prerequisite and basis of language learning. Phonetic learning, as the basis of English learning, is an important task in primary English learning. If pupils are able to have a good pronunciation, their confidence will be enhanced and their motivation to learn English will be increased.

First of all, the bad pronunciation will affect the confidence of English learners. Phonetic, the language material of a shell, is the beginning of language learning. Good pronunciation will promote the learning of grammar and vocabulary, improve English listening, speaking, reading and writing, and further enhance the confidence of learning English. I found that students with poor pronunciation dare not speak English, because they fear of being made fun of by classmates and teachers. They enter into the complete state of "dumb English". As they cannot use pronunciation, intonation and smooth flow correctly to read, they are not able to understand standard English. They will develop deaf

and dumb English learning habits further which will making them lose confidence in spoken English. In contrast, students with the good pronunciation will win the admiration of students and the appreciation from teachers which greatly enhance their confidence and improve their English knowledge and capacity.

English phonetic is key to improve listening and the level of oral communication. The level of phonetic has a direct impact on the level of listening. If people want to have a good listening comprehension, they must do well in distinguishing sounds. The phonetic capabilities show that poor pronunciation impacts on the listening and the accuracy of word' recognition. People with poor pronunciation can not understand what someone speaks in standard English and others also did not understand what they say. Thus they can not communicate effectively. Similarly, if they don't have phonetic knowledge systems, they will not express in English smoothly and vividly, which will directly impact on the oral expression.

If the phonetic learning is compared to a building, we should clearly recognize that you must lay the rational, strong phonetic foundation firstly in order to stabilize the building construction. Good phonetic foundation not only can enhance the confidence of learners, but also further stimulate interest and enthusiasm in learning English. Meanwhile, basing on the accumulation of grammar, vocabulary and knowledge of English, we should contribute to this building and make it successfully through practical exercises.

II.   LITERATURE REVIEW

A.   The Critical Period Hypothesis

The Critical Period Hypothesis in Language Acquisition, from research achievement of biology and neurophysiology, is an important hypothesis in linguistics. It is said that child's language development is a natural maturation process of vocal organ, brain and other nervous system, thus it also called "natural maturation said."

The concept of critical period in language acquisition was introduced by Penfield and Roberts firstly. They believed that human had a specific language acquisition phase, in which individuals could consciously learn a language without any outside distraction. They called this phase the "Best age." They explained the ability of learning language was related to brain development. Human brain had strong plasticity in juvenile period. While with the advent of the puberty, the plasticity would gradually decline until it disappears. Similarly, neurophysiology research showed that the main cause of unilateral plasticity disappearing was that the language function of human left brain was lateralizing.

In 1976, Lenneberg(1976) developed Penfield and Roberts' ideas in his major works *The Biological Foundation of language*. He believed that language was the product of brain. And he hold that it was the critical period to learn a language before the adolescence coming. In his view, that was because the human brain had strong plasticity in range of two years old to the advent of puberty. The understanding and producing of language is related to the two hemispheres of the brain and the whole brain are involved in language learning activities, so it can absorb new language information fast and easy in this period. After the adolescent, brain lateralization has occurred for the most people. Brain lateralization refers to the process that the different side of brain began to take charge of different function. Human functions of language intelligence, logic, and analysis was lateralized to the left hemisphere, and the emotional social function is lateralized to the right hemisphere gradually. Once this process completes, the automatic capabilities that the left hemisphere is responsible for controlling neural coordination mechanism of language will be weakened. Thus it will be relatively difficult to learn language.

B.   Age-related Factors in Second Language Acquisition

As the first language acquisition critical period, there is also a critical period in the process of second language acquisition, it is about from two to twelve years old. Tomas Scovel thought children could master their first and second language before puberty because of strong plasticity. After puberty, plasticity will reduce with brain lateralization finishing so it is more difficult to learn the second language. Noam Chomsky's *Language Intrinsic Theory* indicated that people had the innate ability to acquire language: the Universal Grammar and the Language Acquisition Device. When the Language Acquisition Device is stimulated by specific language materials, the general grammar in human brain is converted into the specific grammar represented by the pronunciation. If children were stimulated by the speech sounds of all language before the universal grammar conversing, they could entirely master the multiple language. However, the Language Acquisition Device had the critical period (about 9 years old to 10 years old). During this period, the Language Acquisition Device would degrade gradually and the second language learning ability would be weakened.

Stromswold pointed out if children approached a language for the first time after puberty, the fluency of their English was rarely close to the level of native speakers. Many facts had proved that there were little differences in grammar learning between adults and children, while children were easier to get pure pronunciation in second language acquisition than adults. So there was the critical period to obtain pure pronunciation in the second language acquisition. Oyama(1978) had investigated 60 Italians emigrating to America. The range of age of arrival was six to twenty years. They had lived in the United States about five to eighteen years. He found that Italians arriving in the United States before 12 years old spook more like American accent. Duration of residence in the United States was not a large impact on the accent. In most areas of China, primary English teaching is beginning between 9 to 10 years old. According to the Critical Period of language acquisition theory and the viewpoint that Children can get the pure voice of second language at a critical period, phonetic learning is the principal task in primary school.

III.   RESEARCH OF THE ENGLISH PHONETIC LEARNING IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

A.   Objective

As we all know, phonetic learning is the foundation in English learning, but phonetic learning cannot be given due weight. The purpose of this study is to find the current problems of phonetic learning in primary school, analyze the causes, and put forward reasonable proposals to promoting the pupils' phonetic learning.

B.   The Subjects

The author surveyed the English learning situation of pupils from grade three to six in Shanxi Normal University Experimental Primary School.

Selecting 60 students from grade three: three (a) and three (b) classes, each class were selected randomly 30 people. The average age of selected students was 9.6 years old.

Selecting 60 students from grade four: four (a) and four (b) classes, each class are selected randomly 30 people. The average age of selected students was 10.8 years old.

Selecting 60 students from grade five: five (a) and five (b) classes, each class are selected randomly 30 people. The average age of selected students was 11.9 years old.

Selecting 60 students from grade six: six (a) and six (b) classes, each class are selected randomly 30 people. The average age of selected students was 12.8 years old.

The subjects were pupils in grades three to six, as the new English curriculum standards shows school should offer English courses from grade three. pupils should reach the first level of courses' standards from grade three to four, and from grade five to six, pupils should reach the second level of course' standards. The first and secondary level of courses' standards require pupils to *be* able to conduct role-playing; singing simple songs; saying simple English song; understanding a simple short story in English; communicating simple personal information in English; greeting each other in English and so on. These requirements are basing on the good phonetic. According to the critical period in language acquisition and the viewpoint that children can get the pure voice of second language at a critical period, *the* primary stage is the critical period for phonetic learning.

C.   The Design and Process of Questionnaire

The questionnaire had three aspects: pupils' understanding of English phonetic learning; Methods of phonetic learning; and the attitude of teachers and school to the phonetic learning.

In April 2015, the author surveyed the pupils in grade three to six in Shanxi Normal University Experimental Primary School. The time of survey was in the morning reading on April 13 (grade three and four) and 14 (grade five and six). It took about 10 minutes to complete the questionnaire.

D.   The Results and Analysis

STATISTICAL TABLE OF QUESTIONNAIRES

Grade	The number of papers gotten	Recovery rate	The number of effective paper	Efficient rate
Grade three	60	100%	57	95%
Grade four	55	91.67%	54	98.18%
Grade five	60	100%	59	98.33%
Grade six	59	98.33%	59	100%

Pupils' understanding of phonetic learning*:* 18.34% pupils thought they had known much about phonetic learning, 66.38% pupils thought they had known little about phonetic learning and only 15.28% pupils thought they had known nothing about phonetic learning; On the survey of situation of phonetic learning in English class: 38.43% pupils said they always had phonetic learning in English class, 51.09% pupils expressed they occasionally did, 10.48% pupils said there was not phonetics learning in English classes at all; About whether you know that word and sentence have stress: 34.93% of students completely understood, 68.12% of students generally understood, only 9.6% did not know. These survey results showed that pupils had some understanding of phonetic learning and would be carried out in phonetics learning in English class. However in the last survey, the author found that pupils' understanding of English phonetic learning was narrow and even incorrect. And pupils' understanding of English phonetic learning could be classified into the following points: spelling words; reading out the word according to phonetic symbol; remembering and reciting words and sentences; understanding the meaning of words and sentence; correcting pronunciation.

Methods of English phonetic learning: 31.88% of the students was able to consciously practice pronunciation, 48.03% of students did occasionally and 20.09% of the students was completely impossible to do this; When reading in English classes, 34.93% pupils could imitate the teacher's pronunciation and intonation*, 27.07%* pupils was totally impossible to do and 37.99% of the students occasionally did; 28.38% pupils often used Chinese characters or Pinyin to mark the English pronunciation, 37.12% pupils occasionally used this method, 34.5% pupils never use it. In an open question "what methods do you always use to learn the phonetic? ", 17.03% pupils' answers was nothing, the rest of the pupils' answers focused on the following aspects: reading and spelling words according to the phonetic symbol; reading

by yourself; using Chinese characters or Pinyin to mark pronunciation, for example, when pupils met with the word "cold", they would mark the word with "扣的" to remember the pronunciation; communicating with parents or teachers.

The attention of teachers on pupils' learning English pronunciation: 61.57% pupils thought the teacher occasionally emphasized the word and sentence stress in English class; about arrangement of English homework, 68.56% pupils said English teachers occasionally given "read" assignment.

IV. THE ANALYSIS OF ENGLISH PHONETIC LEARNING'S PROBLEMS IN PRIMARY SCHOOL

A. The Current Situation of English Phonetic Learning in Primary School

According to survey of English phonetics learning in primary school, the author *concludes the following points:*

1. The English teachers pay no attention to the phonetic learning in primary school.
2. The understanding of English phonetic is vague.
3. The most pupils have little *consciousness* of English phonetic learning
4. Most pupils' methods of learning phonetic can be divided into following types: reading and spelling words according to the phonetic symbols; reading by yourself; using Chinese character or pinyin to mark pronunciation; communicating with parents or teachers.

B. The Analysis of English Phonetic Learning in Primary

1. The Reason Why English Phonetic Learning is not Paid Enough Attention.

Phonetic is the foundation of mastering language knowledge and accessing language skills. And according to the critical period in language acquisition and the viewpoint that Children can get the pure pronunciation of second language at a critical period, it's the key age to learning phonetic in primary stage.

Meanwhile, *New Primary English Curriculum Standard* requires that English course should be offered in the grade three, and there are specific requirements in *new English curriculum standard.* Therefore, the English phonetic learning should be an important and primary task in primary English learning. However, during the internship the author found that phonetic learning had not been attached enough attention in primary school. The cause of that phenomenon are following reasons:

Firstly, there are only two or three English lessons in a week in primary school, and n*o* dedicated phonetic lessons. In this case, teachers often tend to focus on arrangements of vocabulary and grammar. The phonetic learning is stuck in too much emphasis on each word's pronunciation and correcting its tone. And because teachers lack professional phonetic knowledge, the contents of other phonetic learning are simplified and ignored.

Secondly, there is no phonetic test in current primary school although *the English curriculum standards* makes clear requirements *for phonetic learning.* Under the atmosphere of exam-oriented education in China, teachers and students have little pressure of phonetic test, that results in insufficient attention to phonetic learning.

In addition, multimedia teaching can create a real visual language environment that enables students to experience the full range of language stimulating and creates visually authentic language environments. Students can receive the language stimulation, so multimedia teaching can promote the students' phonetic learning greatly. However, multimedia resources existing in primary school can not meet the requirements of phonetic learning. For example, there are 12 classes and the number of the students from grade three to six is about 450, but there is only one multimedia room and one phonetic room in the Shanxi Normal University Experimental Primary School. The shortage of multimedia resources is a reason of limiting the phonetic learning.

2. The Reason why Pupils' Consciousness of English Phonetic Learning is not High.

Because the importance of the phonetic learning was not enough emphasized in primary school, the pupils did not realize the importance of phonetic. And they have a vague phonetic concept. *Meanwhile,* pupils couldn't feel the beauty of English because of rigid and stiff teaching method, even do not be stimulated interesting in learning English.

During the internship the author found when teaching words, teachers picked up the word card and ask pupils to recognize and read at first, then they written down the words on the blackboard to lead students reading circularly and corrected the word' pronunciation, for example, the teacher read "b-o-o-k, book", student followed "b-o-o-k, book". As pupil s have little knowledge of stress and rhythm, when they are reading, their English language stream was blunt and had no sense of rhythm. There is a common phenomenon, when students read by themselves or in chorus, they always used the same tone and drag tune, no expression, no priorities, only to read aloud. As a result, students will not feel the beauty of English. The level of pupil's awareness and patience is limited and they learn knowledge with sensibility so It will not maintain long time, student will be bored to repeat and imitate the pronunciation. Eventually, they lost the enthusiasm of phonetic learning.

3. The Causes and Problems of Using Chinese to Mark Pronunciation.

During the internship, the author found that in order to read the word in correct pronunciation, many pupils use Chinese *characters or pinyin* to mark pronunciation.

Because English phonetic symbols are similar to Chinese Pinyin, and some English phonemes pronunciation is also like pinyin's for example, English phonemes [b] - Pinyin "b"; English phonemes [p] - Pinyin "p"; [t] - "t"; [d] - "d"; [k] - "k"; [g] - "g" and so on. However, the English phonemes and Chinese Pinyin both in phonemes and the shape of mouth when one pronounces are completely different. Because pupils have learned Pinyin and some simple Chinese

characters in grade one and two, pupils will consciously mark the Pinyin when they meet a new word. Although it is a way for students to learn the English pronunciation, if they do like this, they will make English pronunciation learning become disorganized.

First of all, there are high-level tone, rising tone and falling-rising tone, falling tone in Chinese characters. But English only have level tone, even if pupils use Chinese characters and pinyin to mark English word, pupils also do not understand English pronunciation and intonation. Such as "Good afternoon" is marked as "Gu 的啊 Fu 特 nu en". So that students have wrong pronunciation, and stiff intonation.

Secondly, most words are multisyllabic and have stress, while Chinese characters are all single syllable and no stress. So it is difficult to distinguish the stress of words by using Chinese characters or pinyin to mark pronunciation.

Furthermore, if pupils can not get rid impact of Chinese in learning English pronunciation, English awareness will not be formed in the pupils' brain.

4. The Cause and the Problem of Read and Spell Words Only according to the Phonetic Symbol

Many teachers do not understand the phonetic teaching requirements of the *curriculum standards* accurately. They always simplify phonetic teaching to sound or phonetic symbol teaching. This approach makes students have misunderstanding that phonetic learning is phonetic symbol learning. However the *New English Curriculum Standards* stated clearly that phonetic teaching should focus on the combination of semantics and pragmatics, intonation and flow of speech and does not blindly pursue the accuracy of one word's pronunciation.

The *New English Curriculum Standards* does not require pupils to have the ability to spell words according to phonetics symbol. That is the goal students can master the International Phonetic Alphabet and grasp the knowledge and skill of spelling in junior stage. This is because the IPA is a symbolic system to mark the English pronunciation. Only if you've mastered the phonetic-form corresponding law of basic letters and combination of letter, it will make sense. Phonetic learning in primary school is not only violating the pupils' cognitive characteristics and abilities, but also increasing difficulties of phonetic learning and students' burdens because of learning and remembering the phonetic symbol.

5. Other Aspects

In addition to marking the English pronunciation according to the phonetic symbol and using Chinese characters or pinyin, there are some following methods: communicating with parents or students to practice; reading by himself; memorizing and reciting words and sentences mechanically.

Many students said they would consult with parents if they had new words they can not pronounce. This approach is good. But because the parents' educational level is discrepant, maybe they can speak English fluently but they know little English phonetic. Therefore, some parents can not judge whether their pronunciation is standard, although they can communicate with child in English.

Sometimes pupils will practice English with their companions. But pupils are unsure what is the correct pronunciation, what the problem they exist and how to improve. Those problems will also be faced when pupils read English by themselves or just memorized mechanically. If so, their English pronunciation will not improve markedly.

C. Suggestions

We found that there are some problems of the phonetic learning in primary school through research. Most of the pupils' consciousness of phonetic learning is not enough and the learning methods are relatively monotonous; primary school English teacher do not pay more attention to the phonetic learning.

In allusion to the above problems, the author thinks we should make efforts in the following aspects to improve the phonetic learning in primary:

1. Developing Students to Form the Correct Concept of Phonetic Learning

All the time, pupils learn the phonetic passively by teacher's instruction in English class. Students completely immerse in the air of acceptance. Such learning tends to rote learning. Students cannot practice positively and can not form the self-learning habit.

Therefore, students should change their concept, understand the importance of phonetic learning, and establish confidence of phonetic learning. They should have a good mentality to find the existing problems in their own learning and correct positively. Then they should make efforts to enjoy phonetic learning and develop the good phonetic learning habits. In short, learning phonetic is not just a learning of passive acceptance but a self-learning.

2. Improving Teacher's Professional Quality of Teachers' Pronunciation and Intonation

Teachers, textbooks and teaching methods are important factors to determine success or failure of education. And the teachers' role is crucial. English teacher's professional quality and skills directly impact on the effectiveness and quality of language. Although the contents of primary English teaching is relatively simple, the requirements of teacher's quality are relatively high. Because pronunciation and intonation of teacher are the premise and prerequisite for students to imitate. And their speaking ability is the guarantee to create an atmosphere of communicating in English. Teacher's fluent English not only show a good example for pupils, but also convey the beauty of English rhythm just like music. It's also a good condition to stimulate and maintain pupils' interest in learning English. Therefore, primary school teachers should improve their spoken ability and phonetic quality constantly by attending special training, online training and other means.

3. Focusing on Learning Methods of Phonetic Learning.

Pupils do not make a detailed plan for phonetic learning because their minds are not mature. Teachers should help pupils to make good phonetic learning plans to guide students developing good learning habits.

Feeling pronunciation through the visual. As we all know, children like watching cartoons, but if children who never touch the English pronunciation watch cartoon, they will complain that they could not understand the cartoon. So that they will ask to watch Chinese cartoon. Therefore, in the low-grade English class, we should not just be satisfied with conventional instruction, but also properly set up some original animated English film appreciation courses, such as "Frozen", "The Lion King", "Ice Age". Teachers should train pupils' listening by providing the original English audio which will make pupils feel pronunciation tone and store enough English voice signals. Then pupils can lay the foundation for correct pronunciation and intonation. In the lower primary stage, pupils should input enough language. They should start from a lot of listening, rather than be overly anxious to talk.

Experiencing phonetic through imitating. The theory, Language Acquisition Critical Period Hypothesis, holds that it is more difficult to learn a language for children after puberty. The ability of imitation is the biggest advantage for children to learn English. In fact, at the start of English learning, phonetic learning is going on through imitating. So teachers should provide a lot of listening and repeated opportunities for imitation and practice and help students to develop good phonetic habits. Each month, teachers should hold a competition in the class. Pupils should often be encouraged by teacher's saying "You practice better than me!". They should pay more attention to imitate original English audio-visual materials.

Focusing on rhythm and developing the language sense. Pupils are active and they like singing and dancing. In the phonetic learning process teacher should adapt some phonetic content for some songs. The difficulties of learning pronunciation variation can be solved by rhythmic songs cultivating the language sense well. Carolyn Graham, the professor of New York University in the 1970s founded Jazz Chants a way of foreigner to learn English. He made the people's daily conversation   with jazz and the rhythm is completely accordant. English learners could comprehend pronunciation, intonation and rhythm through repeating singing. This method makes a boring language learning become an easy entertainment. It is popular with pupils all the ages.

Focusing on teaching methods and improving phonetic teaching efficiency. Pupils should understand stress and grasp the rhythm. The *New English Curriculum standard* requires that students should understand words with accents, sentence with stress and English pronunciation including linking, rhythm, pauses, intonation and so on. So those require students to understand the basic features of the flow of speech and to read and express with accurate pronunciation and natural speech. Stress, rhythm and intonation are core components of the flow of English. The degree of the flow of English language determines the fluency of reading and expressing. Primary English teachers not only focus on teaching and correcting separate word's pronunciation but also pay more attention to teach the flow of speech.

In order to understand the flow of English language, we must know that the English words have accent and sentences have stress. English words are composed of syllables which could be divided into monosyllabic, disyllabic and polysyllabic. Each word with more than two syllables, have one stressed syllable at least, and the rest are week syllables. We should not stress every word in a sentence, but the notional or ideographic words should be emphasized. The stress falls on the stressed syllables of stressed words in the sentences. And the regular intervals between stresses make up the ups and downs like a music rhythm. Teachers need cultivate pupils' necessary reading skills through reading discourse and dialogue in order to make them read and express fluently in English.

V. Conclusion

The starting age of primary English teaching is nine or ten years old in most parts of China. According to the critical period hypothesis in language acquisition and the second language acquisition, comparing with adults, children have incomparable advantage in language learning especially in phonetic learning. They learn the pure pronunciation of language because of their soft pronunciation organ, the brain plasticity, and strong ability of imitation. The *New English Curriculum Standard* states some specific demands in the secondary target of language knowledge: Reading out 26 letters of the alphabet; Understanding simple spelling rules; Knowing the word with accent and sentence with stress; Learning phonetic including linking, rhythm, pauses, intonation and so on. (*New Primary English Curriculum Standard 2011*) However, there are many problems in the current phonetic learning which could impact directly on their subsequent English learning. Through surveying on Shanxi Normal University Experiment Primary School, the author found that English teachers' attention to the pupils' English phonetic learning is not enough; the concept of phonetic is vague for pupils; pupils are less autonomous to learn English phonetic, and propose some recommends accordingly: cultivating students to form a correct concept of the phonetic learning; improving primary English teachers' professional quality of phonetic, so on. The author hopes that this research can prompt more reflection on pupils English phonetic learning. Schools, teachers and students attach importance to the English phonetic learning, and make the phonetic learning fall into place.

APPENDIX

山西师范大学实验小学英语语音学习情况调查表

亲爱的同学：你好！

这是一份关于英语语音学习的问卷调查，采用无记名的方式，选择每题只能选一个答案，答案没有正确、错误之分，请按自己的真实想法填写，非常感谢你的合作！

个人基本情况：

性别_____ 年龄_____ 年级_____

1. 英语课上_____进行英语语音学习。
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C.从不
2. 你对英语语音学习_____
   A. 很了解   B. 一般了解   C. 不了解
3. 英语老师上课_____强调英语单词的重音，句子的重读。
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
4. 你对英语单词的重音，句子的重读_____
   A. 很了解   B. 一般了解   C. 不了解
5. 英语课上老师领读时，你会模仿她的语音、语调吗？_____
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
6. 你会利用汉字或汉语拼音来标注记忆英语发音吗？_____
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
7. 英语课上会进行分角色朗读吗？_____
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
8. 英语家庭作业中，老师会布置读的作业吗？_____
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
9. 学校、班级会举行英语演讲比赛吗？_____
   A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
10. 英语课上会看一些英语动画片或动画电影吗？_____
    A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
11. 你会自觉练习英语发音吗？_____
    A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
12. 每周有几次英语早读？_____
    A.1 次   B.2 次   C.3 次
13. 英语课上，老师发号施令，或与同学交流_____使用英语
    A. 经常   B. 偶尔   C. 从不
14. 你是否参加英语培训班？_____
    A. 是   B.否
你参加英语培训班的目的:_____
    A. 辅导家庭作业   B. 为了提高英语考试成绩
    C. 进行英语语音训练   D. 其他_____
15. 你平时常用的英语语音学习方法：

    _____

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Literature Review of Second Language Learners' Acquisition of Chinese Resultative Construction[*]

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Abstract—**Chinese resultative construction was the hotspot of grammar researches and also the difficult point of second language teaching and learning. From the aspects of syntax, semantics and pragmatics, this paper analyzed the ontology researches of Chinese resultative construction, reviewed the research results of second language learners' acquisition of Chinese resultative construction and also provided some references and directions of related researches.**

Index Terms—**Chinese resultative construction, ontology researches, second language learning**

I. INTRODUCTION

Resultative construction was also called 'predicate-complement structure' and defined as 'a sentence structure which consists a verb and a resultative complement', such as '打破', '喝醉', '洗干净', etc. The term was first described in *Eight Hundred Words of Modern Chinese* compiled by Lv Shuxiang. Some scholars called it 'verb phrase of master-slave mode' (Lv Shuxiang, 1980), 'causative form' (Wang Li, 1985), 'completive pattern' (Ding Shengshu, 1961), 'agglutinating predicate-complement structure' (Zhu Dexi, 1982). In order to simplify the term, resultative construction would be used in this paper. It was a kind of syntactic structure in Chinese and widely used. Because it had special characteristics and high frequency, it was an important research point in Chinese grammar field and, especially, a hotspot since 1980s. Besides, its internal structure was complicated and it was a difficult point in second language teaching and learning.

II. ONTOLOGY RESEARCHES OF CHINESE RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION

A. Syntactic Researches

As for the structure center of Chinese resultative construction, grammarians did a lot of researches. In early stage, it was regarded as a master-slave endocentric structure, with the former verb as the center and the latter complement as the subordinate. Zhang Zhigong (1952) thought that the former word which was complemented was the center and the latter complementing word was subordinate. Lv Shuxiang (1952), Zhu Dexi (1952) and Ding Shengshu (1961) had the similar opinions. But since 1980s, more and more scholars have doubts about this opinion and raised new views about the center of resultative construction. Li Linding (1984) used the endocentric structure theory of Bloomfield and brought up a method to verify Chinese attributive structure 'As for two-member structure in a sentence, if you omit one element and reserve the other element, the reserved element does not change in syntactic function and the structure and semantic relation of the whole sentence do not change, the reserve element is the center and the omitted element is subordinate.' He gave an example "我已经吃饱了——我已经饱了？——我已经吃". Through this identification, he regarded the center of resultative construction was the complement but not the verb. Zhan Renfeng (1989) and Ma Xiwen (1987) revised this view, but they also agreed that the complement was the structure center of Chinese resultative construction and the verb was subordinate. Fan Xiao (1985) used the method of component extension validation to identify the structure center in Chinese. Resultative construction V-R (V stands for verb, R stands for complement) could be extended as: Whether it could be inserted '得' or '不', whether it could be extended as 'V 得 R / V 不 R' and 'V 得 R / V 得不 R' etc. For example'吃饱' could be extended as'吃得饱' '吃不饱' or '吃得饱' '吃得不饱'.Because extended R was a complement of V, V was the structure center and R was the subordinate in V-R structure. Fan Xiao's view was original and convincing. Yuan Minlin (2000) distinguished between syntactic center and semantic center and pointed that the syntactic center of resultative construction was the verb and the semantic center was the complement. He also said that the imbalance between structure and meaning was based on the expression function and historical origin of resultative construction. Ren Ying (2001) had similar view with Yuan and he thought that structure center included semantic and syntactic level. Both the former verb and the latter complement could decide syntactic function of resultative construction and became core element which played a leading role. Song Wenhui (2004) had different opinions and re-explored the center of resultative construction on the basis of structure and meaning. He thought that "typical center had the characteristic of structure and semantic meaning at the same time and atypical center had partial

center characteristic."

Transitive or intransitive was another focus in syntax. Zhu Dexi (1982) said that "Like verbs, resultative construction with result complement was also transitive or intransitive", "Transitive and intransitive of resultative construction had no direct connections with that of the predicate verb" For example, "买" was a transitive verb, while resultative construction "买贵了" was intransitive. On the contrary, "哭" was intransitive and resultative construction "哭哑" was transitive. Li Xiaorong (1994) distinguished carefully and solved the problem of transitive and intransitive better. She said that transitive and intransitive of resultative construction were connected with its category and divided it to two categories on the basis of the complement traits. Transitive of Category A was decided by the grammar quality of the predicate verb. If predicate verb was transitive, resultative construction could have objects, such as "七点钟我们吃完了饭". If predicative verb was intransitive, resultative construction could not have objects, such as "笑完了". ects sometimes. On the other hand, if the complement of resultative construction was transitive, it could have objects, such as "他跑丢了一只鞋", and the resultative construction was also transitive. If the complement was intransitive, some of resultative construction could have objects, such as "孩子哭醒了妈妈"; some of it could not have objects, such as "他挖浅了一个坑", which was ungrammatical in Chinese.

Resultative construction could form many kinds of sentence pattern and some scholars probed into the basic sentence patterns of it. Li Linding (1980) described five sentence patterns of resultative construction in detail. (1) SVC (你长胖了) (2) SVOVC (他喝酒喝醉了) (3) SVCO (他听懂了我的意思) (4) SVO_1VC_0 (你写通知写落了一个字) (5) S 把 O_1VCO_2 (钉子把我的衣服划破了一条口子).Fan Xiao (1987) thought the basic sentence patterns with "V-R"（R was result complement） as predicate were "S-VR-O" and "S-VR" and they could be transformed to other sentence patterns of ten kinds. Wang Hongqi (2001) analyzed the distribution of resultative construction in Ba-sentence and verb-coping sentence. In Ba-sentence, resultative construction whose semantic meaning of complement pointed towards objects distributed identically with that whose semantic meaning of complement pointed towards helper. In verb-coping sentence, the distribution of these two kinds of resultative constructions was opposed with each other and the distribution was closely related with the semantic meaning of complement. But he didn't solve some problems well. For example, in the ungrammatical sentence "*他把菜买贵了" and grammatical sentence "他买菜买贵了", the complement "贵" of "买贵" pointed towards patient and also implied the judgment of the action but the resultative construction could only be incorporated into verb-coping sentence instead of Ba-sentence. Song Wenhui (2004) made further investigation on it by using Talmy conceptual system structure and anylzed the distribution of resultative construction in core sentence, verb-coping sentence, Ba-sentence, Bei-sentence and topic sentence.

B. Semantic Researches

With the development of semantics, grammarians had more researches on resultative construction in aspect of semantics. Fan Xiao (1985) divided semantic meaning of resultative construction into four kinds: (1) result of action, such as "逗笑了" (2) tendency of action, such as "走进来" (3) degree of action, such as "衣服穿少了"（4）state of action, such as "哆嗦起来". Li Xiaorong (1994) divided the results of resultative construction' complement into three kinds: (1) expected result, such as "煮熟一锅饭" (2) diverged results, such as "这件衣服买贵了" (3) natural results, such as "天慢慢的亮了，黎明染白了窗子". Wang Hongqi (1996) made further explanations and pointed out that result complement had three kinds of meaning: (1) state complement of five small kinds: external state of human or things, such as "逗笑"; mental feelings of human, such as "打疼"; vanishment of human or things, such as "扫净"; competition of result, such as "比输"; new state of actions, such as "说好" (2) evaluation complement, such as "卖贱了" (3) result complement, such as "钓到". Ma Zhen and Lu Jianming (1997) made further researches and divided semantic meaning of resultative construction into four kinds: (1) realization of respected result, such as "洗干净了" (2) appearance of non-ideal result, such as "搞坏了" (3) appearance of natural result, such as "长高了" (4) divergence of respected result, such as "挖浅了".

As for the expression object and semantic relation of resultative construction, Zhan Renfeng (1989) made some researches based on the words of result complement. He pointed out that in resultative construction with both subject and object, R (resultative) expressed subject when R was transitive verb and expressed object when it was intransitive verb or adjectives. From the aspect of semantics, Mei Lichong (1994) discovered some rules of expression objects of resultative construction' result complement: in resultative construction with subject and object, expression object of complement was related with semantic characteristic of objects, predicate and complement and semantic relation between verb and complement. Guo Jisong and Wang Hongqi (2001) the expression differences between cohesive resultative construction and combinative resultative construction were different degrees of highlighting. Results showed by cohesive complement were low degree of highlighting, while results showed by combinative complement were high degree of highlighting. In semantics, cohesive complement was fit for conventional results , such as "撕开，摔倒，吸进" and combinative complement was fit for accidental result, such as "哭得眼睛都肿成烂桃了/笑得都岔气了" etc. Xiong Zhongru (2004) thought resultative construction was a kind of causative expression which reflected causing event and caused event. Causing event was a kind of activity and the activity could be causing event directly in

language expression, such as "洗衣服洗累了妈妈" and the participant of activity could be causing event metonymically , such as the sentence "张三打破了玻璃" in which "张三" was the metonym of "张三打玻璃".

C. Pragmatic Researches

Resultative construction researches in pragmatics were not as effective as that of syntax and semantics. While discussing Chinese Weibu Word, Liu Danqing (1994) pointed out that "Chinese result complement and possible complement were always the focuses of sentences, but main verbs of resultative construction and possible complement were always presupposed". For instance, in the sentence "他喝酒了吗", "喝" was the doubt. But in the sentence "他喝醉了吗", we already knew he drank wine and the doubt was he was drunk or not. Wang Hongqi (1995) thought that in pragmatics the action or state of predicate was presupposed by resultative construction and transferred given information. But the action or state of complement predicate was new in this presupposed condition and transferred new information, it was the focus of resultative construction' semantic meaning. For instance, in the sentence "老张喝醉了", "喝(老张喝酒)" was presupposed but "醉(老张喝醉了)" was the focus. Form them on, resultative construction researches in pragmatics were few and far between and lack of systematic research.

On the whole, ontology researches of Chinese resultative construction had a lot of changes and breakthrough which were listed as following: (1) The center problem of resultative construction was discovered from both syntax and semantics; (2) The transitive and intransitive of resultative construction were discussed in detail and so was the sentence distribution of resultative construction which was transferred from the distribution of basic sentence pattern to the confinement of incorporating into certain sentence pattern; (3) Semantic research was transferred from description into explanation of rules; (4) Pragmatic study had some development but was lack of systematicness. Ontology researches of resultative construction provided more stable basis for second language teaching.

III.   SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION RESEARCH OF CHINESE RESULTATIVE CONSTRUCTION

Although Chinese second language acquisition research did not have a long history, it developed quickly and emerged many related researches. Some of them focused on Chinese ontology researches, while some of them focused on acquisition errors or reasons. Among them, there were some researches related to acquisitions of Chinese resultative construction.

Zhao Jinming (1994) raised principles of teaching foreigners Chinese. He pointed out that resultative construction was a simple sentence in syntax but had two expressions in semantics, for instance, "他喝醉了酒——他喝酒+他醉"; Pragmatic element could influence the correct usage of resultative construction. Lu Jianji (1994) pointed out that while learning resultative construction foreigners always missed some elements (verb or result complement), such as "记[住], 听[到]". Complement was always missed by them, which was influenced by characteristic of thought and mother tongue interference. Li Dazhong (1996) classified students' errors of learning resultative construction into several kinds: the lack of complement; the lack of verbs; verbs with two complements; some other forms between verb and complement; the denial of resultative construction with the Chinese word '不'. Shi Jiawei (1998) put forward that among 22 modern Chinese sentence patterns there were four kinds with result complement which belonged to BA sentence (T7, T8) and BEI sentence (T9, T10).

T7   S+把+O+V+RC, such as "他把我打哭了".
T8   S+把+O1+V(在/到/给)+O2, such as "我把书放到桌子上".
T9   S+被/叫/让/给+O+V+RC, such as "我被他打哭了"。
T10 S+被/给+V+RC, such as "我被打哭了".

And towards the learners with Chinese and English as mother tongue, they were among the latter part of the second acquisition grade (three grades in total). Their acquisition sequence was T8, T10, T9, T7. From the direction of the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language, Lv Wenhua (1999) considered dividing resultative construction and directional complement from verb-complement structure and classifying into phrase-word which was the transitional unit between phrase and word. The classification of phrase-word simplified complement system of original grammar pattern, provided convenience for the teaching of Chinese as a foreign language and connected international Chinese teaching. Based on the comparison between Chinese and English, Quan Huiyu (1999) analyzed error types and reasons of resultative construction acquisition among learners whose mother tongue was English. As for the ineffective teaching of directional complement and object after verb in teaching of Chinese as a foreign language, Lu Jianming (2002) made a faithful description of their sequence and explained their position rule, which provide new reference for teaching of Chinese as a foreign language.

There were some acquisition researches of resultative construction among students with specific mother tongue. Qian Xujing (1997) analyzed the accuracy rate of directional complement among Japanese students in elementary, intermediate and high stages and discovered the acquisition sequence of Chinese directional complement of Japanese students. The sequence was: simple directional complement of verb without object; compound directional complement of verb without object; simple directional complement of verb with ordinary object; directional complement of verb with location object; compound directional complement of verb with ordinary object and direction complement of verb

with location verb. Liu Xun (2000) pointed out that the main reasons of resultative construction errors were negative transfer of mother tongue, negative transfer of target language, negative transfer of culture, influence of learning and communicating strategies and influence of learning environment. Shi Jiawei (2002) made a seven-month tracking study of an elementary-level foreign student. She divided the study into three stages and found high accuracy of sentence pattern in second stage while there was low accuracy of T8,T9 and T10. From the angle of semantic relations between Chinese predicate verb and result verb, Cheng Yanyan (2002) analyzed error type and reason of Kazak students while learning Chinese resultative construction: When the verb used as result complement, the students usually used two sentences to express the meaning, such as "*他哭了，眼睛都肿了"; When Chinese complement was adjectives, the students usually used adverbial to replace the result complement, such as "他栓结实了—*他结实地栓了"; When expressing mental feelings and cognitive activities of human, the students could not grasp the context; Chinese result complement often implied causal relationship, but Kazak didn't have result complement and often used causal compound sentence to express, such as "他累得吃不下饭了—*他因为累了，所以吃不下饭" etc.

Based on error analysis theory, Zhang Na (2006) analyzed common incorrect sentences of students from English-speaking countries and classified error types into missing error, wrong sequence error and wrong complement error. Through collecting linguistic data, Jin Zongyan (2006) and Che Hui (2006) analyzed common error types and reasons of Chinese resultative construction among Korean students and proposed corresponding teaching suggestions. Through contrastive analysis and linguistic data collecting, Yang Chenyong (2005) summarized common errors of Chinese resultative construction made by Vietnamese students. Hu Faxuan (2008) and Wang Jiaojiao (2010) analyzed error types of Thailand students while learning Chinese resultative construction and proposed corresponding teaching strategies. Through the comparison between English resultative construction and Chinese resultative construction, Yuan Boping (2009) pointed out that the object of English resultative construction was the patient of activity predicate and result predicate. However, in thematic relation of Chinese resultative construction, the object was not always the patient of activity predicate and result predicate. After the research, he discovered that the learners with English as mother tongue relied on it to deal with the thematic relation of Chinese resultative construction so that they could not reconstruct the argument structure of Chinese resultative construction, which might be the important reason of their acquisition errors. Chen Manhua (2009) and Zhang Yichuan (2009) proposed that while teaching students certain resultative construction, the teachers could let students remember the form and meaning as a whole even taking speech sounds, syntax and semantics into consideration. For instance, Chinese words "张" and "开" both had the meaning of "open", so the corresponding translation "open open mouth" of "张开嘴" was incorrect. If the teachers taught "张开嘴" as a whole (a construction) to the students, the students would not doubt about it and remember it quickly. With the help of Construction Grammar, regarding Chinese resultative construction as a whole was helpful for the understanding and usage of resultative construction of learners Based on an empirical study, Lu Yanping (2012) concluded major error types committed by foreign students and summarized two main sources of these errors—transfer and intralingual interference with the help of Construction Grammar. She suggested that negative language transfer and intralingual interference should be minimized and Construction Grammar be emphasized in teaching Chinese as a foreign language.

Although there were more and more researches on Chinese resultative construction acquisition, special experimental researches on foreign learners with specific mother tongue were rare and most of them were among other researches.

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Dynamics of Fluency, Lexical Resources and Language Awareness: Investigating the Role of Pre-speaking Strategies Instruction

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Abstract—The purpose of the present study was to find out the effect of using pre-speaking strategies coupled with strategic planning on Iranian EFL learners' fluency, lexical resources and language awareness. The study involved 70 intermediate male and female learners divided into two groups-experimental and control. Prior to the main phase of the study, Nelson test was carried out to check the homogeneity of the participants. In the pre-test stage, a picture-cued narrative task was administered to the two groups. Next, during ten treatment sessions the experimental group received pre-speaking strategies instruction and strategic planning with ten minutes of planning time while the control group did not receive them. To answer the research questions, Independent-samples t-test and Mann-Whitney U test were used. Data analyses showed the experimental group outperformed the control group. Therefore, for effective speaking, strategic planning should be coupled with pre-speaking strategies.

Index Terms—pre-speaking strategies, strategic planning, fluency, lexical resources, language awareness

I. INTRODUCTION

Speaking, among the four main skills, seems mostly favored as every English language learner desires to be effective in communication with others in oral mode. The importance of teaching speaking skill is that language is acquired through speaking and listening before one learns reading and writing. Brown and Yule (1983) believe that many language learners consider speaking skill as the basis for knowing a language and progress is assessed in terms of success in spoken communication. Therefore, it is important if teachers teach students how to speak strategically for effective communication. Strategy-based instruction is a process oriented approach to teaching which focuses on the learning process, and results in improvements both in the process and product of learning.

According to O'Malley and Chamot (1990), speaking strategies are important as they help learners "in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language" (p. 43) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015).

Therefore, classrooms should support the use of spoken language and provide a place where strategic speaking is valued. By assigning speaking tasks, language instructors can help learners use strategies for effective communication. These strategies may appear at two stages in task performance for (1) getting prepared for upcoming speaking tasks, (2) monitoring language input.

On the other hand, Task-Based Language Learning (TBLT) has become an important approach in the last years as it improves language learning as a result of communication and social interaction. Tasks provide the basis for an entire language curriculum and are an important feature of CLT (Ellis, 2003). In an attempt to study the effect of task-specific strategies, Cohen, Weaver, and Li (as cited in Nakatani & Goh, 2007) conducted an intervention study to investigate the effect of metacognitive strategy instruction on the development of speaking (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Thirty-two foreign students of English in the US were taught to use metacognitive strategies for preparing to speak and to self-monitor during speaking and for self-evaluation after having speaking (as cited in Lam, 2010). They were also assigned three tasks: self-description, story retelling, and city description and requested to make checklists of their use of task specific strategies before, during and after these tasks (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Analysis of data showed that the experimental group had an improvement in speaking performance on the city description task. However, Swain et al. (2009) found negative correlations between metacognitive strategies and speaking performance (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). One reason for this might be that speaking performance requires fast speech processing mechanisms (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). In fact, among low proficiency level students or in difficult tasks, attention to metacognitive strategies might detract attention from producing fluent, complex, and accurate speech (as cited in Talebi

& Moradi, 2015). Another reason might be that speaking strategies should be coupled with strategic planning to produce positive correlations with speaking performance (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015).

In task-based language teaching (TBLT), planning can happen in different phases and can be classified into two kinds: pre-task planning and within-task planning (Ellis, 2005). In pre-task planning, as the name speaks for itself, learners plan what they are going to say or write before they actually do the task. Pre-task planning is subdivided into rehearsal and strategic planning. In rehearsal planning students perform the task before their actual performance of the task. In fact, it is a preparation for the later performance.

Strategic planning is "student's preparation of what the content is and how the content is expressed for the task" (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). It can be divided into two types: guided planning and unguided planning (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). In guided planning, learners are guided in the planning phase about what and how to plan through some instructions and advice whereas in unguided planning learners receive no guidance or advice in the planning phase (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Empirical studies on the effects of both pre-task and within-task planning on written production have indicated that planning has a positive effect on fluency, complexity, and accuracy in general (Skehan & Foster, 1999; Sangarun, 2001) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Skehan and Foster (1997) reported that planners had better fluency than non-planners (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Ortega (1999) showed that L2 Spanish students who planned strategically had higher speaking speed.

According to Peters (2014), language resources contain a wide range of linguistic information according to their nature and function (as cited in Peter, 2014). They differ from simple lists to complex resources with many types of linguistic information associated with the entries or elements (as cited in Peter, 2014). In this document we focus on a particular kind of language resources, the lexical resources (as cited in Peter, 2014). In general they can be of various types (word list, machine readable dictionary, thesaurus, ontology, glossary, concordance, term bank, phonetic transcriptions, picture set, video shots, and sound bits) (as cited in Peter, 2014).

The impact of vocabulary knowledge, as one of the essential language components, on language fluency is undeniable (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). It serves as a means of expression and is "of critical importance to the typical language learner" (Coady & Huckin, 1997, p. 5) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). As speaking is a skill most fundamental for oral communication it seems that in the Iranian EFL classrooms more focus is on the speaking product and less attention is paid to the strategies and processes of speaking. Therefore, task-based language teaching is most fruitful if it is guided, as students may not know how to do the tasks and need a guided plan for their performance (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Actually, with all benefits found in strategic planning, it seems that in order to improve the speaking ability of EFL learners, strategic planning must be guided and thoughtfully carried out so that students do not stray from their planning time (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Language Awareness, Fluency and Lexical Resources

Language Awareness is an approach to language learning and teaching that has been increasingly discussed and applied both within the L1 and L2 context during the past few years (as cited in Barany, 2016). Language Awareness has been especially prominent in the United Kingdom, where it originated (see e.g., Hawkins, 1984) (as cited in Barany, 2016). At present, several conferences have been arranged, and a scientific journal called *Language Awareness* is regularly published (as cited in Barany, 2016). Language Awareness is neither a methodology nor a theory of learning (as cited in Barany, 2016). Rather, it may be understood as a cover term for a wide range of approaches towards language and language teaching, all of which emphasize the aspect of language being something personal and meaningful (as cited in Barany, 2016). Carter defined language awareness as "the development in learners of an enhanced consciousness of and sensitivity to the forms and functions of language" (as cited in Peters, 2014). Thus language awareness may be considered as "partly synonymous with reflectivity in matters of language/language learning, sensitivity to matters of language/language learning, and ability to explore language/language learning and appreciate it"(as cited in Dufva, 1994). Thus students in a foreign language classroom may be encouraged to think about the similarities and differences between languages (as cited in Dufva, 1994). They can be given means to reflect themselves as learners (as cited in Dufva, 1994). They may be given tasks that develop their ability to deal with language analytically (as cited in Dufva, 1994).

Fluency means using the language smoothly and easily (as cited in Gross, 2001). Hesitation is the opposite of fluency (as cited in Gross, 2001). Standard one of the Colorado Model Content Standards for Foreign Languages addresses that each of all four essential language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) has a fluency component (as cited in Gross, 2001). A fluent listener comprehends the language without repetition, reduced speed, or rewording (as cited in Gross, 2001). A fluent speaker expresses him or herself spontaneously, in an unrehearsed situation (as cited in Gross, 2001). A fluent reader comprehends text in the language smoothly and without assistance and hesitating (as cited in Gross, 2001). A fluent writer expresses him or herself at a rate of about 100 words per 5 minutes without recourse to a dictionary (as cited in Gross, 2001). Fluency can also be defined as a learner's general language proficiency that is characterized by perceptions of ease, eloquence, and smoothness of speech or writing (Hilton, 2008; Koponen & Riggenbach, 2000). According to Tavakoli and Skehan (2005), speech fluency consists of multiple components in which different sub-dimensions can be identified, such as speed fluency (rate and density of delivery), breakdown

fluency (number, length, and distribution of pauses in speech), and repair fluency (number of false starts and repetitions) (as cited in Magnan et al., 2014). Moreover, most language teachers have an intuitive understanding of fluency. However, according to Fulcher (2003), fluency –or the lack of it –is usually described in metaphorical language by interlocutors, using terms such as 'slow and uneven', 'hesitant', 'jerky', or 'uneven' as opposed to 'smooth'. Non-fluent speech is also described as 'disconnected' or having incorrect 'rhythm'. It is, however, rare for perceptions of 'fluency' to be associated with particular observable speech behaviors (Fulcher, 2003, p. 30).

While researchers generally agree with the multi-componential nature of vocabulary knowledge, various proposals have been put forward regarding what exactly constitutes vocabulary knowledge (Meara, 2005; Schmitt, 2010) (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). One classification commonly used involves the size and depth of vocabulary (e.g., Qian, 2002) (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). Size, or breadth, of vocabulary knowledge expresses a quantitative dimension involving a word form and a primary meaning which a learner has some knowledge of meaning, and also described as the form-meaning link. Depth of vocabulary knowledge, on the other hand, represents a qualitative dimension and is defined as "how well a learner knows individual words or how well words are organized in the learner's mental lexicon" (Stæhr, 2009, p. 579), and includes various levels of knowledge such as knowledge of partial to precise meaning, word frequency, affix knowledge, syntactic characteristics, and lexical network (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). In addition to size and depth, another lexical aspect that has recently attracted attention and been incorporated into vocabulary frameworks is speed of processing, or how fast learners can recognize and retrieve knowledge stored in the mental lexicon (e.g., Meara, 2005) (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). Processing speed (often referred to as automaticity, efficiency, or fluency) of lexical access and retrieval is considered to play a crucial role in the use of vocabulary in real-life situations, as well as in L2 proficiency (as cited in Koizumi & In'nami, 2013). This may be true especially of listening and speaking, which require on-line processing (Schmitt, 2010).

B. Strategic Planning

Strategic planning is described as student's preparation of what the content is and how it is expressed for the task. It can be divided into two types: guided planning and unguided planning (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). In guided planning, learners are guided in the planning phase about what and how to plan through some instructions and advice whereas in unguided planning learners receive no guidance or advice in the planning phase (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Empirical studies on the effects of both pre-task and within-task planning on written production have indicated a positive effect of planning on fluency, complexity, and accuracy in general (Sangarun, 2001; Skehan & Foster, 1999) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Skehan and Foster reported that planners had greater fluency than non-planners (Skehan & Foster, 1997) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Ortega showed that L2 Spanish students who planned strategically had higher speaking speed (Ortega, 1999). Accuracy can be defined as "the mastery of language forms and structures and the accurate use of them" (Hamdan Salim Shahin, 2003) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). The impact of vocabulary knowledge, as one of the essential language components, on language fluency is undeniable (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). It serves as a means of expression and is "of critical importance to the typical language learner" (Coady & Huckin, 1997, p. 5) (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). This research set out to explore the effect of pre-speaking strategies instruction in strategic planning phase of speaking task on Iranian EFL students' fluency, lexical resources and language awareness. More specifically, the following research questions guided the study:

1: Does teaching pre-speaking strategies in strategic planning phase have any effect on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' fluency in speaking?

2: Does teaching pre-speaking strategies in strategic planning phase have any effect on the improvement of Iranian intermediate EFL learners' lexical resources in speaking?

3: Does teaching pre-speaking strategies in strategic planning phase have any effect on increasing the language awareness of Iranian intermediate EFL learners?

III. METHODOLOGY

A. Participants

Eighty students (45 females & 35 males) whose ages ranged from 18-20 consented to take part in this study. Then, through administering a NELSON test of proficiency, 70 learners (41 females & 29 males) with intermediate proficiency level were selected. The researcher selected the students who scored one standard deviation below and above the mean. These learners were randomly assigned to two groups of control and experimental (35 participants for each group).

B. Instrumentation

Five instruments were used in this study, which are elaborated upon below.

1. Nelson test of proficiency

As mentioned above, Nelson test of proficiency (1976, series 250) was used to select a homogeneous group of participants. It contains 50 items assessing grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation of the students. The reliability of the test was calculated which showed an alpha coefficient of 0.72.

2. Picture-cued narrative task

In picture-cued narrative task a sequence of pictures was distributed between the students and the students were asked to make a story out of them. All the tasks were shown to two experts in the field to make sure they were appropriate for the purpose of this study.

3. Rating scale

An appropriate rating scale, namely *IELTS Assessment Criteria* in speaking, was employed for scoring the oral production of the students. Two TEFL experts were consulted to ensure the validity of the instrument.

In order to measure the fluency of speaking, the raters evaluated the oral performance of participants in terms of their speed in speaking. It means that the raters investigated how many times the participants paused during the task. For measuring lexical resources, raters used the number of lexis which the participants used in the pre-test and the post-test. In order to evaluate the language awareness among language learners, the researcher used the scores from the language awareness questionnaire.

4. Pre-speaking strategies questionnaire

The instrument contains 16 Likert-scale items, each accompanied by a 5-point Likert scale ranging from ''never'' (1 point) to ''always'' (5 points). The total scale scores range from 16 to 80. The instrument was adopted from Cohen (1996). The original instrument has three sections of before you speak, while you are speaking, and after you speak (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). For the purpose of the study, only the *before you speak* section was employed. The questionnaire was used both in pre-test and post-test phases. The reliability of the questionnaire, assessed by Cronach Alpha, was 0.84.

5. Language awareness questionnaire

This questionnaire also includes 'Likert-type' questions and contains 25 items. These items include questions about participants' knowledge of English language which range from "I don't know what this means" (1 point) to "I know this inside out: nothing new to learn" (5 points). The total scale scores range from 25 to 125. The questionnaire was used in the pre-test and post-test phases. The reliability of the questionnaire estimated through Cronbach alpha turned out to be 0.81.

C. Procedure

First, Nelson English proficiency test was administered to 80 students and the intermediate learners were selected. Those whose scores were between -1 and +1 standard deviation from the mean were considered as intermediate and were selected as the main participants. The selected students were then put into control and experimental groups, each containing 35 students (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). To find out the speaking ability of these learners, the picture-cued narrative speaking tasks were given to the students (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Next, the researcher asked them to speak about tasks for ten minutes. Then, the pre-speaking strategies questionnaire as a measure of pre-speaking strategies was distributed among them. Then, the experimental group received 10 sessions of treatment with pre-speaking strategies in strategic planning stage.

Both control and experimental groups received ten minutes time to think about the picture and retell the story based on the picture-cued tasks (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). The only difference was that the control group was not guided how to use available time whereas the experimental group received guided pre-task planning in the form of pre-speaking strategies (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Strategies included, among others, predicting the *appropriate grammar* and *accurate structure* and *using a wide range of vocabularies* and *strategies for coping with new and unknown words* (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). It also focused on pause fillers in order to reduce the amount of silence and long hesitation, to decrease repair as well as repetition and to maintain coherence during narration (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). All these strategies were taught to enhance students' speaking ability in terms of language awareness, fluency and lexical resources. It should be mentioned that in the process of teaching the above-mentioned strategies, five strategy instruction elements by Winograd and Hare (as cited in Carrell, 1998) were employed.

For the sake of instructing the participants, four other pre-speaking strategies whose original model was provided by Dornyei (1995), Dornyei and Thurrell (1991), and Willems (1987) were selected in this study (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). The four strategies are: A) *approximation,* which involves "using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target words as closely as possible" (Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1994; pp. 40-49); B) *circumlocution*, which consists of using synonyms, antonyms, explanation, or nonverbal communication for unknown vocabularies (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). It is viewed as the most important achievement strategy and a major component of strategic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980); C) *lexicalized fillers*: They are words or gambits used to fill pauses and to gain time to think in order to keep the communication channel open and maintain discourse when speakers face communication problems (Graham, 1997); and D) *Preparing general outlines* such as using notes and keywords which are necessary during planning time, and predicting the structure and grammar (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Next, every session we asked participants to speak about one picture in the *Streamline* book as practice. Finally, at the end of the treatment sessions, both control and experimental groups received the post-tests, in which, the participants talked about the picture cued tasks and narrated them in two minutes. Their voices were recorded and later transcribed. For rating purposes, two non-native speaking experienced teachers judged the participants' performance by listening to the tapes while having the transcription at hand.

IV. RESULTS

As mentioned above, in order to measure the participant's speaking fluency, lexical resources, and language awareness before the treatment a pre-test was administrated to the students. The normality of the distribution of the data was checked via the One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. The results indicated that the scores on speaking lexical resources and speaking awareness were normally distributed but the scores on speaking fluency were not normally distributed. So, two Independent Samples T-tests were run for performance of two groups on speaking lexical resources and speaking awareness and a Mann-Whitney U test on the students' speaking fluency. Table 4.1, 4.2, and 4.3 shows the results.

TABLE 4.1
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PERFORMANCE OF TWO GROUPS ON LEXICAL RESOURCES PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	.508	.478	.527	68	.600	.42857	.81304
Equal variances not assumed			.527	66.979	.600	.42857	.81304

As it can be seen the p-value is .60, meaning that there was not a significant difference between the mean scores of the two groups in terms of speaking lexical resources for the two groups.

Table 4.2 displays the results of Independent-samples t-test on speaking awareness pre-test.

TABLE 4.2
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PERFORMANCE OF TWO GROUPS ON AWARENESS PRE-TEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	T	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	1.993	.163	-.554	68	.582	-.37143	.67078
Equal variances not assumed			-.554	65.897	.582	-.37143	.67078

By considering the fact that the p-value was .58, which was again greater than 0.05, it can be concluded that the mean difference of awareness scores in two groups was not statistically significant.

Table 4.3 shows the result of Mann-Whitney U test to compare the students' scores on speaking fluency at pretest stage.

TABLE 4.3
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST FOR PERFORMANCE OF TWO GROUPS ON FLUENCY PRE-TEST

Mann-Whitney U	578.000
Wilcoxon W	1208.000
Z	-.407
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.684

The results indicated that there was not a statistically significant difference between the two groups' speaking fluency (sig= .68> .05).

To examine the hypotheses of the study, it was necessary to make a comparison between the control and experimental groups' performance to find out if the treatment had any effect on learners' speaking fluency, lexical resources, and language awareness.

Table 4.4 shows the descriptive statistics of speaking scores on post-test stage.

TABLE 4.4
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS FOR PERFORMANCE OF TWO GROUPS ON SPEAKING POSTTEST

	Group	N	Mean	S.D
Fluency	Control	35	14.6857	2.75223
	Experimental	35	16.2286	3.02038
Lexical Resources	Control	35	13.2571	3.37240
	Experimental	35	15.0857	2.73723
Awareness	Control	35	32.9714	2.89508
	Experimental	35	35.2571	2.53613

As Table 4.4 shows the mean of three components including fluency, lexical resources, and language awareness scores in the control group in the post test were 14.68, 13.25, and 32.97 respectively, while the mean of fluency, lexical resources, and language awareness scores in the experimental group in the post test were 16.22, 15.08, and 35.25, respectively.

In order to select the most appropriate statistical analysis to compare the performance of groups on post-test, the scores were submitted to One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Table 4.5 shows the results of normality check for the scores on speaking fluency post-test for two groups.

TABLE 4.5
NORMALITY CHECK FOR SCORES ON FLUENCY POSTTEST

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Control	.198	35	.001
Experimental	.178	35	.006

As Table 4.5 shows the p-value was smaller than cut point .05 which indicated that the scores on speaking fluency post-test were not normally distributed. Table 4.6 displays the results of normality check for speaking lexical resources scores.

TABLE 4.6
NORMALITY CHECK FOR SCORES ON LEXICAL RESOURCES POSTTEST

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Control	.135	35	.108
Experimental	.140	35	.081

As can be seen in Table 4.6, the non-significant results (*Sig*=.10, .08, p>.05) indicate that the scores were normally distributed. Table 4.7 shows the results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test on speaking awareness.

TABLE 4.7
NORMALITY CHECK FOR SCORES ON AWARENESS POSTTEST

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	Df	Sig.
Control	.125	35	.187
Experimental	.158	35	.027

As table 4.7 shows, the speaking awareness scores in the experimental group were not normally distributed (sig= .02, p< .05), however in the control groups the non-significant results (sig=.18, p>.05) indicated that the scores were normally distributed.

The results of Tables 4.5 and 4.7 revealed that scores in speaking fluency and speaking awareness were not normally distributed (p-values < .05) but in speaking lexical resources the posttest scores were normally distributed. Thus to examine the first and third null hypotheses Mann-Whitney U was run whereas for the second null hypothesis the independent-samples t-test was most appropriate. Table 4.8, indicates the results of Mann-Whitney U test used to compare two groups' post-tests scores on speaking fluency.

TABLE 4.8
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ON SPEAKING POST FLUENCY

Mann-Whitney U	406.000
Wilcoxon W	1036.000
Z	-2.441
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.015

The results of Mann-Whitney U test in Table 4.8 indicates that there was a statistically significant difference at .05 probability level between the two groups' speaking fluency (P=.01 < .05). Moreover, the effect size of the result was calculated by the researcher which was .29. According to guidelines (proposed by Cohen, 1988) we can conclude that there was a large effect. Table 4.9 shows the results of independent-samples t-test on speaking lexical resources.

TABLE 4.9
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR PERFORMANCE OF TWO GROUPS ON LEXICAL RESOURCES POSTTEST

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
	F	Sig.	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference
Equal variances assumed	2.413	.125	-2.491	68	.015	-1.82857	.73418
Equal variances not assumed			-2.491	65.240	.015	-1.82857	.73418

As Table 4.9 shows, the p-value was .01, which was smaller than 0.05 (p-value=.01< 0.05), it can be concluded that the mean difference of speaking lexical resources in the two groups was statistically significant.

Furthermore, the effect size of the result was calculated, which was .08. According to Cohen's classification it can be at the threshold of a moderate effect size.

Table 4.10 indicates the results of Mann-Whitney U test used to compare two groups' post-tests on speaking awareness.

TABLE 4.10
MANN-WHITNEY U TEST ON SPEAKING POST AWARENESS

Mann-Whitney U	331.000
Wilcoxon W	961.000
Z	-3.326
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)	.001

The results of Mann-Whitney U test in Table 4.10 revealed that there was a statistically significant difference at .05 probability level between the two groups' speaking awareness (P=.001 < .05).

In addition, the effect size of the result was calculated which was .39, which according to Cohen's (1988) guidelines could be considered as large.

V. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The main objective of this study, as mentioned above, was coupling strategic planning with pre-speaking strategies instruction, as it was felt that just giving students time to plan for their speaking performance is not enough and they need to be taught how to make best use of the allotted time (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). In guided strategic planning the teacher gives the students the necessary help for a more fluent and lexically rich and appropriate speaking ability (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). Along this line of thought, this study investigated the overall effect of using speaking strategies in planning stage on fluency, language awareness and lexical resources in performing speaking tasks. Analyses of the data on the basis of the students' performance on the picture-cued task in oral narration showed that the students' overall scores in fluency, lexical resources and language awareness were improved (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015). The findings indicated that if students develop using pre-speaking strategies, their speaking ability will show significant improvement.

Although, the present study combined pre-speaking strategies as a guide along with strategic task planning, the analysis of data revealed that lexical resources, as shown by the effect size, was the less affected compared to other components namely, language awareness and fluency.

The findings revealed that the experimental group members which used pre-speaking strategies coupled with strategic planning had more lexical resources and high fluency than the control group participates. Also, experimental group participants had good awareness.

The result of the fluency test also revealed that the experimental group members had faster speaking speed and produced more syllables within a given time period and less pauses in speaking tasks.

Regarding the effect of the instruction of pre-speaking strategies in guided strategic planning on increasing the awareness, analysis of the data collected through pre-speaking strategies questionnaire showed learners used significantly more pre-speaking strategies such as trying to make error free sentences, using wide vocabulary resources in order to convey meaning, using paraphrase effectively, speaking with rare repetition or self-correction or hesitation, and speaking coherently. In the post test, students performed better in using pre-speaking strategies.

The findings of this study conformed to the previous studies, such as Foster and Skehan (1996), and Skehan and Foster (1997), who reported that planners had better fluency than non-planners (as cited in Talebi & Moradi, 2015).

Also, the findings of this study corroborated the findings of the majority of studies which have shown clear effects of planning on complexity and fluency of language learners (e.g., Foster & Skehan 1996; Ortega, 1999; Skehan & Foster, 1997) (as cited in Rahimpour, 2011). Ortega (1999) showed that L2 Spanish students had faster speaking speed if they had planned strategically.

On the other hand, the results obtained in this study are in contrast with the results of other studies which found negative effects of metacognitive strategies on speaking performance. For example Swain et al. (2009) found negative correlations between metacognitive strategies and speaking performance (as cited in Talebi, Hassan, 2015, p. 43). One reason for this might be that speaking strategies should be coupled with strategic planning to produce positive correlations with speaking performance. As previous studies have shown, speaking strategies are crucial because they help foreign language learners "in negotiating meaning where either linguistic structures or sociolinguistic rules are not shared between a second language learner and a speaker of the target language" (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990).

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A Cognitive Approach to Language-force of Chongqing Dialect Particle—A Case Study of "ma"

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Abstract—**Modal particle is an important mean of expressing inner emotion in daily communication, and it plays an irreplaceable role in language. Chongqing dialect, as the essence of the local culture of china, should be inherited eternally. This research focuses on the study of the modal word of "ma" in the dialect of Chongqing and analyzes its cognitive process and characterization of the word in human brain under the guidance of Tamly's force - dynamic model, acquiring the functions and effects of "ma" in different contexts which are expected to promote the development and preservation of local culture in Chongqing and provide a reference for dealing with interpersonal relationship.**

Index Terms—**Chongqing dialect, ma, force dynamics theory**

I. INTRODUCTION

Chongqing dialect is also called Chongqing idiom by native speakers with the features of hard, straight and plane. During the Ming Dynasty, many people from Hunan settled here, accounting for 40% of the total population of Chongqing, but Chongqing dialect is completely preserved with its strong vitality.

Recently, there are some researches about dialect at home and abroad, but most of which just study from aspects of translation of dialect, its pronunciation system, or the effects on the acquisition of other languages of learners. Brady (2015) has figured out that dialect is not only important for the native adults, but also the teenagers. His paper explores the impact between adolescent identity and standard English or dialect from a political perspective. By conducting an experiment on 54 students in London, his paper works out that dialect plays an important role in constructing teenagers' identities. What's more, Han Ziman (2002) discusses the limitations of dialects in translating foreign literary works into Chinese. He insists dialects in different countries have different characteristics. It can not be expressed equally in translation so that he provides methods of using exoteric expression or filling-up after the text. Le Meiyun and Ling Dexiang (1994) explore the basic discipline of dialectical pronunciation in various regions of China and get the reason why speakers make such mistakes in pronouncing ---because there is an interference between dialect and English. Different dialects result in the situation of making different mistakes in pronunciation. Liu Juhong (1998) discusses the influence of Tibetan students' dialectical system to the acquisition of English. Just as the research of Le Meiyun, dialect is powerful enough to change the pronunciation of English. In the same way, it has an impact on the second language acquisition. As for the particle, a minority of scholars have discussed it before. Those studies have focused on its function, semantic conveying, hierarchical status or characteristics of different regional dialects or pragmatic values. Mrayat (2015) gives a description about the particles and morphemes with negative meanings in Jordanian Arabic. Zhu Dexi (1983) proposes to discuss a number of marked particles in the view of grammar and semantic function. Huang Guoying (1994) explains the levels of particles which are located at the end of the sentence, which means to compare the emotion-force of different particles. Fang Mei (1994) derives the division between primary and secondary information in a sentence which is reflected in the process of pronouncing the particle in a stressed or light tone. Nevertheless, most of them only concerned about syntactic or semantic effects with little concentration on emotion expressing.

In addition, many scholars have done various investigations to Chongqing dialect. Ming Maoxiu (2016) has conducted an experiment about tone in Chongqing dialect. In his study, there are some other tones which have not been found before by observing speakers' gender; Dong Sicong (2013) has researched on the negative words of Chongqing dialect. He draws a conclusion that there are some similarities and differences by comparing dialect with mandarin. Wang Changxue (1996) has devoted himself to the discussion of a certain voice--- "er" in Chongqing dialect. What's more, Han Weiwei (2013), Mao Lingshuang (2013),Dai Wei and Zhou Wende (1999) all have studied on the pronunciation of Chongqing dialect. However, most of which just study from aspects of translation of dialect, its pronunciation system, or the effects on the acquisition of other languages of learners. Few researches are carried on

modal particles, especially in the dialect of Chongqing. Particle, as an important way to describe inner feelings, is often used in daily conversation. This article aims to explore the presentation, construction methods and the influence of language in human psychology under the guidance of Force Dynamic Model Theory and infers the production and consequence of speech, which may improve interpersonal communications and make our society more harmonious .

II.   The Application of Force Dynamic Theory

The traditional researches on "force" mainly focus on physics, energetics and other disciplines. There is few application in language. A famous cognitive linguist Leonard Talmy (1988) firstly proposes Force-Dynamic Model Theory. He insists that Force Dynamics--a mode of construing the world in terms of entities interacting with respect to force --is a neglected semantic category. As a result, he proposes to construct the meaning of language by means of "force" which can represent our kinesthetic system and demonstrate the universality of force dynamic thought.

According to Tamly's opinion, there are two basic elements in "force" unit: the Agonist and the Antagonist. Ungerer & Schemid (1996) suggest that the perceptual field is always divided into figure and ground. The figure refers to the part which is highlighted. Therefore, the agonist as a focus is usually highlighted by foregrounding while the antagonist refers to the force which against the agonist. With time goes by, force dynamics begins to develop it into cross fields, especially the combination with psychology. Tamly (1995) argues that there is a great similarity between cognitive linguistics and psychology because of metaphor. Metaphor is firstly proposed by Lakoff and Johnson (1980). Later, Lakoff (1993) reckons that metaphor comes from thought rather than language. Generally speaking, when people describe a situation, they will construct the situation in mind (Langacker, 1987). What's more, Lakoff (1987) proposes that metaphor is the way of mapping from source domain to target domain which means to find out some same features between source and target domain. Zhao Yanfang (2001) explains that the mapping behavior refers not only to the expression in language, but also the way of thinking one thing to replace another related thing. Thus, force dynamic theory expands its application from metaphors of physics to psychology and sociology. It mainly refers to the similarity of psychological association and emotion caused by an entity involving in the psychological level, or a kind of binding force caused by the social responsibility or obligations. For example:

(1) She refrained from responding.
(2) He stayed even though they asked him to leave.

Example (1) reflects the split-self model which presents the state of mental activity can be active or static. The agonist force is *she* while the antagonist is *herself* in this situation. The force in example (2) is the interaction of society. The agonist is *he* while the antagonist is *they. They* have imposed a force to *him* to ask him to leave. According to the word *stay* , we know that the force of antagonist is less than the agonist at this moment so that the state of *he* can not be changed. Tamly (2000) indicates that there are four basic dynamic models in the force-dynamic model, which can explain the meaning of language effectively. The modal particle of Chongqing dialect plays an important role in expressing human emotions. Peng Yongzhao (1988) has made a systematic summary of several typical modal words in Chongqing dialect. Nevertheless, he has not made any academic contributions. Therefore, this paper will analyze the effect and validity of the modal words in Chongqing dialect under the guidance of Force Dynamic Theory.

III.   The Language-force of "ma" in Chongqing Dialect

There are a lot of modal particles in Chongqing dialect, and one particle may have different functions. According to the systematic analysis of Chongqing dialect and the collected corpus (this corpus derives from the dialect program in Chongqing called Foggy Night), this paper finally chooses the word "ma" as the object to analyze the language-force of "ma" in sentences.

A.   The Force Balance of "ma" in Application

In the course of speech act, the speaker usually wants to change the state of the listener, while the hearer needs to respond according to his own situation. Therefore, There must exist an output of some feelings or needs when people say something. This chapter mainly discusses the force balance of "ma" from the perspective of two communicators.

Different particles have different functions in sentences, and even the same particle has different functions in different sentences. For example:

(1) Reminding:
    a. Please remember to close the door.   (English version)
    b. You remember to close door yo.   (Chinglish version)
    c. Ni jide guan men yo.   (Chinese version)
(2) Surprising:
    a. Oh, you have new clothes today.   (English version)
    b. Ye, you today wear new clothes o.   (Chinglish version)
    c. Ye, ni jintian chuan de xin yifu o.   (Chinese version)
(3) Easing tone:
    a. Please remember to hand in your homework.   (English version)

      b. Everyone remembers to hand in homework ha.   (Chinglish version)
      c. Dajia jide jiao zuoye ha.   (Chinese version)

According to the examples above, we know that no matter what functions they want to realize, the expressions which include particles play the role of transferring emotions between speakers.

Therefore, "ma" as a typical particle in Chongqing dialect, also includes an emotional output in communication. It will be demonstrated in following examples:

(4) Strengthening tone:
      a. You should be obedient.   (English version)
      b. You gai obedient ma.   (Chinglish version)
      c. Ni shi gai tinghua ma.   (Chinese version)
(5) Easing tone:
      a. Hurry up.   (English version)
      b. Go fast ma.   (Chinglish version)
      c. Zou kuaidian ma.   (Chinese version)

Since the modal words aim to express our feelings, it is absolutely important why we choose to show this feeling and why we use such a particle. Wen Xu (2014) points out that the focus is always protruded by word orders and syntax structures, which is usually located at the end of the sentence. Combining with this article, we infer that the particle which is often at the end of sentence may also have the function of focus. "Ma" is used at the end of example (4) and (5). Hence one can see that the focus of the sentence has also been shifted to the end. Wardhaugh (1986) shows that language can not be separated from society. The production of speech acts must comply with the social norms. So both sides of communication are inevitably subject to social norms being in the social environment. For instance, in example (4), "whether you should be obedient or not" is subject to the social norms. For the listener, if he is young or he has done something wrong, he should be obedient. Meanwhile, the word "ma" is added to the end of the sentence to strengthen the speaker's emotional expression and this request (to be obedient) becomes naturally. So the hearer must obey the conditions to achieve the balance between speaker and listener and then to finish the purpose of communication. It is often difficult for people to accept sharp language or ignore some requirements caused by social environment, which also illustrates the reason why the above examples use the words "yo" "o" or "ma". In example (5), the same word "ma" plays another function of easing tone. Suppose to remove "ma", the sentence is an imperative sentence with strong emotion of ordering. So it is easy to make listeners rebellious, and difficult to obey orders. According to the principle of cooperation proposed by Grice (1975), speakers often use the method of adding the word "ma" in order to ease the tone and reduce the resistance of such a request in the mind of hearer, which can form an emotional balance between speakers and listeners and achieve the purpose of communication.

Form the above analysis, the correct use of particle in Chongqing dialect should mainly be based on the different perspectives of both sides of communication, taking the purpose and cognitive emotion of each other into accounts, and then the balance between listeners and speakers will be achieved.

B.   The Validity of "ma" Based on Force Dynamics

In the expressions with particles, the dynamic balance between the discourse force of the speaker and the inner emotion force of the listener will be achieved. Mo Chiyang and Duan Yun (2012) have argued that the speaker tries to put a force to listener by using discourse to overcome hearer's inner force and change his state in communication. The force which changes hearer's state is called "language-force". Similarly, we can establish a language-force model of "ma" based on force-dynamic model system, which is mainly used to analyze the balance between the language-force of "ma" and the force of social psychological confrontation. According to the principle of force dynamic theory ---antagonist puts a force to agonist to change agonist's state---agonist is listener's will (including the inner thought, habits or the mood of hearers), and the antagonist is the language-force against listener (including the intention of the speaker, social customs, public psychological trends, interests, attitude to life, emotional courtesy, etc.) in the language-force model of "ma". This chapter mainly analyzes the validity of "ma" in application.

According to the statistical analysis of the corpora containing the word "ma", the validity of "ma" in application can be roughly divided into the following three categories:

① The function of strengthening tone:

"Ma" can be placed at the end of declarative sentence, indicating the attitude of "it should be" of the discourse, which plays the role of enhancing tone. Under the circumstance of force dynamics, the meaning of speaker's discourse can be consolidated. The language-force increases, so the effect is also enhanced in the dynamic system. For example:

(6) a. You should be obedient.   (English version)
     b. You gai obedient ma.   (Chinglish version)
     c. Ni shi gai tinghua ma.   (Chinese version)
(7) a. Thirties people are old enough to marry.   (English version)
     b. Dou thirties people should marry ma.   (Chinglish version)
     c. Dou sanshi hao ji de ren le gai jiehun le ma.   (Chinese version)

According to the above analysis, the production of speech act in Example (6) is based on the fact that the speaker hopes the listener to be obedient. So the agonist (**F**ago) is the inner strength of the hearer (for a certain reason, he is

insubordinate), while the antagonist (**F**ant) is the combination of the speaker's intention **F**1(the speaker hopes hearer to be obedient) and the social cultural factors **F**2 (the identity or status of the hearer are considered to be obedient in public thoughts) (**Figure 1**).
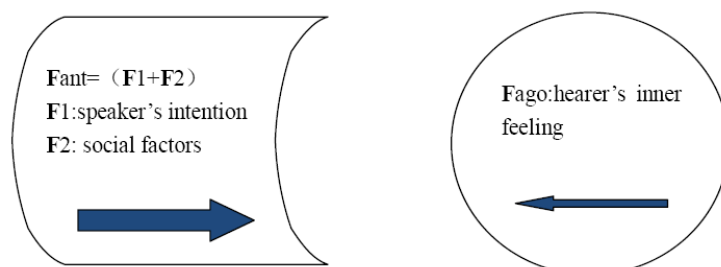

Figure 1. The language-force model of "Ni shi gai tinghua ma."

With the particle "ma" in the end, the emotion of the sentence increases. It means that **F**ant is enhanced and then **F**ago is relatively reduced. The forces of both sides are imbalance so that the language - force model tends to be dynamic. The whole force drives towards the right. That is to say, **F**ago is pushed by **F**ant. So we can say the particle "ma" is more effective in this case.

Similarly, "ma" in Example (7) plays the same role of enhancing the tone. In the dynamic balance system, agonist is the hearer's inner feeling of fearing or worrying, so he is reluctant to marry. The antagonist is the purpose of hoping hearer to get married from his parents or friends (**F**1) and the social trend that a person over thirty is old enough to marry (**F**2). By using "ma" to enhance the speaker's language-force, the possibility of constraining agonist and changing its state also increases (**shown in Figure 2**).
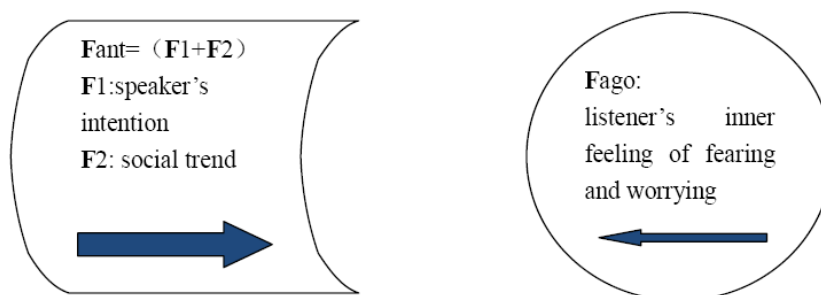

Figure 2. The language-force model of " Dou sanshi hao ji de ren le gai jiehun le ma."

② The function of easing tone:

"Ma" is often used at the end of the imperative sentence, and sometimes it is applied in the structure of the "V. + ma + V".(eg: ku sazi ma ku). It will reduce the mood of giving order or request and ease the atmosphere. In this situation, the language-force of speaker decreases. At the same time, the constraint on hearer's psychology reduces, too. Therefore, the possibility of producing some behaviors caused by discourses increases. For example:

(8) a. Hurry up. It is almost late.   (English version)
      b. Go quickly ma. Yao late le.   (Chinglish version)
      c. Zou kuaidian ma, yao chidao le.   (Chinese version)
(9) a. Please be quiet.   (English version)
      b. You lower voice ma.   (Chinglish version)
      c. Ni xiao sheng dian ma.   (Chinese version)

Comparing with "zou kuaidian" or "ni xiao sheng dian", Example (8) and (9) are easier to accept. "Ma" in these sentences plays the role of easing tone. According to the analysis of the force-dynamic system, the agonist (**F**ago) in example (8) is the hearer's state, which may be exhausted or has other physical deficiency and he proceeds relatively slowly. The antagonist (**F**ant) is the combination of the speaker's intention that he does not want to be late(**F**1) and the social norm (**F**2) that the social does not advocate the habit of late. In example (9), the agonist is the the hearer's habit (**F**ago) that speaks loudly without intention. The antagonist is the force (**F**ant) that the speaker's intention of wanting a quiet environment (**F**1) and the social norm (**F**2) that we should keep quiet in public. There is a "ma" at the end of both sentences, which plays the role of easing tone. The force of imperative sentence is reduced, and the friction on hearer's reduced accordingly. Thereby, the possibility of accepting the advice is increased. From the perspective, "ma" plays an very important role in the force-dynamic system. However, if the word "ma" is deleted, the sentence has a very strong order. It impresses the hearer much rejection which may difficult to change the state of listener, and even leave strong impact and destroy the original effect (**Figure 3**).
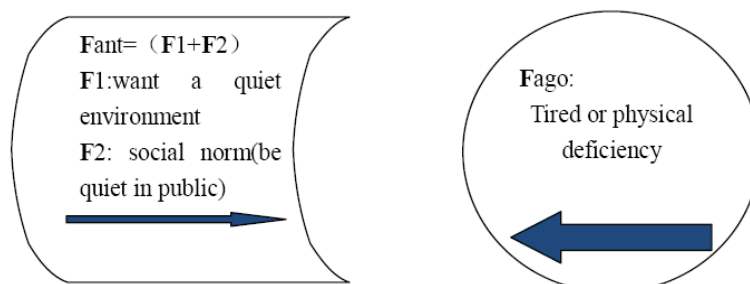
Figure 3. The language-force model of "Zou kuaidian ma, yao chidao le." or "Ni xiao sheng dian ma."

③ The function of urging tone:

In this function, "ma" is often used at the end of the interrogative sentence, which urges the other side to respond quickly and highlights the speaker's psychology of thirsting for the answer. In dynamic force system, the context is given a sense of urgency, reflecting the anxiety of the speaker. For example:

(10) a. Do you like the clothes?　　　　　　　　(English version)
　　　b. You like or not like the clothes ma?　　　(Chinglish version)
　　　c. Ni xi bu xihuan zhege yifu ma?　　　　　(Chinese version)
(11) a. Are they?　　　　　　　　　　　　　　(English version)
　　　b. Are or are not they ma?　　　　　　　　(Chinglish version)
　　　c. Shi bushi zhe qun ren ma?　　　　　　　(Chinese version)

In Examples (10) and (11), the word "ma" effectively increases the interaction between the two communicators. Suppose that there is no "ma" in these two sentences. Then example (10) should be "Ni xi bu xihuan zhege yifu", which happens in general situation. If the listener did not answer the question, then the speaker can continue to ask, "Ni xi bu xihuan zhege yifu ma". The second expression is significantly increased the state of anxious. What's more, in example (10), the agonist (Fago) is the habit of the hearer or the current mood. The antagonist (Fant) is the combination of psychological state (F1) of speaker of wanting to know the answer and social conditions (F2) (eg: Time is limited. They must decide to buy it or not quickly). The habit or emotion of listener is according to what he hears and then he gives response by quickly understanding the discourse in mind. Since the word "ma" itself has the urging function, the listener is more likely to make any responses in this context. Therefore, we may regard the word "ma" has worked effectively **(Figure 4)**.
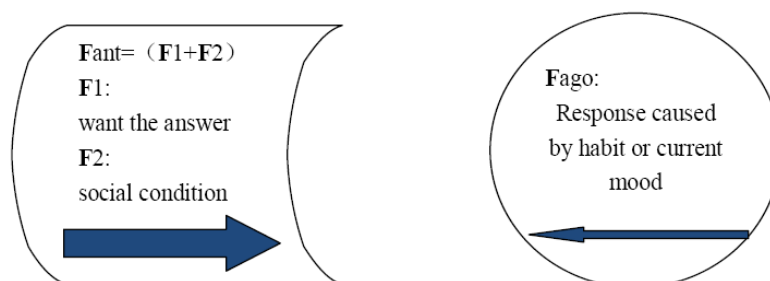

Figure 4. The language-force model of "Ni xi bu xihuan zhege yifu ma?"

IV. CONCLUSION

This research analyzes the particle of "ma" in Chongqing dialect from the perspective of cognitive linguistics. From the perspective of both communicators and the Force-Dynamics Theory, the writer studies the characterization of "ma" in human cognitive system. A Language - dynamic system of "ma" is constructed according to Force Dynamic Theory. The particles of Chongqing dialect have an important role in guiding people to express their daily emotions. The corpora above which come from TV show are similar to our daily communication, and each expression may occur in different situations. Correspondingly, there may be different language - force models. However, there are still some shortcomings in the above analysis, so further investigations and inquiries are needed. It is hoped that this research can provide a reference for the daily communication of residents in Chongqing and offer broaden research ideas of studying dialects for other scholars.

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An Ecological Study on *A Sand County Almanac*

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Abstract—**Aldo Leopold is an American author, scientist, ecologist, conservationist, environmentalist, whose most outstanding and representative work *A Sand County Almanac* is filled with abundant and deep ecological thoughts. This paper intends to explore Leopold's ecological thoughts in this book. First, Leopold redefines the relationship between nature and human beings. He states that human beings are part of nature and should show love and respect for it; second, Leopold proposes the famous and significant land ethic theory, which establishes a basis for new ecological ethics. He enlarges the ethic range to land and to the whole nature, sets the criteria of land ethic, and describes the importance of ecological conscience which is fundamentally helpful to solve ecological crisis and protect the ecosystem; third, Leopold elaborates on the values of wilderness, such as the recreational value,the ecological value, the aesthetic value, the scientific value, the ecological value and the cultural value.Nowadays, all these ecological thoughts are still meaningful for people to know and love the nature, to protect the land and the wilderness.**

Index Terms—***A Sand County Almanac***, **Aldo Leopold, land ethic, wilderness**

I. INTRODUCTION

Aldo Leopold(1887–1948), the author of *A Sand County Almanac*, is an American scientist, ecologist, forester, environmentalist, philosopher and educator. Besides, he is the creator of American new environment theory, and also considered as father of ecological ethics. His ethics of nature and wildlife preservation have a profound impact on the environmental movement, along with his eco-centric or holistic ethics regarding land.

Aldo Leopold was born in Burlington, Iowa on January 11, 1887. Living near the Mississippi river, Leopold lived a life close to various wildlife and full of various outdoor activities in his early years. Owing to these outdoor activities in his early life, Aldo Leopold excelled in appreciating nature and exploring nature. In 1892, Aldo Leopold entered Prospect Hill School where he began to learn about nature, which stimulated his interest in nature. At the age of 13, he got Frank M. Chapman's *Handbook of Birds of Eastern North America* which laid a foundation on studying birds for him. In 1904, Aldo Leopold went to study in Lawrenceville School where he was interested in forestry, botany and meteorology and obtained some knowledge of different species. In 1905, he attended Yale Forest School where he gained a fundamental knowledge of natural science. In 1906, he began his further study as a postgraduate in Yale Forest School. The study in Yale pushed Aldo Leopold to doubt pragmatism prevailing at that time and to explore the relationship between man and nature. In his lifetime, Aldo Leopold has published about 500 literary works, including essays, articles, reports and books. There is no doubt that he is a great prolific writer.

Leopold is best known for his book *A Sand County Almanac* (1949). In this book, Leopold imputed great enthusiasm to the poetical expression of his land ethic. At the same time, he scientifically criticized the ways man treated nature. This book is such a melting-pot of philosophy, ethics and ecology that it acts as both a guider in environmental science and a carrier in literature research.The book mainly describes the relationship between land and human beings. It consists of four sections. The first section of the book is entitled "Sand County Almanac". This section is divided into twelve segments fromJanuary to December. All the description of this section follows the changes of the author's farm. Leopold wrote lots of anecdotes and observations about the reactions of planets and animals. The second and third sections entitled "The Quality of Landscape","A Taste for Country" respectively narrate the scenery of different times and the events around the farms and wilderness in Canada and the United States. Some of essays in this section are autobiographical, such as "Red Legs Kicking", "Thinking Like a Mountain". In "Red Legs Kicking", Leopold writes some boyhood hunting experience in Iowa. "Thinking Like a Mountain" also writes some hunting experience later in his life and these experience lead to the formation of his views. "The Upshot" is the end section of the whole book. It is a section of philosophical essays grouped together. Leopold explores ironies of conservation and puts forward the famous land ethic in this section. In the concluding essay "A Land Ethic", Leopold holds the opinion that more conservation education is needed. He also believes that man is just a part of nature and man should respect and love nature. What's more, man and nature influence each other. People have the responsibilities to protect and respect the land.

A Sand County Almanac known as the representation of Leopold's land ethic has been the focus of scholars. When researchers abroad carry out study on this book, they mainly focus on the author's perspectives on nature, land and

environment. Callicott, J. believes that *A Sand County Almanac* aims to make the readers quest personal and permanent experience in nature(Baird,2005).Susan L. Flader, the pioneer and authority in American environmental study, made a specific and systematic research into Leopold's theory and his ecological thoughts in her book *Thinking Like a Mountain: Aldo Leopold and the Evolution of an Ecological Attitude toward Deep, Wolves and Forests*(Flader,1974) . Curt. D Meine's book *Aldo Leopold—His Life and Work* introduces his biography and records his experiences in forestry management and conservation of wildlife(Meine,2010). In addition, some other scholars made comments on phases of ecology advocated by Leopold. Scott Monma, Clicott, Nash, Donald Worst studied and commented respectively on sense of morality, evolution, environmental protection and Economy, etc.

Since the Chinese version of *A Sand County Almanac* by Hou Wenhui came into being in 1997, Chinese scholars began to get in touch with Aldo Leopold's ecological thoughts formally. Hou Wenhui demonstrated the impact Aldo Leopold had on the change of American sense of environment in his paper "Elegy of Conquer: Change in American Sense of Environment." In his paper "Ideological Commentary on Aldo Leopold's Man-Land Ethic", Bao Shuangye investigates comprehensively the formation background of Aldo Leopold's land ethic,contents of his ideological system, its ecological value and limitations.Yang Yongjin thinks that Aldo Leopold's land ethic experiences three stages alongside responses to all kinds of theoretical challenges before it gradually develops to its perfection. Some domestic scholars even study reflection of the relationship between nature and human beings. For example, Chinese researchers Bao Qingde and Xia Chengbo discuss the thoughts of Aldo Leopold and comment his perspectives on environmental ethics from the aspect of ecological holism in the article "Land Ethics: First Signs of Ecological Holism".Guo Maoquan analyzes the relationship between nature and human beings from the aspect of land ethics in the paper "Poetic Interpretation of Land Ethics and Land Aesthetics". Ma Yuanyuan analyzes the book from the aspect of ecological criticism in order to help people become aware of how to deal with the relationship between human beings and nature in the paper "Thinking like A Mountain—Ecological Study on *A Sand County Almanac*". In short, although many articles have explored this book from various perspectives, few of them explore Leopold's ecological thoughts in a systematic way. These researches on Leopold's ecological thoughts mainly focus on the introduction to his land ethic and available study, but seldom have they studied *A Sand County Almanac* as ecological literature.

With the increasingly serious crisis of the global environment, ecologism attracts more and more attention. As one of the most significant and respected environmental books in the 20th century, *A Sand County Almanac* expresses many important ecological thoughts of Aldo Leopold. This paper will give a detailed analysis of the ecological thoughts in the book. By probing ecological ideas in this book, this paper aims to reconsider the relationship between human and nature, recognize the plural nature, and build up a mold of multi-ethics to evoke people's concern about ecological crisis.

II. THE ECOLOGICAL THOUGHTS IN *A SAND COUNTY ALMANAC*

This paper mainly analyzes Leopold's ecological ideology in *A Sand County Almanac* from three aspects: The relationship between man and nature, land ethics and the values of wilderness.

A. Relationship between Man and Nature

As for relationship between man and nature, there are two viewpoints at the present: anthropocentrism and ecocentrism. Anthropocentrism believes that human beings are the center of the universe and nature is a servant and source for men. On the contrary, ecocentrism claims that nature is the center and that the benefits from the whole ecosystem are more than those from men. It calls for harmonious coexistence between man and nature. As far as Aldo Leopold's concerned, man, as a part of nature, should respect and love nature. What's more, man and nature can have mutual influence on each other.

1. Man as a Part of Nature

Leopold believes that man is just a part of nature instead of the master of nature. "In short, a land ethic changes the role of homo species from conqueror of the land-community to plain member and citizen of it" (Leopold, 2010, p. 312) .Leopold regards all creatures such as skunk, mouse, goose, oak and dog in the sand county as neighbors and friends. "…leave the rest of us in peace. By 'us' I mean the birds, the stream, the dog, and myself. The stream is a lazy one; he winds through the alders as if he would rather stay here than reach the river" (Leopold, 2010,p. 88). Here, "us" implies that Leopold think other species are his partners and friends. Belonging to the same community, they have thoughts and characters just like him. "Every farm is a textbook on animal ecology; woodsman ship is the translation of the book"(Leopold, 2010,p.116). "Woodsman" here means all kinds of animals such as chickadee, rabbit, grouse and deer living in the farm with human beings. Leopold believes that animals and human beings should have equal status. That is to say, man is a member of nature just like those animals. "This time I get the lunch all the way out and sit down to eat. A chickadee watches me, and grows confidential about his lunch" (Leopold, 2010,p.84). When the author sits down and enjoys his meal, a chickadee tries to hide his own lunch. In Leopold's eye, the chickadee is like a naughty boy. He and the chickadee have lunch together in the open air as friends do. What's more, Leopold takes his own dog as his professor since the dog can help him learn the way to find birds. And he views the pine as his child for he plants it by himself.

From the above, It can be easily known that Leopold doesn't think man is the master of nature, but the part of land community and the part of nature. Leopold considers other species as neighbors and friends living in the same

community. Nowadays, why do we people face problems, such as air pollution, globe warming? Undoubtedly, people do not realize the truth that man is just a part of nature. Man destroys the nature, the nature would ruin man in return. "On the shoulders of a giant we may see farther than a giant" (Knight, 2002,P.6). Leopold is a giant, and his attitude towards nature and creatures is worth learning.

2. Love and Respect for Nature

In the book *A Sand County Almanac*, every creature in nature is characterized by vitality, intelligence and mystery. In Leopold's opinion, they symbolize the richness and fineness of nature. And he shows deep love and respect for nature through his poetic description of nature. Although this book does not directly urge readers to show their respect for other species or nature, it arouses a feeling of respect from the bottom of your heart after reading.

In "February", Leopold gives a specific description of the whole life of an eighty-year-old oak which eventually dies of a bolt of lightning. When the oak is alive, it experiences all kinds of disasters such as rain and blizzard, drought and conflagration, insect pests and plant diseases, human damage and so on, and it is so strong that it can overcome all the hardship. During the whole life of the oak, it brings a lot of benefits to other species by offering shelter, food and fresh air. After its death, it can also contribute to the world by serving as red coals to warm people and serving as nourishment for other plants.

Besides the vitality of nature, Leopold also shows respect for the insistence on the old habits and promise of animals. "A chipmunk, emerging for a sunbath but finding a blizzard, has only to go back to bed. But a migrating goose, staking two hundred miles of black night on the chance of finding a hole in the lake, has no easy chance for retreat. His arrival carries the conviction of a prophet who has burned his bridges" (Leopold, 2010,p. 24). The migration of geese is always a journey full of difficulties and dangers. During that time, they are likely to suffer hunger, terrible weather or even getting shot by man. In spite of all of these hardships, the geese never stop their journey between south and north, which seems to be an eternal promise for themselves.

In *A Sand County Almanac*, Leopold believes that all the creatures in nature are equal. As human beings, we'd better love and respect all the natural existences, the wilderness, animals and plants. The natural existences are all full of purity and mystery. In Leopold's eyes, all the creatures in nature are equal. We can notice Leopold's deep love and respect for nature from his poetic description of nature in *A Sand County Almanac*. No word writes about how the author love and respect nature, but readers can feel that from his description of nature. Many people don't like skunk, but in *A Sand County Almanac* it is even described as a cute, smart and romantic animal. As we all know, the skunk has the ability to predict the arrival of thaw and the arrival of spring. So Leopold says he is so intelligent. One day, Leopold follows the trace of the skunk and finds the skunk might fall in love with "a girl". Leopold uses personification to show us vividly how lovely the skunk is. He also uses "he" instead of "it", which shows his respect and love for animal. It is so easy for readers to find such example in *A Sand County Almanac*. Generally, Leopold just wants to show us something interesting happening in nature and at the same time, he also wants to call for love and respect for nature.

3. Mutual Influence of Nature and Human Beings

As for relationship between nature and human beings, Leopold also claims that nature and human beings can influence each other. It is certain that human activities may cause good or bad effects on nature and in reverse nature can pay back or revenge human beings.

In this book, Leopold gives some description of bad situation. In order to protect his cattle and goats, the cowman kills the wolves. As his herds increase to a large scale, the grassland cannot provide enough grass for them. In consequence, the grassland is gradually degrading, which causes the loss of soil and water and hence the sand storm. At last, the disasters will undoubtedly bring lots of sufferings to human beings. In a word, the improper activity of the cowman causes certain damage on nature and in reverse it leads to nature's revenge on man.

In ancient times, people got along well with the whole nature. There is no pollution at that time. The sky was blue and the mountain covered by thick wood. However, our life has been totally changed since the mid-19th century. The industrial revolution changed the way people utilize the nature. People took food and cut timber indiscriminately. However, we'd better know that humans are just part of nature. The survival of species depends on the healthy ecosystems, and the same as human beings. Nature provides us the most basic needs like clean water, food, medicines and so on. Apart from meeting some of our most basic needs, nature also can let us feel relaxed and refreshes us. Leopold believes that human beings take many kinds of social action for developing. What we should do is to live harmoniously with nature to reap maximum benefit.

B. Land Ethics

Leopold's greatest legacy in environmental ethics is the seminal essay in *A Sand County Almanc*, "The Land Ethics." In this essay, Leopold describes the land as a circuitous system. In the system, energy is ceaseless recycle and people is not the master. All the living creatures exist as equal citizens. Because of such relation to the land, Leopold posits that ethical treatment ought to be expanded to include the ecological whole. In short, Leopold is trying to improve the land ethics from the following three aspects.

1. Extension of Ethics

Anthropocentrism argues that people have the rights to control the whole world, and nature differs from human beings. Anthropocentrism believes that the nature is just resource for people. It is their obligation to satisfy people's needs. In their eyes, people can pollute the air and water at random, people can dump rubbish anywhere. The world is

facing serious environmental crisis. Anthropocentrism has no respect for nature. Under such circumstances, Leopold reinvestigates the relationship between man and nature to improve or change such disharmony relationship. Through his unremitting efforts, Leopold puts forward land ethics. "An ecologically ethic is a limitation on freedom of action in the struggle for existence. An ethic, philosophically, is a differentiation of social from anti-social conduct" (Leopold, 2010,p.308). The land ethic seems to be a kind of limitation and differentiation. Leopold wants to enlarge the range of ethic to restrict people's action, which is important to change the relationship between man and nature. Leopold puts forward three steps of the extension of the ethics range. The first step is to handle the relationship between human beings. The second step is to handle the relationship between individual and society. The third step is to enlarge the ethic range to land. In other words, Leopold's land ethic is about how to do with the relationship between person, land and nature.Nowadays, the three steps are still very important, and provide a new way and new perspective to solve the increasingly serious ecological crisis.

2. Land Community

Apart from the enlarged ethical range, land ethic also expands the land range. Leopold believes that the land not only means the soil but also contains other things such as plants, water, animals, and so on. In his opinion,the whole nature is a community.With its own inner value and the right to survive, nature should not be controlled by man. "All ethics so far evolved rest upon a single premise: that the individual is a member of a community of interdependent parts. His instincts prompt him to compete for his place in that community, but his ethics prompt him also to cooperate (perhaps in order that there may be a place to compete for)" (Leopold, 2010,P.311-312). According to Leopold, ethic can set limitations on all the members in the community. All the members in the community should be respected and given equal rights. The theory totally changes the man-nature relationship. All the existences have rights to survive. Creatures also have feelings, thoughts like human beings, so we'd better respect them when we utilize them. What's more, man and nature should cooperate with each other and never damage the balance of ecological system. In order to realize the harmonious coexisting, Leopold even provides some rules for people to follow.

3. Criteria of Land Ethics

Since land is taken into a moral consideration by Leopold, men are supposed to love, respect and protect land. But what are the criteria of land ethics? How do people judge their activities on land are proper or improper? In *A Sand County Almanac*, the criteria of land ethic is proposed by Leopold to judge people's action: "A thing is right when it tends to preserve the integrity, stability and beauty of the biotic community. It is wrong when it tends to otherwise" (Leopold, 2010,p.344). Leopold states that stability, integrity, and beauty are all indispensable in the biotic community. This new standard attaches great importance to the equality between man and nature, and seeks for a diverse, stable and rich ecosystem as well as a land community with integrity, stability and beauty.Under the premise of not damaging the balance of ecosystem, man can catch and hunt animals properly. Nowadays, due to people's unlimited action, many species are in danger. Some of them even disappeared. Not only human beings but also other species need an integrity, stability and beautiful environment. People wish for the world peace, other species wish to live in harmony with human beings. So we are supposed to live by the new criteria proposed by Aldo Leopold from now on.

C.   The Value of Wilderness

In the last part of *A Sand County Almanac*, Leopold discusses the values of wilderness, which include the recreational value, the aesthetic value, the cultural value, the scientific value and the ecological value,

1. The Recreational Value of Wilderness

Recreational value is undoubtedly the most visible values of wilderness, since wilderness is a vital place for a lot of outdoor activities including hunting, packing, picnicking, canoeing, fishing and so on. "The value of recreation is not a matter of ciphers. Recreation is valuable in proportion to the intensity of its experiences, and to the degree to which it differs from and contrasts with workaday life. By these criteria, mechanized outings are at best a milk-and-water affair" (Leopold, 2010,p.356). Leopold implies that ecological education can alter people's feelings towards the environment. If the wilderness is beautiful, visitors will come and enjoy it. In contrast, if the wilderness is dirty and barren, people will destroy it. Leopold means that wilderness is a kind of land with balanced healthy, ecologically model. The primitive recreation in wilderness can provide a person quite different experience and joy, thus wilderness is of great recreational value,

Nowadays, most people tend to enjoy the mechanized outings rather than get the primitive recreation in wilderness. They like to use the modern mechanized vehicles, such as car, motorboat and so on. Leopold hopes that people can leave some place for the wilderness for the primitive recreation in wilderness.

2. The Aesthetic Value of Wilderness

The wilderness is also characteristic of its aesthetic value. Other than the economic value and practical value, aesthetic value sometimes may not be understood by the vulgar people or the people forced by livelihood because some phenomenon arousing hikers aesthetic feeling may lead to sufferings from hunger, coldness or even death. As for a man, he or she can be sensible about the aesthetic value of the wildness only if he or she has made some aesthetic accomplishment. "The swoop of a hawk, for example, is perceived by one as the drama of evolution" (Leopold, 2010,p.382). For those who bear certain aesthetic skill or imagination, this kind of aesthetic view can actually enriches human sense on beauty. However, in today's society, lots of people merely seek for the aesthetic excitement and take no care of the wilderness.

Just as the old saying goes: "The world is not lack of beauty, but lack of aesthetic vision" (Nash, 2002,p.138). Not only the harmony but also the disharmony of wilderness have their own beauty. Due to the aesthetic value, wilderness is always the source of inspiration for people. The transformative account of aesthetic appreciation of nature may provide us with a way of seeing value in both individuals and ecosystems. It may provide a way to combine the holistic view with individualistic considerations. If one realizes this, one will learn to appreciate the regional and global beauty of the wilderness for the reason that they are also the part of our aesthetic experience of the wilderness.Leopold claims that people should improve their aesthetic abilities towards wilderness.

3. The Cultural Value of Wilderness

In addition, Leopold mentions cultural value,and he believes wilderness has relationship with American culture. Leopold describes:"Wilderness is the raw material out of which man has hammered the artifact called civilization. Wilderness was never a homogeneous raw material. It was very diverse, and the resulting artifacts are very diverse. These differences in the end-product are known as cultures. The rich diversity of the world's cultures reflects a corresponding diversity in the wilds that gave them birth" (Leopold, 2010,p.348). Leopold believes that human civilization originates from wilderness whose diversity leads to the diversity of world's culture. It is of great value for human culture. According to Leopold, the value of it can be divided into three kinds. First is the value that helps people keep in mind their national origins and evolution. In other words, wilderness can stimulates the awareness of human historical conscience. The second is the value which helps people to realize their dependency on the food chain of ecosystem, and the importance of the fundamental organization in the biota. The third is the value which exercises those ethical restraints collectively called "sportsmanship".

4. The Scientific Value of Wilderness

Another important value of wilderness is scientific value. As Leopold states:"In general, the trend of the evidence indicates that in land, just as in the human body, the symptom may lie in one organ and the cause in another. The practices we now call conservation are, to a large extent, local alleviations of biotic pain. They are necessary, but they must not be confused with cures. The art of land doctoring is being practiced with vigor, but the science of land health is yet to be born"(Leopold, 2010,p.360). Leopold means that wilderness is a kind of land with balanced healthy, ecologically model. At a time, when so much of the environment is disturbed by human beings, wilderness is the criterion to measure the impact of civilization. Without it, we have no way to know how the land mechanism functions under normal conditions. Land is an organic system just as human body. The problem of one part may lie in other parts. Superficial treatments can only ease the biotic pain rather than cure it. Leopold declares that there should appear the science of land health so as to fulfill the task of curing the sick land. And he thinks that "a science of land health needs, first of all, a base datum of normality, a picture of how healthy land maintains itself as an organism" (Leopold, 2010,p. 360).

What's more, Leopold says that "One cannot study the physiology of Montana in the Amazon; each biotic province needs its own wilderness for comparative studies of used and unused land" (Leopold, 2010, p.362). Wilderness in each biotic province is very important and valuable for the scientific study of land health in this area. The study data in this area may not be useful for another area and thus cannot provide the corresponding resolution. Therefore, it is quite significant and urgent to protect the remnant wilderness in every biotic province. According to Leopold, "in short all available wild areas, large or small, are likely to have value as norms for land science"(Leopold, 2010, p.364). Whether the wilderness is large or small, it is useful for land science. This is the scientific value of wilderness.

5. The Ecological Value of Wilderness

Ecology is a scientific study of organisms and their environment. Since the land ethic lays a foundation for ecological finding, our perceptions and values may change as our ecological understanding increases. According to Leopold, wilderness is of ecological value. Wilderness plays a basic part in keeping the ecosystem a whole, and creates all variety of species and breeds them. Besides, it is essential to maintain the biodiversity, stability of biosphere. During primitive times, people live in the wilderness which provides people everything they need. It can be called the cradle of human beings. In wilderness, all kinds of living creatures including men and other lives live together in a cooperative and competitive way, creating a harmonious and ordered environment. Thus, wilderness can be viewed as a healthy organic whole.

All in all, the wilderness not only has such five values, but it can provide us more than these values. Considering these aspects, we are supposed to respect the wilderness.

III. CONCLUSION

As one of the masterpieces of Aldo Leopold, *A Sand County Almanac* is a book which gives a description of the place where Leopold lived. It is a combination of natural history, scene painting and his philosophy. This paper mainly analyzes ecological themes in the book.

First, Leopold gives a new angle of man-nature relationship. He believes man as a part of nature should respect and love nature rather than overexploit or even damage nature. In addition, he thinks there are mutual influence between man and nature. Besides, Leopold expresses his criticism on wrong thoughts and behaviors of human beings that can probably cause terrible consequences to nature as well as man. He presents his criticism on the deep-rooted anthropocentrism and the abuse of science and technology.

Second, Leopold puts forward a significant theory "land ethic"which lays a foundation on new ecological ethics. He enlarges the ethic range to land and to the whole nature and sets the criteria of land ethic: stability, integrity and beauty of the biosphere. Furthermore, he describes the importance of ecological conscience which is fundamentally helpful to solve ecological crisis and protect the ecosystem.

At the end, Leopold provides a detailed description of the values of wilderness which consist of the recreational value,the aesthetic value, the cultural value, the scientific value and the ecological value.

On the whole, *A Sand County Almanac* is a great work filled with many valuable ecological thoughts. It offers people a better understanding of nature and the man-nature relationship, and also it can give some useful and valuable ideas for people to deal with the increasingly serious environmental crisis.

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Improving Oral Fluency of EFL Students with Different Proficiency Levels through Explicit Instruction of Face Threatening Strategies

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Abstract—Meaning and interaction are the essential parts of socialization process in which the interlocutors try to mitigate and control the negative impact of face threatening acts. As such, the main objective of the present study was to determine whether explicit instruction of FTA strategies could lead to the improvement of EFL students' oral fluency with different proficiency levels. To achieve this end, from the targeted population of 350 undergraduate students majoring in English translation at Isfahan (Khorasgan) Islamic Azad University, a sample of 100 intermediate and advanced students, 50 each, were chosen based on their scores on an OPT test. They were subsequently divided into four equal groups who were homogenized in terms of their oral fluency scores on an IELTS interview test used as the pre-test groups. From the four targeted groups, only the intermediate and advanced samples received the explicit instruction on FTA strategies whereas the no treatment groups were taught by a conventional approach. At the end of the treatment all samples were exposed to the post-test, a parallel form of another IELTS interview exam. The results indicated that the groups taught by explicit instruction of FTA strategies considerably outperformed those who had been taught by the conventional method.

Index Terms—face threatening strategies, oral fluency, explicit instruction, Face Threatening Acts (FTA), politeness strategy, English as a Foreign Language (EFL)

I. INTRODUCTION

It seems that the concept of politeness is closely associated with such notions as face and face work. As Goffman (1967: 5) explains, face refers to "the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact". However, this definition has been challenged by various scholars stating that it defies the role of culture and its influence on the issue. For instance, The African and Islamic cultures, being collectivist in nature, assume face to be a contextually defined phenomenon which carries a positive value in the eyes of the public. Notably, this perspectivization is quite different from the western cultures where individual differences are prominent in individualistic communities (Lim, 1994; Ho, 1994). However, it is interesting to note that the concept of face has a dynamic nature which can be fortified, maintained and even lost during daily encounters (see Vilkki, 2006).

It seems that FTAs may harm the face of either the addressor or the addressee by acting against their wants and desires. As Brown and Levinson (1987) put it, politeness strategies tend to lessen the threats posed by FTAs since their main purpose is to redress their damaging influences. These writers suggest four hierarchically privileged strategies that any speaker can use to minimize the harms evoked by FTAs. These strategies are: 1) bald on-record, 2) positive politeness, 3) negative politeness, and 4) off-record strategies. The order of using such strategies is important in that the more an act threatens speaker's or hearer's face; the more they tend to employ a higher-numbered strategy to handle the situation. The authors further suggest that face is a sense of positive identity and public self-esteem with which interlocutors tend to abide in various communicative events. As a consequence, face-threatening acts can lead to the loss of face for the parties involved in a social interaction. In such situations, the affected party usually resorts to certain linguistic strategies for alleviating the undesirable consequences of the face threats. For instance, discursive markers like hedges are one of the strategies whose function is to mitigate a face-threatening act (Bonnefon & Villejoubert, 2005; Bonnefon & Villejoubert, 2006).

Unsurprisingly, communicative acts evoking criticism or effrontery can threaten receivers' positive face by conveying disapproval or by delimiting the hearers' behaviors and their autonomy. FTAs are often expressed linguistically even though some writers like Trees and Manusov (1998) believe that they can also be conveyed through

body language. It seems that politeness theory originally assumed that positive and negative face threats naturally occur during social interactions simultaneously (see Penman, 1990; Wilson, Kim, & Meischke, 1991). As a case in point, a face threatening act such as criticism can threaten positive face by signaling disapproval; however, it may also threaten negative face by signifying that the act being criticized should be changed, and by so doing, it restricts the freedom of the receiver. In other words, different face threats may evoke different degrees of politeness depending on the conditions of the hearer, the social distance between the interlocutors, the authority of the addressee, the degree of implicature and the number of options available to the interactants.

Accordingly, Leech (p. 19) argues that the politeness principles dominating language use may be categorized as:

1) Tact Maxim:
  a) Minimize cost to other
  b) Maximize benefit to other
2) Generosity Maxim:
  a) Minimize benefit to self
  b) Maximize cost to self
3) Approbation Maxim:
  a) Minimize dispraise of other
  b) Maximize praise of other
4) Modesty Maxim:
  a)Minimize praise of self
  b) Maximize dispraise of self
5) Agreement Maxim:
  a) Minimize disagreement between self and other
  b) Maximize agreement between self and other
6) Sympathy Maxim:
  a) Minimize antipathy between self and other
  b) Maximize sympathy between self and other

Despite the significant role of politeness in communicative situations, Brown and Levinson (1987) contend that, beside politeness, every communicative act is fraught with perilous face threatening acts (Kasper, 1990). Moreover, they claim that considering other aspects of "face" may allow a broader view of the facts that can help to avoid the polarity splitting the concept into Positive and Negative politeness (Bargiela-Chiappini, 2003). This proclamation has won the support of various writers such as Ellis, (2008); Harris, (2003) and Kasper, (1990) since it provides a practical ground for demarcating between inter and intra-cultural gradations of social realities (see Bremner, 2006).

Naturally, since politeness is culture specific and it is realized differently in different languages, speakers' sociopragmatic interlanguage may fail to discern the appropriate ways of handling politeness in contexts where the addressee has a divergent culture. It is clear that such problems may inadvertently lead to pragmatic failure. Kasper; Blum-Kulka (1993) define inter-language pragmatics as the study of non-native speakers' application and acquisition of action generating linguistic resources in a second language (Rose, 2000).Although pragmatic performance studies are considerably large in the review of the related literature, it is believed that interlanguage pragmatic development has not received enough attention in the review of literature (Kasper & Rose, 1999). As Schmidt (1993) puts it, the discussion of how pragmatic abilities are acquired in a second language is still in its infancy.

Consequently, the swing of the pedagogical pendulum has been moving towards L2 pragmatics instruction as a fundamental component of second language teaching and learning (Bachman and Palmer, 2010). Under this new perspectivization, the role of teaching in the development of L2 pragmatics has received a lot of ink in the review of the literature (see Martinez- Flor et al, 2003; Kasper, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002). In general, the popular belief is that instruction on a variety of pragmatic features can benefit the learners considerably (Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001, Safont, 2005).

Similarly, EFL students' awareness of politeness strategies as a focal point in interlanguage pragmatics accentuated the pivotal role of language learners' sensitivities concerning the explicit-implicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge (Ellis, 2005; Ellis et al., 2009). As an illustration, explicit knowledge of modal markers, their function, and interpretation in authentic contexts can assist learners to make an optimal use of speech acts where face work plays a crucial function. Notably, explicit instruction of pragmatic conventions can equip the mind to make a better use of cognitive mechanisms by fortifying learners' background assumptions for coping with the interpretation of future events (Baars, 1988, cited in Schmidt, 1990:138). Not surprisingly, the issue of explicit versus implicit instruction has been an interesting object of inquiry in all domains of EFL teaching. That is why Stern (1992:327) states that one of the main key issues in second language pedagogy is "whether the learner should be taught to approach the learning task consciously as an intellectual exercise, or whether he should be encouraged to avoid thinking about the language and absorb it intuitively".

Additionally, explicit instruction may eventually lead to more learner automaticity and fluency. Current studies show that automaticity and fluency is the by-product of continued practice and successive exposure to the targeted tasks (Samuels, 2006). Differently stated, students should be given multiple opportunities to practice the assigned activities

and tasks until they become automatic (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Rasinski, 2006). Naturally, this requires some type of explicit instruction or consciousness raising (Sharwood Smith, 1981) or form-focus instruction which can help the learners to notice the involved cues and to scaffold them (Schmidt, 2001).

Recent developments in the area of cross-cultural communication have equally heightened the need for investigating the issues which may most probably lead to communication breakdown. One of these issues which have extensively been investigated concerns face-threatening speech acts such as apologies (BlumKulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cohen & Olshtain, 1985). The findings presented by these studies reveal that L2 learners are often prone to offending their interlocutors when performing face-threatening acts. The main culprit responsible for creating such embarrassing episodes is related to the differences concerning the idiosyncratic nature of the social rules used in the speaking process.

As such, the necessity of explicit instruction focusing on the development of L2 pragmatics has grown in importance in light of recent findings reported by the related studies such as those reported by Martinez- Flor et al, (2003) and Kasper & Rose (2002). It has been demonstrated that L2 learners which receive instruction on pragmatics features show a better handling of face threatening situations (Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001, Safont, 2005). The reason is that literacy on proper handling of politeness strategies provides worthwhile cognitive support for basic interpersonal communication skills which L2 learners need to use in order to communicate with others successfully. In other words, teaching of L2 pragmatics is of a great value which is often ignored in traditional language classrooms.

Eslami-rasekh and Mardani, 2010 report that EFL learners' L2 pragmatic needs go unnoticed in the Iranian foreign language contexts. As a result, it can be stated that an insufficiently developed L2 pragmatic interlanguage should be thoughtfully addressed to help learners to avoid pragmatic failure. Apparently, this requires carefully planned pragmatic activities which can help learners to internalize the appropriate input or metapragmatic information which is only possible through explicit instruction of pragmatic rules (Takimoto, 2009; Yaqubi, 2012).

The results reported by the studies addressing explicit instruction of L2 pragmatic features have invariably reflected that developing learners' awareness of pragmatic rules can have a significantly determinant role in improving the learners' skills in performing communicative tasks. It is interesting to note that most studies also point to the interaction between learners' level of English proficiency and their age in using their pragmatic competence to cope with various communicative episodes involving politeness speech acts (Ghobadi & Fahim, 2009).Evidently, the explicit instruction of L2 pragmatic routines seems to improve and facilitate L2 learners' communicative behaviors in specific situations (Tateyama, 2001). According to House (1996), explicit instruction of L2 pragmatic routines could make the learners in the explicit group develop an awareness and understanding of the differences between L1 and L2 pragmatic preferences, and as such, eliminate negative L1 transfer through 'noticing' (Schmidts, 1993).

Most studies focusing on the key role of direct or explicit instruction to student learning have notably tried to investigate to what extent explicit or direct instruction is efficacious in learning and teaching various language components or major skills (Baumann & Duffy, 1997; Rupley, Blair & Nichols, 2009). So far, however, there has been little discussion about the utility of explicit instruction of FTA strategies and its possible influence on oral fluency of EFL learners. On this basis, the aim of the present study was to examine whether explicit and direct instruction of FTA strategies can lead to the development of EFL learners' oral fluency in lifelike communicative encounters.

II. METHODOLOGY

Participants

From the population of undergraduate translation students studying English translation at Isfahan (Khorasgan) Islamic Azad University, a sample of 100 Intermediate and advanced students, 50 each, were selected based on their scores on an OPT test. They were further divided into four equal groups who were homogenized in terms of oral fluency based on their scores on an IELTS speaking pre-test. Subsequently, they were randomly assigned to two control and two experimental groups. In other words, only one of the intermediate and one of the advanced samples served as treatment groups, while the other two were designated as no treatment samples. The age of students, both male and female, ranged between 18 and 24. In fact, students at each proficiency level consisted of 15 females and 10 males.

Instruments

An Oxford Placement Test (OPT) was administered to screen out the targeted population based on their proficiency levels. Obviously, the limited proficiency (LEP) student were excluded since their interlanguage could not deal with the speaking tasks utilized as pre and post-tests which were structurally two alternate forms of IELTS speaking (interview) tests. These tests served as data collecting instruments for estimating the learners' oral fluency before and after the treatment phase. The validity of the speaking tests was established based on specialist opinion, whereas their reliability indices were determined by using inter-reliability measure and was equal to 0.87. Care was taken to utilize the same scoring grid for all groups under investigation.

Only the Experimental samples were exposed to explicit instruction of face threatening strategies employing Gil's (2012) model. During the treatment, the experimental groups were taught how to manage and control face threatening acts signaled by the speakers through carefully designed role play activities, and shortly after, by enlisting video play back interpretation and stimulated recall techniques used for further scaffolding of learning. The no- treatment groups, however, received no direct instruction on face threatening strategies and were taught by using conventional techniques.

Procedures

Whereas the Speaking Conventional Class (SCC) students were taught speaking with adopting a normal methodology, the Speaking Class with FTA Instruction (SCFI) was explicitly taught with instruction on face threatening acts. As shown in table 1, For the FTA group, "Face-Threatening Speech Acts and Face-Invading Speech Acts: An Interpretation of Politeness Phenomena" written by "(Gil, 2012)", was used as the basis of the treatment in this study.

TABLE1.
TYPES OF THREAT ACCORDING TO DIFFERENT SPEECH ACTS

Type of Speech/ Act utterance	Type of Threat			
	Speaker's Face		Hearer's Face	
	Positive	Negative	Positive	Negative
Assertive	S's commitment to the truth of a proposition is exposed to H's valuation.	S imposes himself an obligation: S has to be consequent with his/her own words.	S has chosen a subject and has presented it in some particular way. Subject and mood may not be valuable for H.	S imposes H a subject.
Directive	S admits that he/she wants, prefers or even needs H to do something.	S imposes himself an obligation: S has to be consequent with his/her own words, i.e., with his want, preference or even need.	S makes an assumption about H's capacities or even social condition.	*S imposes H to do something.*
Commissive	S admits that he/ she wants to do something in order to benefit H. S makes manifest an assumption about his/her capacities and even social position.	*S imposes himself to do something in the benefit of H.*	S makes manifest an assumption about H's wishes or preferences. E.g., S believes that H wants S to accomplish the promise.	*S imposes himself a future action that will certainly affect H.*
Expressive	*S's feelings or emotions are exposed to H's valuation.*	H imposes himself/ herself an obligation; S will have to be consequent with the feelings or emotions he expressed.	S makes an assumption about S's wants, preferences or even needs.	*S imposes H his/ her own valuation; i.e., H is expected to be thankful or charitable with S*
Declarative	S, an authorized individual, exposes something that must be institutionally legitimate.	*S imposes himself to give support to the new state of affairs that was generated, at least in part, by the declaration.*	Involving conditions and rules, it is an strong assumption about S's possibilities and social position.	*H is part of the institutional framework where the declaration is performed, and he/ she must accept it.*

* Intrinsic threats are types in *italics*.

As can be seen in Table 1, different types of threats to both the speaker and listener are enumerated and briefly described for various speech acts.

The treatment sessions targeting explicit instruction of face threatening acts was carefully planned and implemented in a linear fashion. First, the significance of politeness speech acts and their functional utility in saving face was explained through a number of communicative situations based on the employed framework. In this *preliminary stage*, the participants in the experimental groups became aware of the impact of face threatening acts and how best they could be warded off during real life interactions.

Then in the *prediction stage*, the first line of a previously prepared dialogue between two native English speakers concerning a genuine communicative event which contained typical instances of politeness and face threatening acts was played. Subsequently, the teacher asked learners to predict what the topic of conversation was going to be about, who the speaker was and what s/he wanted. Here, clarification of likely ambiguities and misunderstandings was pedagogically necessary. Finally, the tape of the dialogue was played right through and the students were asked to check whether their predictions were correct or not.

Afterwards, in the *reconstruction phase*, the participants were divided into pairs and each pair was given a cut up dialogue worksheet and was instructed to put the dialogue back together again. In this reconstruction phase, the teacher acted as a facilitator suggesting ways in which learners might finish the task appropriately. At the end, the whole dialogue was played as a source of feedback to help students check their answers.

Finally, the teacher moved into the *practice stage* and by using video playback of the dialogue asked learners to identify linguistic markers signaling politeness, face saving and/or face threatening strategies. This phase was complemented by role play which was actually a verbal discourse completion task (DCT). In this stage, the participants were divided in pairs and they were asked to act out the roles of two speakers portrayed in particular communicative situations on another worksheet. The main objective of this phase was to examine how explicit instruction of face threatening acts could be effective in developing learners' oral fluency performing life like interactions.

After the treatment, a full semester, the oral fluency for all samples in intermediate and advanced control and experimental groups was evaluated by using the same speaking post-test in the form of an interview. The results obtained from the post-test were analyzed by related statistical tools.

III. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The data obtained on the post test for both treatment and non-treatment groups were analyzed using appropriate statistical techniques from SPSS.

This section presents the results obtained from the analysis of the obtained data.

Results Related to OPT

To ensure the homogeneity of the participants' levels of language proficiency in control and experimental samples, an Independent Samples t-Test was run on the OPT results to explore whether the difference between the mean scores of the participants in each proficiency level was statistically significant or not. Tables 2 and 3 present the results of the analysis.

TABLE 2.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON OPT SCORES FOR INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

| | | 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
OPT scores of Intermediate learners	Equal variances assumed	.72	.40	.70	48	.49	.44	.63	-.82	1.70
	Equal variances not assumed			.70	47.62	.49	.44	.63	-.82	1.70

According to table 2, the p value (0.49) was considerably greater than the specified level of significance (.05). Consequently, it was concluded that there was not a statistically significant difference between the intermediate groups.

TABLE 3.
RESULTS OF INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST ON OPT SCORES FOR ADVANCED GROUPS

| | | 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
OPT scores of Advanced learners	Equal variances assumed	.10	.75	.21	48	.83	.16	.75	-1.34	1.66
	Equal variances not assumed			.21	47.89	.83	.16	.75	-1.34	1.66

According to table 3, there was not a statistically significant difference between the advanced groups involved in the study. The reason was that the p value (.83) was considerably greater than the specified significance level of the study (.05). Therefore, the equality of the group means was confirmed.

The results of these tables revealed that the participants in the experimental and control groups were equal with regard to their levels of language proficiency.

Results Related to Oral Fluency

Table 4 displays the descriptive statistics of pretest and posttest oral fluency scores in both experimental and control intermediate groups.

TABLE 4.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ORAL FLUENCY SCORES IN INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

Level	Group	Variable	*N*	Range	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation
Intermediate	Experimental	Pretest	25	10	11.28	.537	2.685
		Posttest	25	10	16.16	.596	2.982
	Control	Pretest	25	7	10.80	.346	1.732
		Posttest	25	7	11.04	.303	1.513

As can be observed in Table 4, the pretest mean score in the experimental group (11.28) and the pretest mean score in the control group (10.80) were nearly close to each other, whereas the posttest mean score in the Experimental group (16.16) was more than that of control group (11.04). Likewise, the results of the pretest and posttest within the control group were somehow similar, but the corresponding results within the Experimental group were dissimilar. This clearly shows that explicit instruction of face threatening strategies has affected the oral fluency of intermediate learners in the experimental group.

In order to ascertain whether explicit instruction of face threatening strategies has any significant impact on oral fluency (OF) of EFL learners, a Paired Sample t-Test was conducted to compare the means of the two sub-test results within the experimental and control groups. Table 5 below clearly illustrates the significance of the resulting difference.

TABLE 5.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE INTERMEDIATE GROUPS

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		t	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1: Experimental	OF Pre-test scores - OF Post-test scores	-4.88	2.05	.41	-5.73	-4.04	-11.92	24	.00
Pair 2: Control	OF Pre-test scores - OF Post-test scores	-.24	1.01	.20	-.66	.18	-1.19	24	.25

Table 5 displays the mean and standard error values for the experimental and the control groups. The mean column, in the Paired-Samples t-Test table, shows the average difference between the pretest and posttest. By looking at the column for means, one can easily infer that across all twenty five subjects in the experimental group, level of achievement highly increased (on average, 4.88 points) after receiving the treatment. The significance (2-tailed) column demonstrates the probability of obtaining a t statistic whose value is equal to or greater than that of the obtained t statistic. Since the p value for pair 1 (i.e. the experimental group's pretest and posttest) in the table (.00) is much less than the specified level of significance (.05), it was concluded that there is a significant difference between the participants in terms of oral fluency, before implementing the treatment and after that.

Accordingly, we can conclude that the observed improvement in oral fluency of the participants in the group is not due to chance variation at all and the change can be safely attributed to the treatment. As for pair 2 (i.e. the control group's pre-test and post-test), the p value (0.25) is greater than the specified level of significance (.05); therefore, the conclusion would be that there is no significant difference between the achievement of control group's participants, who received no explicit instruction on face threatening strategies at the beginning and end of the course.

Table 6 displays the descriptive statistics of pretest and posttest oral fluency scores in both advanced experimental and control groups.

TABLE 6.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF ORAL FLUENCY SCORES IN ADVANCED GROUPS

Level	Group	Variable	N	Range	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation
Advanced	Experimental	Pretest	25	10	19.60	.503	2.517
		Posttest	25	10	21.40	.462	2.309
	Control	Pretest	25	9	17.80	.510	2.550
		Posttest	25	8	18.04	.442	2.208

As Table 6 demonstrates, the posttest oral fluency mean score in the advanced participants in the experimental group (21.40) is larger than that of their pretest mean score in (19.60). Moreover, the posttest oral fluency mean score in the control group (18.04) was somehow similar to the pretest mean score of the group (17.80). This means that advanced learners in the experimental group showed an improvement from the pretest to posttest; however, the learners' performance in the control group was almost the same before and after the treatment.

Again, a Paired-Samples t-Test at 0.05 level of significance was used to compare the results on the pre-test and post-test concerning the oral fluency of the learners in the experimental and control groups. The data consisted of two measures taken by the same subjects, one before and one after the course of instruction. The results of the test are shown in the Table 7 below.

TABLE 7.
PAIRED SAMPLES T-TEST FOR THE ADVANCED GROUPS

		Paired Differences							Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	df	
					Lower	Upper			
Pair 1: Experimental	OF Pre-test scores - OF Post-test scores	-1.80	1.29	.26	-2.33	-1.27	-6.98	24	.00
Pair 2: Control	OF Pre-test scores - OF Post-test scores	-.24	.72	.15	-.54	.06	-1.66	24	.11

By looking at the column for means in the above table, one can easily infer that across all twenty five subjects in the experimental group, level of achievement increased (1.8 points on average) after receiving the treatment. Since the p value for pair 1 (i.e. experimental group's pretest and posttest) in the table (.00) is much less than the specified level of significance (i.e. .05), it is concluded that there is a significant difference between the participants in terms of their oral fluency before implementing the treatment and after that. In regard to the pair 2 (i.e. control group's pretest and posttest); the p value (.11) is greater than the specified level of significance (.05). Accordingly, the conclusion would be

that there is no significant difference between the participants in term of oral fluency within the control group who did not receive any explicit instruction on face threatening strategies.

To compare the results of oral fluency tests for the intermediate and advanced levels, the difference between the participants' performance on the pretest and posttest was calculated. The descriptive statistics are depicted in Table 8 below.

TABLE 8.
DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS OF DIFFERENCES IN ALL GROUPS OF THE STUDY

Level	Group	N	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
Intermediate	Experimental	25	4.88	.410	2.048	-.837	.360
	Control	25	.16	.170	.850	-.768	.063
Advanced	Experimental	25	1.80	.258	1.291	.152	1.000
	Control	25	.72	.147	.737	-.848	.994

of all data sets was rather symmetrical around the mean and Kurtosis values were below 1.0, indicating that the distributions tend to be mesokurtic (i.e., normal). The greatest and the lowest mean scores of the differences between posttest and pretest were 4.88 and 1.80 in intermediate experimental and advanced experimental groups respectively. The mean scores of the differences between posttest and pretest in control groups for both intermediate and advanced levels were found to be negligible. In other words, in both language proficiency levels, the oral fluency scores of the participants in experimental groups improved after receiving explicit instruction on face threatening strategies. Meanwhile, the amount of improvement of oral fluency for the intermediate experimental group (4.88, on average) was higher than that of the advanced experimental group (1.80 points, on average).

In order to investigate whether the difference between the mean scores of the oral fluency improvement in advanced and intermediate experimental groups is statistically significant or not, an Independent Samples t-Test was actually conducted at (0.05) level of significance. They are presented in Table 9 below results.

TABLE 9.
INDEPENDENT SAMPLES T-TEST FOR ADVANCED AND INTERMEDIATE EXPERIMENTAL GROUPS

	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-ailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Equal variances assumed	4.74	.03	6.36	48	.00	3.08	.48	2.11	4.05
Equal variances not assumed			6.36	40.48	.00	3.08	.48	2.10	4.06

The results revealed that the two groups were found significantly different from one another. The reason was that the p value of the test (0.00) was much less than the specified level of significance (0.05); consequently, the assumption of equality of the differences between means was rejected and there was a significant difference in the amount of oral fluency improvement in both intermediate and advanced experimental groups.

IV. DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Notably, the main objective of the study was to investigate whether explicit instruction of FTA strategies improves oral fluency of EFL students with different proficiency levels or not. A carefully designed pretest, posttest control group design was used and the outcome-that is, oral fluency of the learners was observed by manipulating the independent variable (1.e., explicit instruction of FTA strategies).

First in order to determine the students' language proficiency and also the homogeneity of both groups an independent language t-test was taken from them and language proficiency of intermediate with the p value being (0.49) and advanced with the p value of (0.83), also proved the homogeneity of both classes. Before giving the treatment to the experimental students and the control group which was taught in the conventional way, a pre-test was taken from them to evaluate their oral fluency. The pre-test mean score of intermediate group being (11.28) and the advanced being (10.80) was nearly close to each other. After the treatment to the experimental groups and the control groups were taught in the conventional way the same pre-test was taken from them in which the order of the questions was changed and was taken after a month. The results of the posttest for the control group being (11.04) and the experimental group being (16.16) showed the effect of the explicit teaching of FTA. The results showed that level of achievement increased by 4.88 points for the experimental group after receiving the treatment.

As it was mentioned by Villaume and Brabham (2003) active communication and interaction between teacher and student is a crucial element. The dynamic and interactive relationship fosters flexible and responsive instruction which was used accordingly in light of the research as the method of teaching. Also as Blair (2007) mentioned, strategy learning is a necessity for control and direction by the teacher and can be obtained by using explicit instruction. As it

has been mentioned explicit instruction in our research lead to more learner fluency in oral production. Giving continued practice and successive exposure to the targeted tasks (Samuels, 2006) in the study lead to automaticity and fluency in the results. By giving explicit FTA instruction to the students we gave them the opportunity to practice them to become automatic (Kuhn & Stahl, 2003; Rasinski, 2006). The explicit instruction given to the students lead to consciousness raising in using FTA knowledge (Sharwood Smith, 1981).

A reason for communication breakdown has been investigated and mentioned by (BlumKulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cohen & Olshtain, 1985) which is in light with the 4.88 point increase in oral fluency by student who were taught FTA explicitly. It is stated that L2 speakers lack of pragmatic competence results in pragmatic failure which Leech (1983) say that it is in the failure of transfer of norms of a language to another which leads to communication breakdown and hesitation in speaking which by teaching them was overcome. The chance of offending someone depends on face-threatening acts, so by knowing them you can overcome the offensive usage and be more fluent.

The necessity of explicit instruction on L2 pragmatics has become more important in recent years by the results of studies (Martinez- Flor et al, 2003; Kasper & Rose, 2002) which this study approves and is in the same line. Studies showed that L2 learners who were given FTA instruction on pragmatics features were more capable of handling face threatening situations (Takahashi, 2001; Rose and Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001, Safont, 2005) which in the case of our experimental group this was proven by the increase in fluency. As Eslami-rasekh and Mardani, 2010 report that EFL learners' L2 pragmatic needs go unnoticed in the Iranian foreign language contexts. The result of that was an insufficiently developed L2 pragmatic interlanguage which as the result of FTA explicit instruction can be overcome to help avoid pragmatic failure.

Teaching explicit FTA can be part of the pragmatic activities that can help learners internalize the needed input information also mentioned by (Takimoto, 2009; Yaqubi, 2012). Results of their studies proved that explicit instruction of L2 pragmatic features reflected that developing learners' knowledge of pragmatic rules can affect learners' skills in performing communicative needs. The results of our study also supported this idea and the increase in oral fluency by FTA knowledge was a proof to the idea. Studies point to the relation between learners' level of English proficiency in using pragmatic competence in communication using politeness speech acts (Ghobadi & Fahim, 2009) had been of concern in the past, which now it proves that lack of knowledge of FTA can effect communication and slow the procedure down. As was proven explicit L2 instruction improved L2 learners' communication too which was pointed by (Tateyama, 2001).

As for most studies which were concerned with the efficacious of explicit instruction in learning and teaching of different language components or major skills (Baumann & Duffy, 1997; Rupley, Blair & Nichols, 2009), which till now not a lot of research was done on explicit instruction of face threatening acts. By this research it is proved that explicit teaching in language components like FTA can improve a language skill which in this case is their oral fluency.

Globalization and the existence variety of communities with different cultures signify that, politeness is realized differently. As it has been indicated by researchers, politeness in different cultures can cause miscommunication. Lack of knowledge in this phenomenon can lead to violation of politeness which will cause failure in communication and fluency. Knowing FTA's will lead to being realized as the same social level, involvement in communication, not losing face and oral fluency. This can be overcome by developing interaction skills and social devices which are FTA's taught to reach fluency goals in this research.

Teaching FTA acts explicitly in light of the researches is to increase awareness and consciousness so that they are easier to preform and increase fluency. As it has also been indicated by research, explicit instruction involves conscious operation and efficacious in terms of fluency. Direct explicit communication and active supervised practices is associated with automaticity and fluency. Teaching explicitly is more effective for struggling students in which this research also proves that explicit FTA had more effect on the intermediate level in comparison to the advance.

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Theory and Practice in Language Studies (TPLS) is a peer-reviewed international journal dedicated to promoting scholarly exchange among teachers and researchers in the field of language studies. The journal is published monthly.

TPLS carries original, full-length articles and short research notes that reflect the latest developments and advances in both theoretical and practical aspects of language teaching and learning. We particularly encourage articles that share an interdisciplinary orientation, articles that bridge the gap between theory and practice, and articles in new and emerging areas of research that reflect the challenges faced today.

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